STUDY OF SOCIO-ECONOMIC AND POLITICAL DEVELOPMENTS OF THE HYDERABAD STATE (1948 CE - 1956 CE)

Thesis Submitted for the Award of the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

IN

HISTORY

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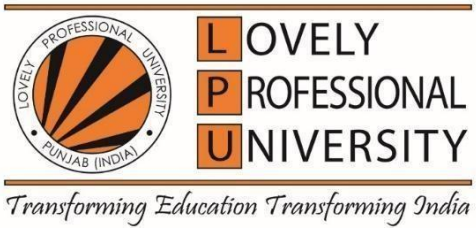
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2026

Declaration

I, hereby declared that the presented work in the thesis entitled "**Study of Socio-Economic and Political developments of Hyderabad State (1948 CE -1956 CE)**" in fulfilment of degree of **Doctor of Philosophy (Ph. D)** is outcome of research work carried out by me under the supervision of Dr. Santosh Kumar Yadav, Assistant Professor, Department of History/School of Social Science of Lovely Professional University, Punjab, India. In keeping with general practice of reporting scientific observations, due acknowledgements have been made whenever work described here has been based on findings of another investigator. This work has not been submitted in part or full to any other University or Institute for the award of any degree.



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Certificate

This is to certify that the work reported in the Ph. D. thesis entitled **"Study of Socio-Economic and Political developments of the Hyderabad State (1948 CE-1956 CE)"** submitted in fulfillment of the requirement for the award of degree of **Doctor of Philosophy (Ph. D)** in the Department of History/ School of Social Sciences, is a research work carried out by Rooman Roy Chowdhury (Registration No. 42000549), is Bonafide record of his/her original work carried out under my supervision and that no part of thesis has been submitted for any other degree, diploma or equivalent course.



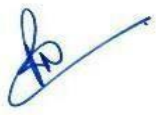
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ROOMAN ROY CHOWDHURY

Preface

The intervening years from 1948 CE to 1956 CE focuses on the accession of erstwhile Hyderabad State to the Indian Union and the political, administrative, social and economic changes, that occurred thereafter, within the state. The period encompasses a chain of singular events that shaped many future discourses of erstwhile Hyderabad state's polity, society and economy. To begin with, the Hyderabad state was integrated, by the use of force. The accession of the state had to be realized through a military intervention, code named 'Operation Polo', but christened in normal parlance as police action that ended the autocratic rule of the Nizam. An analysis of the events that followed the military action, show the preponderance of the policy initiatives of the central government in establishing stability and conformity in the state at the earliest, by installing a military/civil administration headed by Gen. J.N. Choudhary, the officer in charge of commandeering the 'Operation Polo'. Gen. Choudhary's government had the mandate to restore normalcy at the earliest on all fronts- law and order, administration, polity and economy and when these initial gains were realized a changeover from military government to a civilian administration was initiated under an appointed Chief Minister, a civil servant, Mr. M.K. Vellodi. Mr. Vellodi oversaw the transition to the first democratically elected government, in the state in 1952 CE under Chief Minister Elect - Burgula Ramakrishna Rao. The period abounds in structural land and tenancy reforms, redrawing the socio- economic identities, and relationships that marked the distinctive composite culture, aristocratic order, and social hierarchy of the region. As the old structures got contested and reconstituted, new forces emerged both politically and economically, which gave vent to the rights movement of the local v/s the non-local (especially in terms of education and employment) also known as the Mulki agitation, laying foundation to the future Telangana struggle. This was also the preparatory period for the States Reorganization Act of 1956 that reorganized the state boundaries on the basis of linguistic distinctions, which actually led to the dissolution of Hyderabad State into three linguistic divisions- Telugu, Marathi and Kannada. The creation of Andhra Pradesh was another odd feather added to the cap of the state. Integral to Hyderabad's transformation was the intriguing nature of its last princely ruler, the Nizam Mir Osman Ali Khan. A dynast of considerable lineage, with over three decades of experience in politics and administration of a vast powerful resource rich diverse region, it remains an area of inquiry, to the dilemmas of the ruler,

that led him to stall the smooth transition of power in the first instance. Everyone knew, more so him, as he accepted the change eventually, that the integration of Hyderabad- one of the largest, resourceful and more importantly influential princely state was fundamental to the unity and territorial integrity of the new republic of India.

Abstract

The history of the Hyderabad state from its inception in 1724 CE to dissolution in 1956 CE is a chequered tale of transformations which had a great impact on the identity of the state. No scholar or historian has ever contested the geo- strategic significance of the state but at the same time, there are many perspectives to its identity. Founded in 1591 CE by the Qutub Shahis, the city of Hyderabad evolved in to a state during the reign of the successor Asaf Jahi's dynasty. In fact, the rise and fall of the princely state, in colonial India is synonymous with the rise and fall of the Asaf Jahi dynasty. During its princely existence, the State comprised of three distinct ethno-geographic regions namely, the Marathwada region, Karnataka and present-day Telangana. Founded by Nizam-ul-Mulk Asaf Jah I, one of the dynamic rulers who emerged during the challenging times following the passing of Aurangzeb, and beginning of disintegration of the Mughal empire, Hyderabad state experienced its first political changeover in 1798 CE, when it entered into an offensive defensive treaty with the East India Company. Subsequent treaties systematically eroded the sovereign status of the Nizam, making the state acquire a vassal position in British colonial India and the ruler a nominal authority. These were conflicting times for the state, contrary to popular belief, and despite facing severe financial crisis and constantly submitting, many a times against their sovereign will, to the diktats of the British Resident, the representative of the colonial power in Hyderabad, the state walked the path of proactive politics and responsible administration. The reigns of Nasir-ud-Daula, Afzal-ud- Daula, and Mir Mahboob Ali Khan were the periods when the state saw revival of its economic fortunes and also political standing. The rulers were aided during this period by one of the finest administrators of the Deccan Sir Salar Jung I. Such was the established state of affairs when Mir Osman Ali Khan, Asaf Jah VII, the last of the Nizam's, ascended the throne in 1911 CE. His Kingdom aided the British Government in both World War I and II. Osman Ali Khan's demeanor was a stark departure from that of his predecessors. Osman Ali Khan was typical and atypical statesman of his times who exhibited the characteristics of a feudal aristocrat and was also open to change modernization demanded by evolving time. His reign was marked by many reforms in administration, polity, welfare, education etc. The end days of his rule was characterized by three major events: spurt of communalism owing to the activities of the Razakkars, Majlis-i-

Ittehad-ul-Muslimi and Arya Samaj, the Communist uprising in the Telangana region, and the subsequent military confrontation with the Indian Union. These events ushered in a new chapter for the state after its accession. This is a complex period that remains under-researched by historians in a comprehensive manner. The present study aims at analyzing the socio-economic and political developments in independent Hyderabad state from1948 CE-1956 CE. It is aimed at understanding the, evolution of the State, socio-economic institutions of the period, the machinery of governance, and how in the context of states reorganization, the State was transformed after joining India.The inquiry seeks to highlight primarily the process of assimilation of the Hyderabad State and subsequently the emergence of Hyderabad as a modern capital city with a rich cultural mosaic encapsulating the period from 1948 CE-1956 CE. The study proposes to enrich the discipline though scholastic work involving research paper and book publications. As the research entails a detailed analysis of the socio-political-economic conditions, existing during the period, it will help future scholars, the academia and the personal in governance at large to develop a holistic understanding of the interim, but critical period of transition of Hyderabad State The period (1948 CE-1956 CE) witnessed the historical transition of the Independent State of Hyderabad and the study aims to delineate the phases of this administrative assimilation. The study underlines the major economic and socio-cultural configuration that occurred in the Hyderabad State during the interim period amidst considerable social upheaval. Subsequently there was trifurcation of the State, followed by its merger with the newly formed linguistic state of Andhra to be called as Andhra Pradesh. This had a major national impact signaling geo- political re- alignment resulting out of the linguistic re- organization of the states of India. The city of Hyderabad which emerged as the capital of Telugu speaking state of Andhra Pradesh was in essence a cultural mosaic and the above study's aim is to describe the emerging scenario. Finally, the primary outcome of the study is aimed at analyzing in depth the period of transition and assimilation (1948 CE-1956 CE) of the erstwhile state of Hyderabad in all its aspects: economic, political, administrative, and cultural.

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CHAPTER - I

Introduction- Evolution of Hyderabad State

India's independence in 1947 ended a long era of British colonial rule. Yet, this freedom did not immediately extend to the people of Hyderabad State, whose ruler asserted his own independence, leading people to continue their struggle. When India was partitioned into the dominions of India and Pakistan, the approximately 560 princely states were expected to join either India or Pakistan, depending on their geographic continuity and demographic affinity. Most states did so. However, the Nizam of Hyderabad chose to be independent. This decision caused significant unrest and initiated a prolonged popular struggle. The situation ultimately resolved through a military intervention known as the Police Action on Hyderabad in September 1948 CE, which resulted in the State acceding to the Indian Union. The period from September 1948 CE to November 1956 CE was a period of establishing stability to the new state integrated into the Indian Union in all its socio- economic political aspects. The integration of Hyderabad state, has been viewed from many theoretical perspectives, ranging from decolonization, to subversion of regional identities to an overwhelming national narrative, to position of Muslims as minorities who were displaced from position of power with the fall of the Nizams, broad framework of national reconstruction set within the context of States Re- Organization in post independent India and inter- play of various other identities, like culture, language, socio-economic dynamics.

The present study aims at analyzing the eight-year post-accession period in the light of the political, economic and social developments in the Hyderabad State from1948 CE-1956 CE. The study begins with an historical overview of the evolution of the independent state of Hyderabad from 1724 CE to 1948 CE, and proceeds to offering an understanding of the deconstruction of the incumbent political system and administration and simultaneously the process of administrative, economic and political integration of the state, into the Democratic Republic of India. A concise comprehension of this phase is crucial as it helps to identify the challenges faced and opportunities realized in the process, as the Nizam's administration was feudal in character but modern and evolving in organizational structure and operation. The study also seeks to identify the socio-economic institutions of the period, on which rested the

feudal structure and understand the impact of accession on those institutions, along with a comparative study of the state's rural/urban economy policies. Nizam, who represented the political apparatus, his role in the new emerging democratic political setup is another key area of this study. Lastly, the inquiry seeks to highlight the position of the Hyderabad state in independent India and subsequently, its emergence as the capital city of Vishal Andhra with a rich cultural mosaic encapsulating the above-mentioned period and one which it was at odds at with respect to its own identity and character.

Review of Literature

As India stood on the brink of its independence, the future of the princely states once the British left India, became a matter of concern. Hitherto these princely states had enjoyed varying degrees of autonomy under the system of British paramountcy. Many of the prominent princely states resisted the transfer of paramountcy to the newly formed state of India and Pakistan. Hyderabad state being one of them. The Nizam had steadfastly opposed, the merger of Hyderabad with the Union of India. Eventually, the police action by the Indian Union on the princely State of Hyderabad, termed 'Operation Polo', resulted in the surrender of the Nizams forces led by its commander Major General Syed Ahmed El Edroos to the Indian army on September 17th, 1948 CE. Though the Nizam's administration since the mid-19th century had endeavoured to modernize the state in the sectors of – finance, legislation, administration, education, resource management, etc., in 1947, the princely state found itself at odds with the growing demand for democracy and popular government. In the above context, a number of well-known historians/scholars have contributed to this discourse and enriched the writings on the history of Hyderabad.

In the writings of the following authors and writers, one can witness the vivid picture of a state replete with cosmopolitan features in its urban/city space reflecting modernity, inclusivity, and dynamism and also displaying characteristic feudal features which permeated through every aspect of the state's rural/periphery regions. The review of literature traces chronologically the academic writings through the pre - colonial, colonial period and then further to the conflicted time of independence to accession. For instance, in the colonial history of Hyderabad, the British Resident played a pivotal role in defining the character of Nizam British relations in the run up to the signing of the subsidiary alliance treaty. The entire process is detailed in "*Nizam-British Relations 1724-1857*" (1963) by Sarojini Regani. Her book provides details of the tenuous

diplomatic relationship that existed between the British and the Nizam, and provides a strong foundation to understanding the nature of political system and governance in the state during the colonial era.

"*Nizam - between the Mughals and the British",* (1986) and "*The Last Nizam- The Life and times of Mir Osman Ali Khan"* (1991) authored by V.K Bawa examines in the first book, the intricate political landscape of Hyderabad, focusing on the pivotal role of Salar Jung I as an efficient administrator cum statesman and in the second book, illustrates the challenges the state faced in the context of growing democratic and nationalist movements, in the closing years of the Nizams rule.

In the "*Profile of Secular and Transparent Hyderabad under Nizam VII*", (2014) the author Sheela Raj states that - The former State was the one of the largest, foremost States of British India. The State witnessed a tremendous socio-economic, cultural change in the late nineteenth and early twentieth century. It is not a matter of contest that the ruling family of the day, the Asaf Jahi's strove to continuously transform the State. From the first act to separate Executive from Judiciary, develop Nationalized Industry, set up Road Transport Corporation, Railways Network, Airlines and a University, the seventh Nizam worked for all-round development.

History of Hyderabad -

The "*City of Legends"*, (1992) by Ian Austin, provides an engrossing narrative that vividly recounts the lives of the influential personalities who forged Hyderabad's history.

In Another important work that showcases the history of the region is *"Hyderabad – 400 years- Saga of a City"*, (1993) edited by Prof. Seshan, K.S.S is a collection of papers that explores the diverse socio- economic-political academic and cultural forces shaping life in Hyderabad, demonstrating its unique composite culture, which was the result of dynamic interaction between native and non-native communities in a multilingual environment.

Narendra Luther, former chief secretary of undivided Andhra Pradesh, was an administrator cum poet, and a writer who wrote very prolifically on the history of Hyderabad and his books provide information about the state, through the medium of local tales, narratives and legends. His "*Memoirs of a City, Hyderabad*," (1995) is an important work that lucidly captures the many local narratives in Hyderabad's history,

in a manner that qualifies scholarly rigour. It provides an opportunity for readers to know the lives and achievements of the people who contributed to the region's history.

Highlighting the inclusive nature of governance during the Nizam's administration in the "*The Seventh Nizam of Hyderabad- An Archival Appraisal*" (2002) Dr. Syed Dawood Ashraf offers archival insights into the propagation of education for all and ecclesiastical work of the Nizam and his dynasty, through the Farman's (Royal Decrees), Asaf Jahi Records, Daftar, Secretarial records, Muntakhabajats (Inam Certificates) over the long period of their rule.

Another aspect of the state's inclusivity can be found in the state's architectural landscape. The state had a wide spread of buildings both public and private which were a picture of fusion where buildings depicted Indo- Islamic, Hindu, Persian and European style of architecture. The structures not only added diversity to the landscape but also became testimonials to sagas, as such depicted in "*White Mughals"* (2002) a book by William Dalrymple which renewed interest in restoring the British Residency (now Telangana Mahila Viswavidyalayam, or Koti Women's College) because the opulent mansion was the scene of the unique cross-cultural love story and marriage between the British Resident, James Achilles Kirkpatrick, and the Hyderabadi noblewoman, Khair-un-Nissa Begum. The book brought global attention to the building's historical significance, leading to its inclusion on the World Monuments Watch list in 2002, spurring a two-decades-long restoration project completed in early 2023.

Period of Conflict and Accession- A contested narrative emerges in the continuous discourse on the historical political standing of Hyderabad State during India's independence. Scholars with nationalistic view, have been critical of the Nizam government's handling of the issue of integration/accession into the Indian Union, despite possessing awareness of the futility of such an endeavour to be an independent, sovereign within a sovereign Indian Union.

"*The Indian States and Government of India*", (1932) by K.M. Panikkar, highlights the complexities of integration due to the structure of British Colonial India, which comprised of areas directly governed by the British and simultaneously a large part of India was under the nominal rule of 'Princely Sovereigns'. A semi- international law which governed the relation between the British Paramount power and the Princely

states, created problems of interpretation of this law, when British Paramountcy lapsed on India gaining independence. The Union of India was a new entity, for these native princes, and therefore states like Hyderabad, exerted their aspiration to continue as independent sovereign state, resulting in a confrontation with the central government.

"*The Transfer of Power in India*", (1957) by V.P. Menon, former secretary to the Government of India, Ministry of States, along with Sardar Vallabh Bhai Patel was the draftsman of India's integration of princely states saga. His work is seminal as it gives detailed firsthand account of evolution of Indias constitutional history and give exhaustive accounts of the events that occurred during the accession period.

"*End of an Era*", (1957) by K.M. Munshi, the agent – general of Hyderabad gives a detailed account of Hyderabad's accession.

"*Freedom Struggle in Hyderabad*", ed., (1966) by N. Ramesan (Volume III and IV) and "*The Highlights of Freedom Struggle in AP"* (1972) by Sarojini Regani provide similar insights sourcing archival records. The authors highlight the many contradictions in the stand taken by the Nizam, during this period. They also point to a flood of (mis)-information that enveloped this period, for both quarters but more on the side of the Nizam. The evidence of this can be, sourced from the stand of the Nizam on the Razakars. The view of the central government on the activities of this organization and its leader Qasim Rizvi and that of the Nizam and his senior administrators on the same, literally sealed the deal against the Nizam.

"*Pilgrimage to freedom*" (2012) by K.M. Munshi, is politico-biographical in nature and the author uses his administrative, legal, diplomatic and constitutional expertise which have helped him to present facts about the period from extremely close quarters. However, one finds the note of nationalistic tinge in his observations and surmises, but his work is significant as it is laden with personal correspondences with national leaders of significance and princely state heads. These definitely provide a scholar with insights into the many discussions, perspectives, apprehensions, readings of the then political situations by the leaders that shaped India's destiny and also the destiny of her states.

However, scholars/administrators who have written and commented on the same and sympathetic to the position of the Nizam, and mostly from the region have taken a view contrary to the mainstream narrative and have demonstrated how the police action of 1948 CE, was a blatant violation of international norms of fair jurisprudence and an

attack on sovereign status of Hyderabad State.

In the "Tragedy *of Hyderabad*" (2011) Mir Laik Ali, the former prime minister of the state of Hyderabad gives an emotional account of the days in the run up to the accession of the state. His dedication of the book to 'the tens of thousands dead and many more still suffering in silence for their struggle in the cause of Hyderabad' presents an account of an ex-officio. In this account, Hyderabad and India appear as two separate entities, the merger of which was undesirable from all aspects. Laik Ali himself, has had questionable dealings that needed answering in courts of law, before his escape to Pakistan.

Similarly, in the book "*Hyderabad 1948- An Avoidable Invasion"* (2017) *by* Syed Ali Hashmin the author, squarely states that police action was a misnomer, that it was a full-blown invasion by Indian army, and in the wake of the invasion, atrocities were committed on Muslim residents, and that the Nizam was betrayed not only by the Union dispensation but also, by members of his own government.

In "Sovereignty and the End of Empire: The Transition to Independence in Colonial Hyderabad", (2018) Datla, Saraswati Kavita makes the case of Hyderabad's bid to retain independence and therefore its attempts to find political and legal course, for the same. The author draws parallels from historical precedents, in British Commonwealth and states that a *federated South Asian Union* was perceived by certain sections of the populace in Hyderabad, in the given context of a diverse nation now constitutionally governed and the kind of prospects of political changes in years to come.

Another perspective that held credence in this debate, was the position of the Union government of India on what constituted the vision of a unified India, against the position of states like Hyderabad which resisted accession in the name of unique regional, cultural, historical and political identity. In his article, 'Political Historiography and Regional Identities in Independent India: A Special Reference to the Hyderabad State' (2025) in Journal of Rural South Asian Studies Ashwini Khandekar states that, there is a need of nuanced understanding of regional identities and their political expressions that cannot be overwhelmed in national narratives. The later Telangana struggle became a testimony to the recognition of that identity.

Many unpublished works of scholars who have undertaken detailed study and analyses of different sectors and sections like- administrative structure, migration,

commerce, and education have aided future scholars to develop their lines of study and analysis like the Ph.D. dissertations of scholars like R. Laxman Reddy's dissertation titled 'Growth of Urbanization in Hyderabad State (1891 CE-1950 CE)',
K. Rajendra Prasad's work titled "Sunshine and Shadows - The years of Direct Administration of Nizam VII of Hyderabad (1914 CE-1918 CE)", R. Jayaram's dissertation titled "Administrative systems under the Nizams (1853CE-1935 CE)" with the focus Marathwada region of Nizams dominion, and Dharmendra Prasad's work on Socio-Cultural geography of Hyderabad City -A Historical perspective", etc. throw significant light on the bygone era.

Transition period- Literature on the transition period have primarily focused on the factors leading to the rise of Telangana movement. A few which have addressed the period as a whole have presented a very overarching perspective or in certain cases have viewed the transition from the point of view of India's colonial history, constitutionality, issue of Muslim minority and legal status of the transitioning state of Hyderabad. Most Scholars have referred to this period in passing, when dealing with aspects affecting the region, like for instance those who have taken up the study of commerce, industry, migration trends, study of tribal politics and identities of the region.

"*Hyderabad after the Fall*", (1988) by Omar Khalidi, provides information on the impact of Police Action. The period was critical for many residents of the city and the state, due to their religious identity. The tales of loot, arson, killings, migration of the community (Muslims) and the eventual changes that occurred in the society of Hyderabad are clearly detailed in this work.

In the article, 'The integration of the princely state of Hyderabad and the making of the postcolonial state in India, 1948–56' in Indian Economic and Social History Review (2007) Prof. Taylor C. Sherman from Department of International History, London School of Economics and Political Science, writes about the impact of police action, the problem of dealing with communism in Hyderabad in the early days of the accession, and how the integration of Hyderabad into the Indian Union represented one of the key goals of the Jawahar Lal Nehru government. The article refers to annexing Hyderabad, and challenges faced by the government of India with reference to the administrative, law and order apparatus of the independent state, navigate communal issues when social relations were shifting among citizens. Citing correspondences between the functionaries the author contends that those early years of Independent

Hyderabad should be seen as dynamic events towards nation building considering the States Reorganization Commission recommendations coming about in the near future, rather than a period of continuity and stability inherited from the colonial state.

In another article titled, 'Migration, Citizenship, and Belonging in Hyderabad (Deccan) 2010, in Modern Asian Studies, Cambridge University Press, Prof. Taylor C. Sherman addresses the issue of migration, seen through the lens of the non- Indian origin personnel who had migrated to Hyderabad, during the time of Asaf Jahi's and had to encounter trials of another regime after the collapse of the princely state. The nationalities included were Arabs, Afghans, Africans and others. Their foreign origin and religious affiliation, the author concludes played a significant role in the repatriation policies framed to deport them from Hyderabad. However, he also notes that in certain cases the migrants were able circumvent the entire process to self- benefit too and assume new identities and privileges in the now independent state of Hyderabad and also within India.

Sara Waheed in her book chapter, titled 'After Hyderabad's 1948 Annexation: Muslim Belonging and Histories of The Long Partition' in the book Citizenship, Belonging and the Partition of India (2024) draws on events associated with police action to place the Muslim community in the context of a secular India and makes references to the party AIMIM-which came into being in Hyderabad to provide a platform to the Muslim voices in the state, as demands for integration with India grew and establishment of democratic government, as that would undermine the political standing of the community.

Emanuela Mangiarotti, in her article 'Communal Conflicts and Political Transitions: The Case of Hyderabad State (1935-1948)' in Politico (2024), also addresses the issue of rise of communalism in the state during the accession, and challenges faced to counter the issues states that socio- political activism occurred along communal lines and electoral democracy triggered communal conflicts in the state. Throughout references in either books or journals, one witnesses a polarizing pattern in describing events related to Hyderabad in this critical period. Hence, a necessary task, to not only sift through the articles but also in the spirit of academic rigour, constantly triangulate the data gathered for analysis. Many authors have appeared to be apologists in the process. (Satyanarayana, 2022)

Along with the above, public documents published during the transition period like

reports on General Administration, Land Administration, Agriculture, Economy, Labour, Supplements Gazette notifications, Census, G. O's have provided a mine field of information on the working of the different political dispensations of that time. Currently, archival data, they provide a substantial information on the policies and programmes of the military, civilian and popular government. Point to note here is that, utilization of this data, puts forward only the perspective of the state, and needs to be corroborated and triangulated from independent sources. Data acquired from information in the form of letters of correspondence and minutes of meetings and impact studies undertaken especially in the agrarian, rural and land reform sectors of the welfare policies on the people, have been utilized as corroborative data to ascertain the authenticity of the primary data.

Research Gap

The process of integration of the princely states, was carried out by the Department of Ministries of State, Government of India under the stewardship of home minister Sardar Vallabhai Patel and V.P. Menon secretary to the ministry. The ruler of Hyderabad state, Mir Osman Ali Khan had initially resisted the accession of the state to the Indian Union. His rule was the most eventful of his predecessors and also prophetic. His dynasty carried the prophecy of seven loaves i.e. the dynasty would see only seven ruling heads. As such when he ascended the throne, the long-chequered history of the Asaf Jahi dynasty came to an end, fulfilling the prophecy of seven loaves. But the prophecy aside, the integration of the Hyderabad state was a long drawn-out process that lasted over a year from signing of the standstill agreement with the Union government in 1947 CE to Operation Polo in 1948 CE leading to the accession of the state. The caretaker governments at Hyderabad post 1948 CE, installed by the Union were initially a part military then a civil and lastly a popular government which during the next eight years introduced many structural changes in the state. These changes not only impacted aspects of the state's administration, society, culture and economy internally, but also transformed the physical boundaries of the state following the recommendations of the States Reorganization Commission headed by Fazl Ali. Scholars across the board have studied various aspects/sectors of this period for instance - administration, urbanization, migration, rural indebtedness, education, accession etc. Primary research for the period under study has focused on factors leading to rise of the Telangana movement, Mulki agitation, status and development policies of tribes, and marginalization of the minority community. No existing study is present that provides a holistic approach to, the post

accession scenario of the State of Hyderabad under Nawab Mir Osman Ali Khan. The present work aims to provide a comprehensive perspective of the period, an analysis of the regional, economic, social and political aspects of the post-accession period and also highlight certain lesser-known histories of the said period and close the research gap.

Research Objectives

1. To understand the emergence of Independent Hyderabad State in 1948 CE.
2. To delineate the process of Political and Administrative deconstruction in the post-accession period.
3. To study the realignment of socio-economic institutions during the period and their impact.
4. To draw a comparative analysis of the socio-economic policies of rural/urban Hyderabad State.
5. To comprehend the nature and role of the Nizam as the Rajpramukh during the period
6. To study of the nature and position of Hyderabad in post-independent India.

Research Methodology

The present study is using the qualitative methodology of historical approach to analyze the socio-economic and political developments in the independent state of Hyderabad between 1948 CE-1956 CE. This analytical study is completely based on archival documentary evidence and published/unpublished documented literature, of the period under study. As this, study involves interpreting the documentary evidence and analyzing the events that occurred in the time period of the study to gain a comprehensive understanding of the events, the method of historical approach allows one to reconstruct the events as they happened providing the historical context and also implications of it experienced, in the times to come. The methodology followed the emergence of Independent State of Hyderabad with an understanding of the stages of its evolution, which included analysis of the post accession change in political and administrative system involving study of deconstruction of existing political and administrative apparatus and constitution of the new democratic apparatus. The resultant socio- economic change was highlighted by a comparative analysis of changes in the caste and land ownership structures and policies operational in Rural and Urban Hyderabad. The pen-ultimate chapters dealt with Nizam as Rajpramukh and highlights the cultural mosaic of the city as it evolved. The data for the inquiry was sourced from public records, state/ national archives, libraries, newspaper archives, and

historical society offices and an informal questionnaire was prepared to record observations of select respondents. It was both in printed and electronic (Digitized and Internet-transmitted) form. The nature of this archival and documentary data was in the form of correspondence or collections of public records like administrative reports, assembly debates, home department files and collection of private records. Finding and gaining access to the archives was the first step. Once access was obtained, the necessary materials belonging to the period under study was identified, categorized, and converted into data that was then be analyzed. The study employed the following tools during data collection- excel sheets, diagrams, maps, cam-scanner, audio recorder, questionnaire. Data collection was followed by documentary and recorded observation analysis. The analytic procedure entailed finding, selecting, appraising and synthesizing data contained in documents. The researcher refined and critically analyzed the data collected and compiled it in thesis form. For this study, the archival documents have been perused at Telangana state archives/National archives(online)/English daily archives/digital files. Salar Jung museum library/Maitri Bhavan/Records provided by govt official /State Central Library and recorded observation of select respondent through informal questionnaire. The secondary data comprising of Journal articles, website sources, scholarly work of historians, books written on the above area or providing passing reference for the same, have been utilized for the study. A partially structured questionnaire was used to gain information from persons of interest, that brought into play the important role of interpreting memories to gain insight of the period. The scholar is well aware of the shortcomings of the approach in terms of availability of appropriate data for study and that the study is representation of the scholar's framework, yet constant attempt was made to approach the study with complete academic rigour and maintain objectivity.

Historical Background of the Hyderabad State

The historical roots of Hyderabad begin with the founding of the city in 1591 CE by Qutub Shahi ruler, Mohammed Quli Qutub Shah. He was the dynasty's fifth ruler and the metropolis was constructed to mark the splendour of his reign and the zenith of Qutub Shahi rule in the Deccan. The long-standing capital of the Qutub Shahi's was Golconda with its impregnable fort known as the Golconda Fort. The mud and brick construction built by former rulers of the region namely the Kakatiya's was fortified

and expanded by the fourth and fifth Qutub Shahi sultans Ibrahim Quli Qutub and Mohammed Quli Qutub Shah respectively. As the township grew propelled by expanding trade and commercial activity and migration of foreigners and native Indians from other parts of the country to Deccan, a need arose to consider decongesting the capital and establishing a new city. A large area on the banks of river Musi, towards its southern corner was chosen and a new capital city was built. The city laid out in grid pattern was adorned with buildings having exquisite architecture, public gardens, large public squares, and monuments. As to the name Hyderabad, Jean Baptiste Tavernier, French merchant/explorer visiting the city observed that the natives called it Bhagya Nagar and Persian's 'Aidarabad'. The name Bhagnagar or Bhagya Nagar is seen as an ode to Mohammed Quli Qutub Shah's favourite courtesan Bhagmati, later entitled Hyder Mahal. (Satyanarayana, 2022)

The city's rise to prominence, from a metropolis to becoming the State of Hyderabad, occurred during the reign of the subsequent dynasty of the Asaf Jah's. The State developed from the eighteenth-century Deccan Suba of the Mughals, an administrative unit of the period which composed of Hyderabad, Berar, Bijapur, Bidar, Aurangabad and Khandesh. (Raj S. , 2014) The dominions of the State then, comprised of the present-day Telangana, the districts of Gulbarga, Bidar and Raichur within the geographical areas of Karnataka and Marathwada which included the key urban centers of Manmad, Aurangabad, Nanded, Barsi, Parbhani, Sholapur, Osmanabad, and Akalkot of Maharashtra.

Sitting on an extensive plateau with an average elevation of about 1,250 feet, the State formed a lateral square situated between 15°10' and 21°40' north latitude and between 74°40' and 81°35' east longitude. A trigonometrical survey of the region showed the area to be a polygonal tract of land with an area of 82,698 square miles sitting in the centre of the deccan plateau. The state was boxed in by Bombay province in the north and west and Madras province in the south and east. (Khan G. A., 1931) One could compare the size of the state to be five times of Switzerland, equivalent to France and total area of England and Scotland put together. The state measured 456 miles from east to west and 384 miles from north to south. Its topography was characterized by hill ranges with peaks reaching between 2,500 and 3,500 feet, and the land's surface generally sloped from the northwest down to the southeast. (Khan M. M., 1909) The three regions of the Hyderabad state, offered different foliage in terms of wooded

density with Telangana having maximum density, followed by Marathwada and Karnatak. (Narayan, 1960)

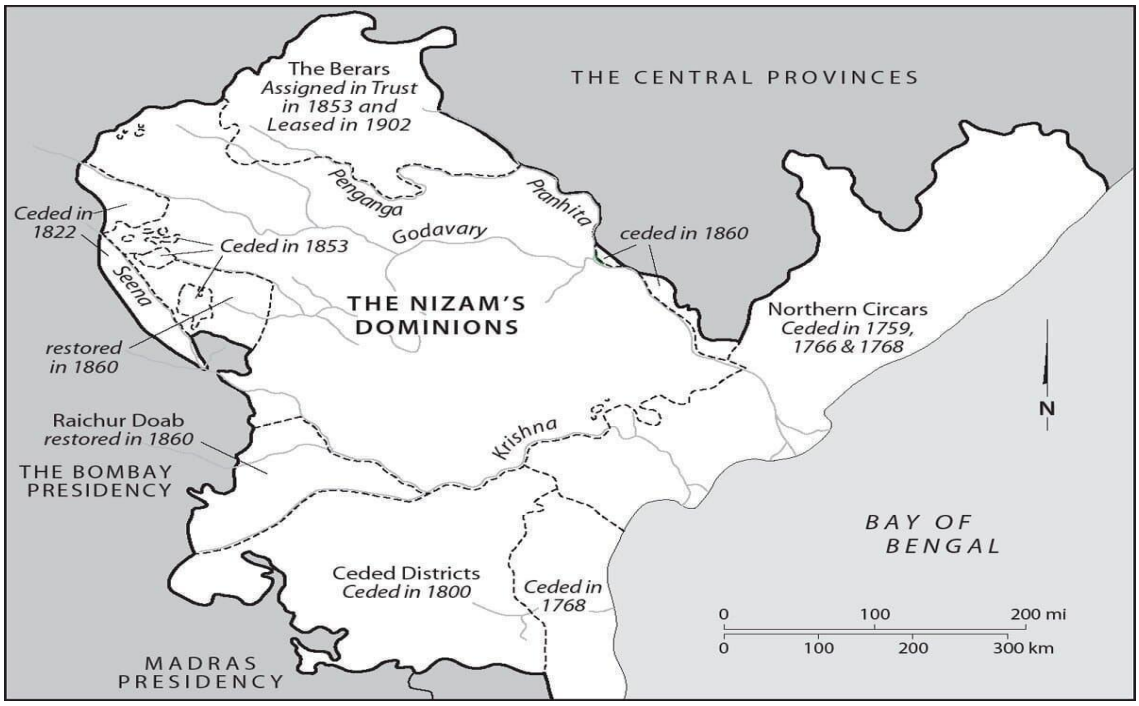


Fig no. 1.1- Source- Stanford University Press, Raj to Republic, Sunil Purushottam

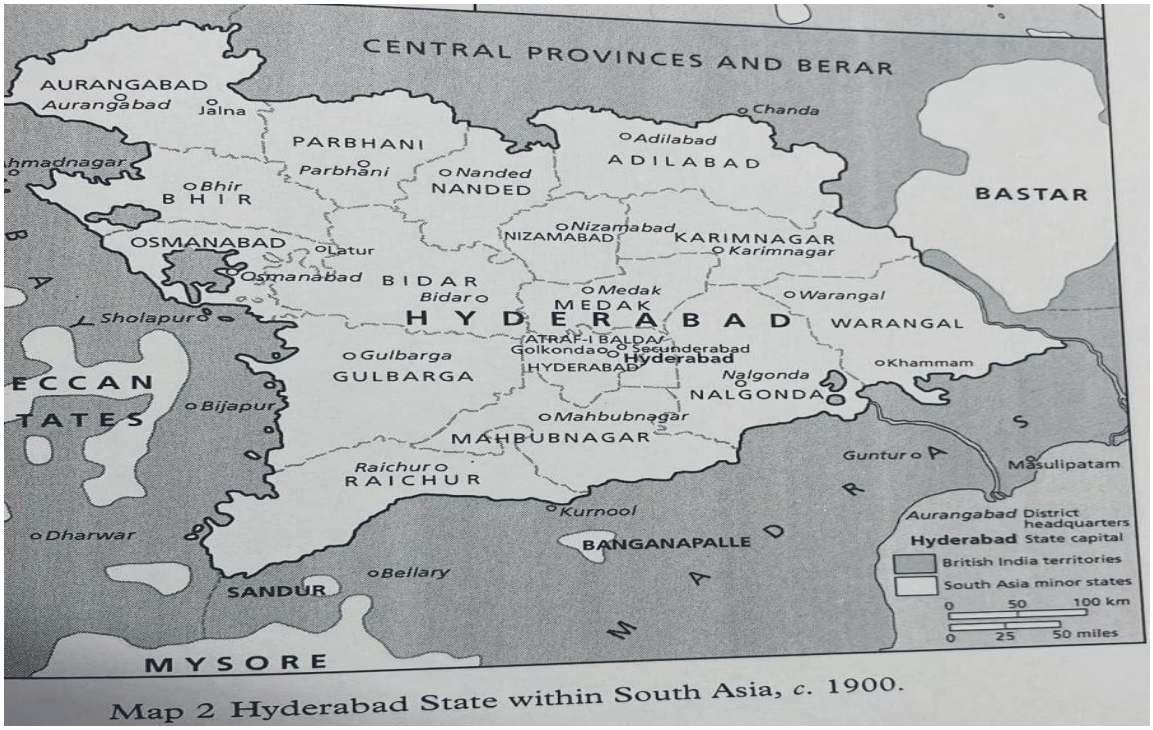


Fig no. 1.1 (a) Hyderabad State – 1948, Source – News meter

Further, the state was divided into majorly two main portions geologically and ethnologically that is Telangana and Marathwada and a small part of Karnatak region. The north and west part of the state fell in the trappean region and south and east part of the state in the granitic and calcareous region. In the Telangana region which was granitic, the soil being sandy and did not retain moisture, hence there was necessity to store water in man-made reservoirs such as tanks for the purpose of irrigation and agriculture. (K h a n M . M . , 1 9 0 9) (Khan, 1909, pp. 3,4) This led to the abundance of canals and water tanks and made rice, oil seeds the chief crops of Telangana region. At the same time, important rivers like Godavari, Krishna and the Tungabhadra along with 45 streams were also harnessed for irrigation. In the Marathwada region the chief crops were wheat (Husain, 1945) jowar and cotton as the black cotton soil of the region, was very fertile and supported rich vegetation and luxuriant growth. In the Karnatak region, the main crops were jowar, bajra, pulses (Husain, 1945)(Husain, 1945, pp. 67-69). Characteristic of rural life then in all three regions, was the segregation of the depressed classes and simple, frugal, subsistence level of general existence.

The ethnical elements correspondingly constituted of, in the trappean region Marathi and Kanarese speaking people and in the granite region Telugu speaking. The state was spread over an area of 82,698 square miles and the total population of the state then, as per the then latest census was 18.3 million. (Government H. , Repport on Administartion, 1948-1950) (Government, 1948-1950) The State was also endowed with rich mineral deposits Spinel Rubies, Garnets, Talc, Mica, Graphite, Red Chalk etc. (Bilgrami, 1883) (Bilgrami, 1883, pp. 27-29)

The foundation of the Asaf Jahi dynasty set the stage for over 224 years of rule, during which the Hyderabad State became a centre of art, culture, education, and economic prosperity. The dynasty's history was synonymous with the history of the founding of the State and it all began with Ghias Uddin Feroze Jung, an acclaimed general of Aurangzeb of Turkoman descent, and his son Mir Qamar Uddin chin Qilich Khan who through his distinguished military service and political acuity, earned the position of Subedar of Deccan and Faujdar of Karnatak in 1713 CE from the then Mughal emperor Farrukh Siyar. This singular event subsequently laid the foundation of the Hyderabad State in 1724 CE. (Raj S. , Potrait of an Era, 1996) (Raj S. , 1996)

Nizam ul Mulk Asaf Jah I – **Founder of the Dynasty** was one of the dynamic rulers who emerged during the challenging times following the beginning of disintegration of

the Mughal empire after the passing away of Emperor Aurangzeb. He served as the Subedar of Deccan in 1713 CE, but his tenure was brief, as he was summoned back to Delhi within two years. In 1720 CE, during the reign of Farrukh Siyar, he was appointed Subedar of Malwa. He later established himself as the Viceroy of the Deccan region. However, this period of autonomy was also short-lived, as he was ordered back to Delhi within a year. As he held positions as Subedar of Deccan in 1713 CE and Subedar of Malwa in 1720 CE, for his valour, tactfulness, military prowess and loyalty, the Nizam was bestowed with many titles, like 'Chin Qilich Khan', 'Nizam-ul-Mulk Fateh Jung' and 'Asif Jah' by various Mughal emperors. The title of 'Nizam-ul-Mulk Fateh Jung' and 'Asif Jah' was conferred on him when in1724 CE, he challenged and executed Mubariz Khan, the then Subedar of Hyderabad, thus establishing himself as the independent ruler of the State of Hyderabad. He continued to nominally acknowledge the Mughal authority, but for all practical purposes functioned as an independent ruler. The administration had a nobility-based hierarchy, with landlords (jagirdars) and aristocrats holding administrative and military power, maintained through land grants and rewards. This feudal system resulted in a highly stratified society, where the ruling Muslim elite-controlled land, revenue, and administration. The state's administration followed the Mughal system of governance with important ministries with that being of the Diwan (finance ministers), Faujdar (military commanders), and Amil (revenue officials) to name a few overseeing different areas of administration and regions. (Rao P. , 1978) (Rao, 1978)

Nizam-Ul-Mulk introduced many administrative and revenue reforms during his long reign. To arrest the suffering of rural peasants from heavy taxation, land revenue reforms were introduced which included regular assessment of land and reorganization of the agrarian system to benefit the peasants, so they could increase their earnings by bringing more land under cultivation. He also ensured that peasants did not face coercion when paying taxes. (Nayeem, 1994) (Nayeem, 1994, pp. 230-231) The territory faced utter lawlessness due to the volatile political condition in the late 17th century, following the collapse of the Qutub Shahi kingdom, and immediate occupation of the region by the Mughals and later the Marathas, which impacted the economy as merchants and goods could no longer travel safely and freely in the region.

European travelers like Tavernier, Thevenot, who wrote highly of Hyderabad in the mid- 17th century, did observe its fall from grace when merchants and caravans

travelling with goods and gold or wealth were attacked, and looted. (Gribble, 1896) (Gribble, 1896, pp. 339-341). To alleviate this exploitation of the merchants/ travelers faujdars were appointed to maintain law and order. The Nizam, held unquestioned power over all appointments in the state including the position of the Diwan and maintained cordial relations with the European trading companies. As the overlord of the Deccan, intervened decisively to settle matters of the sub- ordinates, namely the Nawab of Arcot, eastern region rulers, and the heads of the Mughal Subas- Bidar, Bijapur, Berar, Aurangabad, and Khandesh. (Satyanarayana, 2022)(Satyanarayana, 2022, p. 281)

Conflict with the Marathas defined the rule of the first Nizam and during his tenure, Aurangabad served as the capital of the Nizams, due to the region's proximity with the Mughals. When he died in 1748 CE, the first Nizam had left behind a formidable legacy in dealing with the matters of the South. A war of succession succeeded his death, and eventually his fourth son Nizam Ali succeeded him as the second Nizam. (Khan M. M., 1909) (Khan, 1909, p. 15)

Nizam Ali- Re-organization and Aligning with British

The State of Hyderabad since, underwent an evolution in terms of policy decisions- socio-economic- administrative and political which shaped its identity while re-enforcing its strategic significance in the Deccan. The foremost was the changing world affairs in the distant western hemisphere, which were set to alter the absolute character of the Nizam's rule.

The fall of Constantinople in 1453 CE saw the advent of European trading companies to India through the sea routes from the 15th century and most of the regional powers in India and also the powers at Delhi/Agra by 16th century had initiated some or the other form of trade relation with these companies. Hyderabad's first contact with the British trading company occurred in 1611CE during the reign of Qutub Shahi sultans, through its trading ship Globe which docked at the port of Machilipatnam. (Rao P. , 1978) (Rao P. , 1978) This primary trade relation later morphed into a political partnership between the English and the subsequent rulers the Asaf Jah's.

The political relations of Hyderabad state with that of the British and other European powers in the region however, reflected the lack of vision and petty notions of independence of princely state rulers who never saw beyond mutual spite and enmity to discern the fact that this disunity would one day destroy their sovereignty and

independence that they so dearly desired. These mutual dissensions of the native rulers played out in the form of Carnatic wars in the south of India. Militarily, the Carnatic wars gave a strong foothold to the European trading companies in India especially the British, who realized that they have the ability to act as principal rather than auxiliary fighting forces. This enabled them to emerge in subsequent years as the paramount political power of India. (Regani, 1963) (Regani, 1963, pp. 114-120)

During the third Carnatic war in the course of battle of Chandurthi fought in the region of Andhra in 1758 CE the English extended support to the Raja of Vizianagaram, Ananda Gajapati Raju and they later, secured the support of Salabat Jung to not only oust the French from Hyderabad but also from Deccan. Interestingly, the Nizam of Hyderabad desired such an alliance with the British and the treaty of 1759 CE, between Salabat Jung and the British during the third Carnatic war, became an important landmark in Nizam – British relationship as it was the first political agreement between the two and the beginning of British ascendancy in Hyderabad (Regani, 1963) (Regani, 1963, p. 120)

Similarly, administratively, one of the policies that determined the fate of the Indian polity in the nineteenth century was the introduction of the Subsidiary Alliance Treaty or the Treaty of Offensive Defensive Alliance by Lord Wellesley. The main rationale of the British to enter into this treaty with the country rulers, was to consolidate the British position in India and stamp out the most probable threat to their presence especially from Deccan, namely the Marathas. The Nizams deep seated hatred of the Marathas, contempt for Mysore rulers, Hyder Ali and Tipu Sultan provided a great opportunity to the British, who realized that preservation of Nizams power in the Deccan would be important to the company's fortunes. (Regani, 1963) (Regani, 1963, pp. 146-148)

The Subsidiary Alliance Treaty or the Treaty of Offensive Defensive Alliance by Lord Wellesley, bore fruition in three phases.

- First on 1st September 1798 CE, the British and the then Nizam- Nizam Ali entered into a treaty under which the British stationed their subsidiary troops numbering six battalions at the service of the Nizam, but with an eye on the court of Poona and the French troops stationed at the Nizams court. In fact, dismissal of the French corps of Monsiuer Raymond was one of the terms for signing the treaty.

- Secondly, the treaty of 1800 CE, the preamble of which declared – Nizam and the Company 'are in fact become one and the same in interest, policy, friendship and honour'. (Regani, 1963) (Regani, 1963, p. 184) This was to impress on the Nizam the ascending power of the British in the Deccan. Once Hyderabad was reduced to the position of a protected state, the Nizam lost all sovereign power of entering into treaties on its own will, declare war or conclude peace.
- Thirdly, the titular status of the Nizam was further reinforced by signing another commercial treaty in 1802 CE. This commercial treaty would allow free commerce for British goods in the dominion of the subsidiary and they would be exempted from '*Rahadari duties*. (Regani, 1963, p. 186) (Regani, 1963)

This arrangement of power made the Nizam a titular head of his administration and the Resident, the de- facto ruler. As the alliance began to work, the successive Nizams in their bid to save their internal sovereignty and free themselves from the interference of the Resident, began efforts to assert their independence, but had to accept the inevitable in the long run. This was most evident, during the rule of Afzal-ud-Daula when the revolt of 1857 CE broke out. (Regani, 1963) (Regani, 1963, p. 300)

The Nizam was pushed to a state of abject apathy as he was unable to select or appoint his own personnel in the administration especially the Dewan, or the Peshkar who were now always appointed at the discretion of the British. These political and administrative challenges created a severe financial crisis in the state, which struggled under mounting debts owed to the East India Company. Therefore, in a matter of one generation there was a decided shift in the nature of the absolute rule and authority of the Nizam. As a British protectorate, the state was now governed by the direction of the East India Company rule, as determined by the Governor Generals Office in Bengal and the British Resident stationed at Hyderabad.

No wonder, Sir John Anstruther, prominent Scottish politician and British Parliamentarian wrote to Wellesley -

"You found the British influence in Deccan gone; you have planted its power in the very centre of the mountains which hold India together." (Regani, 1963) (Regani, 1963, p. 186)

Sikander Jah (1803 CE-1829CE) and Nasir-ud -Doula (1829CE-1857CE)

The Imprint of the British imperialism was most evident during the reigns of Sikander

Jah (1803 CE-1829CE) and Nasir-ud -Doula (1829CE-1857CE). This period saw the strengthening of British ties and governance when Hyderabad further aligned with the British, allowing them to play a greater role in the internal affairs. During this period Hyderabad experienced economic decline due to rising debts and inefficient administration.

The rising debts were due to the maintenance accrued for the Hyderabad contingent in terms of salaries and emoluments of the British officers and for the regular upkeep of the forces. The Hyderabad contingent was a feature of the Subsidy Alliance treaty that was signed by the second Nizam. Though in principle it was constituted to strengthen the Nizam's army, in reality it served the orders of the British Resident. (Raj S. , Medievalism to Modernism, 1987)(Raj S. , Medievalism to Modernism, 1987) The state was plunged into economic crisis, not of its own doing, which began to shake the very foundation of its existence as a resource rich province. (Abid Hasan, 1935) (Abid Hasan, 1935) The inefficiency in administration was due to the officials who were appointed in the treasury, as the Diwan who were essentially lackeys of the British. For instance-Maharaja Chandu Lal, who served as peshkar of Hyderabad, during this time not only kept finances in a disarray but also thwarted any attempts at, rectification of accounts and finances of the Nizams administration. (Regani, 1963) (Regani, 1963, p. 219)

British took advantage of this situation, forcing Hyderabad to take loans at inflated rates of interest from a financial institution propped up by the British themselves, in this case- The Palmer and Company thus securing greater financial control over the state. (Maj. Gen. E. L. Edroos, 1994) (Maj. Gen. E. L. Edroos, 1994) The State had to pay a very high price in the year 1853 CE when the Treaty of Berar was signed due to which large areas of revenue rich regions in the Hyderabad assigned districts- namely Berar, Raichur Doab, and Osmanabad were ceded to the British in lieu of the debts acquired. (Regani, 1963) (Regani, 1963, p. 298) This was despite prior to 1853 CE, the Nizam had already ceded to the British the region of the northern Circars, (Regani, 1963) (Regani, 1963, p. 131) to meet the expenditure of the company troops at the disposal of the Nizam.

Loss of revenue, territory and control over the administration marked the reign of both the Nizams Sikander Jah and Nasir -ud-Daula. During the Revolt of 1857 CE, though the State of Hyderabad witnessed sporadic events like the attack on Residency, (Lynton, 1991) (Lynton, 1991, p. 53) the state remained largely peaceful and Nasir-ud-Daula remained loyal to

the British, which strengthened their political influence in Hyderabad. (Majumdar, 1963) (Majumdar, 1963, pp. 645-646) The course of Colonial Indian history would have been dramatically different had the Indian princes not supported the British during the pivotal days of the 'Mutiny'. The Indian rulers provided essential resources, such as men and money, and gave refuge to British escapees, and also actively fought alongside the British against the rebels.

Lord Elphinstone, governor of Bombay, telegraphed a message repeated throughout British officialdom ‘If Hyderabad goes, all is lost’. (Lynton, 1991) (Lynton, 1991, p. 10) His fear was never realized, on the contrary, Nizam’s steadfastness towards the British, allowed the Residency, to destroy the resilience, strength and honour of the state.

Hyderabad Under British Paramountcy: The Role of the British Resident and Political Interventions

The British Resident, stationed in Hyderabad, played a pivotal role in shaping the state’s internal administration, foreign relations, and military affairs. Through political interventions and treaties, the British ensured that Hyderabad remained a dependent ally, ultimately reducing the Nizam to a symbolic ruler under British control. John Holland was the first British Resident of Hyderabad, who took office in the year 1779. However, it was the eight-year term (1798-1805) of the sixth Resident, James Achilles Kirkpatrick which coincided with the rule of the second Nizam, Nizam Ali, who signed the pivotal Subsidiary Alliance treaty, that the power of the company began to grow. As the East India Company's capacity for interference in state administration increased, so too did the Resident's authority, gradually drawing the Nizam, wittingly or unwittingly, into the fold of British imperialism. The Residency was built during his time, and he also took a Hyderabadi Muslim bride Khairu Nissa. (Davies, 1988) (Phillip Davies, 1988) in his book remarks that the Residency was an architectural expression of supreme power for political ends. "The Resident's authority must either be seen as it must be felt". (Davies, 1988) (Davies, 1988)

The Resident Supervised Hyderabad’s internal administration and finances, preventing the Nizam from forming alliances with other regional powers, ensuring the presence of British troops in the state, acting as an advisor to the Nizam, often overriding his decisions. A testimony to the dominance of the British presence and power in the region

can be understood from the number of treaties signed, that not only resulted in financial loss to the state exchequer, but also sovereign land from the ruler, especially from 1796 CE onwards.

Phase of Reform, Welfare and Economic growth:

Hyderabad entered into the phase of administrative reforms, modernization, public welfare and economic growth during the reign of Afzal-ud-Daula Asaf Jah V (1857 CE–1869 CE) followed by Mir Mahbub Ali Khan Asaf Jah VI (1869 CE–1911 CE) and lastly Mir Osman Ali Khan (1911 CE -1948 CE). Afzal-ud-Daula's reign was marked by reform and a key figure who contributed enormously to the transformation of the Hyderabad State during this period was Turab Ali Khan, known by his title as Salar Jung I. He held the distinction of serving under three Nizams. His descendants Salar Jung II and Salar Jung III and subsequently his family had bequeathed a legacy to Hyderabad's art and culture space in the form of the national museum named after its chief contributor Salar Jung III- The Salar Jung Museum. Most remarkable and efficient administrator of 19th century deccan, Salar Jung I was singularly responsible for setting the pace of Hyderabad's transformation from a feudal to a modern state. (Satyanarayana, 2022) (Satyanarayana, 2022) Liberal reforms in the field of revenue, law and order, survey, rents and remissions had a profound effect on the health of the State's economy and administration. (Jayaram, n.d) (Jayaram, n.d).

His tenure ship as the Diwan saw the introduction of modern policing. Prior to his period and to the ministry of Sir Salar Jung I, the state initially did not have an organized police force; revenue officials were usually responsible for maintaining law and order within their respective divisions. It was not until 1866 CE, when the first districts were formed, that a formal police force was established and placed under the authority of the revenue department. (Khan M. M., 1909) (Khan, 1909, p. 70)

In 1869 CE a special police minister office was created, called ***Sadr-ul-Maham*** and then subsequently ***Sadr- Mohtammins*** were created to regulate law and order at division level. (Khan M. M., 1909) (Khan, 1909, p. 71) Similarly, reforms were introduced in revenue collection methods where auctioning and contractual Taluqdars were removed and instead Taluqdars were appointed by State with fixed salaries and held accountable for revenue collections. By removing dishonest officials from revenue administration, Salar Jung was able to improve the efficacy of the administration. (Bawa, 1993) (Bawa, 1993)

In the department of medicine and health, the Afzal Gunj Hospital named after the then ruler Afzal-ud-Daulah was established by Sir Salarjung —I, Nawab Turab Ali Khan Mukhtar-il-Mulk Bahadur on the northern bank of river Musi in 1866. He also supported infrastructural developments, setting the stage for Hyderabad's modernization. Mir Mahbub Ali Khan, his son when he ascended the throne, he was under the care and tutelage of the regents appointed by the British, as he was toddler of age three. However, with age and experience, he undertook significant modernization efforts, including the expansion of railways, roads, and educational institutions. His administration improved governance, public health, including efforts to combat the plague epidemic of 1908 CE. (Khan M. M., 1909) (Khan, 1909, pp. 18-19) He is regarded highly for the yeomen service rendered to development of education and bringing in elements of constitutionalism in governance through his edict of 1893 CE – '**Kanuncha-e-Mubarak'** which introduced a council of ministers headed by a Madar-ul-Mahim who would assist the Nizam in decision making and execution at the highest level.

Mir Osman Ali Khan, the last ruling Nizam, transformed Hyderabad into one of the wealthiest princely states in India. He implemented extensive economic and infrastructural developments, including Osmania University (1918), the High Court, the railway network, Deccan airways etc. (Satyanarayana, 2022) (Satyanarayana, 2022, p. 341) His administration maintained a strong bureaucratic structure, with departments for finance, military, education, and public works.

Mir Osman Ali Khan- Pioneer of Modernization of Hyderabad

Osman Ali Khan, Asaf Jah VII, the last of the Nizam's, ascended the throne in 1911 CE. He was Mahboob Ali Khan's second son. Unlike his father, Mahboob Ali Pasha, who was a charmer, Osman Ali Khan was a restrained and pragmatic power politician. His rule spanned two World Wars, with the outbreak of the first World War, a war conference was summoned by HE Viceroy in April 1918 to secure active support of all classes of people in India in which the Indian states were represented by the royalty.

Lord Canning was so impressed by their loyalty and devotion that he described these princes, as a:"Breakwater to the storm which would otherwise have swept over us in one great wave". (Bhargava, 1922) (Bhargava, 1922, pp. 79-82)

Despite his absence from the conference, the Nizam of Hyderabad played a significant role in the war effort by providing essential human, material, medical services and

developing specific economic sectors of his state's economy to meet wartime demands. In recognition of these contributions, King George V elevated the seventh Nizam's title from 'His Highness' to 'His Exalted Highness' in 1918. (Satyanarayana, 2022) (Satyanarayana, 2022, p. 341)

Mir Osman Ali Khan is often recalled as the architect of modern Hyderabad, a city he was bequeathed by the former Qutub Shahi rulers, and developed into a vibrant, rich, modern necropolis during his 37-year reign. His policies spurred significant growth across numerous public sectors, including rail, road, aviation, electricity, communications, coal mining, postal services, irrigation, public health, and education. His legacy marks the outline of the city's landscape in prominent landmarks and infrastructure, such as the Osmania General Hospital, High Court, Kachiguda Railway Station, Begumpet Airport, and the reservoirs Osman Sagar and Himayat Sagar, to name a few bearing a testament to his transformative vision. An over view of his reformative policies touching upon administration, agriculture, transport, communication, industry, education, public health services, public works and ecclesiastical work, highlights the dichotomous position of this princely ruler, who on one hand went about instituting, as many elements of progressive change in his state, through his reformative policies, and yet failed to take the last leap of faith to transition to a democratic regime.

Administration

His reign saw many far-reaching political and administrative reforms introduced in the State of Hyderabad. These include separation of judiciary from executive, promulgation of a new constitution and a new executive council, whose chief task was to advise the Nizam on stabilization of expenditure of State, development of agriculture and irrigation, industrialization, liquidation of debt, introduction of annual budget and accounts, and appointment of Comptroller General on loan from Govt of India. He also expanded the Legislative Council to make it an integral part of Administration. (Raj S. , 2014) (Raj, 2014, pp. 3-4)

As part of municipal and local administration, he constituted a City Improvement Board. This was entrusted with development of Hyderabad in a planned manner. The City Improvement Board would look into developing new colonies, slum clearance, road widening, housing for poor, building shopping complex. Accordingly, the Board constructed houses in localities of Khairtabad, Nampally and Malakpet. In 1931, the

Board completed the work of Hyderabad sewage system, transforming the city to modern standards of living. The Board also developed industrial areas like Sanathnagar, Patancheru and Maula-Ali. (Satyanarayana, 2022) (Satyanarayana, 2022, p. 349)

Growth of Transport and Communication

In Nizam's dominions, Railways came into existence in 1870s. Born out of British need to capitalize on the commercial gains from the said investment in infrastructure from the Nizams territory to the Nizam Mir Mahboob Ali Khan thinking that the railway network would boost the economic potential of his state and benefit subjects during calamities like- cholera, famine etc. So, (NGSR) Nizam's guaranteed state Railway entered into treaty with London counterpart and established the Wadi- Secunderabad rail line and Wadi- Hyderabad line. (Office, 1930) (Office, 1930) The Wadi- Hyderabad line completed in 1870 and after the demise of Sir Salar Jung in 1883, a state agency of railways was started, called "His Highness the Nizams Guaranteed State Railway Company" (NGSR) which oversaw the completion of Bezwada extension in 1889. (NGSR, 1939) (NGSR, 1939)

The Nizam's railway system linked almost all-important centers of administration and commerce within the State. It also connected adjoining networks of railways of British India and became part of direct route between Northern and Southern India, and between the East and West coast of India. Some of the important lines constructed during the reign of Osman Ali Khan were Secunderabad-Falak Numa 1924, Secunderabad-Bolaram 1924, Karepalli-Kothagudem 1927, Vikarabad-Bidar 1930. (Satyanarayana, 2022) (Satyanarayana, 2022, p. 353) The state had 4,330 miles Broad Gauge, 441.50 Metre Gauge and overall, 80,650 miles rail network including narrow gauge of 35 miles. (Hyderabad G. o., Administrative Report, 1919) (Hyderabad G. o., administrative report, 1919)

The state had few trunk roads built by British military authorities for troop movement. (Hyderabad G. o., administrative report, 1943) (Hyderabad G. o., Administrative report, 1943)So, along with the railway network, the Nizam's government also undertook construction of many roads connecting capital city of Hyderabad with adjoining British Indian provinces, and facilitating movement of agriculture goods, to bigger markets of India. Following recommendation of Rail Board, which was also running Bus services, road extension was taken up and tar, asphalt and cement roads were constructed to handle traffic volume in towns and city centers. (Government H. , 1933) (Government H ,1933) This led to an increase in motor services.

By the year 1940, the total road milage in the Nizam's dominions stood at 5911 Km. (Satyanarayana, 2022)(Satyanarayana, 2022, p. 354) Around the same time period, the volume of goods traffic rose from 3646 tons in mid - 1930 to above 64,000 tons in 1940. (Hyderabad G. o., Progress- State Transport of Hyderabad, 1941) (G.O, 1941)

The Nizam's State railway company also started a road mechanical transport service in 1932. The Nizam's state railway was the only railway in India which had a road transport department and an air department. In 1936, Aeroclub was founded in Hyderabad to promote the art and science of flying and aeronautics. Hyderabad being one of the first state in British India to have its own Airways subsequently leading to building an Aerodrome at Begumpet. In 1945, the Nizam's administration established the Deccan Airways. It was a commercial airline company based in Hyderabad and was a joint venture of Hyderabad State and Tata Airlines. In 1953, the Deccan Airways was merged with Indian Airlines. (Satyanarayana, 2022, p. 355) (Satyanarayana, 2022)

The state had its own system of stamps and post and by mid- nineteenth century, the postal system was extended all over the State. *Ghungru*, a kind of express postal service was introduced by Sir Salar Jung I during the period of reforms, but was discontinued in 1902 because it proved costly to maintain more than one runner at every stage. (Hyderabad G. o., 1925) (Hyderabad G. o., 1925)

In 1857 electric telegraphs were introduced in Hyderabad connecting it to Bombay and later Kurnool. By 1900 at Imperial Post Office, Chaderghat, another line was established. Later, in 1944 the facility of phonogram was extended to traders and merchants to ease conduct of business in Hyderabad and around in real time. (Government H., Files of Constitutional Affairs secretariat, Inst, 47, list 10, S.No.1714 (Government H. , Files of Constitutional Affairs secretariat, Inst, 47, list 10, S.No.1714 intoduction of phonogram, 1945)introduction of phonogram, 1945)

In 1885, the first telephone line was installed in the State. Department of Telephones was established in the year 1919 and the reign of Nizam the VII, witnessed the expansion of telephone facilities. Extension of telephone lines to private individuals were on payment of Osmania Sicca 10,000-15,000 and for the Nizam on private visit. (PWD- Records of Political & Private secy, 1912) (PWD- Records of Political & Private secy, 1912)

Similarly, Radio broadcasting was started by the Govt of Nizam in 1935, known as Deccan Radio. (Satyanarayana, 2022, p. 359) (Satyanarayana, 2022) In 1936, with

reorganization of the wireless department, a new station came up at Saroornagar and (Hyderabad G. o., Administrative report 1936-37, 1939)later at Aurangabad at the cost of Halli Sikka Rs. 71,422. (Hyderabad G. o., administrative report 1936-37, 1939)

Irrigation

An important shift in the administration of Mir Osman Ali Khan was the importance given to the irrigation policy of the State. According to a study, the Vith Nizam did great service to the State, especially in irrigation, by utilizing the water resources and building tanks, reservoirs, medium and major irrigation projects. For instance, the famous water tanks built by the Kakatiya Rulers in Warangal district, like Pakala, Lakhnavaram, Ramappa and Ghana Puram were all restored by the Nizam's government. (Satyanarayana, 2022) (Satyanarayana, 2022, p. 363)

Agriculture, Revenue Administration and Reforms-

With regards to agriculture, there was heavy dependence on rainfall. The statistics from labour census taken in 1935, shows fragmentation of land holdings, and increase in agricultural labourers. (Uma, 2011) The government introduced many debt relief measures, encouraged research in agriculture and also passed legislations like Compulsory Settlement of Jagirs, Land Alienation Regulation, the Debt Conciliation Regulation and the Money Lenders Regulation. (Uma, 2011) Survey settlement and grant of pattas to tenants. None helped the cause of the peasant. By the 1940s, social unrest increased, with growing demands for land reforms, fair wages, and political representation. (Uma, 2011)

Industry

Though the Nizam's dominions were endowed with abundant natural resources, there was lack of capital investment, which led to a slow industrial growth in the 19th Century. Therefore, during the reign of Mir Osman Ali Khan, a Commerce and Industry department was established in 1918. The industry helped in the development of coal mining industry, textile mills, Zinda Tilsmath, Shahabad cement industry, Nizam's sugar factory, Sirpur paper mills Ltd, Hyderabad Allwyn Ltd, Praga Tools. In addition to this many other industries were promoted like chemical and fertilizer industry, cigarette factories – Charminar and Golkonda, leather works. (Satyanarayana, 2022, p. 364)

(Satyanarayana, 2022)

Finance/Banking

In the year 1941, Mir Osman Ali Khan established Hyderabad State Bank. This bank acted as the State's Central bank, managing Halli Sikka or the Osmania Sikka, the currency used within the Nizam's dominion. This made Hyderabad the only state in British India to maintain its own currency having legal tender. (Satyanarayana, 2022, p. 365) (Satyanarayana, 2022)

Education

One of the signal achievements of the VII th Nizam's administration was his attention to education. The Osmania University, born out of idea of Dar-ul-Uloom in 1913 (Khan R. A., 1991) (Khan R. A., 1991) is the finest legacy of the seventh Nizam in education, representing a significant contribution both in terms of architecture and academic rigour. It was the first known university that was to impart undergraduate college and technical education in Urdu. (Dr. Zore, 1934) (Dr. Zore, 1934)During his government's tenure there was rapid expansion of primary education where the number of schools and students increased by three times. In the year 1921, by the order of the Nizam primary education was made free in the State. (Hyderabad, 1939) (Hyderabad G. o., Administrative report 1936-37, 1939)

By the year 1947 there were 6300 primary schools in Hyderabad State and 3.88 lakhs enrolled students. English was made a mandatory subject in the State. (Hyderabad, Progress of Education and Cultural Activities in Hyderabad State during 1948-1954, 1955) The lower caste Dalits were discriminated and did not have access to formal education. In order to increase literacy amongst this section, government established numerous schools. According to one estimate by the year 1936 CE there were 101 schools for the depressed classes. Alongside schools for depressed classes, the administration also set up schools for the tribal populace like the Gond, Koya, Chenchu, and Banjara. Special focus was laid on knowledge dissemination in one's native language.

Women's education also received great attention during this period. By the close of his reign there were 677 primary,28 secondary, 4 training and special schools for women, and two women's colleges. Osmania university was established as a symbol of Hyderabad's unique modernity. It was India's first vernacular university that sought to establish Hyderabad as a focal centre in the Islamic intellectual world. (Satyanarayana, 2022) (Satyanarayana, 2022, pp. 371-376).

Notwithstanding all the efforts, the Nizam declared in 1932 that all funds collected on the eve of his birthday would be used to fund scholarships for needy children. (Political Secy, n.d) (Political Secy, n.d)

Public Health Services

After the establishment of Osmania University, medical education and public health was also developed during this period. Setting up of Osmania Medical College in 1920, (Political Secy, n.d)Osmania General Hospital in 1925, TB Chest Hospital, Nilofer Hospital, Durru-shehvar Children and General Hospital proved that the administration was aware about the importance of public health. The administration also set up awareness campaigns to educate the people about the epidemics and diseases which frequented the State of Hyderabad.

Public Works - Water Supply and Sanitation:

The Himayat Sagar and Osman Sagar reservoirs were constructed to provide clean drinking water. Sanitation improved in urban areas, but rural healthcare remained underdeveloped. During epidemics like the plague and cholera, the Nizam's government provided relief measures, but limited healthcare access in villages remained a concern.

Ecclesiastical services

Mir Osman Ali Khan irrespective of cast, community and religion, maintained religious tolerance towards all. His administration provided grants for the conservation of all sites of religion. Regular funds were allocated for temples, pujas, and maintenance of the religious structures. It is estimated according to a study, that the Nizam's regime allocated more than two lakh acres of land for Hindu temples and also provided a financial support of 97,000 rupees. (Raj, 2014) (Raj S. , 2014)Many structures in the state were symbols of Hindu, Muslim and Western Architectural style like High Court, Town Hall, Osmania General Hospital, Jubilee Hall etc. However, despite these policy overtures, there remained perceptive differences on ground that escalated in near future for the Nizam.

Religious and Cultural Life under the Asaf Jahi's

Hyderabad was a multicultural and multi-religious state, with Hindus forming the majority (85%) and Muslims making up around 12% of the population. Caste configuration of his majority subjects and religion dynamics made the Nizam ban forced labour and cow slaughter at his palace. The official language of administration

was Urdu, though Telugu, Marathi, and Kannada were widely spoken. The Nizam promoted Islamic architecture and institutions, but Hindu temples, festivals, and cultural traditions also flourished. Hyderabad was known for its rich literary and artistic traditions, with poets and scholars contributing to Urdu, Persian, Telugu, and Marathi literature. (Raj, 2014) (Raj S. , 2014)However, religious, social and economic divisions deepened over time, particularly due to political conflicts between the Nizam's Muslim elite and Hindu nationalist movements.

Socio- Economic and Political Challenges on the eve of accession-

Hyderabad's unique blend of courtesy, culture and humanity exalted the state to international acclaim. The distinctiveness of Deccani culture which rested on syncretism, contributed to the start of a new era for modern Hyderabad, ne Telangana. It would not be inappropriate to state here that the credit goes to a large extent to Mir Osman Ali Khan. In the 19th century, the state was known for pioneering several significant features, including being the first to separate the executive from the judiciary and the first to develop public sector industries, railway system, airways, postal and currency and yet despite this socio-economic transformation, which impacted almost all spheres of life, despite which the Nizam had to face a major social political and economic upheaval during the final days of his regime. (Raj, 2014) (Raj S. , 2014)

Mulki agitation (conflict between locals and non-locals) employed in administrative work, social welfare and educational initiatives, natural disasters, Indian national movement, Hyderabad freedom struggle, the rise of communist and communal forces were major events that marked the penultimate years of the Nizams rule.

The Hyderabad state was a multi-lingual, cultural, ethnic and religious state. A unique character that gave the state a specific regional identity. However, this heterogeneity, a testament to composite Deccan culture, mis represented the socio-economic life of majority of people in the state who suffered autocratic feudal exploitation.

In the state of Hyderabad, the caste system was inter- twined with the structure of feudalism. This allowed for enforcement of existing social and economic inequalities. Hyderabad's social hierarchy was inherently linked to land ownership, which extended to entitlement, privilege, and power. This created a dominant aristocratic class that enjoyed these significant advantages and exerted control over village life and society.

As the caste system was closely connected with the economic activity of the villages, many evil practices characterized this period. Bonded labour or vetti was rampant in the countryside. It was mostly related to agriculture and household work. Lower cast families had to supply services and goods free of charge to the landlords. Known in popular parlance as *Vetti Chakiri* – this bonded labour system was one of the key tools of exploitation of the marginalized. This system made the life of people of Hyderabad in the villages one of subjugation and serfdom. To this the policy of conservation of forested land, created unsurmountable difficulties for the population (tribes such as lambada's, Gonds) that depended on produce from them for their livelihood. (Iyengar, 1951)(Iyengar, 1951) Though in the 19th century the Nizam's administration provided for education to all women, the rural women of Hyderabad remained formally uneducated and unlettered. The women became victim to many superstitions and regressive practices like child marriage, female infanticide, sati, polygamy, purdah, jogini, devadasi etc.

The mid nineteenth and twentieth centuries witnessed significant socio-economic changes in Hyderabad State. Modern education, urbanization, and new employment opportunities led to emergence of new social classes and an increasing consciousness especially among the oppressed communities. In rest of India, this new awareness manifested in social reform movements and identity struggles. They revolved primarily around social and religious reforms but also included revolts and protests by Bahujan, and Adivasi, and Dalit communities. The Hyderabad State saw numerous movements by peasants and Adivasis challenging the oppressive Nizam regime and the feudal system. There were various social/caste-based reform, language, and cultural movements. Educational initiatives by Christian missionaries and urban employment opportunities played a role in the social and economic advancement of the Dalit Bahujan sections. (Satyanarayana, 2022) (Satyanarayana, 2022)

The growth of middle class and the modern intelligentsia ushered in reforms in the Hyderabad society. Leading role was played by educational and socio-cultural institutions like Brahma samaj, Arya samaj, schools, libraries, Christian missionaries, Dalit activists etc. Hyderabad state witnessed, the first wave of nationalist movements through the formation of Hyderabad State Congress and the work of Ramananda Theertha mission and activities of students' union seeking freedom from the autocratic rule of the Nizam. The Telangana peasants armed struggle at this time became a trigger

event in the days to merger of Hyderabad state, pushing the State towards a confrontation with the newly formed Government of India in the year 1947-48.

For over a century, Hyderabad was one of the most loyal princely states under British paramountcy. This loyalty to the British crown however, came at the cost of surrendering real sovereignty, which ensured for the Nizam and his successors continued British protection in the form of military assistance and administrative subservience. The British in return, secured the alliance with the Nizam as a requirement, that would secure its paramount power and position in Deccan and India. This quid pro quo relationship allowed Hyderabad to function as a semi-autonomous state, with the British preventing any democratic or nationalist movements that could threaten the monarchy and its position in the region.

When India attained independence in 1947, the masses demanded integration with the Indian Union, Hyderabad found itself at a critical crossroads, struggling to maintain its status as an independent princely state. For the British and their policies that had long shaped Hyderabad's political, economic, and military structures, their withdrawal had left the state politically isolated.

Towards Accession- The Crisis of 1947-1948: Struggle for Hyderabad's Future

On 15th August 1947, the newly formed government of India, led by Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru and Home Minister Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel, was focused on unifying the nation. The integration of more than 560 princely states was a major challenge, but most rulers voluntarily signed the Instrument of Accession, and joined the Indian Union, even before the Independence of India Act came into force. Hyderabad was not averse to initially, in taking a leading part in the movement towards a Federal India but in 1945, the decision to divide India on religious lines put her into a position of great difficulty. He abhorred the idea of acceding to either India or Pakistan. The Nizam viewed the state's power and dignity, as inseparable from him.

His team of constitutional advisors like Walter Monckton too failed to resolve the deadlock between the Indian Union and Mir Osman Ali Khan. Deeming himself as sovereign, Nizam Mir Osman Ali Khan, refused to accede, posing a significant political and security threat to the Indian Union. That his assertion of Independence, was not backed by historical, political or geographical positioning was another matter altogether.

Policies and Strategies of the Nizam to Maintain Independence

The Nizam attempted everything possible in the book to maintain his independence and one of primary strategies involved seeking diplomatic recognition and international support for his stand. Much of this stemmed from the understanding of the nature of relationship between the princely states and the paramount Brish power in colonial India. Since the states were British protectorates (in most cases- Subsidiary Alliance System) and had signed treaties as independent sovereigns, certain rulers refused to accept the changed political arrangement post the promulgation of the Indian Independence Act 1947, which created the dominions of India and Pakistan and mandated the princes to join one or either. The Nizam of Hyderabad in fact, proposed for a third dominion and hoped that, particularly Britain and Pakistan, would back his claim to an independent Hyderabad. On 10th September 1948, the Nizam appealed to the Security Council at UNO to intervene, to which the representatives of India argued that the complaint of Hyderabad was not an international question. They stated that it was a domestic question and Hyderabad had no legal standing as a sovereign and must eventually lead to accession and a responsible government. The Nizam also attempted to gain the support of the Commonwealth, believing that Britain, given its historical ties to Hyderabad, might intervene on his behalf. (Ali, 2011, pp. 283-289) However, (Ali M. L., 2011)Hyderabad's diplomatic efforts failed to prevent its eventual accession to India. Earlier, in the previous year, the Nizam signed the Standstill Agreement with the Government of India, but flouted rules by engaging in activities detrimental to the state, which included- banning exports to territories of Indian Union, denying legal tender to Indian Currency, procuring wanton arms, ammunitions, petrol, bikes, vehicles for bolstering troop movement, aiding Razakars, engaging in back-channel negotiations with Pakistan financially and militarily. (Patel, 1947) (Patel, 1947)The Nizam struggled to envisage a political resolution of the crisis as he was surrounded by people who advised him otherwise constantly. Hyderabad viewed the Indian Union as a separate country and therefore, justified all its acts as rightful for a sovereign power, and the Indian Union viewed Hyderabad quite on the contrary and therefore sought integration into the Union.

Indian Government's Perspective: The Demand for Integration

From **India's perspective**, Hyderabad's continued independence was unacceptable due to the following reasons

- Firstly, Hyderabad was geographically situated in the heart of India, surrounded by Indian territory on all sides.
- Secondly, allowing an independent Hyderabad would have created a hostile foreign enclave within India, potentially destabilizing the region.
- Thirdly, Hyderabad's overtures with pro-Pakistani and extremist factions, were seen as a direct challenge to India's sovereignty.

The Indian government initially pursued diplomatic negotiations to resolve the crisis peacefully. A Standstill Agreement was signed between Hyderabad and India on 29th November 1947, (Satyanarayana, 2022) allowing Hyderabad to retain its autonomy while negotiations continued. Under the agreement, India agreed not to invade Hyderabad, and Hyderabad promised to continue existing trade, postal, and communication ties with India.

However, tensions quickly escalated. Standstill agreement norms were flouted and matters began to slip out of control. Blog post by Shri L.K. Advani (Advani, 2023) (Advani, 2023) on the party site shows that two ordinances issued in quick succession after Standstill agreement signing by the Nizam which put restrictions on trade and legal tender of Indian rupees in Nizam's dominions, played a critical role in hastening military intervention. This can also be confirmed from a TOI article by Syed Akbar on Sep 18th 2023, which highlights the causes which proved to be the proverbial straw triggering the police action. (Akbar, 2023) (Akbar, 2023)Coupled with above, the activities of the Razakkars, the militant wing of the Ittehad-ul-Muslimeen, which began violent crackdowns on pro-India activists within Hyderabad, lead to a surge in communal violence. The Arya Samaj and the Majlis went head-to-head in fanning the religious sentiments by their activities of Shuddhi Karan or Ghar wapsi to the efforts of the jamaat in proselytizing through Tablighi respectively. Another organization that played an important role in cementing the decision of the Union Government to militarily intervene was the Hindu maha Sabha. The Hindu Maha Sabha has submitted a 300-page report to the ministry of states, on the deteriorating condition of Hindus in the dominions of the Nizam and had corroborated these claims by citing circulars issued by the ecclesiastical department that put discriminatory restrictions on the religious freedom of the Hindu subjects, by declaring that the state of Hyderabad being an Islamic state, the non- Muslims were bound to adhere to these new norms.

As a result of these actions, the Standstill Agreement failed to resolve the conflict, and India grew increasingly concerned about the state-sponsored violence and instability. The Nizam's administration facing an economic blockade imposed by India, (which created a state of famine of all essential food items like salt in the words of Mir Laik Ali Prime Minister of Hyderabad in conversation with Jawahar Lal Nehru in July 1947) and growing dissatisfaction among Hyderabad's majority Hindu population, many of whom favoured joining the Indian Union, was becoming more and more isolated. The situation soon became untenable, pushing India to take military action.

By mid-1948, the situation had reached a breaking point, and India decided to take military action to integrate Hyderabad. On September 11th 1948 CE Jinnah died at 10.25 pm at Karachi after returning from Baluchistan where he was recuperating from ill health. On 13th September 1948 CE, Indian troops entered the Hyderabad Territory. Operation Polo, was a swift military campaign to annex Hyderabad. The significance of Qaid-e-Azam's death and launch of Operation Polo in quick succession cannot be lost on an observer of the events unfolding at Hyderabad. In the words of Nawab Zain Yar Jung Bahadur, former Agent- General of Hyderabad, "Died when he is most needed", demonstrates the dire conditions for the state as it resists accession to the Indian Union. (Express, 1948) (Express, Died when he is most needed, 1948)

The events that followed the Police Action were very quick leading to a total change in the state. Within five days, the Indian Army overpowered the Nizam's forces and the Razakkars, forcing Hyderabad to surrender on September 17, 1948. After the surrender of Hyderabad army, Mir Laik Ali, the Prime Minister and Kasim Razvi were arrested. On September 22nd 1948, the Nizam withdrew his complaint in the Security Council. The merger of Hyderabad dominions into the Indian Union was announced.

The fall of Hyderabad marked the failure of the Nizam's policies, proving that an independent princely state within India was not viable. The Nizam in his firman of 24 November 1949, declared and directed that the constitution of India should be the constitution for the state of Hyderabad. A formula agreement was signed on 25th January 1950, between the Governor General of India, representing the Indian Government and the Nizam. The agreement had four articles. (Uma, 2011) (Uma, 2011)

- Article 1 Detailed the entitlement of the Nizam's privy purse of Rs.5,000,000 annually free of all taxes, with effect from 1st April, 1950. This was payable

only to the present Nizam for his life time. Subsequent provisions would be made for his successors, by the Government of India, in due time.

- Article 2 provided that the Nizam will be entitled to the full ownership, use and enjoyment of all the funds, shares, securities and other private properties movable as well as immovable.
- Article 3 provided, the Nizam and the members of his family shall be entitled to all the personal privileges, dignities and titles enjoyed by them whether within or outside the territories of the state immediately before the 15th day of August 1947.
- Article 4 The Government of India guarantees the succession according to law and customs to the gaddi of the state and to the personal rights, privileges, dignities and titles of HEH, the Nizam of Hyderabad.

This brought the curtains down on the 224 years of the Asaf Jahi reign and the transition of Hyderabad from a princely state to the independent state of Hyderabad. It is intriguing that from 19th century onwards the Nizams administration though feudal in its core character juxtaposed it with principles of constitutional, progressive, modern governance. The reforms were a more conscious decision and effort on the part of the state administration unlike the Union government that simply chose continuity over change in terms of structures and institutions of governance, on the premise of familiarity lessening the burden of transition. This demonstrates that the State administration was responsive to change and innovations as need be and yet refrained from the transformation that was most needed, - one to a democratic system. The next eight years, still marked a period of transformation, but realized through three different political regimes- Military, Civil, and Democratic.

The next chapter deals with the process of deconstruction of the administrative apparatus of the princely state and emergence of the new representative democratic apparatus as the state integrated with the Indian Union.

CHAPTER- II
Process of Political Administrative - Deconstruction and Integration

Introduction

Political and Administrative Structure Under the Nizams

The politics and administration of the state was built on a combination of the feudal autocracy and economy, and social structures that operated through land ownership within the majority community. The feudal autocracy was represented by the Nizam at the apex, with the title of Jha's followed by the– Paigahs, Patriarch Nawab Abdul Fateh Khan Teg Jung, bestowed the title- Shams-ul-Umara/ Shams-ul-Mulk second in order of hierarchy, next to the royal family by marriage, and the three branches of his family which include- Nawab Asman Jah Paigah 1840-1898, Nawab Khursheed Jah Paigah 1841-1902, and Sir Vicar-Ul- Umra- Iqbal- Ud- Doula Paigah 1856-1902. These three families comprised the '**Umra-e-Uzzam' – the great nobles** along with the Samsthana Rajas, Family of Salar Jung, Khan-e-Khana, Mehdi Jung, Suriyar Jung and Hindu Rajas like – Maharaja Kishen Prasad, Maharaja Dharam Karan, and Maharaja Shyam Raj to name a few.

The administration was based on the Mansabdari/Jagirdari System of the Mughal empire, but later underwent reform to incorporate elements of constitutionalism in its character and operation. During the period of Nizam Mir Osman Ali Khan, the VII Nizam the political administrative structure was constituted of the legislature, executive and the judiciary. The Legislature comprised of the Legislative Council operational from 1892 to 1946 and the Legislative assembly from 1947 – onwards. The Executive was headed by the Prime Minister, referred to as the Dewan/Sadr Azam and the judiciary represented by the High court known as Adalat- e- Aliya. The Executive functioned as Cabinet Council from 1892 to 1918 and as his Highness Executive Council from 1919-1948. The Sadr Azam was followed by ministers, known as Sadr Mahims. The Secretariat comprised of the administrative departments like finance, revenue, military, medical, judicial, political, public works etc. (M.A, 1984) (M.A, 1984)

The state was divided for the purpose of administration into Subas and Districts numbering (15). Each Suba was under a Subedar and District under a set of Talukdars. Further divisions include Taluks headed by Tahsildars, peshkar, and girdavar (Khan M. M., 1909) (Khan M. M., 1909) (revenue collectors). The last class of officials found

only in the Telangana region. At, the village level one had the Deshmukh, Deshpande, Patel and Patwari. They comprised the lower rung of the administrative hierarchy, were paid in cash and kind-in the form of land grant (Inams) for their services. Interwoven into this structure was the land grant system which defined the feudal system.

Feudal Economy- Pattern of Land Distribution

The feudal economy was manifest in the pattern of land distribution re-enforcing the inter twined relationship of land, caste and power in the region, a major marker of a feudal society, which was dominated by the Jagirdars, Deshmukh's, Patels and Patwari's in the rural hinterland and by nobles and aristocrats in the urban areas. A closer look at the pattern of land distribution in Hyderabad State shows-

The first type of land was called Sarf-e-Khas or Crown Lands/Nizam's private estate and it was mainly around Hyderabad city or the Atraf-e-Balda (literally meaning around the city). This was approximately 10% of the state land and the revenue generated from these lands went directly to the privy purse of the Nizam and its administration was done by officials who were paid from the Nizam's treasury. (Khusro, 1958) (Khusro, 1958, pp. 4-6)

The second type of land was Dewani. It was state land (approx. 59.2%) and all taxes and revenue collected went to the State treasury. (Department, 1951) (Department, 1951) (Ali M. C., 1886) The non-Dewani land (approx. 49.79) which comprised of land, other than state land was administered by the Dewan and its revenue collected by the state. (Ali M. C., 1886)

The third type was the Samsthana and Jagirs. The Samsthana were old Hindu ruled principalities. The Samsthana heads signed treaties recognizing the overlordship of the Nizam and paid a nominal tax (peshcush) to the Hyderabad government. Jagirs were owned both by Muslims and the Hindus. These were granted for court or military services. The Jagirs paid no land tax or revenue to the government and all income went to the Jagirdars. The Deshmukh's were the landlord group that owned thousands of acres of land and combined money lending with landlordism which created hatred among the lesser peasants.

There were also the 'Paigahs' – or formally referred to as ***Jagirat- i-Nigehdasht-i-Jamiat*** *were those jagirs* granted by the second Nizam to Abdul Fateh Khan, the first Nawab Shams-ul-Umara-Amir-i-Kabir which means household corps, originally created for raising corps of troops to be at the disposal of the ruler, but with passage of

time and the land grants made, they acquired a feudal and hereditary nature. These Paigahs Ameers had their own civil administration and even kept small armies. (Raj, 2014, pp. 23-25) (Raj S. , 2014)

This being the political structure of the State as it acceded to the Indian Union, its assimilation into the Indian Union, understandably would be fraught with many challenges as the dismantling of the power structure would not be limited only to the ruling political class but would also permeate through the societal structure socially and economically. Similarly, the administrative structure though it reflected the proactive measures taken for inclusion of principles like that of separation of power between the legislature and the executive through creation of cabinets, legislative council of ministers, executive council, along with creation of new departments to accommodate expansion of government activity related to infrastructure, public works, education, public services, welfare, ecclesiastical work, health, communications, finance and resource management it operated within the larger framework of a feudal political structure. Additionally, after the police action, the region was also grappling with rise in communal tensions, along with political instability, and lapse of governance.

This dichotomous nature of the polity and the administration therefore posed challenges for an interim government that would have to take reformatory measures which would probably be constituted as reactive or negative by certain quarters but necessary, to facilitate the transition of the feudal princely state to an independent democratic political unit. Point to note here, would be that the only visible representation of this government as military would be, that it is headed by a military officer. Rest in all its bearing this was a civil government with the mandate to deliver and there was a long list of issues to be addressed. From the immediate to the long term, issues ranged from maintenance of law and order, constitution of a new cabinet, reorganization of administration, rehabilitation of refugees, restoring the fiscal health of the state, restoration of normal food supply, initiating reforms in land holding structure and agriculture to rectify the socio-economic disparities prevalent under the feudal rule and check the communist uprising. (Rao B., 1949) (Rao B. , 1949)

The police action termed Operation Polo by the military despite its swiftness, left in its trail a state of disarray and in certain instances destruction. This was abjectly felt more in the peripheral areas of the state. Hence one of the foremost challenges for the

incoming administration was to contain the breakdown of law and order, particularly in the peripheral regions of Marathwada and Telangana, which witnessed intense communal and political unrest.

The Indian troops when they entered Secunderabad on 18th September 1948, they were confronted with an atmosphere of fear and uncertainty, and two contrasting vivid sentiments of the population, the Hindus and the Muslims. The Hindus declaring in not-so-subtle messaging that their time had arrived and the Muslims on the other hand down to dumps, as they witnessed the downfall of the Nizam. Matters were compounded because the incumbent administration went in a disarray and were found wanting to adapt to the new reality.

In this background, Major General J.N. Choudhury was appointed the Military Governor of Hyderabad (Nag, 2022) (Nag, 2022)on 18 September 1948 marking the beginning of direct military rule, in Hyderabad to establish a secular democratic state out of the ashes of a feudal autocratic regime. (Rao B. U., 1948-1949) Major General Choudhary was an experienced military officer who had played a key role in Operation Polo. His appointment was a strategic move by the Indian government, as he had firsthand knowledge of the region, having led the Indian forces during the military action.

Given the severity of the crisis, the Indian government decided that immediate civilian governance was not feasible, and hence military rule was deemed necessary as a stop-gap solution. However, a contrary view would state that irony was written in every act of the Union during that period, as the people accused of excesses, in annexing the state, were given the charge of restoring law and order in the region. The instance here would be the Pandit Sunder Lal report on the aftermath of police action that claimed the lives of many, and that this act was purportedly committed by the army, and no action was taken against the units involved.

Having thus stated, as the central team was being formed, an interim advisory committee was appointed by H.E.H The Nizam (Rao B. U., 1948-1949)on September 17th 1948 CE which comprised of HH Prince of Berar, C-N-C Major General El Edroos, Nawab Din Yar Jung (Commissioner of Police), Mr. Ramachar (ex-minister), Mr. Abu Al Hassan Syed Ali (ex-president) of MIM, and Mr. Pannalal. (Express, Members of Gov't - HYD, 1948)This committee was disbanded veryquickly and later another ad hoc committee was created headed by Sir Mirza Ismail, Nawab Zain Yar Jung Dewan

Bahadur and A. Aiyengar on the 19th of September, 1948 to assist the military governor in maintenance of law and order. This arrangement ended on October 17th 1948, and a new cabinet was formed which consisted of the military governor assisted by two senior officers of the Indian Civil Service one retired Muslim officer of Hyderabad state and one serving Hindu officer of the Hyderabad state. (Rao B. U., 1948-1949)

The central team members of government formed during this period were, His Excellency Major General J.N Chaudhary Military governor, The Honourable Mr. D.S Bakhle, I.C.S, Chief Civil Administrator, the Honourable Mr. D.R. Pradhan, I.C.S. (Rao B. U., 1948-1949)Additional Chief Civil Administrator, The Honourable Nawab Zain Yar Jung and the Honourable Raja Dhondi raj Bahadur.

Upon assuming office, General Choudhury's first priority was to disarm the civilian population, prevent further communal clashes, and restore basic law enforcement mechanisms. Orders were promptly issued to surrender all ammunition, arms by general population and irregular organizations like Razakars. Special tribunals were set up to conduct trials of law breakers, miscreants and offenders and stringent action was taken against offenders irrespective of their caste, creed and community. (GOH, Administration Report, 1948-1950)Along with this peace committees were formed as confidence building measure among the public.

This enabled the troops to return the region to normalcy in a short period. The effect was most obvious in the twin cities of Hyderabad and Secunderabad. Interestingly, for Hyderabad the help of Non- Mulkis or Ghair mulkis was once again felt necessary to expediate the matters especially at the district level. Hence, officers from Indian Union were brought in. Police, revenue and medical offices from the Indian Union were set up in the districts at the highest level. (Farooqi, 2009)

When the Military governor, asked all the civil servants to return to their posts, it was found that many officials had acted in a manner contrary to their service rules i.e., as per Hyderabad Government Servants Conduct rules. As a result of this, out of total 4000 officers, around 100 officials were suspended after inquiry by the chairman of the public service commission Col. M.A. Rahman. (Rao B. U., 1948-1949) However, the military government, had to face the charge of discrimination with respect to Muslim officers. Regarding the Muslim officers, at the time of police action and just after, the figures stood at a total of 1470 out of which 358 in total were either given compulsory or

voluntary retirement and rest dismissed from service post inquiry. (Gopalswami, 1950) (NAI, Notes/papers in connection with constitution of IAS/IPS in Hyderabad, 1951)These measures led to allegations of excesses by the Indian military, and had to be justified as necessary to restore order.

Re- organization of the administration, to address the issue of dis- proportionate representation of subjects in the administration was initiated through merit-based selection and appointments, with established seniority list of public servants. Similar measures were undertaken for the state police and army. The strength of the Nizam's army was reduced from 17,870 to 10,415 as on September 1948, 8,124 military personnel were demobbed (released from service with pay), irregular forces of the Nizam known as Nizam-e-Jamiat whose strength stood at 6,282 as on 15th September 1948 was reduced to 3,490. The Paigah forces were disbanded and welfare packages to the tune of 1 crore from a defence budget of 6 crore was utilized for the rehabilitation of the ex-servicemen, injured and family of personnel who had lost their lives in the police action. Similarly, the police forces were increased from 17,000 to 35,000. In the same line, the judicial apparatus was re-vamped to make it accessible to all and the composition of the judges and territorial jurisdiction and location of courts were also re- worked. These re- calibrations were reflections of a changing administration's needs and emphasis. (GOH, Administration Report, 1948-1950)

The state's finances had accrued a deficit of over 13 crores in expenditure on building military reserves against India, disbursing funds to individuals who lived offshore from government treasury, aid to Muslim (refugees) from other parts of India, who came to Hyderabad, aid to Razakars during the time period of 1947-1948. For the military/civil government resetting this financial duress was a herculean task. With progressive reduction in government expenditure and taking anti- inflationary steps a deficit of 1.5 crore was covered in the period 1948-1949. (Rao B. , 1949)

Welfare initiatives were undertaken to rehabilitate displaced families, and compensation was provided for properties lost during the violence. A master plan was prepared to deal with rehabilitation of refugees, destitute children, agricultural classes who faced losses during this period, small traders, hawkers, craftsmen etc. and amount to the tune of 1 crore was earmarked for this purpose. (Rao B. U., 1948-1949)Similarly, provision of food, water, power, communications, canal and tank irrigation were streamlined at war footing. The targets set were aligned for achieving Hyderabad's

prosperity- irrigation (9,45,000 acres), (5,00,000 kw) hydro power generation, Godavari Valley Development scheme, Tungabhadra irrigation cum hydro power project etc. to name a few. Special attention was paid to the cause of the marginalized, periphery population (tribes and people dependent on forest resources).

Another key aspect paid heed to by the military government was the introduction of Instruction through the mother tongue, in lower secondary stage and in twin cities of Hyderabad and Secunderabad there would be provision for bi- lingual and three language option provided. The most far- reaching was the reform introduced in Osmania University, where along with Urdu, medium of instruction will be in Devanagari, Persian, Telugu, Marathi and Kanarese. Women's education was given priority as despite the efforts of the previous government the illiteracy rates were very high among girl child population. Also, the Department of Relief and Rehabilitation was reorganized to cater to the needs of all alike.

Among the long-term programmes, were the measures to regain the economic equilibrium of the state, by removing restrictions posed on items of export of the state, especially cotton and oilseeds, ban on use of Indian currency, exporting only through Hyderabad State Bank etc.

The Hyderabad state regulated aid to its industries through Industrial trust fund, which enabled industrial and technical research and this was utilized for drawing up an industrial development plan involving cottage industries like carpet making, toy making, rattan work, dyeing, pottery, hosiery, along with more established cottage industries like Bidri ware of Bidar and Himroo industries of Aurangabad.

The caretaker government also initiated a ground breaking land reform, as seen then, by taking over the Crown land of the Nizam, Sarf-e-Khas area measuring up to 8,000 sq. miles, the liquidation of which would mark the beginning of end of feudalism. The lead in this was taken by the Nizam himself stating 'times had changed'. Worth nearly three crores of rupees, the amount would be used for agrarian reforms to benefit the tiller. Point to note here, is that the Nizam had consented to the utilization of funds handed over by him from the revenue generated as per his financial disclosure statement, for the betterment of the state.
(counsellor, 1952)

Impact on Telangana Region- Communist activity

The Telangana region was not only affected by communal violence but was also the centre of an intense agrarian uprising against feudal landlords. Championed by communist, breakaway group from Andhra Mahasabha, the communist leaders build a counter hegemony strategy and structure to aid the peasant, farmers and landless labourers, bonded labourers to mitigate their issues with the landlords.

However, after Hyderabad's annexation, the military administration under General Choudhury treated the communist-led rebellion as a threat to stability and launched an aggressive crackdown. In a systematic method the communist were arrested and tried for excesses of use of violence. (Correspondent, 1949) (Correspondent, 1949) In this regard an intelligence gathering unit was mobilized and also help was taken from Madras and Mysore reserve police force to tackle the problem of reds. (Express, 1949 march 9-12) (Express, 1949)In fact, the government brought out pamphlets to educate the people to refrain from aiding and assisting the communist as the reds here in Hyderabad had turned anti- national, unlike their counter parts in other parts of the world. (Rao B., 2015) (Rao B. , 2015)The interim government viewed the Telangana insurgency as a law-and-order problem rather than a socio-economic issue, leading to brutal suppression instead of reform. The rebellion ultimately forced the Indian government to initiate land reforms, including the abolition of the zamindari and jagirdari systems, (Sharma, 1976) (Sharma, 1976)which later benefited Telangana's rural population.

On Dec 1st 1949 CE, the military government was replaced by a civilian administrator, a member of civil service, Mr. M.K. Vellodi. Effectively the military governor's cabinet transformed to a council of ministers and this administrative set up continued till march 1950 CE.

Tenure of the Civilian Government under M.K. Vellodi as Chief Minister (Thirumalli, 2023). The Government of India, under Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru, appointed M.K. Vellodi, a senior Indian Civil Service (ICS) officer, as the Chief Minister (Administrator) of Hyderabad. Vellodi, being a career bureaucrat with long administrative experience, represented a better alternative to deal with the complex governance issues facing Hyderabad in the aftermath of military rule. His appointment marked a significant turn in the governance of Hyderabad, from direct military rule to a civil administration.

Governance Policies and Reforms

The period of Vellodi's tenure was one of Hyderabad state's complete assimilation in to the Indian Union. The military government and the civil administration that had followed, the police action, carried out their work in an administrative system that was already exhaustive in structure and character. The Nizam's administration had set up over the years most of the departments in operation as witnessed in presidencies or other princely states, major cities of British India.

Hence, Mr. M.K. Vellodi's time at helm, can be classified in to two stages. First, the process of integration of Hyderabad, this involved abolition of departments and portfolios that were part of the feudal administrative apparatus and secondly full assimilation into the union through re-organization of departments, redistribution of portfolios and introduction of policies that were formulated at the central level and were to be implemented in states.

Administrative structure- Mr. M.K. Vellodi's Government

The council of ministers of Mr. M.K. Vellodi were the same as that of the Military Governor's cabinet till march of 1950 CE, then the following members were added to the council in the capacity of non- official ministers- Shri. B. Ramakrishna Rao, Shri Vinayak Rao Koratkar, Shri V.B. Raju and Shri Phoolchand Gandhi.

This arrangement continued till march of 1952 CE. (GOH, 1950) After, which the popular government of B. Ramakrishna Rao took over from 1952 CE. His popular ministry comprised of several important ministers like, Nawab Mehdi Nawaz Jung, Dr. Marri Chenna Reddy, Shri Devi Singh Chouhan, Dr. G.S. Melkote to name a few. The popular ministry took office on 6th March 1952 CE. (GOH, 1950) (GOH, ADMN REPORT, 1950)

Reorganization of the Bureaucracy and Law Enforcement in Hyderabad

The outstanding administrator that he was Dewan Sir Salar Jung I, was the creator of modern Hyderabad Civil Service. As early as in 1882, he realized the importance of well- educated and trained personnel were required if the state wished to deliver on its policies and programs. Reeling under mis- management of state administration, he issued the extraordinary Jareeda to promote education and training of the young Hyderabadis for recruitment in the Nizam's Services. Drawing on administration model of the British outside the state of Hyderabad, He propounded the idea of building an efficient administrative system modelled thus and introduced several administrative

reforms in that direction.

Many singular reforms initiated by him, like the Taluqdari system, Zilabandi, and Subedari system were in line with creating public institutions, that would help him to dissolve the old structures of governance and usher in new organized civil service. and Taluqdari system, Revenue, Police and Judicial reforms by Salar Jung facilitated the formation of Hyderabad Civil Service. Subsequently, the proclamation of Qanun Cha Mubarik of 1892, the Cabinet Council, and the Executive Council (1919) framed rules and regulations governing the services as well as regulated and institutionalized the Hyderabad Civil Services. Established by a firman in 1947 CE on 27th April by the Nizam, the Hyderabad Public commission was a significant landmark in the organization and management of civil services in the princely state. Modelled after the Civil service system introduced by the British in India, that enabled it to truly bring about uniformity of administration. The HPC had a chairman and 4 member officials. (Tgpc, 2014)

This commission became the frontrunner of HPSC in Hyderabad after state's merger with India. The commission framed the service rules, pay, allowances, etc. in 1952 CE, of the Hyderabad civil service. Similarly, Hyderabad government service, rules were also formulated in this period. (GOH, ADMN REPORT, 1951 52)

During the tenure of Gen. J.N. Choudhary, most of the changes introduced in the administrative structure, were related to, correction of majority community representation in the services, police, army, and abolition of Jagir system. The reorganization of Hyderabad's bureaucracy and law enforcement was therefore, one of the most important steps in its integration into the Indian Union.

The Hyderabad government in October 1949 CE had expressed its desire to be part of the IAS, IPS Scheme of the central government as that would facilitate, administrative integration. This was realized during the tenure of M.K. Vellodi when IAS officers were allotted to the state numbering 11, and at the same time officers of the state cadre of list II were absorbed into the central IAS /IPS scheme. Taking forward the re- organization matters taken up by the Vellodi government during this period related to – Mulki rules, proportionate representation of SC/ST in administration, change of Fasli Calendar, Evacuee property of Government officials who left for Pakistan, Mandatory knowledge of Urdu for Government service and revision of pay as per recommendation of Gorwala

committee. (GOH, Administration Report, 1948-1950)

The Gorwala committee made recommendations in 1951 CE which were accepted by the Union government of India with regards to training, skilling, organizational reform in civil service as the Independent Indian government had super-imposed itself on an administrative structure inherited from its past colonial rulers. (GOI, 2021)The M.K. Vellodi's government therefore, sought to rebuild the bureaucracy by introducing trained and experienced civil servants, ensuring a well-organized and standardized bureaucracy.

Therefore, every attempt was made in the bureaucratic system in Hyderabad to remove strong influences of the Nizam's autocratic rule, which was characterized by a feudal and hierarchical structure. Senior officials, such as the Prime Minister (Diwan) and the Nizam's personal advisors, wielded significant power, and the civil service despite reforms inculcating modern elements was largely composed of local elites, many of whom were loyal to the Nizam's administration. With the military annexation in 1948 and the subsequent military rule under General J.N. Choudhury, many of these officials had to be either removed, retired, or replaced by Indian Civil Service (ICS) officers who were more aligned with Indian national interests. This was crucial in ensuring that Hyderabad was no longer governed by remnants of the Nizam's feudal establishment.

While the reorganization began with the centralization of power, one of the key reforms under Vellodi's leadership was delegating powers to the local level. The Indian model of governance, emphasizing democratic participation and accountability, became the guiding principle in shaping Hyderabad's administration. The reforms in Local administration covered corporations, city municipalities, town municipalities, and 16 district boards in the state. The major initiatives included of the Vellodi administration were water works survey in districts, and in the municipalities the focus was on expansion of essential services and infrastructure. (GOH, Administration Report, 1948-1950)

Reorganization of Law Enforcement

The Hyderabad Police Force was already in the process of re- organization when the military governor took over in September 1948 CE. In the subsequent administration the major task of the police constabulary was to reign in the communist activities and their leaders. The military government of Gen. J.N. Choudhary had the twin task of

curbing the activities of the Razakars and the communist. However, by 1951 CE there was a significant decrease in the activities of the Communist. With the Razakars already, disbanded and their leader Qasim Rizvi under trial, the main focus of the Vellodi administration was to maintain the law-and-order situation in the city and the peripheral areas, as cases of theft, murder, dacoity, house breaking were still prevalent. The signs of improving law and order situation can be gauged from the statistics between 1950 CE- 1952 CE on crime rates. In each of the above-mentioned categories, there was a drop in the range of 27% to 49%. (GOH, ADMN REPORT, 1951 52)

The Hyderabad state police was functioning under three heads prior to 1947 CE. Those were District police, City police and Hyderabad Railway police. The first and second category of law enforcement agencies reported directly to the state government and the third was under the British government. (GOH, Administration Report, 1948-1950)

The sanctioned strength of the police force was increased from 35,144 to 40,620. In the process of re-organization of the police, the police of 36 jagirs and Samsthanas were amalgamated in February 1948 CE. A new Hyderabad special Reserve Police force was raised- six battalions of them to address the issue of law and order. The recruitment was done keeping the proportionate representation of community in mind and non-locals were continued to be recruited as locals did not come forward in adequate numbers.

To control the communist problem a large number of Indian Union Armed Police were borrowed from different states and who were now gradually repatriated to their parent states, like the S.A.P Madras, P.A.C Uttar Pradesh, S.R.C. Bombay, M.S.A.R.P. Mysore to name a few. (GOH, Administration Report, 1951-1952)

Organized training at training school Amberpet, expansion of crime detection and intelligence units were the hall marks of the Vellodi period. The integration of the law enforcement of Hyderabad with the rest of the country, was one of the significant achievements that would pave way for the state's full integration with the rest of India. The centralization of police command under the authority of the Indian government was aimed to ensure a uniform law enforcement system across the country and integration of the Hyderabad Police with India's national security framework.

Re- Organization of Judiciary

In parallel with the reorganization of law enforcement, there was a significant overhaul of the judicial system. The Nizam's legal system had been a hybrid of Islamic law and colonial British legal practices, which created challenges in aligning it with India's secular and democratic Constitution. Under Vellodi, efforts were made to align Hyderabad's legal system with the Indian legal framework. The Hyderabad High Court was reorganized and brought in line with the structure of India's Supreme Court and High Courts in other states. (Chakrabarthy B. , 2025)

Up to September 1949 CE, the High Court at Hyderabad consisted of one chief justice, 10 puisine judges and one Mufti. The post of mufti was abolished and with respect to the organizational structure in other courts- there were sessions, judges of small causes, city magistrates, Munsif etc. Later in the process of re-organization, six special courts were set up and when the Indian Constitution came into force in Jan 1950, several writs, and other matters of jurisprudence in line with Indian Penal Code came up at the courts of Hyderabad. It was during this period that special tribunal No. IV came up at trimulgherry which was to hear the Shoebullah murder case and the Bibi Nagar dacoity case. Many special tribunals had come up at that time to hear cases of murder, dacoity and arson. Special public prosecutors were also appointed to dispose of the cases quickly.

These special tribunals functioned from April 1949 to December 1949, and then replaced with courts presided by sessions judges. rest of India, was extended to Hyderabad, ensuring uniformity in criminal law. (GOH, Administration Report, 1948-1950) The constant revisions of courts and judges, was undertaken to re-organise the judiciary. As a result, by the end of 1952 CE there were total 11 judges with power to adjudicate on both civil and criminal cases, which included judges of the Honourable High Court. Judges from District Sessions court, City and District Magistrates court, Subordinate judges court had corresponding powers of adjudication

Economic and Land Reforms Under M.K. Vellodi (1950-1952)

During the tenure of M.K. Vellodi as the Chief Administrator of Hyderabad (1950-1952), the state (Seshan, 2018) faced a severe economic crisis, exacerbated by the disruptions caused by Operation Polo, the military annexation, and the collapse of the Nizam's feudal structures. The agriculture dependent economy, which had been

structured under the Nizam's rule, was deeply rooted in feudalism, with vast landholdings controlled by Jagirdars and Zamindars, who exerted immense power over the peasants. The new administration, aiming to modernize and integrate Hyderabad into the Indian Union, prioritized economic recovery and land reforms to eliminate feudal exploitation, improve agricultural productivity, and lay the foundation for long-term economic stability.

Land Reforms: Abolition of the Jagirdari System

The most important changes during this period were in the realm of land revenue administration, abolition of Sarf-e-Khas and jagirs, introduction of agrarian reforms and the reconstitution of Board of Revenue.

During the period September 1948 CE to March 1950 CE there were 22,457 villages, of which 6,535 villages were of jagir land, 1,961 Sarf-e-Khas villages and 13,961 Diwani villages. Vide government regulation no. 41 and 69 the government of Hyderabad had taken over all crown land and the entire process of completion was achieved in the same year. (GOH, Administration Report, 1948-1950) At, the district level talukdars and civil administrators were mandated to service the jagirs. At, the same time, various departments of the government such as forest, survey, medical, education, mines etc. became operational in jagir areas. The three primary Paigah jagirs administrative apparatus was disbanded and instead an officer in charge was appointed provisionally, to close the settlement of the jagirs. Similarly, other major jagirdars head offices were wound up and the process of assimilation of their titles was achieved at war footing. The entire jagir services was re- organized to benefit close to 3,309 jagir employees. The dismantling of the jagirdari structure had many folds effect as not only the landlords were affected but also employees on the estate, had to experience a changed socio- economic status.

To, mitigate the issues arising out of Jagir abolition act a jagir advisory board was also setup. The abolition of the Jagirdari system not only addressed land ownership issues but also helped bring about a more egalitarian land distribution. This reform was central to creating a more equitable agricultural system, allowing the state to begin shifting from a feudal, agrarian-based economy to one that could be more productive and economically integrated with the rest of India.

Tenancy Reforms

Alongside the abolition of the Jagirdari system, Vellodi's government also introduced tenant-friendly policies designed to give farmers greater security over the land they cultivated. In the pre-reform period, sharecroppers and tenant farmers were often at the mercy of landlords, who could increase rents, impose arbitrary conditions, or evict tenants without compensation.

The new administration, in line with national agrarian reform policies, introduced tenancy laws that aimed to protect tenant rights by securing land tenure for those who had been cultivating the land for long periods. Regulate rent to prevent exorbitant charges from landlords and to ensure that it was affordable and fair. Provide legal protection against eviction for tenants who had been living on and cultivating land for several years. (Pacione, 2019)

The Vellodi government instituted a system of recording tenancy. In this in approx. all 22,000 odd villages, special registers were maintained to make entries and amendments could also be made to correct wrong entries. This provided opportunity to tenants to get their grievances addressed. The tenants were also encouraged to get tenancy certificates on standardized forms and protected tenants were induced to purchasing their holdings. These reforms were designed to reduce the exploitation of tenant farmers and increase agricultural productivity by offering them more stability and security in their farming operations. Even in the revamped jagir administration, there were cases of debt settlements, and religious and hereditary grants. The government made arrangements to ameliorate these issues too, as per rules.

Economic Modernization and Infrastructure Development

In addition to the land reforms, Vellodi's administration also focused on the economic modernization of Hyderabad. The industrialization of the region was given priority, particularly in sectors like textiles, manufacturing, and food processing, which had been largely underdeveloped during the Nizam's reign. Hyderabad had been a major centre for silk weaving and trading, but many of its traditional industries had been left behind in terms of modern technological practices in certain instances.

The development of infrastructure—including railways, roads, irrigation systems, and communication networks—was another key focus of the administration. These efforts were intended to improve the state's economic integration with the broader Indian

economy and stimulate trade and commerce. The state began to invest in public works, including the expansion of canal irrigation systems to facilitate agriculture in the fertile regions, particularly in Telangana and Rayalaseema. This was particularly crucial for a state that was heavily dependent on agriculture for its income and livelihood. The grow more food campaign along with water works and expansion of irrigational infrastructure was crucial to the region's growth. As per works executed in three years from 1949 CE to 1952 CE- Maintenance of Tanks.

Year	No. of tanks repaired	Acreage	Cost in Osmania Currency	Expected production in tons
1949-1950	137	16.740	12.72	6,696
1950-1951	1,192	75,902	58.18	30,360
1951-1952	711	88,411	22.54	15,764

Table 1.1 Source- Hyderabad Administrative Report- March 1952, pp-197

Promotion of Cooperative Farming and Credit Societies

A further aspect of the economic reforms was the promotion of cooperative farming and the establishment of credit societies to support small and marginal farmers. In the earlier system, access to credit had been limited, and farmers were often forced to borrow from moneylenders at exorbitant rates of interest. Under the new system, the government helped establish cooperative societies that would provide farmers with access to affordable credit and modern agricultural techniques, which in turn would improve productivity and reduce their reliance on moneylenders. The Hyderabad Agricultural Co- Operative Association was registered towards the end of June 1949 CE, and the establishment of agricultural extension services also played a key role in modernizing farming practices. The Co- operative credit societies grew from 4,094 to 4164 in the years 1950 CE- 1952 CE. They were the main feature of the co-operative movement aiding the farmers. To ascertain their role the following figures from 1950 CE -1952 CE in terms of loans advanced – in Osmania currency Rs. 1,85,39,476 to individuals and societies, loans recovered – Rs. 1,42,55,125 and outstanding loan – Rs. 4,15,75,090 provide an insight into the volume of business transacted. (GOH, Administration Report, 1951-1952)Another important development o f the period was the

development of Hyderabad Agricultural Research Station that was set up at an estimated cost of Osmania sikka Rs. 8,10, 840. (GOH, Administartive Report, 1952) These services helped educate farmers about new techniques in crop selection/rotation, irrigation, leading to increased yields and better land utilization. The complete integration of the financial administration happened in the subsequent years when the Osmania sikka was gradually phased out by 1955.

The First General Elections and Formation of Popular Government (1952-1956)

Political Landscape and Major Parties Contesting the Elections (1952-1956)

The first general elections in Hyderabad State after its integration into the Indian Union (1952) marked a significant political milestone in the history of the region. These elections were a crucial step in the democratic consolidation of the state, moving it from a feudal, monarchical system to a democratic, constitutional framework.

The elections also reflected the shifting political dynamics in the state, with new political forces emerging and competing for control in a state that had undergone significant political, social, and economic transformation following the Police Action and the subsequent accession of Hyderabad to India.

The Dominance of Indian National Congress (INC)

The Indian National Congress (INC), the dominant political party at the national level, was the major force in the Hyderabad elections. Congress had established a firm base in the state (Kavita, 1997) due to its alignment with the Indian government's policies and its active role in the integration of Hyderabad into the Indian Union. The Congress leadership, particularly under Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel, had worked closely with the interim governments of Gen. J.N. Choudhury and M.K. Vellodi, gaining the trust of the Indian authorities as well as significant sections of the urban population and the Hyderabadi elite. By the time of the 1952 elections, Congress had mobilized support among various communities, including Hindus, Muslims, and the Scheduled Castes, positioning itself as the primary party advocating for national unity and social reforms.

The INC’s major campaign promises included land reforms, economic modernization, and the protection of civil rights under the new democratic system. Its candidates were seen as agents of national integration, working to unify Hyderabad with the rest of the Indian Union while promoting the secular ideals of the Indian Constitution. The Congress party presented itself as a unifying force that could bring together the various

fragmented communities within the state, offering a vision of a modern, democratic India while addressing the socio-economic issues inherited from the old princely regime. (Nehru, Election Manifesto - First General Election, 1951)

In his address to the presidents of the Pradesh Congress committees on 19th September 1951, Nehru emphasized on the quality of the candidates. They should be men and women of integrity and adhering to the values of the congress. (Nehru, Right kind of candidates, 1951)

The Influence of the Muslim League

While the Indian National Congress was the dominant party, the All-India Muslim League (AIML), which had played a key role in the formation of Pakistan, (Kumar, 2021)still had a significant presence in Hyderabad. The AIML had its roots in Hyderabad, where it had a strong base among the Muslim population, particularly those who had been loyal to the Nizam's rule and were wary of the Indian government's policies. The party, however, faced a major challenge in maintaining its relevance after the creation of Pakistan and the integration of Hyderabad into India. The Muslim League's role in the elections was diminished, but it still mobilized some sections of the Muslim community in Hyderabad, (Muralidhran, 2014)particularly those who had concerns about their political future and cultural identity in a secular Indian state.

The AIML's campaign was centered on the protection of Muslim rights, religious freedom, and ensuring that the Muslim community's interests were safeguarded under the new political system. However, the party failed to attract a significant following due to the Indian government's secular policies and the increasing popularity of Congress among the Muslim population in the region, especially with the party's promises of social justice and equality.

The Rise of Regional Parties and the Telangana Movement

The elections also saw the emergence of regional parties that sought to represent specific interests within the state. (Singh S. , 2013)One of the most significant developments was the rise of the Telangana movement, which had been gaining momentum even before the elections. The Telangana Praja Samithi (TPS), a regional political party, was formed to advocate for the separate statehood of Telangana, which had historically been underrepresented and underdeveloped compared to the Marathwada and Hyderabad regions.

The Telangana movement, driven by sentiments of regional identity, was a direct response to the perceived marginalization of Telangana by the government in the post-accession period. The TPS sought to highlight the disparities between Telangana and other parts of Hyderabad, advocating for regional autonomy and the allocation of resources to address the distinct needs of the Telangana region. While the TPS did not win major political power during the 1952 elections, it played a crucial role in influencing the political landscape, raising awareness of the need for regional balance in the distribution of power and resources within the state.

The Role of Leftist Parties and the Communist Influence

Alongside the Congress and regional parties, the leftist political forces, particularly the Communist Party of India (CPI), also had a presence in the 1952 elections. The CPI had strong roots in parts of Marathwada and Telangana, where it had gained support among farmers, labourers, and the working-class population who were dissatisfied with the landlord system and the exploitation they faced under the old order.

The Communist Party's campaign focused on land reforms, workers' rights, and the redistribution of wealth, appealing to the marginalized sections of society.

The Communist Party found some support in the rural areas, particularly in the Telangana and Marathwada regions, where it had a significant grassroots network. However, the party faced stiff competition from Congress, which had a more organized network and better resources to appeal to a broader electorate. Despite this, the CPI's influence was still notable, particularly in Marathwada, where it had a presence in local governance and played a role in mobilizing farmers and labour unions.

Electoral Process and Voter Participation in the First Elections (1952-1956)

The first general elections in the Hyderabad State (1952) were a pivotal moment in the political history of the region. These elections marked the transition of Hyderabad from a feudal, monarchical system to a democratic framework under the Indian Union. The electoral process and the level of voter participation in these elections reflected the complex political environment of the time, as the state grappled with its recent integration into the Indian Republic and the shift from absolute monarchy to constitutional democracy.

Preparation for Elections

The electoral process in Hyderabad began with a significant administrative overhaul,

as the region was still in the midst of recovering from the Police Action (Operation Polo) and the aftermath of the integration of Hyderabad into India in 1948. (Howarth, 2005) The Indian government, under the leadership of the Indian Election Commission, took steps to establish a legal and administrative framework to organize elections in Hyderabad, which had previously been governed by a princely autocracy.

One of the first major challenges was the establishment of electoral boundaries and the organization of voter lists. The Indian Election Commission had to work with local authorities to prepare a list of eligible voters, taking into account the large rural population and the social divisions that had characterized the state under the Nizam's rule. The previous system had been deeply feudal, with limited participation in governance, and many people, particularly in the rural areas, had never been involved in formal electoral processes before.

To ensure that the election process was democratic, fair, and representative, the Indian government took special care to educate the population about their right to vote. This effort included the dissemination of educational materials and public awareness campaigns to help citizens understand the importance of voting and participating in the democratic process.

Electoral System and Voting Mechanism

The first general elections in Hyderabad were conducted under the Indian Constitution's framework, with direct elections for the Legislative Assembly. The Indian Election Commission set up a universal suffrage system, where all Indian citizens over the age of 21 were eligible to vote, irrespective of gender, caste, or religion. For a nation which had freed itself from the yolk of colonialism in recent history, this was crucial to make available to all its citizens the right to vote. This was the stepping stone to ensuring equality across in a socially fragmented society but exhibiting new energy to experiment in democratic politics. If voting rights had been restricted and mad dependent on social status or economic standing, it would have annulled the purpose of democracy.

The elections were organized on the basis of single-member constituencies, with separate ballots for different regions of Hyderabad, such as Telangana, Marathwada, and Hyderabad City. Each constituency elected a representative to the State Legislative Assembly, and the outcome would determine the formation of the state government. The voting system used was first-past the-post, where the candidate receiving the

highest number of votes in each constituency would win. (Adeney Katherine, 2024)

Voter Participation and Challenges

Voter participation in the 1952 elections was mixed, with both enthusiasm and hesitation in the state. The Indian government's all-out effort to mobilize the voters, especially in the countryside, did pay dividends. People had no experience of democratic elections and unfamiliar even with the mechanism of voting. Social divisions and prejudices along caste, religious, and regional lines represented further obstacles in trying to ensure that large-scale participation was achieved.

In the urban areas of Hyderabad, voter participation was higher, with educated and politically aware sections of society—especially the Hindu population—actively engaging in the process. However, in the rural areas, especially in the Telangana and Marathwada regions, voter participation was lower due to factors such as illiteracy, lack of awareness, and historical distrust of the ruling system. Additionally, many rural communities were still grappling with the aftermath of communal violence and economic hardship caused by the instability following the Police Action, which led to lower voter turnout in some constituencies.

The Muslim population, especially in regions that had been loyal to the Nizam, also exhibited some hesitance in participating. They were wary of the Congress party's dominance, fearing the erosion of Muslim identity in the new Indian political system. These concerns were heightened by the uncertainty regarding the protection of Muslim cultural rights under the secular Indian constitution. Despite these challenges, efforts by the Indian government and local political leaders worked to build trust among these groups and encourage voter turnout.

The leftist and regional parties, particularly the Telangana Praja Samithi (TPS), Communist Party of India (CPI), and the Muslim League, also campaigned to mobilize support from specific community groups, offering promises of land reforms, regional autonomy, and cultural rights. These parties faced challenges in reaching out to voters due to the centralized political environment created by the Indian Union and the dominance of the Indian National Congress. However, they still managed to build a loyal voter base in some rural constituencies.

The changes introduced due to delimitation by the Election Commission, the proposals of which were passed by the union parliament resulted in the state carving out 142

assembly and 21 parliamentary constituencies. The final publication of the voter list in October 1951 saw the total number of voters to stand at 90,35,497. For every 1000 voters one polling booth. In the first such exercise, 8811 polling booths were set up and 101,000 steel ballot boxes were procured. In all, 92 nominations were filed for parliamentary constituencies and 758 for assembly constituencies. The polling was spread from 21st December 1951 to 18th January 1952 and the total expenditure incurred (GOH, Administrative Report Elections, 1951-1952)for this stood at Rupees 21 lakhs.

Despite these challenges, the overall voter turnout in the 1952 elections was a sign of the growing political awareness of the population and their desire for democratic representation. The elections provided a platform for ordinary citizens to participate in a national political process, even as they navigated the complexities of post-accession political life.

Electoral Outcome and the Rise of B. Ramakrishna Rao's Government

In the first general elections held in 1952, the Indian National Congress emerged as the dominant political force, winning a substantial number of seats and securing the formation of a Congress-led government in Hyderabad. (Schottli, 2006) B. Ramakrishna Rao became the Chief Minister of the state (Somanaboina, 2025), heralding a new era of democratic governance under the Indian Union. The elections thus marked the official transition from monarchical rule to democratic rule, with the Congress party playing a leading role in shaping the political future of the state.

The electoral success of Congress also reflected the political consolidation of the Indian Union's influence in Hyderabad, as the people overwhelmingly supported the national integration process, choosing the Congress party's vision of secularism, social justice, and economic development. While the regional movements, including the Telangana Praja Samithi and leftist parties, continued to influence state politics, the 1952 elections represented the end of the old feudal order and the beginning of a new political era in Hyderabad.

Election Results and Formation of the Government

The elections were held in December 1951 CE and January 1952 CE. The party wise strength in assembly elections showed the dominance of the Congress party which secured 93 seats, followed by Peoples Democratic Front- 88 seats, Socialists-11, Peasants and Workers – 10 A.I.S.C Federation – 5, and Independents – 13. As after the elections, the Indian National Congress emerged as the clear winner,

securing a majority of seats in the Legislative Assembly. (Gundimeda, 2015) The results reflected the popularity of the Indian Union and the desire for stability following the turmoil of the Police Action and the post accession period. The Congress's campaign of national unity, secularism, and economic modernization resonated with a broad section of the population, especially in the urban areas. The first session of the Hyderabad Legislative Assembly was held from 21st March to 2nd April 1952 and Hon. Shri. K.S. Vaidya and Shri Paampan Gowda were Speaker and Deputy speaker respectively. (GOH, Administartive Report, 1952) (GOH, Administartive Report, 1952)

It is interesting to note here, that the congress had campaigned as the overwhelming victors till the last in the state. The impact of the communist parties was strongly felt in the rural areas. They had tremendous showing of securing 88 seats overall. The People's Democratic front, the communists backed political party was able to counter the congress campaign against them and along with independent's was able to defeat prominent congress candidates like J. Keshav Rao, M. Hanumantha Rao etc. The strong showing of congress candidates in Marathwada and Karnataka areas finally allowed the congress to wrest power in the state of Hyderabad. (Reddy, 2016) So, while the leftist parties and regional movements such as the Telangana Praja Samithi could not transform their seats into government, they continued to play an important role in the political discourse, raising issues related to regional autonomy and social justice. These political movements contributed to the long-term political evolution of Hyderabad, which would later see the state reorganization and the eventual formation of Telangana as a separate state in 2014. (Gangadhar, 2020)

Formation of the Popular Government under B. Ramakrishna Rao (1952-1956)

The formation of the first elected government in Hyderabad under Burgula Ramakrishna Rao in 1952 marked a significant milestone in the region's political evolution. The ministry of B. Rama Krishna Rao discharged its responsibilities from 6th of march1952 CE to 31st October 1956 CE. His ministry was headed by Governor C.M. Trivedi and had 9 cabinet level ministers and 12 deputy ministers. The entire administration worked under the hand and seal of the sovereign Mir Osman Ali Khan the Rajpramukh. (Reddy, 2016)

B. Ramakrishna Rao's Background and Leadership

B. Ramakrishna Rao was a freedom fighter, a strong advocate of democracy, and an experienced leader within the Indian National Congress. He played a key role in the

integration of Hyderabad with India, (Azam, 2017) he was widely respected for his administrative skills and commitment to democratic principles. He was an exceptional educationist, a polyglot and also ran newspaper weekly along with his brother and Shoebullah khan called 'Imroze'. As a strong voice associated with the Hyderabad State congress which was established by Ramananda Tirtha, Ramakrishna Rao had close experience of working with the Nizam establishment. As a satyagrahi, he also spent many years in prison. Moulded by the Congress and the Indian National movement B. Rama Krishna Rao was the person to helm the affairs at the Hyderabad state.

As the Chief Minister, Ramakrishna Rao faced the difficult task of addressing the socio economic and political problems that had accumulated over decades of princely rule. His primary goals were to restore law and order, implement land reforms, modernize the economy, and integrate Hyderabad fully into the administrative framework of the Indian Union. The framework of this was the five-year national plan launched by Jawahar Lal Nehru at the centre through the Planning Commission. Similar to it a state plan was to be envisaged by the B. Rama Krishna Rao government. The Hyderabad state with 81,668 sq. miles was divided into 17 districts and 139 talukas with a total population of the state being 186,55,108. The plan of action for the state had to reflect the needs of the majority of the population, which in this case lived in the villages, 81.4% of the population. In the initial period only 25.79% of the population was self – supporting, 19.88% earning dependents and 54.33% non- earning dependents. These statistics clearly showed that the immediate needs of the people were – food, clothes and shelter/housing followed by health, education, communication and industry. For this purpose, the initial outlay proposed was Rs. 40.53 crores, which later was increased to 55.42 crores. (Relations, 1955)

Administrative and Governance Reforms

Under the new elected leadership, the government focused on creating an efficient administrative system based on transparency, accountability, and democratic principles. One of the first steps was the reorganization of the bureaucracy, which previously had been dominated by officials loyal to the Nizam. The government ensured that administration was representative and inclusive, incorporating officials from diverse backgrounds, particularly those aligned with democratic ideals.

Land and Economic Reforms

One of the most significant policy changes was the implementation of land reforms,

which aimed to dismantle the Jagirdari and Zamindari systems that had long kept farmers and peasants in a state of economic dependence. In Hyderabad, the agricultural class constituted 68.2% of the total population and as per 1951 census were divided into own cultivators, unowned cultivators, cultivating labourers, and non-cultivating owners of land with percentage to population 41.2%, 7.4%, 17.2% and 2.4% respectively. (CENSUS, 1951)The government enacted laws to transform land tenure system in a way that removed disparities in the agrarian economy and provide balanced economic growth.

- Abolition of intermediaries between the government and the tiller of the soil.
- Conferring of rights of proprietorship on occupancy tenants.
- Protection of tenants at will
- Determination of an economic family holding to prevent acquisition of land by an individual beyond the fixed ceiling.
- Provide land ownership rights to small farmers and agricultural labourers.

The process of abolition of the intermediaries in land tenures began with the merger of the Nizams own land the Sarf-e-Khas with the state land or Diwani in 1949 which would now open up possibilities for the common peasant to own prime land directly from the government. In 1949, the government had appointed an agrarian reforms committee and on the basis of this committee's recommendation the Hyderabad Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act was passed in June 1950. The act gave legitimacy to holdings and rights of the tenants and designated them as 'protected tenants' if they had cultivated that land continuously for six years. However, when owners tried to evict such tenants to deny them their tenancy rights, an ordinance was made and passed in August 1952 named Hyderabad Prevention of Eviction Ordinance. Between 1951 and 1953 tenancy records were made for all villages. The state government also undertook two more important measures for land reforms namely- Census of Land Holdings and preparation of Record of rights. In keeping with the tenancy and agricultural land act 1950, the government appointed a Land commission to associate public opinion with land reforms implementation. This committee submitted its report and provided guidelines on delimitation of local areas and determination of family holdings in those areas. These initiatives by the Burugula Rama Krishna Rao government in imparting social justice and equity. (Relations, 1955, pp. 25-30) (Relations, 1955)

Rural Development

The Ramakrishna government following the different models of village development implemented by states of M.P, Madras and Andhra adopted the Community Project scheme for the state of Hyderabad. This project would be a peoples movement assisted by the government towards a full life in the village. The project proposes organizing 70 million rural families into useful co-operatives adopting scientific methods of agriculture, supplementary occupation through village industries, along with health, education, rural housing, social welfare, etc. 55 such projects were launched in 1952 with assistance from USA and the Ford Foundation to the tune of Rs. 40 million and Rs. 9.1 million respectively. The pilot Programme covered 25,264 villages and a population of 16.4 million. The program was enthusiastically received by villagers. The government then launched the National Extension Service as a permanent organization dedicated to rural development. A total of 21 NES blocks by the end of 1954 covering regions of Osmanabad, Bidar, Aurangabad etc. became operational aiming to address the issue of village development. (Relations, 1955, pp. 125-129)

Irrigation, Infrastructure, Communication and Industry

To support the rural development and boost agricultural production three major irrigation projects were under progress during the first five - year program- The Tungabhadra, the Rajolibanda and Godavari North Canal project. Along with this an inter – state project, the Nandikonda project and other major minor irrigation project at varying cost was taken up by the Hyderabad government for the purpose of boosting agricultural infrastructure. These dams, canals and tanks played a very important role in not only, food generation but also in the generation of hydel power. As quoted anonymously, “In the modern science quest for truth, the nearest approach to God is electricity, which at once gives us light, heat, sound and many other things”. The Hyderabad government inaugurated its first hydro – electric project on January 27th 1955 at Nizam Sagar. Built at a cost of Rs. 225 lakhs the project on river Manjira, a tributary of River Godavari provided 150000 Kw of energy to supplant power supply in twin cities of Hyderabad and Secunderabad. The Nizam Sagar project was supplanted by the Azamabad/ Ramaguendam thermal power scheme and Tungabhadra scheme to aid rural electrification. The road network was already developed during the Nizam’s period and the present government only added to the present mileage as it stood on 1954 that of 6275 miles. Similarly, the Road Transport Department of the old Nizam’s state railway was invested with Rs. 209.52 lakhs for future expansion. The

Nizam had already laid the foundation of an industrialized economy to supplant agriculture and in this regard had set up the Industrial Trust Fund to promote heavy industry in Hyderabad. The major industries were then Sirpur Paper Mills, Sirsilk (produced artificial silk- Rayon) and Singareni Collieries. Along with this emphasis was also laid on Industrial Research which was promoted through Central Laboratories for Scientific Industrial Research an adjunct of the Commerce and Industries Department established by the old order in 1944 was later inaugurated in January 1954 as CLSIR. The next impetus lay on cottage and small-scale industries primarily Khadi, coir, village oil, leather, handmade paper, gud, palm -gur, Khand sari, woollen blankets and bee-keeping. Approximately Rs. 33 lakhs were set aside by the government from 1953-1955 for the development of these industries. Later on, the advice of advisory boards of Handlooms, Handicrafts and Khadi village industries the above list was expanded to include- Bidriware of Bidar, Himroo, Kamkhab, Paithan Pallo and Brocade textiles of Aurangabad, Silver filigree of Karimnagar, mat-weaving Mahbubnagar, Wooden toys at Nirmal, carpet and Drugget at Warangal, and mill cloth
/Printing at Hyderabad. (Relations, 1955) (Relations, 1955)

Social and Educational Reforms

The elected government placed strong emphasis on education and social development. Under the Nizam's rule, education had been limited and elitist, with low literacy rates among the general population, particularly in rural areas and among marginalized communities. To address this, the government:

- Established new schools and colleges, especially in rural areas.
- Made primary education more accessible and introduced policies to increase female literacy.
- Promoted higher education and technical training to prepare youth for modern industries.) Health and social welfare policies were also introduced to improve public healthcare, sanitation, and welfare programs for the underprivileged. Hospitals and clinics were expanded to ensure better medical services, particularly in rural areas where healthcare infrastructure had been minimal. The government emphasized on basic learning but with focus on employability, as earn while you learn is an essential mantra of a sound education system. In keeping with this, the introduced basic teacher training centres, multi – purpose schools for boys and girls with adequate focus on theoretical learning and practical knowledge. The number of Primary schools in 1947-48 was 6300 which grew to 12,647 in 1954, middle schools in 1947-48 were 191 grew

to 249 in 1955 and High school from 162 to 166. University education was catered by Osmania university which had been converted into an affiliating University and 7 colleges in the state were affiliated to this university. (Relations, 1955, pp. 76-82)

The Finance Commission Government of India, had stipulated for the Hyderabad Government to state its views on allocation of income tax revenue as between Centre and State and also the share allocation of the state like other states. Any specific grant or assistance to be notified accordingly. The financial integration of Hyderabad with the Indian union ended its comfortable fiscal position after accession. In the year 1947-48 the revenue receipts stood at O.S. Rs. 20.75 crores and expenditure stood at O.S. Rs. 20.17 crores. The public debt was O.S. Rs. 27.82 crores which could be fully covered by assets like railways, road transport, irrigation among others. The State also had investment in securities, industry and shares to the tune of O.S.Rs. 54 crores making the state a surplus rich state. However, after police action and the subsequent governments the situation deteriorated and after launch of Federal Financial integration scheme there was visible subvention of grants earmarked for Hyderabad state as opposed to Mysore, Travancore- Cochin etc. The fragmentation of Hyderabad's revenue resulted in inappropriate computing not considering separate items like Railway receipts, Berar rent, tele- communication, income – tax etc. Also, the methodology followed in computing the division not considering whether the non-federal revenue left to the state was adequate or not, this federalization led to sources like income tax, railways, excise, currency were taken over by the Centre and the state left with undeveloped sources like – land revenue, forest, stamp, sales tax etc. (Statistics, 1952)

Political Stability and Democratic Participation

Under the elected government, democratic institutions were strengthened, ensuring that people's voices were heard in governance. The first general elections had already introduced universal adult suffrage, allowing every citizen above 21 years of age to vote, irrespective of caste, religion, or gender. The new government encouraged political participation, holding local elections and allowing opposition parties to function freely.

The government's policies reflected the principles of secularism and democracy, ensuring that all communities, including Hindus, Muslims, and other minorities, felt included in governance. Special efforts were made to reduce communal tensions that had arisen during and after Operation Polo, promoting inter-community harmony and

ensuring that policies did not discriminate against any religious or ethnic group.

Hyderabad's Role in the States Reorganization Process

Another key political development under the elected government was the States Reorganization debate. Hyderabad was a linguistically diverse state, with major communities speaking Telugu, Marathi, and Kannada. As demands for linguistic states grew across India, the government had to address calls for the division of Hyderabad based on language.

Eventually, in 1956, Hyderabad State was dissolved and merged with neighbouring states along linguistic lines:

- Telangana joined Andhra State to form Andhra Pradesh. (C, 2018)
- Marathwada became part of Maharashtra.
- Hyderabad-Karnataka joined Mysore State (later Karnataka).

While this reorganization led to the dissolution of Hyderabad as a single political entity, it also helped fulfil the aspirations of linguistic communities and brought administrative efficiency.

Hyderabad's Reorganization Debate: The Nizam had ruled over a linguistically diverse state, and he preferred Hyderabad to remain a single entity. However, with the growing demands for linguistic reorganization, the Indian government decided to dissolve Hyderabad State in 1956, merging its regions into Andhra Pradesh, Maharashtra, and Karnataka. This effectively ended the Nizam's political role.

Political Assimilation and the Road to States Reorganization (1953-1956) Debates on Linguistic Reorganization and Its Impact on Hyderabad (1953-1956) The period between 1953 and 1956 was marked by intense debates on linguistic reorganization across India, and these discussions had a profound impact on Hyderabad State. As India transitioned into a democratic nation, there was growing pressure from various regions to reorganize states based on linguistic and cultural identities. Hyderabad State, with its linguistic diversity and historical significance, became a focal point in these debates. The eventual dissolution of Hyderabad State and its division along linguistic lines in 1956 reflected the larger national movement toward creating linguistically homogenous states to ensure better governance and cultural representation.

Linguistic Diversity in Hyderabad State

Hyderabad State, as it existed after Indian independence, was a multi-lingual and multi ethnic region. It comprised three major linguistic areas:

1. Telangana Region – Telugu-speaking population (largest section).
2. Marathwada Region – Marathi-speaking population.
3. Hyderabad-Karnataka Region – Kannada-speaking population.

The presence of multiple linguistic communities led to demands for linguistic autonomy and the creation of states based on regional and language identities. Each region felt culturally distinct and wanted to be merged with areas where their language was predominant. These demands grew stronger in the wake of national movements advocating for linguistic states.

The National Context of Linguistic Reorganization

The demand for linguistic states was not confined to Hyderabad. Across India, there were increasing calls to redraw state boundaries to reflect linguistic and cultural identities. The death of Potti Sriramulu in 1952 after a hunger strike for a separate Andhra State intensified the demand for linguistic reorganization. This eventually led to the creation of Andhra State in 1953, (Singh A. M., 2012) carved out of the Telugu-speaking areas of Madras Province.

Recognizing the growing regional discontent, the Indian government formed the States Reorganization Commission (SRC) in 1953 to examine the feasibility of reorganizing states on a linguistic basis. The commission's findings directly impacted Hyderabad State, which was linguistically diverse and a legacy of the princely system.

Political Demands from Different Regions of Hyderabad

The Telangana, Marathwada, and Hyderabad-Karnataka regions all expressed different political aspirations during the reorganization debates:

Telangana (Telugu-Speaking Region):

Demand for Merger with Andhra State: Many leaders from the Telangana region supported merging with the newly created Andhra State, arguing that it would unite Telugu speaking people under one political entity.

Opposition to the Merger: However, some leaders from Hyderabad Telangana, including intellectuals and local politicians, feared that their region would be economically exploited by the more developed Andhra region. This concern led to the

emergence of the "Telangana Movement", which sought to keep Telangana as a separate entity to protect local resources and employment opportunities.

Marathwada (Marathi-Speaking Region):

Demand for Merger with Bombay State: The Marathi-speaking population in the Marathwada region demanded integration with Bombay State (which would later become Maharashtra). Their cultural and linguistic ties to Western India strengthened these claims.

Hyderabad-Karnataka (Kannada-Speaking Region):

Demand for Integration with Mysore State: The Kannada-speaking areas of Hyderabad State wanted to be merged with Mysore State (later renamed Karnataka), as they shared cultural and linguistic heritage with the people of South Karnataka.

Political Opposition and Concerns

Not all political groups supported linguistic reorganization. Some leaders, including B. Ramakrishna Rao, the first Chief Minister of Hyderabad State, were hesitant about dividing the state. They believed that maintaining a unified Hyderabad State was better for administrative efficiency and economic development. The Congress government in Hyderabad also feared that dividing the state would weaken its political dominance and administrative cohesion. The Nizam of Hyderabad, also opposed linguistic reorganization, fearing it would dismantle the historical identity of Hyderabad. However, as a constitutional figurehead, he had no executive power to influence the decision.

Recommendations of the States Reorganization Commission (SRC)

In 1955, the States Reorganization Commission (SRC) submitted its report, recommending the dissolution of Hyderabad State and its division based on linguistic lines. The recommendations were as follows:

1. Telangana would be merged with the newly formed Andhra State to create Andhra Pradesh.
2. Marathwada would be merged with Bombay State (later Maharashtra).
3. Hyderabad-Karnataka would become part of Mysore State (later Karnataka).

The Indian government, led by Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru, accepted these recommendations, leading to the passing of the States Reorganization Act in 1956.

Impact of Linguistic Reorganization on Hyderabad

Dissolution of Hyderabad State:

The most immediate impact was the dissolution of Hyderabad State in 1956, ending its existence as a political entity. The once unified princely state was divided into three separate linguistic regions, each integrated into a larger state. This marked the final phase of Hyderabad's political assimilation into the Indian Union. (SRC, 1955)

Formation of Andhra Pradesh:

The Telangana region became part of Andhra Pradesh, creating the first linguistic state for Telugu-speaking people. This merger would later become controversial, leading to the Telangana Movement for separate statehood that ultimately resulted in the creation of the Telangana State in 2014.

End of the Nizam's Political Role:

With the dissolution of Hyderabad State, the Nizam's position as Rajpramukh was abolished. This marked the end of his formal political role, completing the process of Hyderabad's integration into the Indian Republic. (Chaterjee, 2014)

Administrative and Cultural Impact:

The reorganization created new administrative challenges as the regions adjusted to their new states. However, it also allowed for better representation of linguistic and cultural identities, reducing regional conflicts within the merged states.

The Final Phase of Hyderabad's Merger and Dissolution as a Separate Entity

The final phase of Hyderabad's merger into the Indian Union was a complex and politically sensitive process that culminated in its complete dissolution as a separate entity in 1956. The movements for separation played a crucial role in shaping the final decision of the States Reorganization Commission (SRC) and the States Reorganization Act of 1956. (Ahluwalia, 2006)

This transition was significant as it reflected the broader national policy of linguistic reorganization aimed at fostering administrative efficiency and cultural cohesion. However, the decision, particularly regarding Telangana's merger with Andhra, remained contentious, eventually leading to political unrest and the demand for a separate Telangana, which was fulfilled in 2014. (Metronews, 2011)

Nonetheless, the dissolution of Hyderabad State marked a new phase in India's federal structure, as it successfully integrated one of the last princely states into the democratic

framework of independent India. Although the state of Hyderabad ceased to exist as a separate entity, its legacy continued to shape the political, economic, and cultural landscape of the newly formed states. (Sardesai, 2018)

Noteworthy, is that the entire administrative set up was built upon the institutional framework of the erstwhile Nizam. It was not so much of a deconstruction as it was of a re-organization. Barring a few departments like Jagir tahsils, Jagir police, Ecclesiastical department and departments which had purely religion related purpose etc. none other were discontinued. This reinstates the fact that despite the character of government there always remains possibilities of progression as seen in the Nizam's administrative set up.

The next chapter deals with re- configuration of socio-economic forces that got contested during this period.

CHAPTER III

RE-ALIGNMENT OF SOCIO-ECONOMIC FORCES

Introduction

Overview of Socio-Economic Conditions in Hyderabad State Post-1948

The period following 1948 marked a significant transformation in the socio-economic landscape of Hyderabad State. (Jairath, 2013) It functioned under a feudal and aristocratic system, where a large proportion of land and money was concentrated in the control of a few rich landowners, aristocrats, and the ruling class. The rural economy was largely agrarian, with peasants and farm labourers subjected to exploitative tenancy systems such as the Jagirdari and Zamindari systems. These structures reinforced socio-economic inequalities, keeping the lower classes impoverished and dependent on landlords for their survival.

It is clear that the feudal structure predetermined land relations, but it also shaped governance due to close connections of the aristocracy with the Nizam's administration. Whereas the landed elite enjoyed a number of privileges that liberated them from taxation and accountability, the peasantry carried all the burden of revenue deposits. This economic arrangement produced wide rural distress and offered little prospect of mobility. Moreover, the aristocratic order in the urban centers also made commerce and industry limited and largely aligned with the interests of the ruling elite. Despite its wealth, the Hyderabad state was lagging in economic modernization, industrial After annexation, the new Indian administration, under M. K. Vellodi-the first appointed CM of Hyderabad-confronted the challenge of dismantling this deeply entrenched feudal order by implementing socio-economic reform is clear that the feudal structure predetermined land relations, but it also shaped governance due to close connections of the aristocracy with the Nizam's administration.

Whereas the landed elite enjoyed a number of privileges that liberated them from taxation and accountability, the peasantry carried all the burden of revenue deposits. This economic arrangement produced wide rural distress and offered little prospect of mobility. Moreover, the aristocratic order in the urban centers also made commerce and industry limited and largely aligned with the interests of the ruling elite. Despite its wealth, the Hyderabad state was lagging in economic modernization, industrial growth.

The main agenda of the new government was to reduce disparities in income, undertake land reforms, modernize agriculture, and promote industrialization. A central concern was addressing the condition of the peasantry and agricultural labourers who suffered for decades under the exploitative land tenure system. The tenancy and agricultural land act (1950) were one of the first major policy measures undertaken for land redistribution and granting security to tenant farmers.

Additionally, the post-1948 period witnessed efforts to restructure Hyderabad's economy along modern lines. The Indian government sought to integrate Hyderabad's economy with the national framework, (Roosa, 2008) leading to the expansion of infrastructure, the establishment of industries, and the introduction of new administrative policies. The removal of feudal privileges also had a significant impact on urban centers, as Hyderabad city and other towns began evolving into hubs of economic activity, trade, and governance. However, the transition was not without challenges—resistance from the former ruling class, administrative hurdles, and socio-political unrest complicated the process of economic restructuring.

Purpose and Scope of Examining Structural Changes in Economy and Society

The accession of the State into the Union of India in 1948 marked the beginning of a fundamental transformation in its economic and social structures. (Kumar, 2021)

Economic Restructuring- The feudal and aristocratic order that had dominated for centuries was gradually dismantled, paving the way for an egalitarian and modern economic system. However, this transition was neither immediate nor uniform—it involved policy-driven reforms, socio-political struggles, and administrative restructuring that shaped the future of Hyderabad's economy and society. Examining these structural changes is essential to understanding how the region evolved from a feudal agrarian economy into a more progressive and industrialized state within the Indian framework.

Also, the Nizam's rule had been characterized by an exploitative land tenure system, where large estates were controlled by a small aristocratic elite, while peasants and farm labourers remained impoverished and landless. The Indian administration sought to redistribute land, provide security to tenants, and eliminate feudal privileges, which had long hindered economic growth and social justice. The Hyderabad Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1950, (Somanaboina, 2025) was a crucial step in breaking the

landlord-peasant dependency system, enabling rural development and improving agricultural productivity.

Beyond land reforms, it is pertinent to scrutinize the economic diversification and industrialization efforts undertaken during this period. Under the Nizam, Hyderabad's economy had been largely agrarian, with limited industrial growth. Post-1948, the government sought to modernize the economy by developing industries, improving infrastructure, and integrating Hyderabad into the national economic planning system. The establishment of new industrial units, expansion of trade networks, and the implementation of the First Five-Year Plan (1951–56) played a significant role in changing the economic landscape. By studying these developments, we gain insight into how Hyderabad transitioned from a feudal economy to a state-driven, development-oriented economy.

Social Restructuring - Another key aspect of this examination is the social impact of economic restructuring. The abolition of aristocratic privileges and feudal hierarchies led to a shift in social power dynamics. The landed elite gradually lost their dominance, while the emergence of a middle class, increased literacy rates, and access to education helped promote social mobility. At the same time, the lower classes, particularly peasants and labourers, continued to face economic hardships despite reforms, indicating that structural inequalities persisted. Studying these shifts helps to assess the extent to which economic policies contributed to social equity and empowerment.

The scope of this study extends to both rural and urban settings, as structural changes in the economy had varied impacts on different sections of society. (Metronews, 2011) In rural areas, the focus is on land reforms, changes in agrarian relations, and peasant movements, while in urban centers, attention is given to industrial growth, employment opportunities, and infrastructural development. Additionally, the role of state policies and governance mechanisms in driving these transformations is a crucial area of study.

By analyzing the structural changes in Hyderabad's economy and society between 1948 and 1956, this study aims to provide a comprehensive understanding of the transition from a feudal economy to a more inclusive and state-regulated economic system. It highlights the successes, limitations, and challenges of these reforms, offering insights into how economic and social policies can shape the long-term development of a region.

Agrarian Economy and Land Relations

Land Tenure Systems Under Nizam's Rule (Jagirdari, Zamindari, and Ryotwari Systems)

The agrarian economy of Hyderabad State under the Nizam's rule was predominantly feudal, characterized by highly exploitative land tenure systems that allowed consolidation of land ownership in the hands of a privileged few while subjecting peasants and agricultural workers to economic oppression. The three primary land tenure systems that existed in Hyderabad were the Jagirdari, Zamindari, and Ryotwari systems, each of which played an important role in determining the structure of rural society and the economic conditions of the peasantry.

Jagirdari System

The Jagirdari system was a feudal land tenure system in which large tracts of land were granted by the Nizam to nobles, military officials, and loyal administrators (called Jagirdars) in return for their service to the state. The Jagirdars functioned as semi-autonomous landlords, enjoying control over both land and governance in their respective territories. They were responsible for collecting land revenue from the peasants but were not required to pay any direct taxes to the Nizam's government. This system led to severe exploitation of tenants, as Jagirdars often extracted excessive rents, imposed arbitrary levies, and maintained private militias to suppress dissent among the peasants.

Peasants working on Jagir lands had no ownership rights and were subject to forced labour, arbitrary evictions, and oppressive revenue demands. Since the Jagirdars had almost unchecked power over their lands, they focused solely on extracting maximum revenue rather than investing in agricultural development. This resulted in low productivity, widespread poverty, and rural distress. The system created vast economic inequalities, making the Jagirdari system one of the most exploitative forms of feudal land tenure.

Zamindari System

The Zamindari system in Hyderabad was similar to the Jagirdari system but had a slightly different structure. Zamindars were large landowners who acted as intermediaries between the state and the cultivators, collecting taxes on behalf of the Nizam's government. Unlike Jagirdars, who were appointed by the Nizam and had

semi-sovereign control over their territories, Zamindars were hereditary landowners who enjoyed long-term possession of their estates. The peasants working under Zamindari estates were required to pay high rents and were often at the mercy of landlords who could evict them at will or demand unpaid labour.

The exploitation of peasants under the Zamindari system was particularly severe, as many Zamindars sublet their lands to intermediaries, creating multiple layers of revenue collection. This meant that the actual cultivators had to pay taxes to several levels of landlords, leaving them with very little surplus for their sustenance. The burden of taxation and rent was so high that many farmers fell into a cycle of debt and dependence on moneylenders, leading to perpetual poverty and landlessness among the rural population. The system also discouraged investment in agriculture, as neither the Zamindars nor the cultivators had incentives to improve land productivity.

Ryotwari System

The Ryotwari system was a relatively better alternative to the Jagirdari and Zamindari systems, as it allowed cultivators (Ryots) to have direct ownership rights over their lands. Unlike in the other two systems, under Ryotwari, peasants paid taxes directly to the Nizam's government rather than through intermediaries. However, despite this direct relationship between the cultivators and the state, the system was far from equitable. The revenue demands under Ryotwari were often excessive and rigid, forcing many cultivators into debt.

Since there were no powerful landlords acting as intermediaries in the Ryotwari system, the burden of revenue extraction fell directly on the administration, which often used coercive methods to ensure tax collection. Failure to pay taxes resulted in confiscation of land, forcing many cultivators into landlessness or bonded labour. Moreover, the lack of state support for irrigation, technology, or credit facilities meant that Ryotwari farmers had little protection against droughts, famines, or fluctuating market conditions. As a result, while the system was less exploitative than Jagirdari or Zamindari, it still did not provide economic security to the majority of peasants.

Impact of the Land Tenure System on Agrarian Economy

The existence of these three systems created a deeply stratified rural economy, where a small aristocratic class controlled most of the land and wealth, while peasants and agricultural labourers remained impoverished. The excessive rent demands and lack of

land rights discouraged investment in agriculture, leading to stagnation in agricultural productivity. Additionally, the absence of formal credit systems forced peasants to depend on moneylenders, trapping them in cycles of debt bondage.

The exploitative nature of these land tenure systems led to widespread rural unrest, culminating in movements like the Telangana Peasant Struggle (1946-1951), where peasants revolted against feudal landlords and demanded land redistribution. (Akhtar, 2013) Recognizing the urgency of agrarian reform, the Indian government initiated major land reforms post-1948, aimed at abolishing feudal land tenures and redistributing land to the tillers. The Act of 1950 was a key step toward eliminating these exploitative systems and ensuring greater security for farmers. (Astha, 2019)

Cycle of Debt and Indebtedness

A significant issue faced by peasants was chronic indebtedness, which arose due to high land taxes, exploitative rent demands, and lack of access to formal credit. Under both the Jagirdari and Zamindari systems, landlords imposed exorbitant taxes on tenants, often leaving them with little to no surplus for their personal consumption or savings. Since peasants had no financial security, they were frequently forced to borrow money from landlords or village moneylenders (Sahukars) at exorbitant interest rates.

The interest rates charged by moneylenders were so high that peasants found it nearly impossible to repay their debts, leading to a cycle of dependency and permanent debt bondage. Many were compelled to mortgage their land, cattle, or even personal belongings to sustain their agricultural activities. If a peasant failed to repay the debt, they could be evicted from the land, forced into bonded labour, or even reduced to begging. In some cases, generations of peasant families remained trapped in debt slavery, working on the same landlord's estate under oppressive conditions.

Exploitation by Landlords and Aristocrats

The feudal land tenure system gave landlords almost absolute control over the peasants, allowing them to exploit tenant farmers and farm labourers without any legal accountability. Many landlords imposed illegal levies, demanded free labour (begar), ***vetti Chakiri*** and physically punished tenants who resisted their authority. Peasants were often required to share a major portion of their produce with landlords as rent, leaving them with inadequate food and resources for their own sustenance. In addition,

they were subject to arbitrary evictions—if a landlord found a tenant uncooperative or unable to pay rent on time, they could be forcibly removed from their land with no legal recourse.

For farm labourers, the situation was even worse. Those who did not own land and worked as daily wage labourers on large estates were paid meagre wages, which were often insufficient to cover their basic necessities. During times of crop failure or famine, landlords reduced wages or withheld payments entirely, pushing farm workers further into starvation and misery. Women and lower-caste farm labourers faced double exploitation, as they were subjected to both economic oppression and social discrimination.

Poverty and Malnutrition

Due to heavy taxation, high rents, and lack of land ownership, peasants and farm labourers remained in extreme poverty, with low living standards and inadequate access to food, healthcare, and education. Most rural families lived in small, thatched huts with no sanitation or clean drinking water, making them vulnerable to diseases and malnutrition. Food insecurity was a major issue, as many peasants could not afford to keep enough grain for their families after paying rent and taxes. Famines and droughts made their situation worse—since the feudal elite controlled grain storage and distribution, they often hoarded food and sold it at high prices, leaving the poor to starve. Malnutrition was rampant, particularly among children and women, leading to high mortality rates in rural areas.

Resistance and Peasant Movements

The widespread exploitation and oppression eventually led to the rise of peasant movements, particularly the Telangana Peasant Struggle (1946-1951), which was led by the Communist Party of India against feudal landlords. This movement saw peasants seizing land from landlords, refusing to pay excessive rents, and demanding security of tenure. The movement was brutally suppressed by the Nizam's army and the Razakkars militia, (Gangadhar, 2020) who carried out mass arrests, torture, and executions of rebel peasants.

However, after 1948, the new government recognized the urgent need for agrarian reforms. The tenancy act of 1950 (Astha, Land law in India, 2019) was a crucial step toward improving the conditions of peasants by abolishing the feudal land tenure system, granting land rights to tenants, and preventing arbitrary evictions.

Relationship Between the Landed Aristocracy and Administrative Machinery

The relationship between the landed aristocracy and the administrative machinery in Hyderabad under the Nizam's rule was one of mutual dependence, where the ruling elite and feudal landlords worked in tandem to maintain their dominance over the peasantry and sustain the feudal order. The state's governance structure was deeply intertwined with the interests of the aristocratic landowning class, ensuring that policies and administrative decisions favoured the privileged few.

In the Jagirdari system, for example, Jagirdars were granted large landholdings by the Nizam in return for military and administrative service. These Jagirs were essentially semi-autonomous estates, where the Jagirdar acted as the local ruler, wielding immense power over the peasants. The administrative bureaucracy of Hyderabad often turned a blind eye to the exploitative practices of the landed aristocracy, (Seshan, 2018) allowing them to extract high taxes, force unpaid labour, and evict tenants at will. In many cases, Zamindars and other landed elites held important positions in the Nizam's court and administrative machinery. Since the state depended on them for financial stability, any attempt to challenge their power was actively discouraged. This led to widespread corruption and favouritism, where government officials worked to protect the economic and political interests of the aristocracy rather than serving the needs of the common people. (Begai, 2021)

Local administrators, such as Tehsildars, Patwaris, and village officials, were often appointed based on their loyalty to the landed elite rather than their merit or efficiency. These officials, in turn, ensured that landlords retained their control over vast estates and that peasants remained submissive. Complaints from tenants regarding excessive taxation, forced labour, or illegal evictions were often ignored or dismissed, as the administration functioned as an extension of the feudal system rather than an impartial governing body. The peasants also had little to no legal protection against exploitation, eviction, or debt bondage.

The Gradual Decline of Aristocratic Control Post-1948

The first step towards breaking this feudal-administrative alliance was the abolition of the Jagirdari system in 1949. Under the (Abolition of Jagirs) Regulation, Jagirdars lost their control over large estates, and revenue collection was brought under the direct administration of the state.

The Hyderabad Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act of 1950 was another major step in limiting the power of landlords and providing some security to tenants. The act granted land rights to tenants, restricted arbitrary evictions, and imposed ceilings on landholdings, thereby challenging the economic dominance of the feudal elite. Though the measures did provide relief to the farmers and peasants, delays in land redistribution, loopholes in tenancy laws, and continued bureaucratic corruption allowed many former landlords to retain significant portions of their landholdings.

Abolition of the feudal Systems: Objectives and Implementation

The abolition of the Jagirdari and Zamindari systems in Hyderabad (Sharma, 1976) marked a significant shift in the region's socio-economic structure. These feudal landholding systems, which had dominated rural life for centuries, kept the peasantry impoverished and landless while consolidating wealth and power in the hands of a few aristocrats. After the integration of Hyderabad into the Indian Union in 1948, the Indian government took decisive steps to dismantle these oppressive structures and introduce a more equitable land ownership system.

Objectives

The primary objective of abolishing the Jagirdari and Zamindari systems was to end the monopolistic control of land by the aristocracy and establish a more democratic and productive agrarian economy. The government sought to achieve this through the following goals:

1. Eliminating Feudal Dominance – The Jagirdars and Zamindars exercised absolute control over large tracts of land, leaving peasants at their mercy. The goal was to break this monopoly and establish a direct relationship between cultivators and the state.
2. Securing Land Rights for Peasants – A majority of cultivators were tenant farmers who lacked security of tenure and could be evicted at the will of landlords. The reforms aimed to grant ownership rights or tenancy protections to ensure stability in agriculture.
3. Reducing Exploitation and Rural Poverty – Peasants were subjected to excessive rents, bonded labour, and harsh working conditions. The abolition of

feudal landholding systems was intended to alleviate their hardships and improve their economic status.

4. Ensuring Agricultural Productivity – Large feudal estates were often inefficiently managed, as landlords focused more on revenue extraction than improving cultivation techniques. By redistributing land to actual tillers, the reforms aimed to increase agricultural output and promote sustainable farming.
5. Aligning Hyderabad with National Land Reforms – Across India, states were implementing land redistribution policies post-independence. Integrating Hyderabad into the national economic framework required similar progressive land reforms.
6. Weakening Political and Administrative Influence of Feudal Lords – Many Jagirdars and Zamindars held key administrative and political positions, often using their power to suppress reform efforts. The abolition of these systems sought to curb their influence and promote a more democratic rural administration.

Implementation

The implementation of these reforms was carried out through legislative measures, administrative restructuring, and direct interventions by the Indian government. However, the process faced resistance from the feudal elite, who used their wealth and political connections to delay or dilute the reforms.

Hyderabad (Abolition of Jagirs) Regulation, 1949

One of the first major steps towards dismantling the feudal land system was the Hyderabad (Abolition of Jagirs) Regulation, 1949. This law was aimed at ending the privileges of the Jagirdars and integrating their estates into the state revenue system.

- The act abolished the hereditary rights of Jagirdars and transferred land revenue collection to the government.
- Jagirdars were compensated for the loss of their estates, but they lost their administrative and economic control over the villages under their jurisdiction.
- The government took direct responsibility for governance and taxation in these areas, ensuring that revenues flowed to the state rather than private landowners.
- However, the process faced opposition from feudal landlords, who attempted to retain their influence by exploiting legal loopholes and administrative delays.

Hyderabad Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1950

The act was promulgated on 10th June 1950 CE, following the recommendation of the Agrarian Reforms Committee appointed in June 1949 by the government of Hyderabad under the chairmanship of Shri. N. Madhava Rao, former Dewan of Mysore. Following the abolition of Jagirdari, the government introduced the Hyderabad Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1950, (Hiroo, 2013) which sought to strengthen tenant rights and further weaken the power of landlords.

- The act provided legal protection to tenant farmers, preventing landlords from arbitrarily evicting them.
- It regulated rent structures, ensuring that peasants were not subjected to excessive taxation or forced labour.
- It laid the foundation for future land redistribution policies, ensuring that the land was cultivated by those who worked on it.
- Despite these efforts, implementation remained challenging due to bureaucratic inefficiencies and continued resistance from feudal landlords.

Zamindari Abolition and Land Redistribution

The Zamindari system, which also operated alongside the Jagirdari system, was formally abolished through land reform policies that sought to transfer ownership from landlords to cultivators.

- Large feudal estates were dismantled and redistributed to tenant farmers.
- Ceilings were imposed on landholdings, preventing landlords from accumulating excessive amounts of land.
- Special tribunals were set up to oversee disputes between landlords and peasants, ensuring fair and transparent land distribution.

While the reforms weakened the feudal landholding system, their impact was not uniform across all regions. Many landlords found ways to bypass the regulations, either by transferring land to family members or coercing peasants into illegal tenancy agreements.

Challenges and Resistance to Implementation

Despite the legal provisions, the abolition of the Jagirdari and Zamindari systems faced several practical obstacles: (Subedi, 2016)

1. Resistance from Landlords – Many feudal elites used political influence, legal loopholes, and even violence to retain their land.

2. Administrative Delays – The bureaucracy was slow and often sympathetic to landlords, leading to delays in land redistribution.

3. Incomplete Land Surveys – In many cases, land records were inaccurate or manipulated, making it difficult to implement reforms effectively.
4. Evictions and Harassment of Tenants – Some landlords forcefully evicted tenants before the laws took effect, preventing them from claiming rights under the new legislation.
5. Unequal Implementation – While some areas benefited greatly from land reforms, others saw limited impact due to weak enforcement and corruption.

Impact

The Hyderabad Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1950 was a landmark reform aimed at protecting tenant farmers, regulating land ownership, and reducing the dominance of feudal landlords in the Hyderabad State. This act played a crucial role in the redistribution of land and improving the socio-economic conditions of peasants, who had long been subjected to exploitation under the feudal system. Its impact was felt across various aspects of rural society, including tenancy rights, agricultural productivity, and the power dynamics between landlords and cultivators.

Strengthening Tenancy Rights and Security of Tenure

One of the most significant impacts of the Act was that it provided legal recognition to tenants and sharecroppers, ensuring that they could not be arbitrarily evicted by landlords. Before this reform, peasants lived under constant fear of eviction, as landlords could forcibly remove them without justification. The Act introduced security of tenure, which meant that as long as the tenant cultivated the land and paid rent, they had a legal right to continue working on the land. This provision gave peasants a sense of stability and reduced their vulnerability to exploitation.

Regulation of Rent and Prevention of Exploitation

Under the feudal system, landlords often charged excessive rents, leaving tenants with little income to support their families. The Act regulated the rent payable by tenants, ensuring that landlords could not demand more than a fair percentage of the total produce. This not only reduced financial burdens on peasants but also allowed them to retain a larger share of their agricultural output, leading to improved living conditions and economic security.

Granting Ownership Rights to Cultivators

A transformative feature of the Act was its provision for land ownership transfer to tenants. The law allowed cultivators who had tilled the land for a certain period to claim ownership, marking a major shift toward land-to-the-tiller policies. This provision aimed to break the monopoly of feudal landlords and empower actual cultivators. As a result, many peasants who had historically been landless were now able to own the land they worked on, creating a more equitable agrarian structure.

Decline in the Power of Feudal Landlords

The Act significantly weakened the economic and political power of the feudal aristocracy, which had traditionally controlled vast estates and dictated rural life. (Pacione, 2019) By curbing their ability to evict tenants, reducing their land holdings, and restricting their power to collect excessive rent, the Act ensured that landlords could no longer exploit peasants with the same authority as before. While some landlords attempted to bypass the law by transferring land to family members or hiring laborers instead of tenants, their overall influence diminished, paving the way for rural democratization.

Increase in Agricultural Productivity and Economic Growth

With greater security of tenure and land ownership rights, farmers were more motivated to invest in better farming techniques, improve soil fertility, and increase crop yields. This led to a gradual rise in agricultural productivity in Hyderabad State. As cultivators now had a direct stake in their land, they were more likely to adopt modern agricultural methods, leading to higher efficiency and better economic outcomes for the rural economy.

Challenges in Implementation and Resistance from Landlords

Despite its ambitious goals, the implementation of the Act, of 1950 faced several challenges. (Somanaboina, 2025) Feudal landlords, who had long enjoyed privileged control over land, strongly resisted these reforms. Many exploited legal loopholes to delay land transfers, forged tenancy records, and pressured government officials to slow down the enforcement of the law. Bureaucratic inefficiency and lack of awareness among peasants further delayed the full realization of the Act's objectives. As a result, while some tenants benefited, many others continued to struggle against landlord influence.

Long-Term Social and Economic Impact

Over time, the Act contributed to a more balanced land ownership system, reduced economic disparity, and improved the social status of peasants. While not completely eliminating feudal remnants, it marked the beginning of agrarian transformation in Hyderabad. The law laid the foundation for future land reform policies in Andhra Pradesh (after the reorganization of states in 1956) and set a precedent for further interventions in rural development and social justice.

Redistribution of Land and Its Socio-Economic Outcomes

The redistribution of land in Hyderabad following the abolition of the feudal land tenure system was a crucial step in restructuring rural society and economy. Before land reforms, Jagirdars, Zamindars, and Deshmukh's controlled vast estates, while peasants worked under oppressive tenancy arrangements with little to no security. The land redistribution policies, initiated through the Hyderabad Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act, 1950, aimed to break feudal monopolies, empower cultivators, and create a more egalitarian agrarian structure. These reforms led to significant socio-economic transformations, impacting land ownership patterns, agricultural productivity, rural livelihoods, and social hierarchies.

Land Redistribution and Ownership Patterns

One of the most immediate impacts of land reform was the transfer of land ownership from feudal landlords to tenant cultivators. Under the new laws, tenants who had been working on the same land for a specified period were given the right to claim ownership, reducing the power of landlords over rural landholdings. This shift allowed many formerly landless peasants to become independent farmers, creating a more equitable distribution of land.

Impact on Agricultural Productivity

Land redistribution had a direct impact on agricultural productivity, as cultivators who now owned land had a greater incentive to invest in improving it. Unlike under the feudal system, where tenants had little motivation to increase yields (since most of the produce was taken by landlords), land ownership gave farmers security and a stake in the agricultural output. With ownership came better land management practices, investment in irrigation, adoption of modern farming techniques, and improved crop yields. The shift from subsistence farming to surplus production also contributed to

economic growth in the rural sector, gradually integrating Hyderabad's agricultural economy into national markets.

Reduction in Exploitation and Rural Poverty

Before land reforms, peasants were subjected to high rents, arbitrary evictions, forced labor, and heavy taxation by landlords. The redistribution of land ended the exploitative landlord-tenant relationship, providing cultivators with economic independence and security. With lower rents and ownership rights, peasants could now retain a larger share of their agricultural produce, improve their standard of living and reduce overall rural poverty.

However, while land redistribution helped many, landless agricultural laborers who did not qualify for ownership still faced economic hardship. Since reforms primarily benefited tenant cultivators, farm laborers remained dependent on seasonal employment, often working under difficult conditions for low wages. This highlighted the need for complementary policies, such as cooperative farming and rural employment schemes, to support those left out of direct land ownership.

Social and Political Empowerment of the Peasant Class

The breakdown of feudal structures not only altered economic relations but also challenged traditional social hierarchies in rural Hyderabad. Land ownership had long been associated with power, status, and dominance, and its redistribution weakened the political influence of the aristocratic elite. For the first time, peasants and formerly oppressed groups gained a voice in local governance and decision-making. Many tenant farmers who benefited from land reforms became active participants in village councils (Gram Panchayats) and rural cooperatives, promoting greater democracy at the grassroots level. This transformation marked the decline of landlord dominance in rural politics and the rise of a more inclusive socio-political system.

Despite the positive changes, the process of land redistribution was not without limitations. Large landlords often found ways to evade land ceilings by dividing their estates among family members or selling land before the reforms took effect. Many small farmers, despite gaining ownership, lacked financial resources for irrigation, fertilizers, and equipment, limiting their agricultural growth. Additionally, some landlords converted their estates into capitalist farms, hiring laborers instead of leasing land to tenants, thus continuing economic disparities in a different form. Furthermore,

while land ownership improved the status of many peasants, caste-based discrimination and social inequalities persisted in rural areas. Lower-caste farmers, even after acquiring land, often faced challenges in accessing markets, credit, and government support programs, highlighting the need for further institutional reforms to ensure long-term social justice.

Development of Urban Economy and Industrial Growth

Transition from Feudal to Capitalist Economic Structures

The year 1948 marked the beginning of a fundamental economic transition from a feudal agrarian society to a more modern capitalist economy. Under the Nizam's rule, the economic system was largely feudal, with landowners and aristocrats controlling vast estates while the majority of the population, particularly peasants and labourers, remained impoverished. Industrialization was limited, and economic power was concentrated in the hands of a few. However, post-integration, the new government-initiated land reforms, industrial policies, and economic restructuring to modernize Hyderabad's economy and integrate it with the national market.

Growth of a Capitalist Economy in Hyderabad

With the decline of feudal structures, a shift toward capitalism took place, facilitated by state-led industrialization, private sector participation, and the expansion of urban markets. The government focused on building infrastructure, developing industries, and promoting entrepreneurship, thereby laying the foundation for a modern economic system based on production, investment, and wage labour.

The key elements of this transition included:

- Industrial Expansion: Hyderabad, which had been largely agrarian, saw the establishment of industries in sectors such as textiles, pharmaceuticals, and metal processing. Government-led industrial initiatives, such as the Hyderabad Industrial Development Corporation (HIDC), played a crucial role in attracting investment.
- Urbanization and Market Economy: The breakdown of feudal estates resulted in the migration of people to urban centers like Hyderabad, Warangal, and Nizamabad, where a growing demand for labour in factories, construction, and services created new employment opportunities.

- Emergence of Wage Labor and Small Enterprises: Unlike the feudal economy, where peasants were tied to landowners, the capitalist economy encouraged wage-based employment. Small businesses, manufacturing units, and commercial enterprises started to emerge, contributing to economic diversification.

Urbanization and Migration Patterns

As industrialization progressed, urbanization became a key trend. The demand for factory workers, administrative staff, and service providers led to mass migration from rural areas to cities. Hyderabad, Warangal, and Nizamabad grew rapidly as industrial and commercial hubs.

- New residential colonies were developed to accommodate the growing population of workers, government employees, and traders.
- Transportation networks were expanded to support the movement of goods and labour, contributing to the rise of market towns and business districts.
- Educational institutions and technical training centers were established to create a skilled workforce, aligning with the needs of the emerging industries.

The shift from village-based feudal economies to urban-cantered capitalist economies was one of the most significant socio-economic changes of the period. The expanding urban workforce led to the growth of new business enterprises, markets, and financial institutions, further accelerating urbanization.

Social and Economic Impact of Industrialization and Urbanization

The emergence of new industries and urbanization brought both opportunities and challenges. (Permana, 2025) It increased employment opportunities for rural migrants and displaced peasants and improved standard of living due to higher wages and better social infrastructure in cities. There was diversification of economic activities, reducing dependence on agriculture. However, Urbanization brought overcrowding in urban areas, leading to housing shortages and sanitation problems. Another adverse impact was displacement of traditional artisans and small-scale rural industries, as factory-based production took precedence. Ironically, economic inequality, became a key component of this growth pattern as industrial growth initially benefited the middle and upper classes more than the urban poor. (Sridhar, 2016)

Despite these challenges, industrialization and urbanization played a crucial role in shaping the economic identity of Hyderabad. (scribid, 2013) By the mid-1950s, Hyderabad was no longer just an agrarian economy dominated by feudal landlords—it had evolved into a growing industrial and urban centre with a more diversified economy.

Role of the State in Economic Planning and Industrial Policy

Recognizing the need for economic modernization, industrialization, and balanced development, the Indian government introduced economic planning and industrial policies that aimed to transform Hyderabad's agrarian economy into a more diversified and industrialized one. These efforts were aligned with India's broader economic policies under the Five-Year Plans, which emphasized state-led industrial development, infrastructure expansion, and economic reforms to promote growth and reduce inequalities. One of the most significant steps taken by the state was the abolition of feudal land tenure systems, which had previously concentrated economic power in the hands of the aristocracy. (Subedi, 2016) This transition not only improved agricultural productivity but also freed a large segment of the population from oppressive economic constraints, enabling them to participate in the industrial workforce. The shift of surplus labour from agriculture to industry was a crucial component of economic planning, as it facilitated urbanization and the development of a wage-based labour economy. (Sahoo, 2020)

To accelerate industrial growth, the government adopted policies that encouraged the establishment of public sector enterprises (PSEs) and cooperative industries. The state actively promoted industrialization by setting up state-owned factories, textile mills, and engineering units, which provided employment and contributed to economic diversification. Hyderabad, which had been primarily an agrarian economy under the Nizam, began to witness growth in sectors such as manufacturing, pharmaceuticals, and metallurgy. The government also provided subsidies, financial assistance, and technical support to emerging industries, ensuring that economic development was not solely dependent on private capital but also had strong state intervention.

Infrastructure development was another key area of focus in economic planning. The state invested in expanding roads, railways, power generation, and irrigation facilities, which were essential for supporting both industrial and agricultural growth. The

construction of new roads and transportation networks facilitated trade and commerce, allowing raw materials to reach factories and finished goods to be distributed to markets. Similarly, the expansion of electricity and water supply helped industries operate efficiently and created a more conducive environment for industrial investment.

The state also played a significant role in economic planning through financial institutions and banking reforms. The introduction of state-controlled banking systems and cooperative credit societies provided financial assistance to small businesses, farmers, and industrial entrepreneurs. This move reduced dependency on traditional moneylenders, who had previously exploited peasants and small traders through high-interest loans. By ensuring better access to credit, the state encouraged entrepreneurship and industrial investment, further strengthening Hyderabad's transition to a modern economy.

In addition to economic planning, the government also prioritized skill development and workforce training to meet the demands of a growing industrial sector. Technical training institutes, vocational education centres, and universities were established to produce a skilled labour force capable of handling modern industrial processes. The state recognized that without a trained workforce, industrialization would not be sustainable, and thus, significant efforts were made to bridge the gap between education and industry requirements.

Impact of Socio-Economic Changes on Marginalized Communities

The socio-economic changes that followed Hyderabad's integration into the Indian Union in 1948 had a profound impact on marginalized communities. (Akhtar, 2013) The shift from a feudal agrarian system to a more modern, capitalist economy brought both opportunities and challenges for these marginalized groups. One of the most significant changes was the abolition of the Jagirdari and Zamindari systems, (Subedi, 2016)which had long kept peasants and lower-caste groups in a state of economic subjugation. With the introduction of land reforms, it weakened the dominance of upper-caste landlords and feudal elites, who had previously controlled vast estates and wielded immense power over the rural economy.

The shift toward industrialization and urbanization also created new opportunities for marginalized communities. As industries and public sector enterprises expanded, many

individuals from historically oppressed backgrounds found employment in factories, construction work, and government jobs. The state's affirmative action policies, such as reservations in education and government employment, aimed to uplift Dalits, Adivasis, and other disadvantaged groups by providing them with better access to education and formal employment opportunities.

Urbanization further altered caste and community dynamics. In rural areas, caste hierarchies had been rigidly enforced through economic dependence and social control. However, as people migrated to cities in search of jobs, traditional caste-based occupations started to break down. In urban settings, economic class began to play a more significant role than caste, as people from diverse backgrounds worked together in industries and markets. This led to some level of social mobility, as individuals from marginalized groups were able to improve their living standards through employment and entrepreneurship. At the same time, urban slums grew due to the influx of rural migrants, many of whom were from lower castes and economically weaker backgrounds, leading to new forms of economic disparity.

Education played a crucial role in empowering marginalized communities during this period. The expansion of schools, colleges, and vocational training institutes under state policies provided new opportunities for social mobility. Many individuals from lower-caste backgrounds, who had previously been denied education under feudal rule, were now able to gain literacy and technical skills. This shift was crucial in reducing caste-based occupational restrictions and allowing marginalized groups to participate in modern professions.

Religious and communal dynamics were also affected by these socio-economic changes. Under the Nizam's rule, Muslims held a privileged position in administration and elite circles, but with Hyderabad's integration into India, power structures shifted. While this led to greater inclusivity in governance and economic participation, it also created new socio-political tensions, particularly regarding communal identity and representation. Many Muslim artisans and traders faced economic difficulties as feudal patronage declined, leading to changes in their social and economic standing. At the same time, Dalits, Adivasis, and backward-caste groups began to assert their rights more strongly, demanding greater political representation and economic inclusion.

Education and Social Mobility

Expansion of educational opportunities and literacy programs.

The period following Hyderabad's integration into the Indian Union in 1948 saw a significant focus on expanding educational opportunities and promoting literacy as a means of achieving social and economic mobility. (Adeney Katherine, 2024) Under the Nizam's rule, education had been largely limited to the aristocracy, elite classes, and specific communities, while the vast majority of the population—especially peasants, lower-caste groups, and women—had little to no access to formal education. The new administration recognized that education was essential for breaking the cycle of poverty, reducing social inequalities, and modernizing the economy, leading to a series of policy initiatives aimed at broadening access to schools and improving literacy rates across Hyderabad State.

One of the most important changes during this period was the expansion of primary and secondary education. The government prioritized the establishment of new schools in rural and small-town areas, ensuring that education was not restricted to major cities like Hyderabad, Warangal, and Aurangabad. Special attention was given to providing free and compulsory primary education, particularly for children from economically disadvantaged and lower-caste communities. Despite these efforts, many challenges persisted, including shortages of trained teachers, inadequate infrastructure, and high dropout rates, especially among girls and children from poor families who were often required to work to support their households.

To address these challenges, adult literacy programs and night schools were introduced, targeting working-class populations who had been denied formal education under the feudal system. These literacy programs aimed to equip peasants, labourers, and artisans with basic reading, writing, and numeracy skills, enabling them to participate more effectively in the economy and access new employment opportunities. Government and non-governmental organizations played an active role in promoting mass literacy campaigns, which emphasized the importance of education in improving livelihoods, social awareness, and civic participation.

The post-1948 period also saw the expansion of higher education and vocational training institutes. The establishment of technical institutes, teacher training colleges, and industrial training centers aimed to produce a skilled workforce for the growing

industrial sector. Engineering, medical, and agricultural colleges were set up or expanded to provide professional education, contributing to the development of an educated middle class. Additionally, the government encouraged higher education among marginalized groups by introducing scholarships, reservation policies, and financial assistance programs. These measures helped in bridging the educational gap between different social classes and caste groups, enabling individuals from disadvantaged backgrounds to enter professions that were previously dominated by the upper classes.

Women's education also became a major area of focus. Under the Nizam's rule, educational opportunities for women, particularly those from rural and lower-caste backgrounds, were severely limited. The new government took steps to promote girls' education by establishing exclusive schools and colleges for women, providing incentives such as free textbooks, mid-day meals, and stipends to encourage female enrolment. However, deep-rooted patriarchal attitudes and conservative social norms continued to be barriers to women's education, as many families still prioritized household responsibilities over formal schooling for girls.

Despite these advancements, several challenges remained. The overall literacy rate in Hyderabad State, particularly in rural areas, remained low due to historical neglect, economic constraints, and social resistance to education. Moreover, the expansion of education alone did not immediately translate into economic mobility, as many newly educated individuals still faced discrimination, unemployment, and limited upward mobility due to entrenched social and economic structures. Nonetheless, the foundation for long-term educational growth was laid during this period, and over the following decades, these efforts contributed to the gradual transformation of Hyderabad's society into a more literate and economically progressive region

Influence of Reformist Movements on Social Attitudes

Reformist movements played a crucial role in reshaping social attitudes and promoting progressive values in Hyderabad after 1948. The transition from the Nizam's feudal rule to a more democratic and egalitarian system was not only an economic and political transformation but also a social one, requiring a shift in deeply ingrained traditions, caste hierarchies, and gender norms. Reformist movements—led by social activists, political leaders, and intellectuals—advocated for education, land reforms, gender

equality, and caste-based justice, challenging centuries-old structures of oppression and privilege.

One of the most significant areas of reform was the fight against caste-based discrimination and untouchability. Historically, lower-caste communities in Hyderabad had been subjected to social exclusion, economic exploitation, and lack of access to education and employment. Inspired by national social reform movements and leaders such as Dr. B.R. Ambedkar, local reformists pushed for the implementation of affirmative action policies, including reservations in education and government jobs for Dalits and backward castes. These measures gradually challenged the dominance of upper-caste elites and provided social mobility opportunities for marginalized communities. However, they also faced backlash from conservative sections of society, leading to conflicts and resistance in some areas.

Women's rights and gender equality also became central themes of reformist movements. Under the feudal system, women—especially from lower socio-economic backgrounds—had been denied basic rights, including education, property ownership, and political participation. Reformists actively campaigned for women's education, legal protections against gender-based violence, and economic independence, leading to an increase in female literacy rates, employment opportunities, and participation in public life. However, traditional patriarchal mindsets remained deeply rooted, and many women still faced restrictions on their mobility, career choices, and personal freedoms.

Reformist movements also influenced religious and communal dynamics, advocating for secularism and interfaith harmony in the wake of Hyderabad's integration into India. The region, which had a significant Muslim population and a history of communal tensions, witnessed efforts by reformers to promote unity, social cohesion, and equal opportunities for all religious communities. Educational and economic reforms aimed at integrating religious minorities into the mainstream economy helped in reducing socio-economic disparities between different communities, though communal prejudices and occasional conflicts persisted.

Additionally, reform movements played a vital role in labour rights and workers' welfare. As Hyderabad's economy industrialized, factory workers, artisans, and agricultural labourers began organizing for better wages, working conditions, and social

security benefits. Inspired by national trade union movements, labour reformists pushed for legislative protections, fair wages, and collective bargaining rights, leading to the establishment of stronger labour laws and welfare policies. However, many industrialists and landlords resisted these changes, resulting in labour strikes, protests, and prolonged negotiations before meaningful reforms were fully implemented.

Vibrant Diaspora

Hyderabad has been the melting pot of many cultures and communities from early periods in history. The medieval period marks the more definitive period of migration from regions in central Asia and Persia of scholars, traders, chieftains, people seeking employment in more large numbers. Many communities and their distinct presence and culture have been recorded in Hyderabad 's history namely the North Indian Kayasths, Khatri's, Marwari's, Parsis, Marathi, Tamilians, African Siddis etc. However, one such community finds less mention in the annals of Hyderabad's recorded history, despite its small yet significant presence and that is the Bengali community. As early as the late 19th and early 20th centuries, Bengalis began arriving in Hyderabad during the British colonial era and under the Nizam's rule, drawn by opportunities in administration, education, and public service. Many came as civil servants, railway workers, and teachers—educated and multilingual, they were welcomed into Hyderabad's expanding urban fabric. One of the most important individuals in this regard would be Aghorenath Chattopadhyay. He was also father to Sarojini Naidu and Virendranath Chattopadhyaya alias, Chatto, two of the most celebrated freedom fighters of our country along with Indian dramatist, Harendra Nath Chattopadhyay. Over time, the Bengalis established themselves in neighbourhoods such as Chikkadpally, Vidyanagar, and Ramnagar, where homes turned into hubs of cultural continuity. Today, they are found in clusters in neighbourhoods of Begumpet, Ameerpet, Himayat Nagar, Sainikpuri etc. The founding of the Hyderabad Kalibari in 1974 at Sainikpuri stands as a lasting testament to their spiritual and social integration. Now into their third and fourth generations, these families continue to celebrate their heritage with vigor—from the rhythmic beats of the Dhaak flown in from Kolkata to intricately designed Durga Pujo pandals at Keyes High School, Ramkrishna Mission, Indira Park, Miyapur Bengali association, Shamshabad Kalibari etc., that transform city spaces each autumn. This community did not simply arrive—they settled, adapted, and contributed. Their story in Telangana is not one of arrival alone, but of sustained presence and evolving identity. Today, the

Bengali diaspora in Hyderabad is not a peripheral participant but a vital thread in the city's cultural tapestry, where memories of the Ganga flow alongside the Godavari, and where diaspora becomes a powerful force of reimagination rather than displacement.

Transitions- Case study

The socio- economic changes were most importantly faced by the landed, aristocratic class. The story of Hyderabad is as much it is of dynasties that ruled over it, as it is of various people and communities that provided best talent to the city. In this context, case study of the following noble family posts the changes in structure of the Nizams administration and the jagirdari system, puts into context, the position of the prominent albeit, member of minority community.

Among the noble families that associated with the Nizam and his administration were the families of Mohi ud Doula, Mhd. Fazal Ullah Siddiqui and Ghulam Ghouse khan were one such notable contributors to the efficacy of the erstwhile Nizam's regime. Related by lineage and matrimonial alliances, the patriarchs of these families have held important positions in various departments of the state prior to 1948. The Mohi ud Daula family traces its lineage to Hazrat Abu Bakr Siddiqui (R.A). The family, originally of Arab descent, migrated from Ahmedabad, Gujrat to Hyderabad in 18th century. Known for being religious scholar of repute the offsprings of Shah Abdul Gafoor Siddiqui (chinaki) namely- Abdul Khader Siddiqui and Mohammed Jaffer Siddiqui mastered medicine and religion.

Fascinated by their bearings the first Nizam Asaf Jah I- expressed desire to have one of the children come to Hyderabad. Once in Hyderabad, the family through diligence and service was successful in earning the title of '**Sadras-e-Sudoor Hakeem ul Hukma Yar Khan Bahadur Mohi ud Daula'** and retained it for 7 generations in hierarchy. The first to be addressed as such was Hazrat Shah Abdul Khader Saheb Chenaki. The family held important positions as head of Religious Department, royal physicians and surgeons and members of Justice department. To give a context to the close relations between the Mohi ud Duala's and the subsequent Nizams during the reign of the fifth Nizam Nawab Afzal ud Daula- Mohammed Yar Khan Mohiud Daula V assumed the responsibility of Director of Department of Religious Affairs and designate Hakim ul Hukma and was the principal go between the Nizam and the then prime minister Salar Jung I. His period saw Hyderabad emerge, as the favoured destination of Islamic

Scholars from all over the world. He was specifically instrumental in popularizing 'Mouloodkhani' (A system of singing praise to the prophet) in Hyderabad. The other significant contribution of the family was to the development and practice of Unani medicine, an alternative medicine system to western allopathy.

Ghulam Ghouse khan served as governor of Aurangabad and his son Ghulam Mehmood khan was the talukdar (District Collector) of the same region. Ghulam Ghouse khan served as Aurangabad governor during the reign of the fifth Nizam and his son Ghulam Mehmood khan as collector during the reign of Mir Mahboob Ali khan, the sixth Nizam. (Roy Choudhury, 2024)

Justice Fazalullah served the Nizams dominions during the reign of the fifth Nizam Afzal ud Daula. Significant contributions have been made by these nobilities to the built heritage of the region especially in Hyderabad. However, most of these heritage structures in the form of deoris and palaces have been lost to time. The prominent ones, only on record but no longer on ground were the residence of Justice Fazalullah near Kali Kaman, Irani gully (lane). The lane was named after Mir Alam ancestor of Salarjung, an Iranian gentleman.

Waleshaan prince Mir Osman Ali khan and Ghias Uddin Siddiqui. Prince had keen eye to spot talent, command respect authority, employed such people. Maulvi Ghiasuddin Siddiqui attracted his attention. He was grandson of Mhd. Fazal Ullah Siddiqui Deftly handled issue at Aurangabad. Came into service modest salary.

Men of character, customary of Asaf Jah rulers to groom their appointees in different departments as they are made part of the nizam administration. Ghias Uddin Siddiqui later became head of royal kitchen known as Tosha Khana. Paigahs wanted it. Iqbal ud doula Paigah. Nizam trusted Ghias Uddin Siddiqui more. Fears of poisoning Controversy erupted. Ghias Uddin Siddiqui sold food tiffin's known then as tosha daans from royal kitchen. Qutub yar Jung Paigah was the accuser. Nizam did not take into consideration the accusation. Ghias Uddin Siddiqui took employment in 1291 al hijri 1874. 1332 AH he was made superintendent royal palaces. Following year 1333 AH conferred title – Nawab Azhar Jung Bahadur. Most trusted advisor. 1000 rupees salary in halli, the Osmania currency. Birth of Ain letter to mark the Nizam. Ghias Uddin Siddiqui now in peshi office. Peshi office very powerful. Nawab Azher Jung became defacto ruler. ***Ain ki sultanate- Ghain ki hukumat***. Ghain is the next Urdu

letter to follow Ain. Ghias Uddin Siddiqui became shadow ruler. Quoted by munsif daily 21st April 2005 article by Khaja Mohiuddin Saab joint director census.

The peshi office of the Nizam was considered the most powerful office, deemed to be the shadow of the nizam himself. Nawab Azhar Jung used to stay at king Koti Nazri Bagh palace. His family resided at Azhar mansion. The personal quarters at Nazri bagh-named ***Nishith -e Azher Jung***. He also served as channel of communication between nizam and his then prime minister Maharaja Kishen Prasad. The personal secretary of Maharaja Kishan prasad was Mr. Mehdi Ali. Later titled-Mehdi Nawaz Jung. After police action he became governor of Gujrat. Post Kishan prasad departure in 1936 need arose to select new prime minister. Probable's list vetted by Azhar Jung and sir Akbar Hydari was chosen.1936-1941.Neither his administrative skills nor his uprightness appealed to the Nizam. Zainuddin Hussain khan was personal secretary to Azhar Jung. Born on 15th January 1889 was mentored by Azhar Jung. He worked in Hyderabad municipality and by education was an architect. Later appointed as engineer irrigation department a freemason. 1912 appointed. Executive engineer royal palaces in 1930.

Finally at his mansion Azhar Jung Bahadur passed away in the year 1944. Perhaps that was the last time Nizam visited Azhar Jung Bahadur and send his wife as a mark of respect, a sum of ₹50000 upon his death which in today's currency would amount to 50 lakhs. This was in brief the story of the prince and his noble which never found a mention in the chapters of mainstream history but remained as a beautiful story of tacit understanding loyalty friendship strong bond between a Prince and his noble.

No matter the strength of the bond everything must come to an end and so did the autocratic role of the Nizam. The life and times of Azar Jung Bahadur who were so close to the Nizam Mir Osman Ali Khan tell a story of Hyderabad that many remain unaware of.

These families have over the time contributed to numerous heritages built tangible intangible but now lost in the dunes of time the significance of knowing this story lies in peeling a layer in the nature of administration of the Nizam and his personnel. The principals that had guided this nobility were anchored in principles of loyalty forthrightness and honesty it also depicted the flexible character of the Nizam's administration. This above account was shared by Mhd. Ghias Uddin Akbar, a third-

generation descendant of the family of Nawab Azhar Jung Bahadur, and his reminiscence reflects the sense of strong displacement.

Unlike the Muslim nobility, many estate rulers of Samsthana who belonged to old Hindu principalities and had contributed to the political and administrative capacities of the regime, were able to transcend the barrier of change. For instance, Samsthana of Wanaparthy, Gadwal and Jatprole. Their lineages were older than the Asaf Jah's and post accession the ruling members of these families who belonged to prominent caste in Telangana, that is the Reddy's assimilated into the new political and administrative space. Unlike the erstwhile Muslim nobles who felt a strong sense of displacement post the accession, the members of other ruling families were able to adapt to the new change.

Interestingly, if contrasting experiences shaped the discourse of the privileged, for the common peasant farmer, the jagir abolition coupled with tenancy reforms aided initial spurt in agricultural growth and enhanced productivity, but over the years, what the state witnessed was a continuous fragmentation of land and depletion of resources. A n impact study was carried out in the region of previously Sarf-e- Khas lands abolished and granted to peasant farmers. Located in the district of Ranga Reddy, 36 farm lands were surveyed and impact of the land reform was studied. It was found that in present times there has been excessive fragmentation of land and rise of absentee landlordism which has impacted overall productivity in agriculture despite active government intervention. In fact, the study showed that the emphasis on the current administration in the new state of Telangana is to actually take measures to prevent excessive fragmentation.

Outcomes and Socio-Economic Impact

Reduction of Feudal Power and Emergence of a Middle Class

One of the most significant outcomes of the post-1948 reforms in Hyderabad was the decline of feudal power and the gradual emergence of a middle class. The abolition of the Jagirdari and Zamindari systems, along with land redistribution policies, dismantled the age-old feudal structure that had concentrated wealth and political influence in the hands of a few aristocrats. For centuries, the feudal elite controlled vast agricultural estates, extracting high rents from peasants and maintaining close ties with the Nizam's administration. With the introduction of land reforms and tenancy rights, many

cultivators gained legal ownership of the land they tilled, significantly weakening the power of the feudal lords.

As a result, a new class of small and medium-scale landowners emerged, forming the basis of a growing rural middle class. Many former tenant farmers and sharecroppers, who had previously lived in extreme poverty under oppressive landlords, now had the opportunity to improve their economic conditions. This shift also contributed to higher agricultural productivity, increased rural purchasing power, and a greater emphasis on education and modernization. In urban areas, the expansion of administrative institutions, educational reforms, and industrial growth facilitated the rise of a professional middle class, consisting of government employees, teachers, traders, and industrial workers.

However, the transition was not uniform across all regions. In some areas, former landlords found ways to retain economic influence, either by exploiting legal loopholes or by investing in commercial enterprises and industries, ensuring that their dominance continued in new forms. Additionally, while many peasants benefited from land reforms, landless labourers and marginalized groups continued to struggle for economic stability, as they did not receive direct land ownership.

Economic Development and Its Effect on Rural and Urban Populations

The economic transformation of Hyderabad after 1948 had varied effects on rural and urban populations, as the state moved away from a feudal agrarian economy toward a more diversified economic structure. In rural areas, land reforms, irrigation projects, and cooperative farming initiatives contributed to agricultural growth, enabling small farmers to achieve better crop yields and higher incomes. The First Five-Year Plan (1951–56) played a key role in expanding rural infrastructure, such as roads, electricity, and irrigation systems, which helped improve agricultural productivity and rural connectivity.

However, the rural economy still faced several limitations, including unequal land distribution, lack of mechanization, and continued dependence on traditional farming methods. Many small farmers, despite gaining land rights, struggled with access to credit, modern agricultural inputs, and market linkages, making it difficult for them to achieve sustained economic stability. Additionally, the displacement of former feudal

lords from agriculture led some to shift toward commercial landholdings, reducing the effectiveness of land redistribution policies.

In contrast, urban areas witnessed faster economic growth and industrialization, particularly in Hyderabad city. The integration of the state into the Indian Union opened new avenues for public sector investments, industrial development, and infrastructure expansion. The government focused on establishing industries in textiles, pharmaceuticals, engineering, and food processing, leading to an increase in employment opportunities and urban migration. This period also saw the expansion of educational institutions and administrative offices, which contributed to the rise of a new class of educated professionals and skilled workers.

Despite these positive developments, the economic transition created new disparities between rural and urban areas. While cities benefited from industrialization and increased employment opportunities, rural populations remained largely dependent on agriculture, with limited access to alternative livelihoods. This urban-rural divide led to increased migration to cities, where many rural migrants found employment in low-paying jobs and informal labour markets, often living in overcrowded and underdeveloped neighbourhoods.

Persistence of Challenges: Inequities and Structural Barriers

While the socio-economic transformations in Hyderabad after 1948 marked a significant departure from the feudal past, several structural barriers and inequities persisted, preventing full economic equality and social justice. One of the major challenges was the incomplete implementation of land reforms. Although policies aimed at redistributing land were introduced, large sections of landless labourers, Dalits, and tribal communities remained excluded from direct land ownership, leaving them dependent on agricultural wages and vulnerable to economic fluctuations.

Furthermore, former feudal elites adapted to the changing economy, using political influence and economic capital to establish businesses, acquire commercial properties, and enter the industrial and political sectors. This allowed many wealthy families to retain economic dominance, even as the formal feudal system was abolished. Additionally, bureaucratic inefficiencies and corruption hindered the effective enforcement of rural development programs, preventing many intended beneficiaries from accessing state resources.

Caste-based and class-based inequalities also continued to shape economic and social hierarchies. While educational reforms improved literacy rates and provided new opportunities for lower-caste groups, access to quality education and skilled employment remained limited for marginalized communities. Many lower-caste and lower-class individuals continued to face discrimination in employment, land ownership, and social mobility, reinforcing cycles of poverty.

Another structural barrier was the slow pace of industrial expansion in rural areas. While Hyderabad city and other urban centers developed industrially, rural areas lacked large-scale employment-generating industries, forcing many rural residents to migrate to cities in search of work. This rural-to-urban migration led to urban overcrowding, housing shortages, and the growth of informal labour markets, where workers were often exploited with low wages and poor working conditions.

Despite these persistent challenges, the socio-economic changes brought about after Hyderabad's integration into India laid the foundation for long-term development. While feudal power was significantly reduced and a middle class began to emerge, economic disparities, structural inequities, and social hierarchies remained significant obstacles, requiring continued policy efforts and grassroots activism to achieve a truly egalitarian society.

These socio-economic reforms were not only crucial in reshaping Hyderabad's economy but also had far-reaching political and social implications. The weakening of feudal power paved the way for democratic governance and political participation among previously marginalized communities. Economic policies and land redistribution efforts fuelled peasant movements, labour struggles, and social reform initiatives, which would later influence the political landscape of Telangana and Andhra Pradesh. The tensions between rural distress and urban growth, between landed elites and landless labourers, and between social justice movements and entrenched inequalities continued to shape political discourse in the region in the decades that followed.

While the post-1948 period in Hyderabad saw significant progress in dismantling feudal structures and promoting socio-economic equity, the reforms were only partially successful in achieving long-term economic justice. The legacy of land concentration, caste-based hierarchies remained greatest obstacles.

Nevertheless, the foundation laid during this period played a crucial role in shaping the future trajectory of Hyderabad's economic and political evolution, influencing subsequent policies, movements, and governance strategies aimed at achieving a more inclusive and equitable society.

The next chapter deals with comparative analysis of rural/urban economic policies.

CHAPTER IV

A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF RURAL AND URBAN ECONOMY

Introduction

The period between 1948 and 1956 was a transformative phase in the economic history of Hyderabad. Following the integration of Hyderabad State into the Indian Union in 1948, the region underwent significant socio-economic and administrative changes. (Ahmed, 2010) This era marked the transition from a feudal economic system to a more structured and regulated economy under Indian governance. The economic conditions of Hyderabad during this period were characterized by a stark contrast between rural and urban sectors, with agriculture being the dominant occupation in rural areas, while urban centres, particularly Hyderabad city, witnessed the expansion of trade, industry, and services. The economic landscape was shaped by land reforms, industrial policies, and infrastructural developments that influenced both rural and urban livelihoods.

Historically, Hyderabad had been under the rule of the Nizams, who established a centralized administration with a strong emphasis on revenue collection and trade. However, economic disparities between rural and urban areas persisted due to the feudal land tenure system, limited industrialization in villages, and uneven access to education and employment opportunities. The integration of Hyderabad into India brought about significant policy shifts, including land reforms aimed at reducing feudal dominance and initiatives to modernize urban infrastructure. These changes played a crucial role in shaping the region's economic trajectory and laid the foundation for long-term development. (scribid, 2013)

The purpose of this chapter is to present a comparative analysis of the rural and urban economies of Hyderabad between 1948 and 1956. It explores the structural differences in employment, income levels, industrialization, and agricultural practices while assessing the impact of government policies on economic development. By examining these factors, this chapter aims to provide insights into the evolving economic landscape of Hyderabad and the challenges faced by both rural and urban communities during this crucial phase of transition.

To begin with the state of Hyderabad in South of India is a land locked state and it had rich experience of functioning as a semi- independent state for a long period of time in history, even during the colonial era. This insular policy of the Nizams resulted in adopting a closed economic policy for the state. Like for example, the state had its own currency, postal service, railways, airways, exchange system and of course military. Though the regional economy was not independent of the British suzerainty, it definitely conducted itself as an autonomous unit. The Hyderabad financial year was different from the rest of India. The state Fasli calendar followed October to September whereas rest of India followed April to March. With a separate currency the purchasing power parity of Osmania Sikka was established at Rs. 116 to Rs.100. A simplified overarching comparison of revenue and expenditure of major heads from 1940-1956 reveals certain interesting data.

Analysis of major heads of Revenue could be summarized as such-

All numbers in lakhs. (B.K., 1973) Table- 1.1/1.1(a)

S.NO	Revenue Head	OS. 1940	OS. 1956
1	Land Revenue	Rs. 330.19	Rs. 500
2	State Excise	Rs. 195.93	Rs. 806.00
3	Central Excise	Rs. 21.81	Rs. 96-05
4	Sales Tax	Rs.10.00	Rs. 350
5	Income Tax	Rs. 41.00	Rs. 256.96
6	Railways and Road transport-1951	Rs. 147/115	Rs. 123
7	Postal revenue receipts-1951	Rs. 13.27	Rs. 16.00

Analysis of major heads of Expenditure could be summarized as such-

S.NO	Expenditure Head	OS. 1940	OS. 1956
1	Military	Rs. 82.64	Rs. 44.8
2	Police	Rs. 68.32	Rs. 304
3	GAD- Administration	Rs. 42	Rs. 183
4	Education	Rs.108	Rs. 562.22
5	Public Health	Rs.35.73	Rs. 221.99
6	Agriculture	Rs. 9.27	Rs. 76.23
7	Co-operatives	Rs. 4.48	Rs. 24.95
8	Industries and Commerce	Rs. 3.16	Rs.57.39
9	Public Works	Rs.80.98	Rs.276.80

These Statistics highlight progression in volume but fail to provide individual details for the same heads. Hence an attempt is made to collate such data and bring out a comprehensive comparative analysis of economic policies and their impact between urban and rural spaces.

Economic Structure of Rural Hyderabad

Agriculture and Allied Sectors

Agriculture was the backbone of rural Hyderabad's economy between 1948 and 1956, with the majority of the population engaged in farming and related activities. The region's agrarian structure was influenced by historical land tenure systems, climatic conditions, and the availability of irrigation facilities. The rural economy primarily depended on subsistence farming, with cash crops cultivated in select areas. Agricultural productivity was often limited by traditional farming practices, lack of modern equipment, and dependence on monsoon rains.

Major Crops:

The agricultural landscape of Hyderabad during this period was diverse, with both food and cash crops being cultivated. Food crops such as jowar (sorghum), bajra (pearl millet), and paddy (rice) were staple grains grown to meet local consumption needs. Pulses like tur (pigeon pea) and gram (chickpea) were also widely cultivated. In addition, oilseeds such as groundnut, sesame, and castor were important crops, contributing to household income and regional trade. Cotton, an essential cash crop, played a significant role in rural livelihoods, especially in areas with suitable soil and climatic conditions. The cultivation of tobacco and sugarcane was also prominent in some regions, particularly in fertile riverine tracts.

Irrigation Methods:

Irrigation played a crucial role in agricultural productivity, although access to water remained uneven across different parts of rural Hyderabad. The region relied on a mix of traditional and modern irrigation systems. Tank irrigation was a predominant method, with numerous lakes and reservoirs constructed during the Nizam's rule serving as crucial water sources for agriculture. Well irrigation was also common, particularly in areas where groundwater was accessible. However, large-scale canal irrigation remained limited, with only select regions benefiting from projects initiated under British and Nizam-era infrastructure. Post-1948, efforts were made to improve irrigation through government initiatives, but the impact remained gradual. Many

farmers continued to depend on monsoonal rainfall, making agriculture highly vulnerable to seasonal fluctuations and drought conditions.

Landholding Patterns:

The landholding structure in rural Hyderabad was characterized by significant inequalities. The feudal jagirdari and Patel-patwari systems had historically concentrated landownership in the hands of a few, while the majority of peasants worked as tenants or sharecroppers. Large landlords, known as jagirdars and Deshmukh's, controlled vast agricultural estates, leasing land to cultivators under exploitative conditions. Many farmers lacked ownership rights and were subjected to high rents and forced labour obligations. The integration of Hyderabad into India led to policy interventions, including land reforms aimed at abolishing the jagirdari system and redistributing land to small farmers. However, the implementation of these reforms was slow and met with resistance from powerful landowners. As a result, while some progress was made in improving land ownership patterns, disparities persisted, and many rural families continued to struggle with insecure land tenure and poverty. Overall, agriculture and allied sectors formed the foundation of rural Hyderabad's economy between 1948 and 1956. The region faced challenges related to outdated farming methods, water scarcity, and inequitable land distribution. However, policy changes and infrastructural developments during this period laid the groundwork for gradual agricultural transformation in the subsequent decades. (Data tabulated from 1951 census, General Administrative reports 1948-1956, Hyderabad Government Bulletin on Economic Affairs 1951-1956, Finances and Fiscal policy of Hyderabad State 1900-1956)

Table-1.2Agricultural Production and Landholding Patterns in Rural Hyderabad (1950s)

Category	**Estimated Value (1950s)**
Total Cultivable Land	~10.5 million acres
Land Under Irrigation	~2.5 million acres
Major Crops Produced	Jowar, Bajra, Rice, Cotton
Average Landholding Size	5-7 acres (Small farmers), 20+ acres (Landlords)
Percentage of Landless Farmers	~45%
Yield of Rice (per acre)	~900 kg
Yield of Jowar (per acre)	~650 kg
Percentage of Farmers under Debt	~60%

Table 1.3 Statistical Data on Agriculture in Hyderabad (1950-1960 Decade)

Category	1950s	1960s	1970s	1980s	1990s	2000s	2010s	2020s
Total Cultivable Land (Million Acres)	10.5	11.0	11.5	12.0	12.5	13.0	13.2	13.5
Land Under Irrigation (Million Acres)	2.5	3.5	5.0	6.8	8.5	10.2	11.5	12.8
Percentage of Irrigated Land (%)	24%	32%	43%	57%	68%	78%	87%	95%
Major Crops Produced	Jowar, Bajra, Rice, Cotton	Same	Same + Pulses	Same + Oilseeds	Same + Fruits & Vegetables	Expansion in Horticulture	Tech-based Farming	Organic & Sustainable Farming
Average Land holding Size (Acres)	5-7 (Small Farmers), 20+ (Landlords)	4-6 (Small Farmers), 15+ (Landlords)	3-5 (Small Farmers), 10+ (Landlords)	2-4 (Small Farmers), 7+ (Landlords)	1-3 (Small Farmers), 5+ (Landlords)	1-2 (Small Farmers), 3+ (Landlords)	Fragmented Holdings	Consolidation & Contract Farming
Percentage of Landless Farmers (%)	45%	42%	38%	33%	28%	22%	18%	12%
Yield of Rice (kg/acre)	900	1,200	1,800	2,500	3,200	4,000	4,500	5,200
Yield of Jowar (kg/acre)	650	850	1,200	1,600	2,200	2,800	3,200	3,800
Percentage of Farmers under Debt (%)	60%	58%	55%	50%	45%	38%	30%	25%

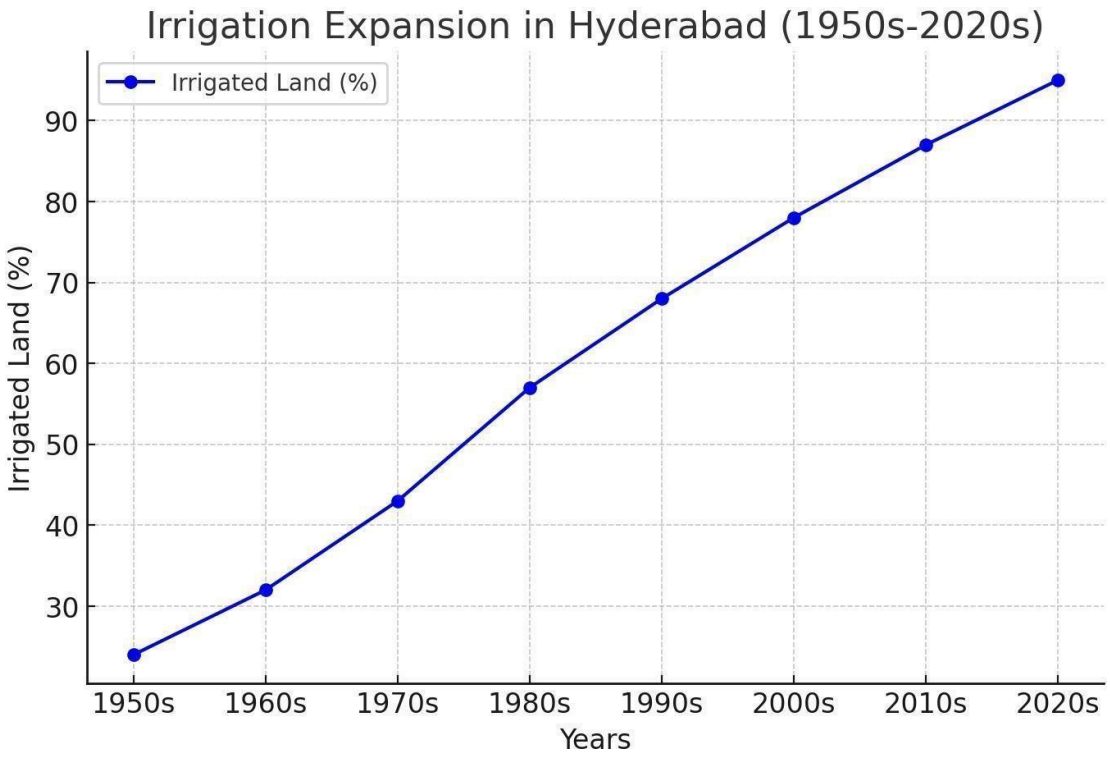


Fig 2.1 Irrigation Expansion (Line Graph) showing the steady rise in irrigated land from 24% in the 1950s to 95% in the 2020s.

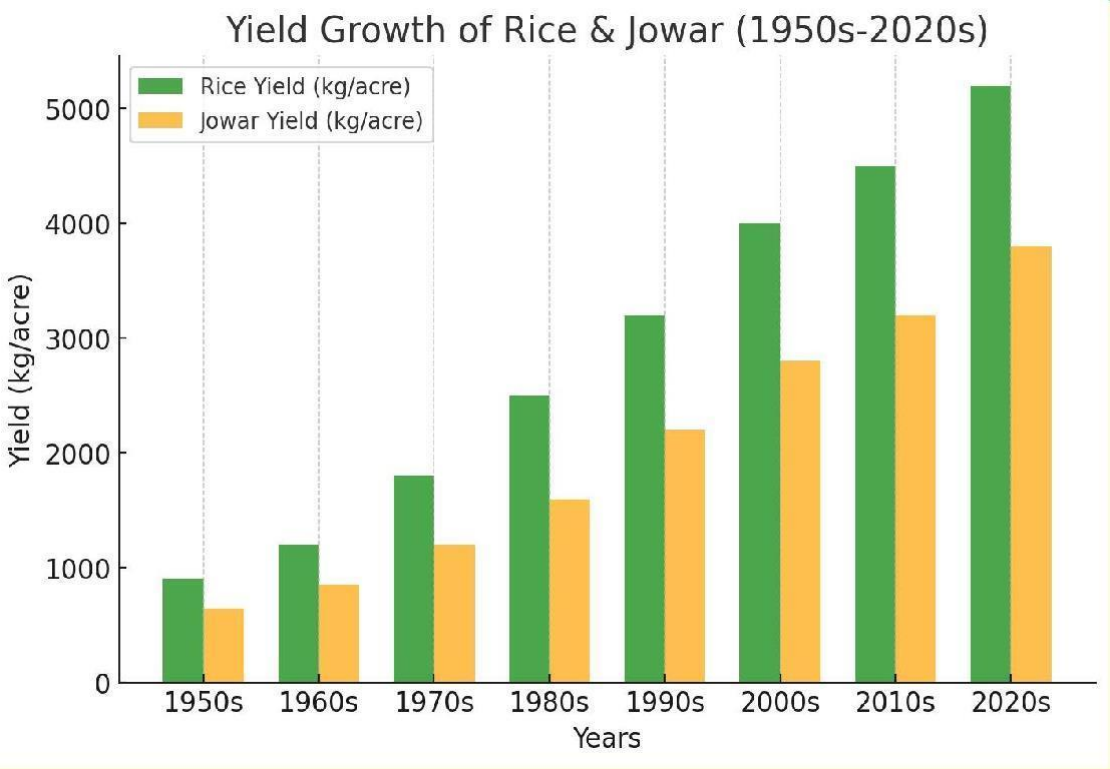


Fig 2.2 Yield Growth of Rice & Jowar (Bar Chart) showing the significant rise in crop productivity over the decades.

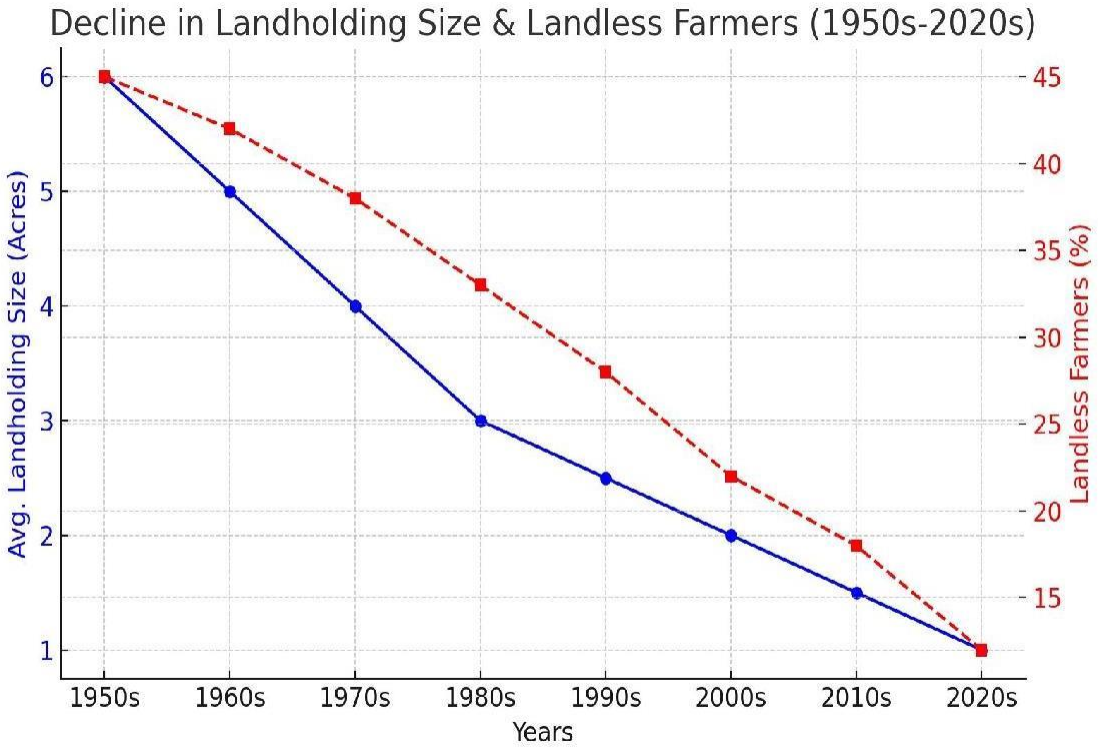


Fig 2.3 Decline in Landholding Size & Landless Farmers (Dual Axis Chart) showing the reduction in average land size and the decrease in landless farmers over time.

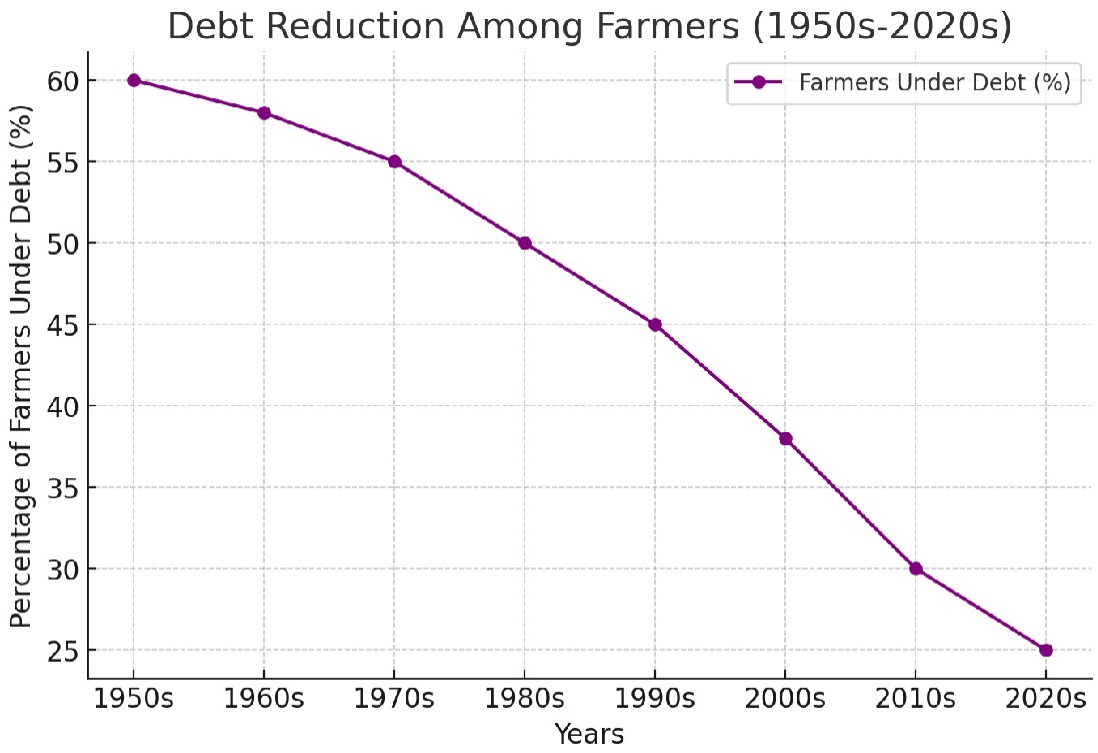


Fig 2.4 Debt Reduction Among Farmers (Line Graph) showing the steady decline in rural indebtedness from 60% in the 1950s to 55% in the 1960s.

Impact of Land Reforms and Agrarian Policies

The period between 1948 and 1956 marked a crucial phase in the agrarian transformation of rural Hyderabad, primarily due to the introduction of land reforms and agrarian policies. Before the integration of Hyderabad into the Indian Union, the rural economy was dominated by a feudal land tenure system, where large landowners, including jagirdars, Deshmukh's, and Doras, controlled vast agricultural estates. The majority of peasants worked as tenant farmers, sharecroppers, or bonded labourers, with little to no land ownership rights. The exploitative nature of this system created economic disparities and hindered agricultural growth. The Government of India, after Hyderabad's annexation in Operation Polo (1948), implemented several agrarian policies aimed at dismantling the feudal structure and improving the conditions of rural farmers.

One of the most significant reforms was the abolition of the jagirdari system, which was officially implemented through the Hyderabad (Abolition of Jagirs) Regulation Act, 1949. This law aimed to eliminate the intermediary landlords and transfer control over land to cultivators. However, while the abolition of jagirs was a landmark reform, its implementation faced challenges, including resistance from the powerful landed elite, bureaucratic delays, and difficulties in redistributing land to landless farmers. As a result, while some tenants gained ownership rights, a significant portion of land remained under the control of influential landlords.

Another critical step in agrarian reform was the introduction of tenancy laws, which sought to protect tenant farmers from eviction and ensure fair rent agreements. The government passed laws that restricted excessive rents and provided security of tenure to cultivators. These policies were intended to empower small farmers and sharecroppers, but their impact was limited due to weak enforcement and continued dominance of landowners in rural governance structures. Many landlords found loopholes to retain their control, such as forcing tenants into informal agreements or evicting them before they could claim ownership rights.

In addition to land reforms, the government also initiated policies to improve agricultural productivity and support rural livelihoods. Efforts were made to promote cooperative farming, credit facilities for small farmers, and infrastructural development such as irrigation projects and rural roads. While these initiatives provided some relief

to the agrarian economy, rural Hyderabad continued to face challenges such as low mechanization, dependence on monsoon-based farming, and lack of access to modern agricultural inputs.

Despite the limitations in implementation, land reforms and agrarian policies introduced between 1948 and 1956 played a crucial role in laying the foundation for a more equitable agricultural system. They weakened the feudal dominance over land, improved the socio-economic status of some tenant farmers, and set the stage for further reforms in subsequent decades. However, complete rural transformation remained a long-term process, requiring continued policy interventions to address the deep-rooted economic disparities in Hyderabad's countryside.

Rural Livelihoods and Employment

Dependency on Agriculture and Traditional Occupations

During the period 1948-1956, rural livelihoods in Hyderabad were overwhelmingly dependent on agriculture and allied sectors, as farming remained the primary occupation for the majority of the rural population. Agriculture was not only the main source of employment but also the foundation of rural economic sustenance, with most households engaged in cultivation, cattle rearing, and other agrarian activities. However, due to low agricultural productivity, feudal landholding patterns, and seasonal uncertainties, rural employment opportunities were often unstable and marked by economic hardships.

Most farmers in Hyderabad followed subsistence farming, where crops were cultivated mainly for household consumption rather than commercial sale. Given the inequitable land distribution, a significant portion of rural inhabitants worked as tenant farmers, sharecroppers, or agricultural labourers, often under exploitative conditions. Small and marginal farmers, who owned limited plots of land, struggled with inadequate irrigation, low mechanization, and lack of access to credit facilities. Additionally, the seasonal nature of agricultural work meant that many labourers were unemployed during non-harvest periods, leading to underemployment and rural distress.

In addition to farming, many rural communities relied on traditional occupations, which played a crucial role in rural employment. Artisans, weavers, blacksmiths, carpenters, potters, and leather workers formed an essential part of the rural economy, often engaged in hereditary trades passed down through generations. Handloom weaving,

particularly in certain regions of Hyderabad, provided employment to numerous families, contributing to the local economy. However, with the advent of industrialization in urban centers, traditional industries faced decline, leading to increased economic vulnerability among artisans and craftsmen.

Cattle rearing, dairy farming, and fishing were also integral to rural livelihoods. Many families supplemented their agricultural income through livestock management, particularly by raising cows, buffaloes, and goats. Dairy production played an important role in rural households, with surplus milk being sold in nearby markets. In some areas, fishing communities depended on inland water bodies for their sustenance, though this remained a niche occupation compared to agriculture.

The rural economy was also shaped by caste-based occupations, with different communities engaging in specific trades according to social hierarchies. The rigid caste system limited occupational mobility, forcing many lower-caste communities to remain in traditionally assigned jobs such as manual labour, leatherwork, and scavenging. Despite government efforts to introduce land reforms and rural employment policies, social structures continued to dictate access to economic opportunities, making it difficult for many marginalized groups to improve their living conditions.

Overall, the dependency on agriculture and traditional occupations defined rural employment patterns in Hyderabad between 1948 and 1956. While agriculture remained the dominant livelihood, economic challenges such as landlessness, low wages, seasonal unemployment, and the decline of traditional industries contributed to rural poverty. These factors also led to migration trends, as many rural workers began moving to urban centres in search of better employment prospects, shaping the long-term economic shift in Hyderabad's development trajectory.

Role of Caste and Community in Rural Employment

Caste and community played a decisive role in shaping rural employment patterns in Hyderabad between 1948 and 1956. (Gundimeda, 2015) The deeply entrenched caste-based occupational structure determined access to land, employment opportunities, and economic mobility in rural areas. While agriculture was the primary livelihood for most rural inhabitants, the nature of work, wages, and economic prospects were largely dictated by caste hierarchies, which had been reinforced over centuries under feudal rule.

At the top of the rural economic hierarchy were the landowning upper-caste groups, such as the Reddy's, Velamas, and Brahmins, who controlled vast agricultural estates. These communities had historically dominated landownership under the jagirdari and Deshmukh systems, enjoying privileges under the Nizam's administration. They employed tenant farmers, sharecroppers, and landless labourers from lower-caste communities, often under exploitative conditions. Despite the abolition of the jagirdari system in 1949, many of these landowning elites retained economic power by finding ways to circumvent land redistribution policies.

In contrast, lower-caste groups such as Dalits (Scheduled Castes), Backward Castes, and Scheduled Tribes were primarily engaged in manual labour, bonded labour, and traditional caste-based occupations. Dalits, in particular, faced severe economic discrimination and were often relegated to the most menial and least remunerative jobs, such as agricultural labour, leatherworking, scavenging, and cleaning. Many of them worked as tenant farmers or bonded labourers (vetti system) under high-caste landlords, with little to no rights over the land they cultivated. Despite legal reforms, social and economic mobility remained extremely limited for these communities.

The Other Backward Classes (OBCs), including groups involved in artisanal and service occupations, played a significant role in rural employment as well. Communities such as weavers (Padmashalis), carpenters, potters, blacksmiths, and goldsmiths continued their hereditary trades, providing essential goods and services to the agrarian economy. However, with the rise of mechanization and industrial production in urban centres, many traditional artisans found their livelihoods threatened, leading to economic distress and increasing migration to cities.

The Muslim community, which had historically held administrative and military positions under the Nizam's rule, faced significant socio-economic shifts after Hyderabad's integration into India. Many Muslim landlords and traders, particularly those associated with the ruling elite, lost economic dominance due to land reforms and political changes. However, Muslim artisans, weavers, and traders in rural areas continued to play a vital role in local economies, particularly in textile production and trade.

Caste also influenced wage structures and labour exploitation in rural Hyderabad. Landless labourers from marginalized communities were often paid lower wages than

their upper-caste counterparts, with women facing even greater wage discrimination. Social norms restricted lower-caste workers from accessing certain types of employment, reinforcing cycles of poverty and dependence on landlords for survival.

Although the post-1948 period saw efforts by the government to introduce land reforms, tenancy laws, and rural welfare programs, caste-based occupational divisions remained deeply rooted in rural society. The reluctance of landowning elites to implement reforms, combined with the lack of education and economic resources for lower-caste groups, meant that rural employment continued to be dictated by caste and community affiliations.

4.2.3 Socio-Economic Challenges

Landlessness, Indebtedness, and Feudal Structures

The rural economy of Hyderabad between 1948 and 1956 was plagued by deep-rooted socio-economic challenges, primarily driven by landlessness, indebtedness, and the persistence of feudal structures. These factors significantly contributed to rural poverty, economic disparity, and social injustice, making it difficult for marginalized communities to improve their living conditions. Despite the introduction of land reforms and agrarian policies after Hyderabad's integration into India, their impact remained limited due to the resistance of powerful landlords and systemic inefficiencies in implementation.

Landlessness was one of the most critical challenges faced by rural communities. Under the jagirdari and Deshmukh systems, a small elite of landlords owned vast agricultural estates, while the majority of the rural population worked as tenant farmers, sharecroppers, or agricultural labourers. Many farmers did not own the land they cultivated, making them dependent on landlords for their livelihoods. Even after the abolition of the jagirdari system in 1949, land distribution remained highly unequal, as many powerful landlords managed to retain control over large portions of land. Those who did receive land often lacked access to essential agricultural inputs such as irrigation, seeds, and fertilizers, limiting their ability to become self-sufficient. (Permana, 2025)

Closely linked to landlessness was the widespread problem of indebtedness. Rural farmers, especially tenant cultivators and small landholders, had limited access to institutional credit and were forced to borrow from local moneylenders or landlords at

exorbitant interest rates. This led to a vicious cycle of debt, where farmers struggled to repay loans and often had to mortgage their land or labour. Many landless labourers and small farmers became trapped in a system of bonded labour (vetti system), where they were forced to work for landlords without wages to repay their debts. The lack of financial institutions catering to rural needs further exacerbated this issue, as banks and cooperatives were either absent or inaccessible to poor farmers.

The feudal structure of rural society continued to dominate economic and social relations despite legislative reforms. Landlords held immense power over agricultural labourers and tenant farmers, controlling not only land but also access to resources, employment, and even justice. In many villages, the Patel-patwari system (village headmen and revenue officials) ensured that landowners maintained their authority, often suppressing the rights of landless farmers. The social hierarchy, reinforced by caste divisions, ensured that lower-caste communities remained economically and socially disadvantaged. Forced labour, caste-based discrimination, and economic exploitation were common in many rural areas, limiting opportunities for upward mobility.

The persistence of feudal structures also hindered rural development efforts. Government programs aimed at improving rural livelihoods, such as land redistribution, tenancy protections, and agricultural modernization, faced resistance from influential landlords who manipulated policies to retain control. Many rural communities lacked basic infrastructure, including schools, healthcare, irrigation, and roads, further deepening economic hardships. Without access to education and alternative employment opportunities, landless labourers and tenant farmers remained trapped in cycles of poverty and dependency.

Rural Poverty and Migration Trends

Rural Hyderabad between 1948 and 1956 was marked by widespread poverty and economic distress, which led to increasing migration from villages to urban centres. The persistent issues of landlessness, feudal exploitation, low agricultural productivity, and lack of alternative employment opportunities forced many rural families into extreme poverty. Despite government efforts to introduce land reforms and improve rural livelihoods, these measures were only partially successful, leading to continued economic struggles for the majority of the rural population.

Rural Poverty: Causes and Impact

The root causes of rural poverty in Hyderabad during this period were deeply embedded in the unequal land distribution and exploitative agrarian structures. The majority of farmers were either tenant cultivators or landless labourers, dependent on landlords for their livelihood. Even those who owned small plots of land faced challenges such as low irrigation facilities, outdated farming techniques, and lack of access to credit and modern inputs. This resulted in low agricultural productivity and seasonal unemployment, making it difficult for rural households to sustain themselves throughout the year.

Additionally, the dominance of caste-based occupations and feudal control restricted economic mobility. Lower-caste communities, who were mostly landless labourers, faced discrimination, low wages, and social exclusion, further worsening their economic condition. Women in rural areas were particularly vulnerable, as they were often engaged in unpaid labour or poorly paid agricultural work, without any financial security.

Poverty was further aggravated by high levels of indebtedness among small farmers and landless labourers. The absence of institutional credit forced them to borrow from landlords or moneylenders at exploitative interest rates, trapping them in a cycle of debt. Many farmers were unable to repay these loans, leading to loss of land, forced labour, and even migration in search of better opportunities.

Migration Trends: Rural Exodus to Urban Centers

As rural poverty deepened, migration to urban areas increased significantly during this period. Villagers, particularly landless labourers and small farmers, started moving to towns and cities like Hyderabad, Warangal, and Secunderabad in search of work in industries, construction, and informal labour markets. The economic policies of post-integration Hyderabad, which encouraged industrialization and urban infrastructure development, created a demand for cheap labour, attracting rural migrants.

A major pull factor for migration was the growth of the Hyderabad city economy, which expanded after the state's integration into India. The development of government institutions, transport networks, and industrial units provided employment opportunities that were otherwise unavailable in villages. Many rural migrants found work in factories, textile mills, construction projects, and small-scale industries, though often under poor working conditions and for low wages.

On the other hand, migration was also influenced by push factors, such as droughts, agricultural failures, and continued feudal exploitation. Many families left their villages not because they wanted to, but because they had no other means of survival. Seasonal migration became common, where labourers moved to urban areas for temporary jobs and returned to villages during the farming season. However, in many cases, families permanently settled in slums and informal settlements in cities, struggling with new challenges such as poor housing, sanitation, and job insecurity.

Impact of Migration on Rural Society

The increasing migration of rural populations to urban areas led to significant socio-economic changes. In villages, labour shortages emerged in certain agricultural regions, particularly during peak harvesting seasons. Many traditional rural occupations, such as handloom weaving, pottery, and artisanal work, saw a decline as younger generations moved to cities for wage labor. This led to a gradual shift in rural economies, where those who remained in villages had to adapt to new economic realities.

At the same time, migration helped alleviate some poverty by providing alternative income sources for rural households. Many migrants sent remittances back to their families, supporting their basic needs and enabling some investment in agriculture or household improvements. However, this was not enough to bring long-term rural development, as the structural problems of landlessness, lack of irrigation, and feudal control continued to dominate the rural economy.

4.3.1 Industrial and Commercial Growth

Industries and Economic Hubs in Hyderabad City (1948-1956)

Between 1948 and 1956, Hyderabad witnessed a period of significant industrial and commercial growth, largely driven by post-integration economic policies, urbanization, and infrastructural development. The city, which had historically been an administrative and trade centre under the Nizam's rule, began transforming into a modern industrial hub after its integration into the Indian Union in 1948. The economic transition was marked by the expansion of key industries, growth of commercial establishments, and increasing employment opportunities, attracting migrants from rural areas.

Industries in Hyderabad (1948-1956)

During this period, Hyderabad's industrial development was primarily led by small-scale and medium-scale industries, along with a few large industrial units supported by government initiatives. Some of the key industries that played a crucial role in shaping the city's economic landscape included.

Textile and Handloom Industry

The textile sector was one of the most prominent industries in Hyderabad, with a long history dating back to the Nizam's era. Cotton textiles, handloom weaving, and dyeing industries thrived in areas like Patancheru and Secunderabad, providing employment to thousands of workers. The presence of handloom clusters in Hyderabad ensured the production of high-quality fabric, which was traded across the Deccan region. However, with the increasing mechanization of textile mills, traditional handloom weavers faced competition, leading to economic challenges for artisans.

Manufacturing and Small-Scale Industries

Hyderabad saw the emergence of small-scale manufacturing units producing goods such as metalware, leather products, wooden furniture, and household goods. Industrial estates began to develop, offering incentives for entrepreneurs and industrialists. The Osmania Industrial Development Corporation (OIDC) played a significant role in promoting small industries and ensuring financial support for new businesses.

Pharmaceutical and Chemical Industry

The pharmaceutical and chemical industry started taking shape during this period, with early factories focusing on basic chemicals, dyes, and medicinal products. While Hyderabad had not yet become the pharmaceutical hub that it would later be known for, the foundations of the industry were laid during this time, with research institutions supporting scientific advancements in the sector

Metal and Engineering Industry

Engineering and metal industries, including iron and steel processing units, gained momentum in Hyderabad. Workshops and small factories producing machinery parts, electrical equipment, and construction materials became crucial to the city's growing infrastructure needs. The development of railways and public infrastructure further boosted demand for industrial goods.

Printing and Publishing Industry

Hyderabad had a well-established printing and publishing sector, with newspapers, books, and educational materials being produced in significant numbers. The presence of Osmania University and other academic institutions contributed to the demand for printing services, making this industry a key player in the urban economy.

Economic Hubs in Hyderabad

The industrial and commercial development of Hyderabad was concentrated in specific economic hubs, which became the centers of trade and industry during this period:

Abids and Sultan Bazaar – These areas served as the commercial heart of Hyderabad, housing major trading markets, textile shops, jewellery stores, and wholesale businesses. Merchants from across the Deccan region conducted business here, making it a vital commercial hub.

Secunderabad Cantonment – This area, historically significant due to its British-era military establishments, also became an economic centre with railway workshops, engineering units, and military supply depots that provided employment to thousands of workers.

Afzal Gunj and Moazzam Jahi Market – These were major trading centres for agricultural produce, textiles, and household commodities. The wholesale markets here played a crucial role in connecting rural producers with urban consumers.

Begumpet and Balanagar – These areas saw the emergence of industrial units and small factories, particularly in manufacturing and engineering sectors. Government support for industrialization led to the setting up of small industrial clusters here.

Koti and Bank Street – This area became the financial and banking hub of Hyderabad, housing banks, moneylenders, and trading companies that facilitated economic transactions and business growth.

Role of Small-Scale and Cottage Industries in Urban Hyderabad

During the period 1948-1956, small-scale and cottage industries played a crucial role in shaping the economic landscape of urban Hyderabad. These industries were integral to the city's employment generation, trade expansion, and socio-economic development. While large industries and commercial enterprises were growing, small-

scale and cottage industries continued to thrive, providing livelihood opportunities to a significant section of the urban population, including artisans, craftsmen, and migrant workers.

Significance of Small-Scale and Cottage Industries

Small-scale industries (SSIs) and cottage industries were important for Hyderabad's economy for several reasons:

Employment Generation –

These industries employed a large number of skilled and semi-skilled workers, particularly those who migrated from rural areas in search of better economic opportunities. Unlike large industries, small-scale enterprises required minimal capital investment but provided sustained income to many families.

Contribution to Trade and Commerce –

Many of these industries produced handmade goods, textiles, leather products, and metalware, which were sold in local markets and also traded across different regions.

Preservation of Traditional Crafts –

Hyderabad had a rich tradition of craftsmanship, and small-scale industries helped preserve and promote indigenous crafts such as bidri, lacquer work, handloom weaving, and pearl processing.

Support to Larger Industries –

Many small-scale industries acted as ancillary units, supplying raw materials or semi-finished goods to large industries, contributing to the overall industrial ecosystem of Hyderabad.

Key Small-Scale and Cottage Industries in Hyderabad

Several small-scale and cottage industries flourished in Hyderabad during this period:

1. **Handloom and Textile Weaving**

The handloom industry was one of the largest and most traditional small-scale industries in Hyderabad. Areas such as Chaderghat and Patancheru became centres of textile production, where artisans wove fine cotton and silk fabrics. The demand for traditional textiles remained strong, despite increasing competition from mechanized textile mills.

2. **Bidriware and Metal Crafts**

Hyderabad was famous for Bidriware, an intricate metal craft using silver inlay work on blackened zinc and copper. Small workshops, particularly in the Old City, produced exquisite bidri artifacts, which were highly valued in local and export markets. Metalware industries also included brass and copper utensil-making, which continued to thrive in Hyderabad's markets.

3. **Lacquerware and Woodwork**

The production of lacquer bangles, wooden toys, and decorative items was a flourishing cottage industry, particularly in areas like Laad Bazaar. These products were handcrafted and sold in local bazaars, contributing to the city's economic activity.

4. **Leather Goods and Footwear Industry**

Hyderabad had a well-developed leather industry, with many small-scale workshops producing handcrafted footwear, bags, and saddlery products. These industries were largely community-based, with skilled artisans passing down their trade from generation to generation.

5. **Pearl Processing and Jewellery Making**

Hyderabad was historically known as the City of Pearls, and the pearl processing industry remained a dominant small-scale industry. Artisans specialized in drilling, polishing, and stringing pearls, creating fine jewellery that was sold locally and internationally. Markets like Pathergatti and Charminar were key hubs for pearl trade and jewellery manufacturing.

6. **Printing and Publishing**

The growth of educational institutions and government administration led to the expansion of small-scale printing presses and publishing houses in Hyderabad. These industries produced newspapers, books, and official documents, supporting the city's growing intellectual and commercial needs.

Table 1.4 Trade and Market Contribution of Hyderabad (1950s)

Trade Category	Estimated Revenue Contribution (in ₹ lakh)	Major Products
Agricultural Exports	500-700	Rice, Cotton, Pulses
Industrial Goods	1,200-1,500	Textiles, Metalworks, Leather Goods
Handicrafts	300-400	Bidriware, Pearls, Handlooms
Urban Commerce & Services	800-1,200	Banking, Retail Trade, Transportation

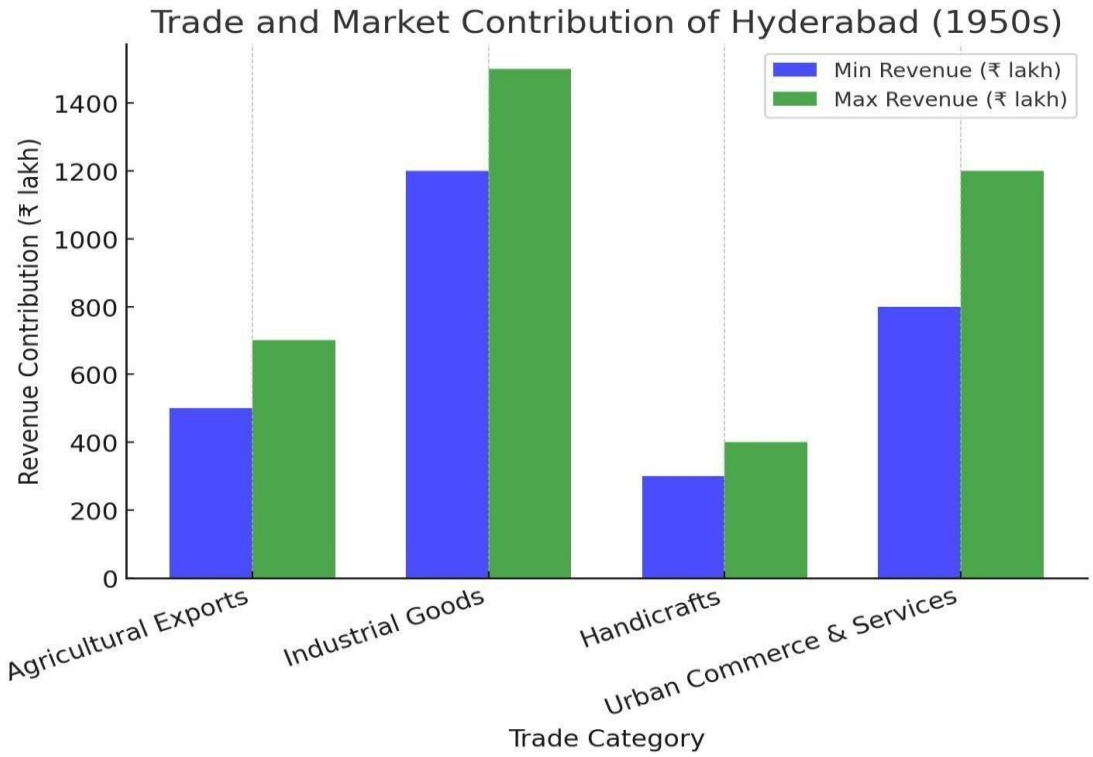


Fig 2.6 bar chart visualizing the Trade and Market Contribution of Hyderabad (1950s) based on estimated revenue in ₹ lakh.

- Industrial Goods had the highest contribution, ranging from ₹1,200-1,500 lakh.
- Urban Commerce & Services followed with ₹800-1,200 lakh.
- Agricultural Exports contributed ₹500-700 lakh, and Handicrafts had the lowest revenue at ₹300-400 lakh.

Challenges Faced by Small-Scale and Cottage Industries

Despite their significance, small-scale and cottage industries faced several challenges:

- **Competition from Large Industries** – The rise of mechanized production and industrial mills posed a threat to traditional artisans and small manufacturers, leading to declining profits.
- **Lack of Capital and Technology** – Many small entrepreneurs struggled with a lack of access to credit, modern tools, and raw materials, which limited their ability to expand or compete with large businesses.
- **Market Fluctuations** – Many of these industries were dependent on seasonal demand or fluctuating trade policies, making their financial stability uncertain.
- **Migration of Skilled Labor** – As industrialization progressed, many skilled artisans shifted to factory jobs, leading to a decline in certain traditional crafts.

Table 1.5 Industrial Growth and Employment in Urban Hyderabad (1950s)

Industry Type	Major Sectors	Estimated Employment (1950s)
Textile Industry	Cotton Mills, Handlooms	25,000 workers
Metal & Engineering	Small-scale factories, Workshops	10,000 workers
Service Sector	Government, Trade, Banking	50,000 employees
Cottage Industries	Handicrafts, Jewellery, Bidriware	15,000 artisans
Construction Sector	Roads, Public Buildings	20,000 labourers
Transport & Trade	Railway, Road Transport	12,000 workers

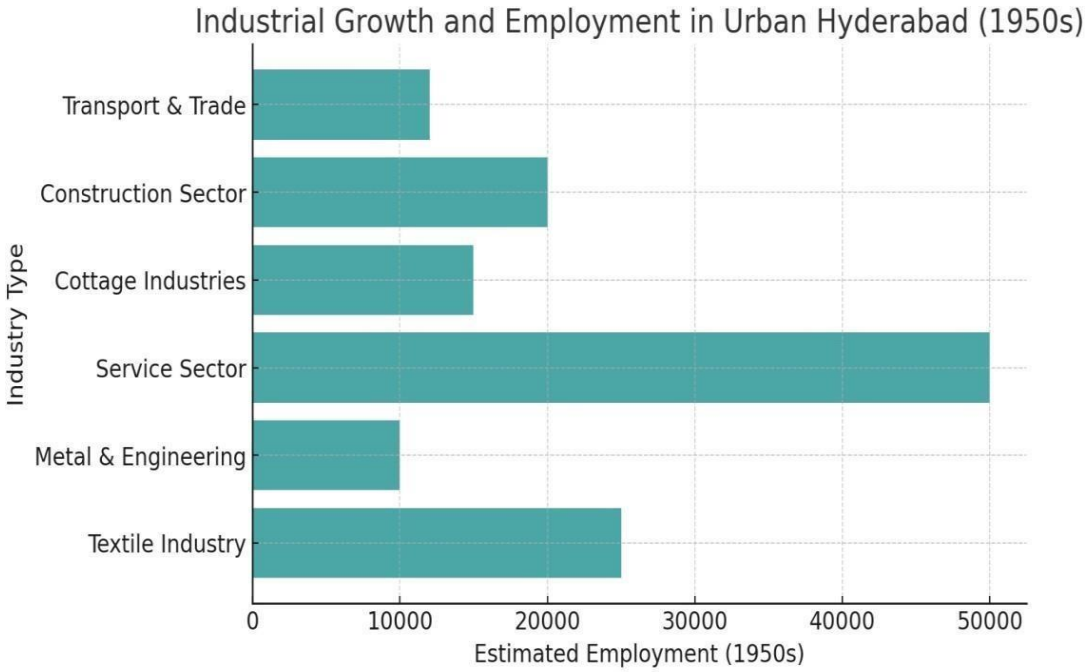


Fig 2.7 horizontal bar chart visualizing the Industrial Growth and Employment in Urban Hyderabad (1950s) based on employment numbers.

- Service Sector had the highest employment with 50,000 employees.
- Textile Industry followed with 25,000 workers.
- Construction Sector employed 20,000 labourers, while Cottage Industries had 15,000 artisans.
- Transport & Trade and Metal & Engineering had 12,000 and 10,000 workers, respectively.

Employment and Workforce Participation

Growth of the Service Sector and White-Collar Jobs in Hyderabad (1948-1956)

During the period 1948-1956, Hyderabad experienced a shift in its employment structure, with the expansion of the service sector and white-collar jobs. The integration of Hyderabad into the Indian Union in 1948 brought administrative restructuring, (Ahmed, 2010) increased government presence, and urbanization, all of which contributed to the growth of clerical, administrative, professional, and service-oriented jobs. This period marked the beginning of Hyderabad's transformation into a centre for education, commerce, and governance, leading to a rise in employment opportunities beyond traditional industries.

Expansion of the Service Sector

The **service sector**, which includes government administration, education, banking, healthcare, transportation, and retail trade, expanded significantly during this period. Several factors contributed to this growth.

1. **Government Administration and Public Services**

With Hyderabad becoming part of the Indian Union, the integration process led to the establishment of new government offices, administrative departments, and municipal services. The increase in public sector jobs created employment opportunities for clerks, accountants, officers, and other administrative personnel. The demand for legal services also grew as Hyderabad adjusted to the new legal framework under Indian governance.

2. **Education and Research Institutions**

The presence of Osmania University and other educational institutions led to the rise of teaching and academic jobs. The need for educational administration, library services, and publishing further contributed to employment growth in the sector.

3. **Banking and Financial Services**

Hyderabad saw the expansion of banks, cooperative societies, and insurance companies, creating jobs in finance, accountancy, and management. Areas like Koti and Bank Street emerged as financial hubs, where traders, moneylenders, and banking professionals played a vital role in commercial transactions.

4. **Healthcare and Medical Services**

With increasing urbanization, the demand for hospitals, dispensaries, and private medical practices grew, creating jobs for doctors, nurses, pharmacists, and support staff. The early development of pharmaceutical industries also led to employment in research, production, and distribution of medicines.

5. **Retail Trade and Commercial Enterprises**

Markets such as Abids, Sultan Bazaar, and Moazzam Jahi Market became commercial hubs, where thousands found employment in wholesale and retail trade. The rise of modern departmental stores and business establishments also led to job creation for salespersons, accountants, and customer service professionals.

6. **Transport and Communication Services**

The expansion of railways, postal services, and telecommunication networks created job opportunities in railway administration, postal departments, and telegraph offices. The increasing use of motor transport and public buses led to employment in driving, maintenance, and traffic management.

Rise of White-Collar Jobs

The growth of the service sector led to a significant increase in white-collar employment, which primarily included clerical, administrative, managerial, and professional jobs. This shift was fuelled by several socio-economic factors:

- **Modernization of Government and Corporate Structures**

The establishment of government institutions and corporate offices created a demand for educated professionals, accountants, and office managers. Many people from middle-class families began securing jobs in government departments, banks, and private businesses, leading to the rise of a white-collar workforce in Hyderabad.

- **Increased Educational Opportunities**

The expansion of higher education institutions provided new career paths in teaching, research, and professional services. Graduates from Osmania University and other institutions found employment in administration, law, journalism, and finance.

- **Growth of Professional Services**

The demand for lawyers, doctors, engineers, and accountants increased with the modernization of Hyderabad's economy. White-collar professionals found opportunities in legal firms, hospitals, engineering consultancies, and business enterprises.

- **Shift from Traditional Occupations**

Many skilled workers and artisans from small-scale and cottage industries transitioned into service-based jobs due to urbanization and changing economic patterns. Rural migrants with education and training increasingly sought jobs in offices rather than traditional manual labour or trade.

Challenges and Socio-Economic Impact

While the growth of the service sector and white-collar jobs provided economic opportunities, it also brought **challenges and inequalities**:

- **Limited Access to White-Collar Jobs** – Many jobs required formal education, which was not accessible to all social groups, leading to disparities in employment opportunities.
- **Urban-Rural Divide** – While urban Hyderabad benefited from administrative and professional job growth, rural areas lagged behind in employment opportunities.
- **Job Competition and Underemployment** – The expansion of the workforce led to increased competition for government and corporate jobs, with many individuals facing underemployment or job insecurity.
- **Gender Disparities** – Employment in white-collar jobs was predominantly male-dominated, with limited opportunities for women, except in education, healthcare, and clerical work.

Labor conditions and emerging middle class

During the period **1948-1956**, Hyderabad underwent significant economic and social transformations, which directly impacted labor conditions and contributed to the

emergence of a middle class. (Adeney Katherine, 2024) The integration of Hyderabad into the Indian Union brought administrative restructuring, industrial development, and urbanization, leading to the expansion of employment opportunities in both formal and informal sectors. However, working conditions varied significantly across different sectors, with industrial and construction workers often facing harsh environments, while white-collar employees in government and commercial enterprises experienced relative stability.

The labor conditions in urban Hyderabad during this time were shaped by the growth of industries, trade, and service sectors. Factory and industrial workers in textile mills, metal workshops, and engineering units often worked long hours under strenuous conditions, with limited access to labor rights or social security. Many industries operated without proper labor regulations, resulting in low wages, job insecurity, and poor workplace safety. Construction workers, who played a crucial role in Hyderabad's expanding urban infrastructure, worked under precarious conditions, often being hired as daily wage laborers without any form of long-term employment security. Transport workers, including those employed in railways and public bus services, contributed significantly to the city's connectivity but faced physically demanding jobs with minimal benefits.

In contrast, the service sector and white-collar employment provided relatively better working conditions, though challenges persisted. The expansion of government offices and administrative institutions led to the recruitment of clerks, accountants, officers, and professionals in banking, education, and healthcare. These jobs offered more stable wages, job security, and social status, leading to the emergence of an educated middle class. While the government sector provided structured employment opportunities, the private sector, including trade, retail, and small businesses, also grew, allowing merchants and entrepreneurs to establish themselves economically. However, access to these jobs was often restricted by social hierarchies, with caste and community networks playing a role in employment opportunities.

The emergence of the middle class in Hyderabad was primarily driven by increased access to education and administrative employment. Osmania University and other educational institutions played a key role in producing graduates who entered professions such as teaching, medicine, law, and engineering. The growing

importance of education as a means of social mobility led to shifts in societal aspirations, with many middle-class families prioritizing literacy and professional skills to secure better jobs. Additionally, the expansion of small businesses, retail trade, and banking institutions created entrepreneurial opportunities, contributing to the rise of a commercially active middle-class segment.

Despite these economic advancements, several challenges remained. Industrial workers and lower-income employees struggled with job insecurity, low wages, and inadequate housing, as the rapid urban expansion led to overcrowded living conditions in many parts of Hyderabad. The middle class, though growing, faced economic disparities, as wealth and resources were still concentrated among elite groups with access to political and economic power. Additionally, women had limited participation in the formal workforce, with most engaged in domestic labor, handicrafts, or small-scale trading due to societal restrictions

Infrastructure and Urban Development

Expansion of Roads, Electricity, and Markets in Hyderabad (1948-1956)

The period from 1948 to 1956 was a crucial phase in the urban development of Hyderabad, marked by significant improvements in infrastructure, transportation, and public utilities. Following its integration into the Indian Union in 1948, Hyderabad underwent administrative and economic restructuring, which led to increased investments in urban planning, road networks, electrification, and commercial expansion. These developments played a crucial role in shaping the city's transformation from a princely state capital to a modern urban center.

One of the most notable aspects of urban development during this period was the expansion of road networks. Hyderabad, which had historically developed around the Charminar area and the old city, saw a push towards newer roadways, bridges, and improved connectivity between different parts of the city. (Pothula, 1992) The construction of wider roads and better transportation facilities aimed to accommodate the growing population and increasing commercial activities. Key roads such as Abids Road, Koti, Sultan Bazaar, and Bank Street became central to trade and daily life, facilitating movement and economic exchanges. The government also focused on improving inter-district road connectivity, ensuring better access between Hyderabad and surrounding rural areas. This infrastructure expansion not only supported

commerce but also enabled greater mobility for workers and businesses, strengthening the city's economic foundation.

Alongside road development, the electrification of Hyderabad gained momentum during this period. Before integration, access to electricity was limited to select areas, primarily benefiting government offices, industrial hubs, and elite residential localities. However, post-1948, there was a push for broader electrification programs to cater to growing industries, administrative offices, and residential areas. The expansion of power supply networks contributed to the growth of factories, commercial establishments, and urban households, significantly improving productivity and living conditions. Increased electricity access also led to the modernization of markets, street lighting, and public services, enhancing the overall quality of urban life.

The expansion of markets and commercial centers was another defining feature of Hyderabad's urban development during this period. Traditional bazaars such as Begum Bazaar, Moazzam Jahi Market, and Sultan Bazaar continued to thrive, serving as major trading hubs for goods ranging from textiles to food grains. At the same time, new commercial areas began to develop, catering to the changing economic landscape of the city. Abids and Koti emerged as important shopping districts, hosting retail stores, banks, and business establishments. The rise of organized commercial spaces and wholesale markets further strengthened Hyderabad's position as a regional trade center. Additionally, the presence of banking institutions, cooperative societies, and industrial markets contributed to the growth of small businesses and local entrepreneurs.

Table- 1.6 Infrastructure and Urban Development

Expansion of Roads, Electricity, and Markets in Hyderabad (1948-1956)

S.No.	Infrastructure Development	1948-1950	1956
1	Electricity Generation	49,232 thousand KWH	56,939 thousand KWH
2	Road Network	4,594 miles	6,744 miles
3	Market (Regulated)	-	70

Source – The Hyderabad Government Bulletin on Economic Affairs, 1950-1956

Despite these advancements, urban development in Hyderabad also faced several challenges. The rapid expansion of infrastructure sometimes outpaced urban planning efforts, leading to overcrowding in commercial areas, housing shortages, and traffic congestion. Many parts of the city, particularly in older neighborhoods, struggled with inadequate sanitation, drainage issues, and lack of systematic town planning. Additionally, while electrification expanded, disparities remained, with certain lower-income areas and slums still experiencing limited or unreliable access to power and

basic utilities.

Housing and Urban Planning Efforts in Hyderabad (1948-1956)

The period between 1948 and 1956 was a transformative phase for housing and urban planning in Hyderabad. Following the integration of Hyderabad into the Indian Union in 1948, the city witnessed significant demographic and economic shifts, leading to an increased demand for residential spaces, public infrastructure, and organized urban planning. The influx of migrants, government employees, and industrial workers into the city created pressure on the existing housing system, necessitating new efforts to develop planned urban settlements.

However, Hyderabad's transition from a princely capital to a modern urban center was accompanied by challenges such as overcrowding, slum formation, and housing shortages. One of the most critical concerns during this period was the shortage of affordable housing for the growing urban population. Before integration, housing in Hyderabad was primarily divided into elite neighborhoods, traditional residential areas, and lower-income settlements.

The aristocracy and ruling classes resided in large mansions and estates, while common citizens lived in traditional mohallas and densely populated localities. With Hyderabad's expansion, particularly after 1950, new middle-class and working-class housing colonies began emerging. Government employees, industrial workers, and business owners sought residential spaces in developing areas such as Basheerbagh, Abids, Koti, and parts of Secunderabad. However, the pace of new housing development was not sufficient to meet the rapid urban population growth, leading to the rise of informal settlements and slums.

In response to these challenges, the government initiated urban planning efforts aimed at modernizing the city's infrastructure and residential areas. One of the most significant developments was the expansion of municipal governance, with increased efforts to regulate land use, housing construction, and sanitation. The Hyderabad Municipal Corporation (HMC) played a key role in improving road networks, drainage systems, and public utilities, although progress was gradual. Additionally, town planning authorities worked towards the development of new housing colonies and government-allocated residential schemes to accommodate the growing population.

A major aspect of urban planning during this period was the growth of planned residential areas. New housing developments were promoted in Ameerpet, Himayat Nagar, and parts of Secunderabad, catering to the middle-class and professional workforce. These areas featured better road connectivity, electricity, and sanitation facilities compared to older neighborhoods. At the same time, Hyderabad saw the emergence of housing cooperative societies, which aimed to provide affordable homes for lower-income groups and government employees. However, due to limited resources and funding constraints, many lower-income families continued to struggle with inadequate housing and poor living conditions.

Despite efforts in urban planning, unregulated expansion and lack of systematic development remained major concerns. The rapid migration of people into Hyderabad led to the unplanned growth of slums and informal settlements, particularly in areas surrounding Musi River, Chaderghat, and parts of the Old City. Many of these settlements lacked basic amenities such as clean water, sanitation, and electricity, creating health and social challenges for the urban poor. Additionally, the absence of comprehensive zoning regulations and planned expansion resulted in uneven urban development, with commercial hubs expanding rapidly while residential planning lagged behind.

Policy Interventions and Economic Reforms

Impact of Indian Government Policies

Land Reforms and Abolition of the Feudal Jagirdari System

For the period between 1948 and 1956, the government introduced a series of land reforms aimed at dismantling the feudal landownership system and promoting equitable land distribution. One of the most transformative policies during this period was the abolition of the jagirdari system, which had historically concentrated land ownership in the hands of a privileged few, while peasants and tenants worked under exploitative conditions.

Before the Indian government's intervention, the jagirdari system in Hyderabad resembled a feudal structure, where a significant portion of agricultural land was controlled by jagirdars (feudal landlords) who enjoyed hereditary land rights granted by the Nizam. These jagirdars exercised immense power over peasants, who were often forced to pay high rents, taxes, and a share of their agricultural produce. This system led to widespread landlessness, tenant exploitation, and rural indebtedness, preventing agricultural development and socio-economic mobility for the peasantry. After

Hyderabad's accession to India, the Government of India introduced land reforms to abolish feudal landownership and empower cultivators.

The Hyderabad (Abolition of Jagirs) Regulation, 1949, was one of the first major land reform measures undertaken in the region. This regulation aimed to eliminate the jagirdari system by transferring land ownership from the jagirdars to the government. The abolition of jagirs freed peasants from excessive taxation and exploitative rent practices, allowing them to gain greater control over the land they cultivated. This move was in line with the broader Indian land reform agenda, which sought to dismantle feudal structures across the country and promote a more egalitarian agrarian economy.

Another crucial reform was the implementation of tenancy laws, which aimed to protect the rights of tenants and sharecroppers who had previously been at the mercy of landlords. These laws sought to provide security of tenure, regulate fair rent rates, and facilitate the transfer of ownership rights to long-term cultivators. By ensuring that tenants could not be arbitrarily evicted and by granting them rights to purchase the land they tilled, the reforms helped stabilize rural livelihoods and improve agricultural productivity.

Despite the progressive nature of these reforms, their implementation faced several challenges. Many former jagirdars and landlords resisted the changes, using legal loopholes and political influence to retain control over their estates. Additionally, in some cases, land redistribution was slow and inefficient, preventing immediate benefits for landless farmers. Corruption and bureaucratic inefficiencies also hampered the equitable distribution of land, leading to continued economic disparities in rural Hyderabad.

The abolition of the jagirdari system and land reforms, however, had long-term positive effects on Hyderabad's rural economy. By breaking the feudal control over land, these policies encouraged a more independent and self-sufficient peasantry, allowing farmers to invest in their land and improve agricultural output. Additionally, these reforms laid the groundwork for future agricultural development programs, which would later contribute to the Green Revolution and rural modernization efforts in India.

Five-Year Plan and Its Influence on Hyderabad's Economy

The introduction of India's Five-Year Plans in 1951 played a crucial role in shaping Hyderabad's economy, as the newly integrated state sought to align with the country's broader economic vision. The First Five-Year Plan (1951-1956) emphasized agriculture, infrastructure, and industrial development, which directly influenced economic growth in Hyderabad. The plan aimed to stabilize the economy, improve rural livelihoods, and promote industrialization, which was particularly significant for Hyderabad, given its historical agrarian base and emerging urban economy.

One of the key impacts of the First Five-Year Plan was its focus on agricultural development and irrigation. Hyderabad, which had a large rural population dependent on farming, benefited from government investments in irrigation projects, land reforms, and agricultural modernization. The plan allocated resources to improve canal irrigation, dam construction, and rural credit systems, allowing farmers to enhance crop productivity and reduce dependence on monsoons. These efforts contributed to gradual increases in agricultural output, although challenges such as land fragmentation and inadequate mechanization remained.

Another significant aspect of the Five-Year Plan's influence on Hyderabad was the expansion of infrastructure, particularly in transportation, electrification, and urban planning. Investments in road networks, bridges, and railway connectivity improved trade and commerce within Hyderabad and its surrounding regions. The electrification drive under the plan facilitated industrial growth and urban development, enabling small-scale industries, textile mills, and manufacturing units to function more efficiently. These improvements helped Hyderabad transition from a semi-feudal economy to a more structured and growth-oriented economic system.

Industrial development was also a major focus of the plan, as Hyderabad sought to strengthen its position as a commercial and industrial hub. The First Five-Year Plan promoted the establishment of small-scale and cottage industries, which were essential in generating employment and self-sufficiency among the local population. The government encouraged the development of handloom, textile, metalworking, and food-processing industries, many of which had traditionally existed in Hyderabad. The plan also supported cooperative societies and financial assistance programs for artisans

and small business owners, helping them scale up production and contribute to the city's economic diversification.

Additionally, the Five-Year Plan's emphasis on education and human capital development had a long-term impact on Hyderabad's economy. Increased funding for schools, technical institutes, and higher education contributed to the growth of a skilled workforce, which later played a crucial role in the expansion of public administration, healthcare, and the service sector. (Kumar, 2021) Osmania University and other institutions benefited from government support, producing graduates who took up roles in government services, banking, engineering, and industrial management. This laid the foundation for the city's future as a center for education and white-collar employment.

Despite these advancements, Hyderabad faced challenges in fully realizing the benefits of the First Five-Year Plan. The implementation of economic policies was often slow due to bureaucratic inefficiencies, lack of financial resources, and resistance from traditional elites. While infrastructure and industrial projects were launched, their impact was limited by delays in execution and uneven distribution of benefits. Additionally, while urban areas saw improvements in industries and services, rural Hyderabad continued to struggle with poverty, unemployment, and agricultural stagnation, indicating the need for more targeted rural development programs.

Table 1.7 Influence of Five-Year Plans on Hyderabad's Economy (1948-1956)

Category	Pre-First Five-Year Plan (1948-1951)	First Five-Year Plan (1951-1956)	Growth (%)
Agricultural Production (Million Tons)	2.5	3.8	52%
Industrial Output (Million INR)	500	850	70%
Irrigated Land (Million Acres)	1.2	2.1	75%
Electrification Coverage (% of Population)	12%	28%	133%
Road Network (Km)	8,000	12,500	56%
Number of Schools	2,500	4,200	68%
Healthcare Centers	120	200	67%

Analysis:

- Agriculture saw a 52% rise, supported by irrigation expansion.
- Industrial growth was significant (70%), with increased investments.
- Electrification surged by 133%, improving urban and rural connectivity.
- Road Infrastructure expanded by 56%, linking rural and urban regions.
- Education and healthcare also improved significantly, reflecting development efforts.

Analysis of Five-Year Plan and Its Influence on Hyderabad's Economy

The economic development of Hyderabad between 1948 and 1956, influenced by the Pre-First Five-Year Plan (1948-1951) and the First Five-Year Plan (1951-1956), can be assessed through key indicators:

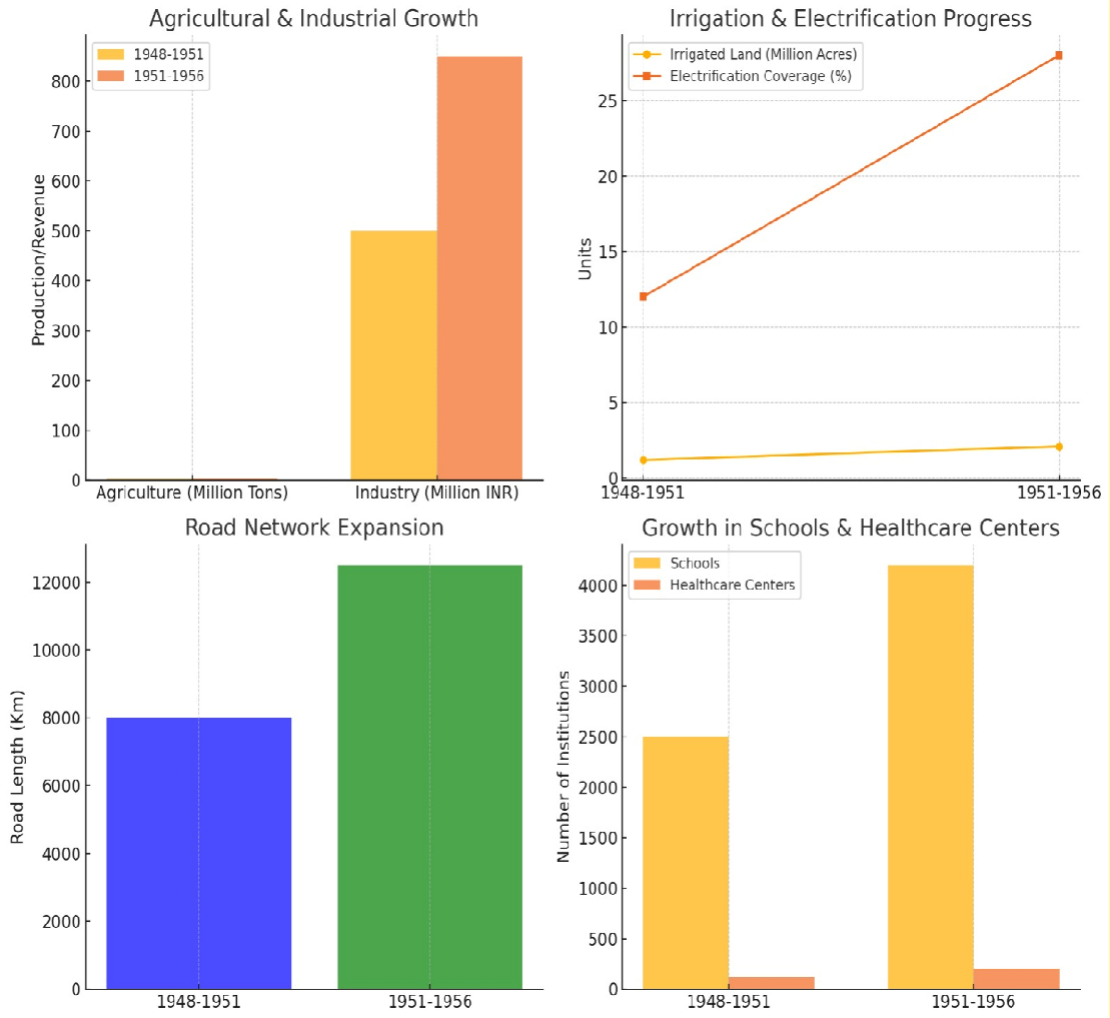


Fig 2.8 Key Indicators of Economic Expansion (1948-1956)

1. Agricultural Production:

- Agricultural output increased from 2.5 million tons in 1948-1951 to 3.8 million tons in 1951-1956, marking a 52% growth.
- The increase was driven by better irrigation facilities, improved farming techniques, and policy support.

2. Industrial Growth:

- Industrial output grew from 500 million INR to 850 million INR, showing a 70% increase.
- Industrialization policies and investments in manufacturing, textiles, and small-scale industries contributed to this growth.

3. Irrigation Expansion:

- The area of irrigated land expanded from 1.2 million acres to 2.1 million acres, a 75% increase.
- Major irrigation projects, including canal construction and better water management, supported agriculture.

4. Electrification Progress:

- Electrification coverage rose from 12% to 28%, recording a 133% growth.
- This expansion improved industrial production, urbanization, and rural development.

5. Road Network Development:

- Road length grew from 8,000 km to 12,500 km, indicating a 56% expansion.
- The improved connectivity facilitated trade, transportation, and rural-urban linkages.

6. Educational Expansion:

- The number of schools increased from 2,500 to 4,200, registering a 68% growth.
- This reflects government initiatives to boost literacy and expand higher education.

7. Healthcare Improvements:

- The number of healthcare centers rose from 120 to 200, marking a 67% increase.

- The expansion focused on public health services, hospitals, and rural healthcare accessibility.

Role of Nizam's Legacy in Economic Development

Institutions and Economic Policies Inherited from the Nizam Era

The economic development of Hyderabad between 1948 and 1956 was significantly shaped by the institutions and policies established during the rule of the Nizams. Before its integration into the Indian Union, Hyderabad was one of the most prosperous princely states, with a well-developed administrative and economic framework. The Nizam's government had implemented progressive economic policies in industry, banking, and public infrastructure, which continued to influence the region's economy even after 1948. While the newly formed Indian government introduced reforms to integrate Hyderabad into the national economy, many of the institutions and economic foundations laid during the Nizam's era remained crucial in the city's economic transition.

One of the most notable aspects of the Nizam's economic legacy was the well-structured financial and banking system. The Hyderabad State Bank (now the State Bank of Hyderabad) was established in 1941 under the Nizam's administration to regulate the state's monetary system. This institution played a vital role in providing credit to industries, supporting trade, and facilitating financial stability. After Hyderabad's accession to India, the bank's role expanded under the Reserve Bank of India's supervision, helping to integrate the regional economy with the national financial framework. The banking institutions set up during the Nizam's rule continued to provide financial assistance to small traders, entrepreneurs, and industries, fostering economic growth in both urban and rural areas.

The Nizam's era also left behind a strong foundation for industrial development, which influenced Hyderabad's economy in the post-integration period. The Nizam had established several public sector enterprises, textile mills, metal industries, and arms manufacturing units, many of which remained operational and became part of India's industrial expansion policies. For instance, the Nizam Sugar Factory, established in the early 20th century, continued to be a major contributor to the agricultural-industrial economy of Hyderabad. Similarly, the industrial clusters in Hyderabad, such as foundries, textile weaving units, and glass factories, played a crucial role in post-1948

economic development, as they provided employment opportunities and supported regional trade.

Another key economic institution inherited from the Nizam's administration was the irrigation and water management system. The Nizam had invested in canal irrigation projects, reservoirs, and water conservation efforts, recognizing the importance of agriculture in the state's economy. The Musi and Himayat Sagar reservoirs, constructed under the Nizam's rule, continued to serve Hyderabad's growing water needs, supporting both agriculture and urban expansion. After 1948, the Indian government built upon these irrigation projects to further improve agricultural productivity and rural development.

The education and technical training institutions set up during the Nizam's rule also played a significant role in Hyderabad's economic progress. Institutions like Osmania University, Nizam's College, and various technical training centers provided a steady supply of educated professionals, who contributed to the growth of Hyderabad's administration, commerce, and emerging industries. The emphasis on education during the Nizam's rule helped Hyderabad develop a skilled workforce, which later became instrumental in expanding the service sector, white-collar employment, and public administration.

Despite these positive contributions, some aspects of the Nizam's economic policies were seen as obstacles to inclusive development, particularly the feudal land ownership system and concentration of wealth in the hands of the aristocracy. The jagirdari system, which allowed feudal landlords to control vast tracts of land and exploit tenant farmers, hindered equitable economic growth. This necessitated land reforms and policy changes after Hyderabad's integration with India. The Indian government worked to dismantle feudal structures, redistribute land, and introduce new economic policies that focused on social justice and equitable development.

Influence on Trade, Education, and Public Infrastructure

The economic policies and institutions established during the Nizam's rule had a lasting impact on trade, education, and public infrastructure in Hyderabad. Even after its integration into the Indian Union in 1948, these sectors continued to function as the backbone of Hyderabad's economy, shaping its growth during the 1948-1956 period.

While the Indian government introduced reforms to align the region with national policies, much of the economic structure inherited from the Nizam's administration remained central to Hyderabad's development.

Influence on Trade and Commerce

Under the Nizam's administration, Hyderabad had developed into a major trade hub, with well-established markets, trading routes, and commercial networks that connected it to other parts of India and beyond. The city was known for its handloom textiles, pearls, metalwork, and handicrafts, which were highly sought after in domestic and international markets. The presence of organized trade guilds and merchant associations ensured a stable and thriving commercial sector. After Hyderabad's integration into India, these trade networks continued to support the region's economic activities, contributing to employment and revenue generation.

The Nizam's policy of encouraging artisan industries and cottage enterprises played a crucial role in sustaining Hyderabad's economy. Traditional crafts, including Bidriware (metal inlay work), handwoven textiles, and jewelry-making, continued to flourish, providing livelihood opportunities to thousands of artisans. Post-1948, the Indian government worked to modernize and expand these industries by providing financial support, cooperative models, and market access. Hyderabad's central location and well-developed road and rail connectivity, much of which had been planned under the Nizam, allowed for the easy transportation of goods, further strengthening its trade links.

Influence on Education and Knowledge Economy

Education was one of the strongest legacies of the Nizam's rule, with Osmania University, established in 1918, serving as the centerpiece of Hyderabad's academic excellence. Unlike many other princely states, Hyderabad had a relatively advanced education system, with institutions focused on science, technology, administration, and law. The Nizam's government had invested significantly in higher education, vocational training, and research institutions, fostering a literate and skilled workforce. This emphasis on education continued to benefit the city in the post-integration period, as Hyderabad became a center for administrative services, technical expertise, and industrial management.

Following Hyderabad's integration into India, the educational institutions inherited from the Nizam's rule played a key role in the city's economic transition. The government supported the expansion of technical and professional courses, which helped produce engineers, bureaucrats, and industrial workers required for the city's growing economy. The presence of Urdu, Persian, and English-medium institutions ensured that Hyderabad remained an important center for cultural and intellectual exchange. The focus on technical education and research also laid the foundation for Hyderabad's future emergence as a hub for science, technology, and administration.

Table 1.8 Education and Literacy Rates in Rural and Urban Hyderabad % (1951 Census)

Area	Literacy Rate (Male)	Literacy Rate (Female)	Total Literacy Rate
Rural Hyderabad	18%	5%	12%
Urban Hyderabad	45%	22%	34%

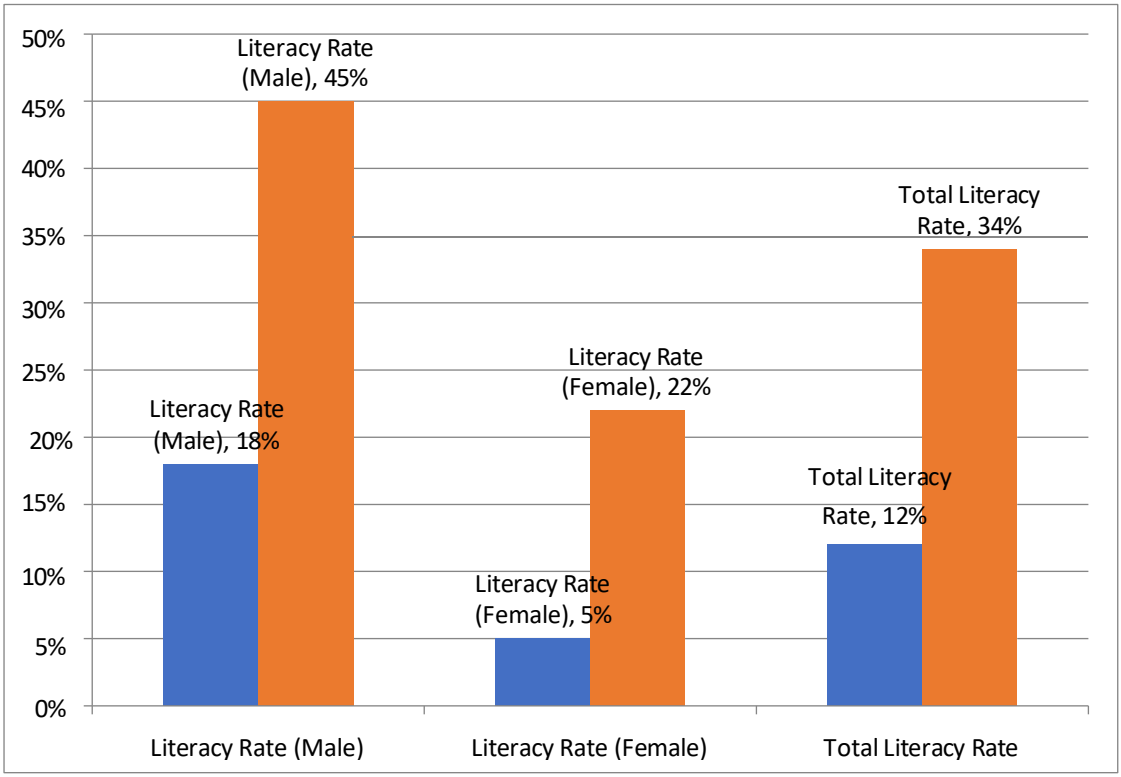


Fig 2.9 Bar chart on Literacy rate of Rural and Urban Hyderabad

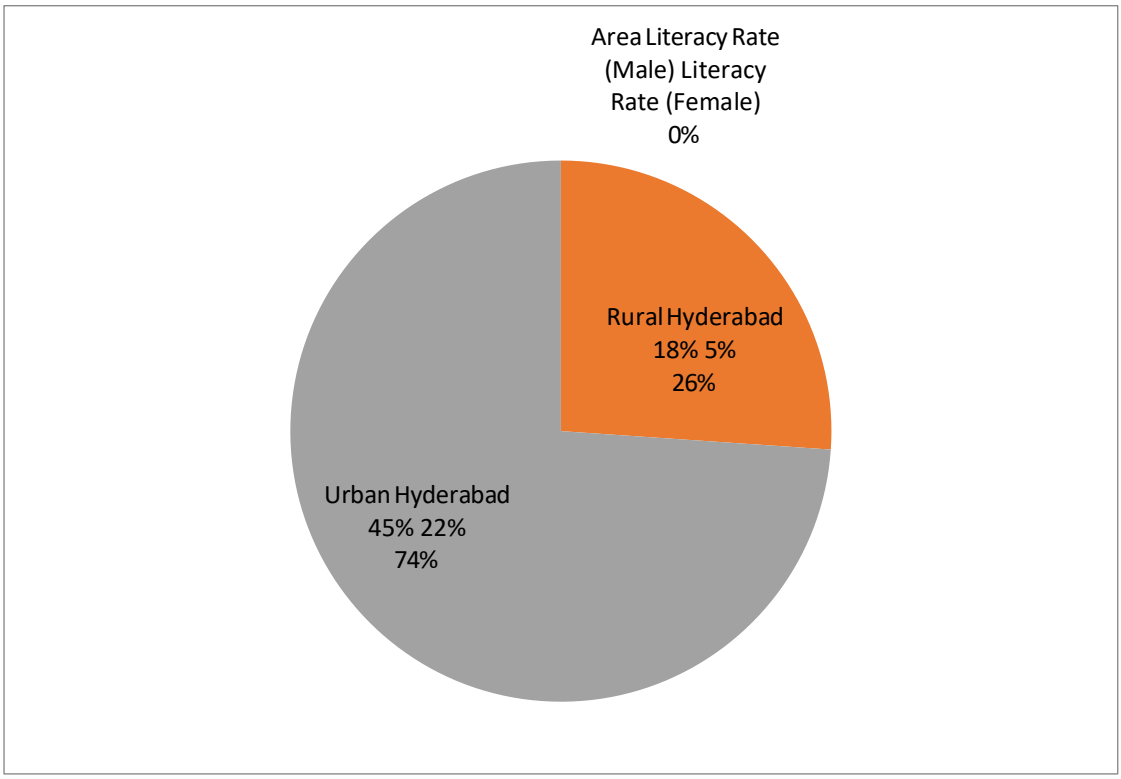


Fig 2.9 Pie chart representation of literacy rates of Rural/Urban Hyderabad

Influence on Public Infrastructure and Urban Development

The Nizam's administration had laid a strong foundation for public infrastructure, which continued to shape Hyderabad's growth after 1948. One of the most significant contributions was the development of roads, railways, bridges, and irrigation projects, which facilitated both rural and urban economic activities. The Nizam had also invested in modern water supply and drainage systems, ensuring better sanitation and public health facilities for Hyderabad's residents.

Key projects such as the Musi River flood control system, which included the construction of Himayat Sagar and Osman Sagar reservoirs, played a crucial role in regulating water supply and preventing floods. These reservoirs, built in the early 20th century, remained essential for Hyderabad's urban and agricultural needs in the post-integration period. The city also benefited from the well-planned road networks and transportation systems developed under the Nizam, which made Hyderabad an important commercial and administrative center within newly independent India.

Public health and civic infrastructure were also areas where the Nizam's policies had a long-lasting impact. Hospitals such as the Osmania General Hospital and several public

health institutions established during the Nizam's reign continued to serve Hyderabad's population. The emphasis on hygiene, sanitation, and medical services helped improve living conditions, particularly in urban areas. The Indian government later expanded these facilities to accommodate the needs of a rapidly growing population, but the foundational work done under the Nizam's administration remained central to Hyderabad's urban development.

Income and Employment Disparities

Differences in Per Capita Income and Occupational Structures

During the period 1948-1956, Hyderabad witnessed a sharp contrast between its rural and urban economies, particularly in terms of income levels and employment structures. While urban Hyderabad, centered around the capital city, experienced industrial expansion, commercial growth, and a rise in white-collar employment, rural Hyderabad remained largely agrarian, with traditional occupations and lower income levels. These disparities were rooted in historical socio-economic structures, the impact of land reforms, and the availability of economic opportunities in both regions.

One of the most striking differences was in per capita income, which was significantly higher in urban areas compared to rural regions. The urban economy of Hyderabad, driven by industries, trade, and services, provided better wages and stable employment opportunities, contributing to higher incomes for urban residents. Government employees, industrial workers, merchants, and professionals in Hyderabad city enjoyed regular salaries, social benefits, and access to financial institutions, which helped improve their standard of living. In contrast, rural areas depended heavily on agriculture, which was often affected by seasonal fluctuations, low productivity, and feudal landholding systems. The dominance of the jagirdari system until its abolition meant that a significant portion of agricultural output benefited landlords rather than the actual cultivators, keeping rural incomes low.

The occupational structure in rural and urban Hyderabad also exhibited stark contrasts. In rural areas, employment was predominantly agriculture-based, with farmers, sharecroppers, and laborers making up the majority of the workforce. Traditional occupations such as weaving, pottery, and handicrafts were also common, but they remained small-scale and provided minimal economic mobility. Despite efforts to introduce land reforms and irrigation projects, many rural families remained trapped in

low-income agricultural work, facing limited access to financial credit, mechanization, and market linkages.

In contrast, urban Hyderabad offered a more diversified employment structure, with opportunities in industry, administration, trade, and services. The city housed small-scale industries, textile mills, metal workshops, and emerging public sector enterprises, which provided blue-collar jobs with relatively better wages. The growth of government institutions, banking, and education also led to an increase in white-collar employment, particularly among the educated middle class. Professionals such as teachers, clerks, engineers, and administrators benefited from higher job security, regular salaries, and social mobility, a privilege largely absent in rural employment.

Additionally, urban areas had greater access to labor unions and worker protections, which helped secure better wages, regulated working hours, and improved working conditions for industrial laborers. In contrast, rural workers, particularly landless agricultural laborers, remained vulnerable to exploitation, seasonal unemployment, and low wages due to the lack of labor regulations and the persistence of traditional power structures.

These disparities in income and employment opportunities fueled rural-to-urban migration, as many villagers sought better livelihoods in Hyderabad city. The migration of agricultural laborers, artisans, and small traders to urban areas increased population pressure, leading to the expansion of informal settlements and unregulated labor markets. While cities provided economic opportunities, they also created challenges such as overcrowding, housing shortages, and rising income inequalities

Industrialization vs. Agrarian Economy

Growth of Urban Industries vs. Stagnation in Rural Areas

Between 1948 and 1956, the economic landscape of Hyderabad was marked by a growing industrial sector in urban areas and a largely stagnant agrarian economy in rural regions. The integration of Hyderabad into the Indian Union brought industrial expansion, investment in infrastructure, and employment opportunities to the city, while the countryside struggled with low agricultural productivity, outdated farming techniques, and socio-economic disparities. This created a widening gap between urban industrial growth and rural economic stagnation.

In urban Hyderabad, industrialization was boosted by government policies and investments in sectors such as textiles, metalwork, chemicals, and food processing. Hyderabad, already a commercial hub under the Nizam's rule, continued to grow as a center for small-scale and large-scale industries. The Indian government's Five-Year Plans provided financial support for industrial enterprises, which led to new job opportunities, improved wages, and economic mobility for urban workers. Additionally, public sector institutions and service-based jobs emerged, further strengthening Hyderabad's urban economy.

By contrast, rural areas remained heavily dependent on agriculture, with very little mechanization or modernization. The land reforms initiated after Hyderabad's integration sought to dismantle the jagirdari system and redistribute land to farmers, but in practice, the impact was limited and slow. Large landlords still retained significant control over land and resources, leaving small farmers with limited access to credit, irrigation, and improved agricultural technology. This lack of modernization resulted in low agricultural yields, seasonal unemployment, and widespread poverty.

Another major factor contributing to rural stagnation was the absence of alternative employment opportunities outside agriculture. Unlike urban areas, where industries absorbed surplus labor, villages had very few non-farm jobs. Traditional rural occupations, such as handloom weaving, pottery, and handicrafts, faced a decline due to competition from mechanized industries in urban areas. Without significant government intervention in rural industrialization, villagers remained trapped in subsistence farming and low-wage labor.

The contrast between urban industrial growth and rural economic stagnation also led to increased migration from villages to Hyderabad city. Many rural laborers, struggling with unemployment and low wages, moved to urban areas in search of industrial and service-based jobs. However, this migration overburdened urban infrastructure, leading to informal settlements, slums, and labor exploitation in unregulated industries.

Living Standards and Socio-Economic Well-being

Access to Education, Healthcare, and Public Services

The period between 1948 and 1956 witnessed a stark contrast in the living standards and socio-economic well-being of rural and urban populations in Hyderabad. One of

the most significant disparities was in access to education, healthcare, and public services, which were more developed in urban areas while remaining inadequate in rural regions. The legacy of Nizam-era institutions in Hyderabad city, along with government investment in infrastructure and public services, contributed to better living conditions in urban areas. However, rural Hyderabad lagged behind, facing illiteracy, poor healthcare facilities, and a lack of basic amenities.

Education and Literacy Rates

Urban Hyderabad benefited from well-established educational institutions, including Osmania University and various technical, professional, and primary schools. The presence of government-funded and private schools provided urban residents, particularly the middle class, with opportunities for higher education and skill development. The demand for administrators, teachers, clerks, and skilled industrial workers led to an emphasis on formal education, which in turn helped many urban families achieve social mobility and economic stability.

In contrast, education in rural areas remained underdeveloped. The majority of villages lacked proper school infrastructure, trained teachers, and educational resources. Literacy rates in rural Hyderabad were significantly lower, especially among women and marginalized communities. The agrarian economy's dependency on child labor also meant that many rural children were unable to attend school regularly, as they were required to assist in farming or household work. Unlike urban areas, where education became a pathway to stable employment, rural youth had limited access to schools and vocational training, restricting their economic opportunities.

Healthcare Facilities and Medical Services

The healthcare system also reflected deep inequalities between urban and rural Hyderabad. In Hyderabad city, the Nizam’s administration had established hospitals, dispensaries, and healthcare centers, including Osmania General Hospital, which continued to serve the population after the city’s integration into India. Urban residents had better access to trained doctors, maternity care, vaccinations, and medical treatment for infectious diseases. The post-integration government also introduced public health initiatives, improving sanitation, disease control, and maternal health services in cities.

However, in rural Hyderabad, healthcare services were grossly inadequate. Most villages lacked proper medical facilities, qualified doctors, and medicines, forcing people to rely on traditional healers and home remedies. High levels of malnutrition, infant mortality, and preventable diseases plagued rural communities due to poor sanitation, lack of clean drinking water, and limited access to hospitals. The absence of government-funded healthcare centers and trained medical personnel meant that rural residents often had to travel long distances to urban areas for treatment, which was both expensive and time-consuming.

Public Services and Basic Infrastructure

Public services, such as electricity, water supply, sanitation, and transportation, were also far more developed in urban Hyderabad compared to rural areas. Hyderabad city saw expansion of electricity networks, piped water supply, and road construction, which improved living conditions and economic activities. Urban households had better access to public transport, markets, and municipal services, which made daily life more convenient and efficient.

In contrast, rural areas faced severe infrastructure deficits. Many villages lacked electricity and had to rely on kerosene lamps, while access to clean drinking water and proper sanitation facilities was extremely limited. Road networks in rural areas were poorly developed, making transportation of goods and people difficult, particularly during monsoon seasons. The lack of basic public services and infrastructure further deepened rural poverty, as it hindered economic growth and kept villager's dependent on subsistence farming.

Table 1.9 Comparative Statistics of Rural and Urban Hyderabad (1950-1956)

Category	Rural Hyderabad	Urban Hyderabad
Electrification Rate	10%	85%
Road Connectivity	35%	Well-connected
Number of Hospitals	15	40
Number of Schools	1,500	450

Table 2.0 Year-wise Development of Socio-Economic Infrastructure in Hyderabad (1950s-1960s)

Category	1950 (Rural)	1950 (Urban)	1955 (Rural)	1955 (Urban)	1960 (Rural)	1960 (Urban)
Electrification Rate	5%	75%	10%	85%	20%	95%
Road Connectivity	20%	Well-connected	35%	Improved	50%	Highly developed
Number of Hospitals	10	30	15	40	25	50
Number of Schools	1,000	350	1,500	450	2,200	600

Analysis of Year-wise Development of Socio-Economic Infrastructure in Hyderabad (1950s-1960s)

1. Electrification Rate:

- Rural areas witnessed a steady rise in electrification, from 5% in 1950 to 20% in 1960, indicating slow but consistent progress.
- Urban Hyderabad had a significantly higher electrification rate, increasing from 75% in 1950 to 95% in 1960, reflecting rapid urban modernization.

2. Road Connectivity:

- In rural Hyderabad, the percentage of villages with motorable roads improved from 20% in 1950 to 50% in 1960, showing infrastructural development efforts.
- Urban Hyderabad, already well-connected in 1950, continued to improve, transitioning to a highly developed road network by 1960.

3. Number of Hospitals:

- Rural hospitals increased from 10 in 1950 to 25 in 1960, highlighting improvements in healthcare accessibility.
- Urban hospitals grew from 30 to 50 in the same period, with Osmania General Hospital playing a key role in medical services.

4. Number of Schools:

- Rural primary schools expanded significantly, from 1,000 in 1950 to 2,200 in 1960, showing educational growth in villages.
- Urban schools, including higher education institutions, rose from 350 in 1950 to 600 in 1960, reflecting urban academic expansion.

Graphical Visualization

1. Electrification Rate Progress (Rural vs. Urban) – Line Graph
2. Road Connectivity Growth – Bar Chart
3. Number of Hospitals Over Time – Column Graph
4. Growth of Educational Institutions – Bar Chart

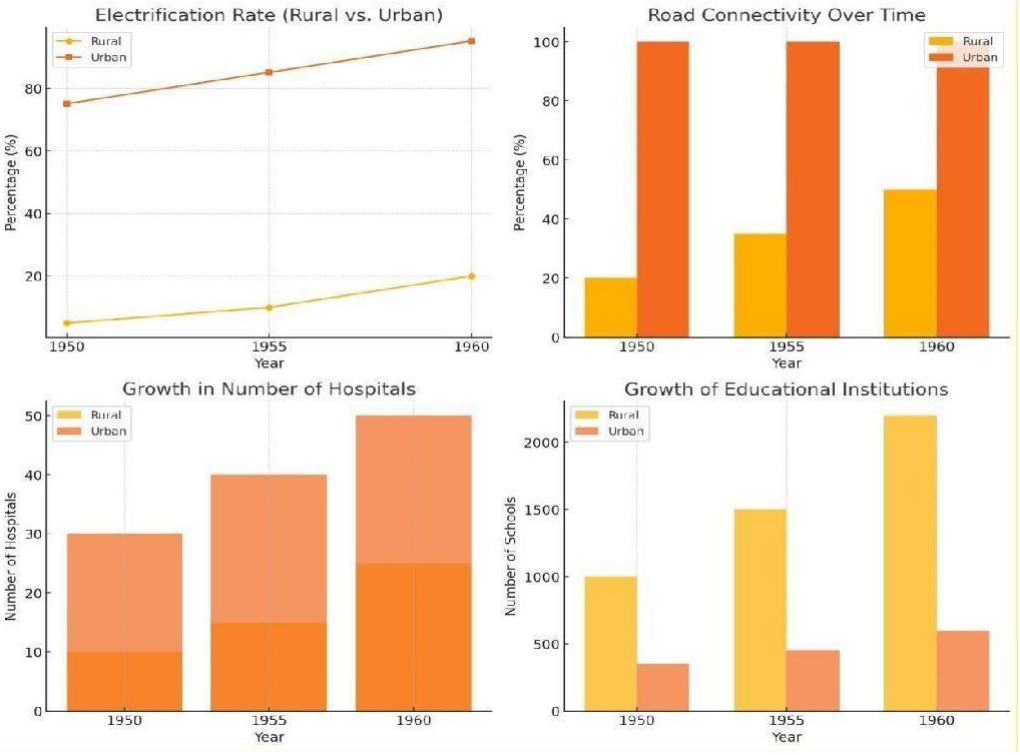


Fig 3.0 graphical visualizations representing the socio-economic development of Hyderabad from 1950 to 1960:

1. **Electrification Rate (Line Graph) –** Shows the steady rise in rural electrification and the rapid urban electrification growth.
2. **Road Connectivity (Bar Chart) –** Highlights the increase in motorable roads in rural areas and the consistently strong urban road network**.**
3. **Number of Hospitals (Column Graph)** – Demonstrates the expansion of healthcare facilities in both rural and urban areas.
4. **Growth of Educational Institutions (Bar Chart) –** Displays the increase in primary schools and higher education institutions.

Migration and Urbanization Trends

Rural-to-Urban Migration and Its Economic Impact

Between 1948 and 1956, Hyderabad witnessed a significant increase in rural-to-urban migration, driven by economic disparities between the agrarian and industrial sectors.

The stagnation of rural agriculture, lack of employment opportunities, and poor living conditions in villages pushed many rural inhabitants to seek better livelihoods in Hyderabad city. Meanwhile, the industrial and service sector growth in urban areas created demand for labor, attracting migrants in search of stable incomes and improved living standards.

One of the primary reasons for this migration was the slow pace of agrarian reforms in rural Hyderabad. Even after the abolition of the jagirdari system, a large number of farmers remained landless laborers with minimal access to credit, modern technology, and irrigation facilities. The unpredictability of monsoon-dependent agriculture, along with low wages and feudal structures, left many rural families with limited economic prospects, compelling them to migrate to urban centers in search of better opportunities.

On the other hand, urban Hyderabad was undergoing economic expansion, driven by industrialization, trade, and the establishment of public sector enterprises. The post-integration period saw infrastructure development, small-scale industrial growth, and increased investment in commercial activities, all of which contributed to the creation of new jobs in factories, construction, administration, and the service sector. For rural migrants, these opportunities—though often in low-wage, labor-intensive jobs—offered more economic security than subsistence farming.

The influx of migrants, however, also had negative economic and social consequences. The rapid population growth in Hyderabad city led to overcrowding, housing shortages, and the expansion of slums and informal settlements. Many rural migrants, lacking proper skills and education, found employment in unregulated industries, domestic work, or casual labor, where wages were low and working conditions were harsh. The rise of informal labor markets meant that a large section of the urban workforce remained without job security, social benefits, or legal protections.

Despite these challenges, migration also had positive economic impacts, particularly for urban industries and businesses. The availability of cheap labor contributed to the expansion of manufacturing, construction, and services, fueling Hyderabad's urban economy. Additionally, the remittances sent by rural migrants to their families helped alleviate poverty in villages, though it did not address the structural issues of agrarian distress.

Table 2.1 Population and Migration Trends in Hyderabad (1948-1956)

Year	Rural Population	Urban Population	Migration to Cities (%)
1948	6.5 million	1.2 million	5%
1951	6.3 million	1.5 million	12%
1956	6.0 million	1.9 million	20%

The comparative analysis of rural and urban Hyderabad's economy between 1948 and 1956 reveals significant economic disparities, rooted in both historical and structural factors. Urban Hyderabad experienced rapid industrial growth, fueled by the expansion of small-scale industries, public sector institutions, and a thriving service sector, offering higher incomes, more stable employment, and access to better infrastructure. In contrast, rural Hyderabad remained heavily dependent on agriculture, struggling with low productivity, outdated farming techniques, and limited access to resources. Despite the introduction of land reforms, the lack of modern agricultural practices, poor irrigation facilities, and feudal landholding patterns led to economic stagnation in rural areas.

Furthermore, the economic divide was reflected in education, healthcare, and public services, with urban areas benefiting from better access to educational institutions, medical care, and public amenities. In contrast, rural areas faced poor infrastructure, limited healthcare services, and high illiteracy rates, which further reinforced the socio-economic gap between the two regions. The growth of urban industries created a pull factor for rural-to-urban migration, leading to overcrowding in the city, but also contributing to economic growth through the availability of cheap labor.

In conclusion, the period 1948-1956 marked a crucial phase in Hyderabad's economic history, characterized by uneven economic development between its rural and urban areas. While urban industrialization propelled Hyderabad towards modernization, the neglect of rural development resulted in persistent socio-economic disparities. Addressing these historical imbalances through inclusive policies and targeted interventions remains essential for achieving balanced, sustainable development in the region.

The next chapter deals with the role of the Nizam in the transition period.

CHAPTER V

ROLE OF THE NIZAM IN TRANSITION PERIOD

Introduction:

Role of Nizam Mir Osman Ali Khan in the Changing Political Landscape

The accession of Hyderabad state in 1948 CE marks a historic change in regional power shift in the post independent India. The state which came into being in the 18th century on the remains of the Mughal subha in the deccan was for a very long period of time viewed as the sheet anchor province of the deccan, be it for the Mughals or the later colonial rulers, the British. The state was thus nurtured by powers in Delhi so as to ensure their continuity and stability of regime and the head of the state, the Nizam became the symbol of this power arrangement.

When the regime changed in 1948 CE ushering in a new order, the personality of the incumbent head of state and government, in this case the feudal autocratic monarch, Nizam Mir Osman Ali Khan dictated the course and nature of this power transition. Thus, the end of the absolute rule of the Nizam as a feudal monarch and his re-emergence as the constitutional Rajpramukh of the state of Hyderabad, now part of the republic of Union of India, was nothing short of a dramatic event in Independent India's history. This metamorphosis of a dynastic heir, an absolute monarch going back centuries into Middle Ages into a constitutional head of a now democratically ruled state of a federal republic, indeed finds few parallels in history. The years 1948 CE to 1956 CE marks this period of transition, transmutation or metamorphosis of the nature and identity of both the state and its ruler.

His Exalted Highness Nawab Mir Osman Ali Khan Bahadur, the seventh and last Nizam of Hyderabad State was born in 1886 CE. He succeeded his father to the throne in 1911 CE. His tenure lasted for 37 years in which he realized that born as a Muslim, he was to be the ruler, whose subjects were of mixed populace, with non-Muslims in majority. His persona was one of reticence, and a strict self-imposed discipline that steadfastly kept his life and work away from public life. His critics, labelled him as such an autocrat and feudal lord, a vestige of bygone medieval era, but failed to understand perhaps that this continuous refusal to engage freely in public relations was a combination of burden of his lineage and personal temperament and that despite being a creative artist and a poet of considerable talent, he remained difficult to access. He was also a man of ascetic simplicity, who was thus given the tag of a miser. This temperance and frugality were

part of his nature and a demonstration of his being a faithful believer, who followed the highest traditions of the faith in terms of simplicity of life and needs. (F, 1956)

As the Ruler- His governance therefore, had to reflect the spirit of its time that of – tolerance of all creed, caste, religion and practice equality of all classes. His administration was marked by many challenges in polity, economy, society, welfare, education etc. Towards the end of his reign, one witnessed the rise of radicalization of the Muslim party, Majlis-e-Ittehad-ul-Muslimeen, the Communist uprising in Telangana and the military confrontation with the Indian Union. The successes and failures of his administration were in a way reflection of his personality and the kind of leader/politician he was. In his administration though the overall figures were skewed in favour of the Muslims representation as opposed to the Hindus and other non - Muslims, the personnel were appointed in keeping with their skill. One clear example of this was presence of more Muslims in armed forces and police and more Hindus in finance and accounts departments respectively. Later, the partition of India on communal lines was strongly contested by the Nizam and he stated that this would harm the interest of the subcontinent region in years to come and yet, when the inevitable happened he acquiesced in this development like other Indian leaders of the time.

Role in Transition Phase –

Nizam and the British- Throughout the period of transition, the Nizams only desire was to see that the state and its people pass through this phase peacefully. He was raised on the tradition of reliance on the pledged word, treaty, and faith of an ally. Though the Nizam earned the sobriquet of the faithful ally, nothing had prepared him for the unilateral dissolution of treaties and agreements between the state and British crown in favour of the new dispensation.

Nizam and the Military Government-His persona reflected once again when the Police action concluded on September 17th 1948, the Nizam surrendered to the Government of India but neither did the state accede to India, nor did the Nizam recuse himself from administrative responsibilities. (Affairs, 1948) (Ministry of Home Affairs, 1948) The government of Hyderabad continued to operate under the hand and seal of the Nizam.

The military governor Gen. J.N. Choudhuri though operated on mandate from the union ministry of state, yet he kept the Nizam duly informed of the actions of the interim government. Following Operation Polo and the annexation of Hyderabad into the Indian Union in September 1948, Nizam Mir Osman Ali Khan found himself in a dramatically altered political position. A sovereign ruler of one of the richest and most powerful princely states in India, Mir Osman Ali now had to co-opt in a nuanced advisory role in the new part civil and part military administration. When the Union of India installed the militarygovernment in Hyderabad, it was to be under the charge of Major General J.N. Chaudhuri as its Military Governor to oversee the transition of Hyderabad from a princely state to an independent state of Union of India. A full-fledged integration with India would mark the beginning of a new phase for the Nizam, in a period which would require measured navigation of his role within the new power structure.

This new power arrangement signaled the transitions that would be hence going forward be the structure of the new Sovereign government of India. Keen to establish a robust federal structure where the states would play an equally important role as envisaged in the GOI act of 1935 in the pre- independence period, the government at the centre desired not just physical integration of all its units but also of their erstwhile rulers. Hence, the Nizam was allowed to retain his title and remain in Hyderabad and was neither exiled nor formally deposed. The Indian government sought to ensure a peaceful transition without completely alienating the Nizam and his supporters. His presence though symbolic, he was expected to act as a unifying figure in maintaining stability in Hyderabad during this period of political uncertainty and administrative restructuring. Notwithstanding his reformed status, he was still recognized as an important leader and was duly consulted by Indian authorities regarding Hyderabad's governance and economic affairs. (Express, Nizam Advisory Role, 1950) (Express, 1950)

On the ground, the situation demanded post police action immediate restoration of law and order. The rise of communalism and heightened activity of communist not only created a picture of turmoil ridden Hyderabad, but also severely dented the syncretic identity of the old necropolis. Especially, in the wake of communal violence and retaliatory actions that had erupted after Hyderabad's accession, there was unnecessary loss of life and property and displacement of people in large numbers. The administration also worked towards dismantling the medieval feudal system,

particularly targeting the landownership structures that had given the aristocracy immense power. This altered socio- economic and political apparatus had a bearing on the State government's loyalist which created in some instances, problems of insubordination and further diminished the Nizam's ability to exercise any significant control over the state's affairs.

Nizam and the Union Government of India-

The Nizam's negotiations with central government were particularly regarding his privy purse, financial assets, and personal wealth. As Hyderabad was among the richest princely states, the Nizam possessed vast financial reserves, properties, and assets, both in India and abroad and it would be but natural that he sought to secure his properties and financial privileges under the new administration. The Indian government, while firm in asserting its authority, allowed him to retain considerable wealth and offered him the position of Rajpramukh (constitutional head) in 1950 CE, as part of a compromise to ensure a smooth transition. Post accession the Nizam felt that the terms and agreements of financial settlements arrived with the Union of India in the form of Privy Purse, were not honoured in scrupulous spirit, leaving him to meet his requirements and cater to all dependents, from his personal resources. His negotiations also extended to the famous Nizam's jewellery collection and funds deposited in foreign banks, especially in London, which became a subject of legal disputes with the Indian government. (NAI, NIZAM personal wealth, 1953) (NAI, 1953) His relationship with Indian leaders like Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru and Home Minister Sardar Patel were largely diplomatic as was the requirement of the time. In fact, on many instances there was the demonstration of subtle statesmanship and courtesies, that defined cultured leadership, as evidenced from the many correspondences between the Nizam and Sardar Patel and Nehru during the period. (NAI, Correspondence between Nizam and Patel on health, 1949)

It is not to deny, that despite the overtly cordial relationship the Nizam had with the Indian government, he often found himself in a conflicted position. In correspondence between Nehru and Gopal swami, secretary in Home Department and in his own communique with the Union, one can see that there is strong divergence of opinion between the centre and Nizam with regards to his asset categorization and liquidation. (NAI, Nizam immovable property assets liquidation, 1950)

When the Hyderabad state dissolved in 1956, and the new state of Andhra Pradesh was formed merging the Independent State of Hyderabad with the newly formed Telugu state of Andhra in 1953 CE, the official role of the Nizam as Rajpramukh also terminated. With the Indian government the relationship remained stable, but he was now a private citizen by choice, focusing on philanthropic activities and managing his vast wealth.

The Nizam as Rajpramukh of Hyderabad State (1950-1956)

Constitutional Changes and the Appointment of the Nizam as Rajpramukh (1950-1956)

Nizam's Role in Administrative and Governance Matters

With the adoption of the Indian Constitution on January 26, 1950, the political framework of the country underwent a major transformation, leading to the formal integration of princely states into the Indian Union. Hyderabad, which had been under military and bureaucratic administration since its accession in 1948, was reorganized as a Part-B state under the new constitutional structure. As part of India's strategy to ensure a smooth political transition, Nizam Mir Osman Ali Khan was appointed as the Rajpramukh (constitutional head) of Hyderabad State in 1950. This position, however, was largely ceremonial and marked a further reduction in his power compared to his former status as an absolute ruler.

From 1948 CE-1950 CE the governance of the state continued under his hand and seal. The Military governor and later the Civil Administrator would regularly apprise the Nizam on the functioning of the state government, but this changed completely post the 1952 CE general elections. Under the democratic setup, Hyderabad was administered by an elected Chief Minister and State Legislature, with Burgula Ramakrishna Rao serving as the first elected Chief Minister. The Nizam, as Rajpramukh, had a largely ceremonial role, with his duties restricted to endorsing government decisions, attending official functions, and maintaining formal ties with New Delhi.

The mandate of the Rajpramukh system allowed integration of princely states into the federal structure of the new sovereign Indian government a more harmonious process. The Nizam who became thus one himself, exactly outlined that in his address to the Hyderabad Legislative assembly on the 23rd of March 1952 CE (Hyd, 1952) .The Nizam in his maiden address to the inaugural session of the Hyderabad legislative assembly very astutely highlighted his family's privilege of administering the state for seven

generations under the flag of the Asaf Jahi dynasty as its indisputable monarch's and now with changing times, the incumbent ruler still heading the government in a different capacity. The Nizam as Rajpramukh-the head of a secular state and a democratic government, noted the unpleasant happenings on the anvil of Hyderabad's accession to the Indian Union, and noted that despite the disturbances, significant advancement had been made towards the cause of nation building by conducting the first general elections smoothly. He also played an important role in guiding the new establishment from the point of view of law and order. Since parts of Telangana, in the Hyderabad state faced violent activities in the aftermath of the September police action, he cautioned against anti- social elements and supported the efforts of the government in quelling the disturbances by using police force of neighbouring states. A safe environment saved for the government an amount of Rs. 177 lakhs in police expenditure. (Hyd, 1952)

As the nominal executive of the state, the Rajpramukh emphasized that, the dismantling of the jagirdari system and subsequent introduction of the Hyderabad Tenancy and Agricultural Lands Act on 10th June 1950 CE were measures that would benefit the farming community as they are the backbone of any states economy especially the one primarily characterized as agrarian. Highlighting the main objectives of the act the Nizam stated that the act would ameliorate the conditions of the peasants and tenants and would transfer the land in the hands of the bona fide agriculturists and allow the government to realize efficient agricultural production, including those of neglected land. The act was realized in full during the period of the popular government when close to 8 lakh protected tenants with pattas and cultivator landlord were rationalized on this principle. (Hyd, 1952)

It is interesting to note here the observations of the Nizam on land reforms. Important as be the problem of land, its redistribution has to be thought out and executed rationally and in a realistic manner. His assessment that India being a large country, besieged with the problems of poverty, un-employment and under- employment, random re-distribution of land asset will be detrimental in long run, proved to be more than the truth in the distant future. He explained, the individual peasant/ farmer was always either a marginal or medium land holding size agriculturist, and in the olden days to boost agricultural production, government assigned large tracts of land to people. Hence, embarking on this journey of resources re-distribution one had to cater to the growing demand for land and socio- economic parity. He thus never opposed the reforms, but continued in his advisory capacity, aided by the bureaucracy.

By 1956, with the reorganization of states on linguistic lines, Hyderabad was merged into the newly formed state of Andhra Pradesh, and the position of Rajpramukh was abolished. This marked the final phase of the Nizam's political disengagement, as he lost his last formal connection to governance. While he continued to be a respected historical figure, he had no administrative authority after this transition.

Economic Development and Social Contribution-

His contribution in nation building can be attested from his investments in stocks, debentures, industry, government securities etc. A large no. of his trusts worked in development of the state irrigation – namely Tungabhadra irrigation project, River training schemes etc. His next focus was on industrial development in terms of making the state of Hyderabad a manufacturing hub of- cement, bauxite, electrical equipment's, calcium carbide etc. Similarly, his contribution to the health sector and development and promotion of alternative methods of medicine like- Unani, Ayurveda are none too less. The Nizam eventually symbolized, a force of solidarity, realized by a select few but deeply desired by many in current times.

During the transition period (1948-1956), the Nizam of Hyderabad, Mir Osman Ali Khan, played a significant role in ensuring economic stability and continuing infrastructure development despite the political changes. The Nizam cautioned against immediate dangers and crisis facing the state. This included food shortages and the need for establishing a new procurement system. The Nizam also sought to quell the perception that the state in its present situation may not be able to reach the requirement of its population in terms of specially the food grains. He highlighted the work of Women's Food Council, Hyderabad in serving subsidiary food during the critical period. The background of the state's development going forward, will be mapped through the five-year plan. The states five-year plan was drafted in close conformity with the national five-year plan and the Nizam was to ensure the compliance. This was necessary in order to develop the state on the lines of the Union. This syncing of economic development is crucial to the state's successful integration into the Union.

The state of Hyderabad already had a well-established Industry and Service sector, besides agriculture. The development of irrigation, power projects and industries, roads, education and public health were taken up by the new government. The Nizam announced on the eve of the first session that all the above sectors would be invested in by the government to the tune of lakhs with irrigation and power projects with the

highest investment in terms of Rs. 2697 lakhs. The Nizam himself took personal interest in these developmental projects during this period. The power projects namely- Tungabhadra project, Godavari Project, Ramaguendam thermal project, and the Nizam Sagar Hydro- Electric scheme were pet projects of the Nizam, who keenly invested in them and sought guarantees from the central government to continue providing financial assistance to these projects. (Hyd, 1952)

Development of public infrastructure, especially to promote agriculture, in the deccan region and secure for the state and its people sustained water supply was an indicator to the ceaselessness of his attention. Similarly, development and expansion of modern means of transport and communication, additional means to enhance electricity supply and extension of services, were critical to the Nizam's tenure. The region was always susceptible to effective water resource management. The presence of therefore a department dedicated to the same highlights continuity of policy since the early period on water resource management and exhibits a positive action.

In the industrial field, the Nizam had earlier promoted large scale industries such as textiles, pharmaceuticals and manufacturing. And even during the transition, efforts were made to support these industries to avoid economic disruption. These helped in maintaining the presence of Hyderabad as an important economic centre in South India. The presence of Hyderabad as a major economic hub in South India was sustained due to these continued investments towards Industry to the tune of Rs. 294 lakhs and for agriculture Rs. 346 lakhs. (Hyd, 1952)The encouragement of trade and commerce also helped Hyderabad retain its significance as a commercial centre.

Category	Contributions
Economic Stability	Maintained fiscal policies, ensured continuity in revenue collection, and supported the financial system, including the State Bank of Hyderabad.
Industrial Growth	Encouraged the development of textile, pharmaceutical, and manufacturing industries, preventing economic disruptions post-integration.
Infrastructure Development	Continued expansion of roads, railways, public transport, and urban planning projects to modernize Hyderabad.
Irrigation and Water Supply	Improved irrigation systems, including the Nizam Sagar Dam, and enhanced water conservation projects for agricultural stability.

Power and Energy	Strengthened Hyderabad's power supply network, ensuring electricity availability for industries and households.
Education	Supported the expansion of Osmania University and technical institutions to develop skilled manpower for the economy.
Healthcare	Established hospitals, medical research centers, and healthcare facilities to improve public health services.
Trade and Commerce	Ensured stability in trade networks and commercial activities, maintaining Hyderabad's status as a major economic hub.

Role in Educational and Cultural Advancements

During the transition period (1948-1956), the Nizam of Hyderabad, Mir Osman Ali Khan, played a key role in the cultural development of the region. Even after the merging of Hyderabad with the Indian Union and the changing political scene, he continued to patronize the institutions of learning and the cultural heritage, making Hyderabad retain its status of a center of academic and cultural excellence. His efforts at establishing Hyderabad as centre of academic excellence, made Hyderabad one of the choicest destinations of scholars not only from across the country but also the subcontinent and the world.

Educational Contributions

The educational contribution of the present Nizam and his family have been tremendous to say the least. Whether it benefitted the state in the long run in terms of quality, content and reach is matter of great discussion and debate. As the Rajpramukh the Nizam continued propagation of education, and highlighted the importance of social service and nation building activities through the five-year plan that lay emphasis on education. For the purpose of education an overall outlay of financial support for education included an amount of Rs. 236 lakhs for general education and Rs. 28 for technical and vocational learning. (Hyd, 1952) He also frequently gave endowments to institutions of higher learning like Aligarh Muslim University and the Banaras Hindu University. Another important aspect of his educational efforts was his emphasis on women's education. During his rule, he had initiated several programs to promote literacy among women, and these efforts continued during the transition period. Scholarships and grants were provided to meritorious students, further encouraging higher education and research. (HUKUM, APRIL 1917,4th Rajab 1335H/26)

Contribution to Heritage/Culture-

Another trait that defined the Nizam was his love for indigenous Indian culture. The firman announcing the establishment of Osmania university, named after him to promote studies in oriental culture/language/art/history with a blending of western sciences and art on April 26, 1917 stands as a testimony to his efforts at promoting education, especially vernacular. Restoration and preservation of priceless ancient monuments constitute another feature of Nizam Osman Ali Khan's tenure. An amount of 30 lakhs was spent on the restoration of Ajanta paintings to safeguard priceless Buddhist treasures in his dominions, an acknowledgement of which was made by Dr. Krishna, archaeologist of then Mysore state. The Asaf Jahi dynasty held the tradition of bi partisan behaviour throughout their kingdom and with neighbours. The regional rivalry can be attributed as much to politics, as it could to fundamentalism as highlighted by his critics. The Nizam was also deeply invested in preserving and promoting Hyderabad's rich cultural heritage. His support for literature, arts, and architecture played a crucial role in maintaining the region's artistic legacy.

His contributions to architectural and heritage conservation were also noteworthy. The state had ensued that functionaries of different branches in the government displayed professionalism, farsightedness and administrative acumen in dealing with heritage conservation. The case in point here would be the restoration of the Ajanta Caves. A non-Islamic structure but of immense architectural and heritage value was discovered in the 19th century and was restored and maintained by the concerted efforts of the Nizam administration and continued later in the transition period under the Department of Archaeology. Apart from conservation, documentation of such work was also carried out by the then Director of Archaeology, Government of Hyderabad. (FARMAN, 1913)

Charitable Contributions and Public Welfare Programs of the Nizam

The Nizam of Hyderabad, Mir Osman Ali Khan, remained deeply committed to public welfare and philanthropy. His long-chequered history was as much about polity as it was about welfare of the state's subjects. Public welfare was dominant feature in his administration. As Rajpramukh he continued to extend the same. Apart from sanctioning of an amount 6 crores for public health and medical purpose, amount in lakhs were also sanctioned government treasury for education and social work. In the democratic framework the Nizam was to be the beacon for responsible government.

Healthcare and Medical Assistance

One of the most significant areas of the Nizam's philanthropy was healthcare. Healthcare beginning from basic requirements of an average household in Hyderabad was the supply of safe drinking water. Hyderabad had already experienced epidemics like cholera, malaria and periodical occurrences of water borne diseases. In this regard, the Nizam had commissioned the construction of water tanks/bunds to supply clean fresh drinking water to the city of Hyderabad. The construction of Osman Sagar, Mir Alam tank, and investment in technology to bring water safely from these reservoirs played a very important role in curbing standard health issues in the Hyderabad city. (ARCHIVES, 1924)

Additionally, the Nizam funded specialized medical institutions, such as Nizam's Institute of Medical Sciences (NIMS), Osmania Medical college which later became a premier medical research and treatment centre. Along with hospitals, the Nizam also invested in research centers for science and medicine to avail to the people of Hyderabad state the fruits of modern inventions and treatment.

Education and Scholarships for the Underprivileged

The Nizam administration was never behind in aiding education of the weaker section of the society, women and depressed classes. Special primary schools were opened to help tribal students, harijans to receive education. Since the Nizams dominion had large representation of nomadic tribes their education and mainstreaming were considered important by the Nizam. Children with impairment were provided free schooling along with boarding facility attached to the institution to ensure that no obstruction came in their learning. This arrangement continued even in the transition period, with the successor popular governments continuing with the same practice. (Raj S. , 2014)

Poverty Alleviation and Housing for the Poor

The Nizam implemented several welfare programs aimed at poverty alleviation. These included food distribution programs that provided free meals to the poor, particularly during crises that unfolded during natural calamity like flood or drought. This was evidenced during flooding of the river Musi, which lead to tremendous loss of life. On such instances, the Nizam not only provided for food, clothing and shelter but also aided in craft restoration and similar financial aid. His public housing initiatives helped provide shelter to the homeless and economically weaker sections, offering subsidized housing schemes in Hyderabad, Secunderabad and surrounding areas. The Nizam also ensured low-interest loans and financial aid to small traders and craftsmen, allowing them to sustain their

livelihoods. These outreaches by the Nizam were later institutionalized in the new government as reminder of the legacy work of the erstwhile ruler of Hyderabad.

Disaster Relief and Emergency Assistance

The Nizam during floods, droughts, and epidemics, generously donated funds for relief operations. His administration worked towards providing immediate food, shelter, and medical aid to affected communities. Establishing community shelters, kitchens, and himself being in the fore front of relief work highlights his determination to ensure fair wellness to the subjects. Also, he gave his assistance to the victims of natural disasters across India. Even after Hyderabad's integration into the Indian Union, he made significant donations for flood relief efforts in Bihar and Bengal, as well as for drought-affected regions in South India.

Religious Charity- The Asaf Jah family during its rule of seven generations did not introduce any policy that undermined the complex social diverse fabric of its state, like the previous Qutub Shahi rulers. Hence in its Ecclesiastical Department majority of staff comprised of the majority population representative of its thoughtful initiative as they were not co- religionist ascribing to the faith doctrines of the Asaf Jahs. This composition of majority who were to manage religious institutions especially non-majority institutions like mosques and tombs apart from temples, therefore ensured harmonious blending of two distinct communities. The Nizams 1937 CE silver jubilee celebration saw Hyderabad enjoy communal peace. Therefore, the charges against him of being a bigot, reactionary, ruler have to be seen in the light of his persona, which created a wall between him and subjects unfortunately to the detriment of the ruler, state and the ruled. The Nizam was known for his religious tolerance and support for various faiths. He made significant contributions to Hindu temples, mosques, and churches, ensuring that religious institutions had the necessary funds for maintenance and community welfare activities. His donations to the Tirupati Balaji Temple and various mosques in Hyderabad showcased his inclusive approach to charity. Along with this, six months leave and advance salaries for people going on religious jatra, to Kashi, Puri, Rameshwaram, Prayag, Dwarakanath etc. (GOH/FARMAN, 1934) Additionally, he supported cultural institutions, libraries, and museums, preserving Hyderabad's rich heritage and ensuring that art, literature, and historical records were well-maintained. His funding of public libraries helped in promoting literacy and education among the masses.

Nation Builder- His role during this period was to work to address the three major threats and challenges to the independence and integrity of Union of India. First, the threat of sectarian divisiveness, second fissiparous tendency – false emphasis on linguistic affinities, and third the disruptive force of communism which would lead to class conflicts. Unity in diversity the backbone of India's civilizational history ought to be protected and the Nizam worked to highlight the same through cultural inclusion-Mulki movement. Economic Development of the state was another aspect that Nizam concentrated on during this period.

Final Decline into Obscurity

Towards the end of 1956, the Nizam had begun to lead a private and largely isolated life, with little to no involvement in political affairs. His wealth remained substantial, and highly contested among his successors, and his authority completely eroded. Over time, he became a symbol of a bygone era, remembered only for his contributions to Hyderabad's development but no longer playing any active role in shaping its future. His passing away in 1967 marked the final end of the Nizam's historical legacy as a ruler, leaving behind a city and a state that had fully embraced democratic and representative governance and had a different story to tell now.

Rise of Regional Political Leadership

One of the but natural causes that led to the side stepping of the Nizam was the integration of Hyderabad's territories into different states and the rise of regional political parties and leaders. This transition resulted in a redistribution of power among new political entities, reducing the influence of the Nizam and replacing it with state-level political leadership driven by linguistic and regional interests and no longer conforming either to landed class, aristocracy or professing religious affirmatives.

Decline of Aristocracy and Old Power Structures

Under the Nizam's rule, political and administrative power was concentrated in the hands of a noble elite, including high-ranking officials, feudal landlords (jagirdars), and members of the royal court. These individuals had traditionally enjoyed privileged positions in governance, often controlling vast estates and administrative functions. With the dissolution of Hyderabad State, this aristocracy lost much of its political and economic influence. The democratic governments of Andhra Pradesh, Maharashtra, and Karnataka implemented land reforms, abolished the feudal system, and introduced new governance policies, effectively reducing the aristocracy's hold on power. The Nizam himself, who had once ruled with near-absolute authority, was now left as a private citizen, with no official role in governance.

Empowerment of Common Citizens

The political empowerment of common citizens under the democratic government was probably the last nail in the coffin for the 200-year-old Nizam administration. Under the Nizam's rule, governance was monarchical and hierarchical, and the common populace — had little to no say in administrative decisions. However, after the reorganization, the establishment of representative democratic institutions, allowed the common masses to participate in decision-making through elected bodies such as: State Legislative Assemblies Local Panchayats (village councils) Regional Political Movements This democratization of power marked a fundamental change in the governance structure, ensuring that political authority was no longer inherited but rather derived from the people's mandate.

Public Perception of the Nizam's Rule During the Transition Period

The public perception ofthe Nizam's rule during the transition period (1948–1956) was shaped by a complex mix of admiration, resentment, and political pragmatism. The accession of Hyderabad by India in 1948 and the subsequent dissolution of the Hyderabad State in 1956 transformed the Nizam from a sovereign monarch to a ceremonial figure, altering his image among different sections of society. While some sections of the population revered him for his contributions to development and governance, others viewed his rule as a symbol of feudal aristocracy and autocratic governance.

Divergent Public Opinions on the Nizam's Rule

During this transition period, public opinion on the Nizam varied across different socio-political groups:

1. **Admiration Among Traditionalists and Loyalists**

Many citizens, particularly those from the older generations, aristocracy, and loyalist groups, continued to hold the Nizam in high regard. They viewed him as a patron of arts, education, and economic development, emphasizing his investments in infrastructure, irrigation, and public welfare. His charitable contributions and personal involvement in social initiatives further cemented his image as a benevolent ruler in the eyes of his supporters.

2. **Resentment Among the Marginalized and Activists**

An interesting development was on the front of the marginalized and activists. Large sections of the population particularly peasants, small medium land holding farmers and reformists, associated the Nizam's rule with landlordism, economic

disparity, and aristocratic privileges. The feudal system and land tenure policies, of the Nizam period characteristic of its times, favoured the elite and led to the exploitation of tenant farmers, agricultural labourers, and contributed to a perception of social and economic inequality. Additionally, political reformers and democratic activists saw the continuation of the Nizam's authority as an obstacle to ushering in democratic and representative governance.

3. **Muslim and Hindu Community Perspectives**

The Muslim community, had enjoyed significant representation under the Nizam's dispensation and also in the previous dispensation of the Qutub Shahi's. Since the community views socio- political events through the prism of its religion, the rule of Asaf Jahs was largely viewed with pride. While there was appreciation of Nizam's contributions to Islamic culture and governance, sections felt uneasy about their future status in an integrated India, fearing the loss of their historical privileges, especially seen in the case of those in power.

Among the Hindu majority, the perception of the Nizam was more divided. While some appreciated his contributions to economic development, education, and secular administration, others associated his rule with the alleged favouritism towards Muslims and the violent suppression of the Telangana Peasant Movement. The memories of the Razakkars militia's excesses, which occurred before the annexation of Hyderabad, also influenced the opinions of a section of the Hindu population, who viewed the Nizam's regime as authoritarian.

The very few who had unbridled access to the ruler, also at times were treated with the incommunicado nature of the Nizam. If this raised curiosity about the Nizam, then it also sadly, resulted in lack of understanding of his motives and actions. There was little appreciation of therefore his work and actions. However, the Nizam remains best remembered for his contribution to reforms in administration, so much so that he earned the title of the "Faithful Ally of the British" due to the service rendered to the company and later crown, both politically and administratively. Despite the decline of his political authority, the Nizam's historical legacy remained significant in the decades following Hyderabad's integration into India. His contributions to education, public infrastructure, and economic growth continued to be recognized, even as political power shifted to democratically elected leaders. The period from 1948 to 1956 was a transformative phase for Hyderabad, during which the princely state evolved into the

independent state of Hyderabad and the people experienced democratic governance. The Nizam on his part, more recluse than before surrounded himself with his internal affairs. But not surprisingly, when called upon to serve the cause for the nation, the Nizam once again was at the forefront during the Indo-Pak war of 1965 CE, when he gave financial assistance to the Indian government, similar to the one given to Britain during World Wars in colonial period and thus the legacy continues…

CHAPTER VI

HYDERABAD AS A CAPITAL CITY OF ANDHRA PRADESH (1956 CE)

6.1 Introduction

The state of Hyderabad in the last year of its independent existence outside the union of India had an area of 82,000 square miles, a population of 16 million and an annual revenue of Rs. 260 million. No princely kingdom of British India could stand in comparison to the dominions of the Nizam or its resources. The state comprised of districts of present-day Telangana, parts of Maharashtra, and parts of Karnataka. A few prominent districts of these states, include (Telangana- Adilabad, Warangal, Khammam, Hyderabad, Nalgonda), (Maharashtra – Aurangabad, Nanded, Osmanabad), (Karnataka- Gulbarga, Bidar, Bijapur).

Interestingly, the first capital of the Hyderabad state was Aurangabad which was later shifted to Hyderabad in 1764 CE during the reign of Nizam Ali Khan, the second Nizam of Hyderabad, as recognized. The distinctiveness of this region was in its geo – political position vis-à-vis its contemporary powers in the deccan, namely Peshwas of Marathas and Tipu sultan of Mysore.

"If Nizam goes, all goes" telegraphed the governor of Bombay to the British Resident in Hyderabad at the court of the Nizam. This frantic call made at a time when the British fortunes in India had taken a hit and the paramountcy of the British was on shaky grounds, highlights the physical prominence and economic potential of the state.

The state enjoyed vast economic resources fuelled by its bountiful natural reserves with great potential for economic development. As the state abounds in mineral wealth process of planned development would be felt naturally by the powers to be. The soil and climate of the region along with adequate labour force ensured that Hyderabad state had maximum production both in agriculture and industry.

The focus of the administration in the state has been to maximize irrigation, given the terrain by building an extensive network of irrigation canals deriving supply from major rivers Tungabhadra, Krishna and local water bodies comprising of wells and tank. Prior to the states accession, a national geological survey ascertained the mineral possibilities

of the area. A large contributor of oilseed production coupled with cotton production made Hyderabad a big contributor to national growth and income. The state has a considerable volume of large- and small-scale industry with cement, paper and sugar being prominent.

If the physical prominence and economic growth were an important aspect of the states' identity than as an inheritor of ancient cultural mosaic of a civilization puts Hyderabad in the heart of the nation. The state was a melting pot of cultures since the early 16th century when visited by Iranians Afghans, Africans, etc. Many travelling tribal groups and clans, merchants, traders, made to India then looking largely for military service and trade purpose and in the process settled here. The state was cosmopolitan, as people of diverse faith, language, culture and creed made Hyderabad their home. To state some statistics of the populace- the state had more than 4 major languages spoken, the ratio ranging from 47% speaking Telugu to 26% - Marathi, 14% Kannada, 5-10% speaking Urdu, Hindustani, Marwari. Similarly, people of different ancestry and regions settled in Hyderabad, apart from the west/central Asians- North Indian Kayasths, Bengal, UP, Central India etc. The art and architecture of the city too was a reflection of the syncretism of the time. Many prominent public buildings/ residences of nobles – displayed Indo – Islamic/sarsenic style of architecture.

European Style of bungalows were also plentiful, especially those of the Eurasians and the rich upper-class Indian nobility. The culture of Hunting lodges/Men's club also added to the landscape of Hyderabad, giving it an air of a city, that was a mix of the oriental and the modern. The twin of Hyderabad as it came to be known later- Secunderabad was initially realized as a British Military garrison/Cantonment- one of the largest in the country was very European in its architecture- with palatial bungalows, lodges, cabins, clubs, and churches.

In fact, the Nizam gave patronage to many Christian missions to work in the state and the most prominent being the Medak Cathedral- the largest diocese in the state. This syncretism of culture and identity hit a roadblock in the run up to independence of India and the states accession to the Indian Union. For their existed a dichotomy of nature and identity – between the city of Hyderabad and the State of Hyderabad. The state of Hyderabad was essentially feudal, oriental, in its socio- economic cultural parameters but the city was cosmopolitan in its bearing.

This accentuated during the later years after the first general elections in 1952 CE when the popular government of Burugula Ramakrishna Rao was formed. The Chief minister immediately rolled out plans to ameliorate the issues of the farmers/peasants in the state, who were subjected to exploitation in the name of the Jagirdari system. The land reform legislation, tenancy act, redressed many issues of the small/marginal farmers. The menace of the communist activity too was dealt with firmly. However, the plans for spearheading the state of Hyderabad on the path of growth and development was sidelined in the wake of linguistic affinities, identity and politics. Though the Nizam, now as Rajpramukh did not favour the creation of linguistic states, as he firmly believed what his administrative experience taught him over the years, that linguistic unison cannot provide any sort of lasting cohesiveness, if it is not backed by historical traditions, inherited aptitude into a populace that has been separated or lived together by the force of time stretching over century, eventually states re- organization led to the creation of the state of Andhra- the first linguistic state- Telegu speaking. This further unsettled the programs and policies of the Hyderabad government as demands grew for Vishal Andhra. Eventually in 1956 CE the state of AP was formed by trifurcating and merging the Telugu speaking regions of Hyderabad state with Andhra and making Hyderabad the capital city of the new state.

The dichotomy of its existence once again surfaced as the city of Hyderabad never had an exclusive Telugu identity and as the capital city of the first linguistic state of India- it was ironical for Hyderabad. From being the heart of the nation to cancer in the belly to the formation of AP, the dissolution of the state of Hyderabad and -re-emergence of Hyderabad as capital city belies the true story of the powerful independent state of Hyderabad which acceded to the Indian Union in 1948 CE.

Hyderabad's Unique Cultural Identity in the Social Aspect

Beyond caste stratifications and feudalism, the social fabric of Hyderabad. was influenced by its distinct cultural identity that has been developed throughout centuries under the influence of. impression of the syncretistic traditions of the Deccan, the Persianate court culture, and local. linguistic and artistic expressions. Even in the process of socio-economic realignment of the culture in post-1948 Hyderabad, its cultural uniqueness in the city was always a part of it. society, shaping the everyday lives of its people, their traditions and relations.

The most characteristic feature of the cultural identity of Hyderabad was its. composite culture This is a cultural fusion that was rooted in language, food. festivals, and art. The dialect of Urdu was the Deccani Urdu that assimilated the influences of Persian, Marathi, Telugu, and Kannada, remained in use as a lingua franca in the city of Hyderabad, which cuts across religious and social lines. Despite political crises and governmental reform, Hyderabadi Tehzeeb (etiquette and hospitality) was a characteristic of the region with a focus on respect, refinement, and mutual coexistence.

The other main characteristic of the cultural identity of Hyderabad was its artistic and richness. architectural heritage. The city was characterized by a unique architecture that was Indo-Islamic. observed in traditional sites like Charminar, Mecca Masjid and Chow Mahalla. Palace. Since Hyderabad had entered a new socio-economic stage after 1948, there was a new emphasis on maintaining its historic buildings, literary and even with the establishment of modernization, performing arts. Conventional art like the qawwali, Dakhni poetry, Bidriware and Hyderabadi cuisines persisted. prosper, with both ancient and modern influences.

Hyderabad also had a multicultural ethos in its culinary landscape. The Hyderabadi Biryani, famous Haleem and assortment of Mughal and South Indian. delicacies represented the blend of the Persian, Turkish, and local taste and cuisine and a cultural interfering among various groups of people. Food was a part of social bonding even in the socioeconomic alterations of 1950s. and cultural continuity.
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Hyderabad's educational and intellectual environment also contributed to its unique identity. Institutions such as Osmania University played a crucial role in shaping modern Hyderabad's academic and literary traditions. The city had a long-standing tradition of scholarship, poetry, and storytelling, with prominent Urdu and Telugu literary figures influencing social thought. Despite the political transition, Hyderabad continued to be a centre for literature, journalism, and progressive ideas, with debates on modernity, nationalism, and social reform gaining momentum in the post-integration period.

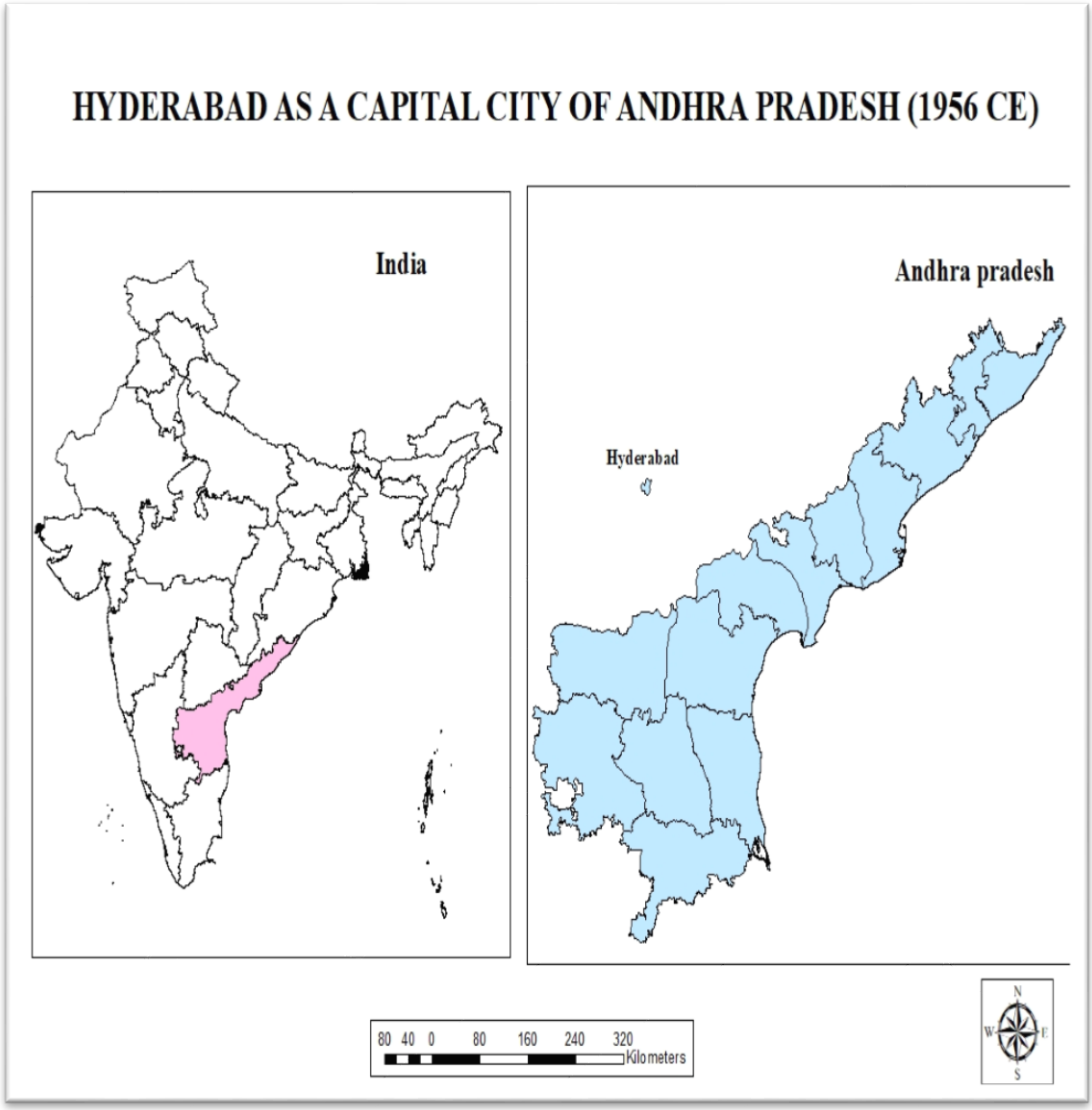
The overthrow of feudalism by democratic governance led to great changes. modifications, yet the cultural identity of Hyderabad was resistant to changes and adapted to the new ones. holding on to its uniqueness. While land reforms and administrative restructuring determined the socio-economic environment, traditions of Hyderabad, which are shared. The linguistic heritage, and artistic legacy remained to characterize its people and guarantee that. cultural integration and continuity were as important as political and economic transformations.

Hyderabad, the capital of Andhra Pradesh in 1956, held immense historical, cultural, and political significance. Established in 1591 by Muhammad Quli Qutb Shah of the Qutb Shahi dynasty, the city evolved as a major centre of trade, culture, and administration. Over the centuries, it flourished under various rulers, including the Mughals and the Asaf Jahi dynasty (Nizams), who made it their capital and transformed it into a centre of economic and cultural activities.

Formation of Andhra Pradesh and the Selection of Hyderabad as its Capital

In 1956, the creation of Andhra Pradesh became a historic moment in the history of the post independent India, as there was a call of a separate state of Telugu-speaking. The linguistic reorganization movement was propelled through martyrdom of leaders. similar to the example of Potti Sriramulu who died after a 56-day hunger strike in 1952, which only fueled the demands. to separate Telugu state. As a result, the Government of India implemented the States In 1956, the Telugu-speaking areas of the states were merged, after the reorganization Act, 1956. erstwhile Madras Presidency with the Hyderabad State, thus forming Andhra Pradesh on November 1, 1956.

The choice of Hyderabad as the capital of the new state of Andhra Pradesh was because of. to its historical, geographical and infrastructural strengths. Former capital of. the Hyderabad State with the Nizams, it was already an administrative state. centre having well established institutions, education centers, and transport systems. Unlike other cities in the region, Hyderabad was a cosmopolitan city, a powerful one. It is an appropriate decision to lead the newly governed state because it is based on economic base, and cultural diversity. formed state effectively.



In addition, its geographical position in the Telugu speaking areas helped. improved connection and management. The high-level infrastructure that the city has, such as an immediate foundation was given by government buildings, industries, and trade centers. for governance. Some of these groups in Andhra originally demanded either Kurnool or Vijayawada. as the capital, Hyderabad most resources and historical legacy eventually. turned it into the favorite one.

When Hyderabad became the capital of Andhra Pradesh in 1956 it was a significant move. the start of its transformation into a big political, economic, and cultural center. It was a crucial factor influencing the governance and development of over the years. Andhra Pradesh, although also still possessing its historical heritage as a hub of Indo-Islamic and Telugu culture. This shift preconditioned the further development of Hyderabad into. one of the biggest metropolises in India.

Hyderabad's Selection as the Capital

Strategic, Economic, and Political Reasons for Choosing Hyderabad

The selection of Hyderabad as the capital of Andhra Pradesh in 1956 was a decision influenced by strategic, economic, and political factors. When the Telugu-speaking regions of the Madras Presidency (Andhra State) merged with Telangana (Hyderabad State), the need for a new capital arose. While some leaders initially proposed Kurnool, Vijayawada, and Guntur, Hyderabad emerged as the most viable choice due to its historical significance, central location, economic strength, and administrative infrastructure.

1. Strategic Reasons

One of the key factors in selecting Hyderabad as the capital was its central location. Unlike coastal cities such as Vijayawada or Visakhapatnam, Hyderabad was centrally and strategically located within the newly formed Andhra Pradesh, making it accessible to both Telangana and Andhra regions. Its location ensured that governance could be effectively managed across the entire state without giving undue advantage to one region over another.

Additionally, Hyderabad had been the capital of Hyderabad State under the Nizams, and it already had a well-established administrative structure. Government offices, institutions, and civic infrastructure were already in place, reducing the need for large-scale investments in developing a new capital. Moreover, Hyderabad's connectivity via railways and road networks made it a suitable choice for coordinating state administration efficiently across the regions.

2. Economic Reasons

Hyderabad was one of the most economically developed cities in South India at the time. Under the Nizams, the city had grown into a major trade and commerce destination, with major industries in textiles, handicrafts, and metal works. The presence of large markets, a skilled workforce, and established financial institutions gave it an economic advantage over other cities in Andhra Pradesh just out of the vestiges of the Madras Presidency.

The city also had key industrial establishments, such as the Hyderabad Allwyn Limited, Nizam Sugar Factory, and several small-scale industries, which contributed to its economic prosperity. Unlike Kurnool or Vijayawada, which were primarily agrarian

economies, Hyderabad had a more diversified sectors in its economy, making it an ideal choice for a state capital.

Another significant economic factor was the presence of premier educational institutions in India. The university, along with other research institutions, contributed to Hyderabad's role as a centre for higher education and intellectual growth, which further enhanced its attractiveness as the state capital.

3. Political Reasons

The decision to select Hyderabad was also driven by political considerations. Since Hyderabad had been a princely state under the Nizams, integrating it into mainstream Indian governance was a key priority for the Indian government. Choosing Hyderabad as the capital of Andhra Pradesh helped consolidate Indian authority over the region.

Additionally, Hyderabad had a cosmopolitan character, with diverse communities including Telugu, Urdu, Kannada, and Marathi-speaking populations. This diversity made it a politically neutral choice, helping to balance the interests of both Telangana and Andhra regions. Other cities, such as Vijayawada or Guntur, were seen as more aligned with Andhra interests, which could have created regional dissatisfaction and they did so in the distant future.

Furthermore, Hyderabad's infrastructure, including the State Assembly, High Court, and Secretariat buildings, was already in place, making it easier to function as the capital without the need for immediate large-scale development projects. This was a crucial factor in ensuring administrative continuity in the newly formed Andhra Pradesh.

Role of Political Leadership in the Decision to Make Hyderabad the Capital

The selection of Hyderabad as the capital of Andhra Pradesh in 1956 was not merely a geographical or economic decision; it was heavily influenced by political leadership and negotiations at both the state and national levels. The process involved leaders from Andhra, Telangana, and the central government, each with their own interests, priorities, and concerns. The decision required compromises, agreements, and strategic political maneuvering to ensure the successful integration of the two regions.

1. Role of Andhra Leaders: Demand for a Larger Telugu State

Leaders from the Andhra region, particularly those from the Andhra State (formed in 1953), played a key role in advocating for the merger with Telangana to create a larger Telugu-speaking state. Prominent Andhra leaders like Tanguturi Prakasam, Neelam Sanjeeva Reddy, and Bezawada Gopala Reddy were in favour of unifying all Telugu-speaking areas, believing that linguistic states would lead to better governance and development.

However, they also needed a strong and developed capital for the new state. Cities like Kurnool, Vijayawada, and Guntur were considered, but none had the administrative infrastructure or economic potential of Hyderabad. Andhra leaders, despite their reservations, recognized that Hyderabad was the most viable option to serve as the capital due to its existing government institutions, economic strength, and central location.

2. Role of Telangana Leaders: Reluctance and the Gentlemen's Agreement

Leaders from Telangana were initially hesitant about merging with Andhra, fearing economic and political domination by the more developed Andhra region. Hyderabad, as the former capital of the Hyderabad State under the Nizams, had a distinct administrative and economic structure. Telangana leaders were concerned that an influx of Andhra officials and businessmen could undermine the interests of Telangana's people.

To address these concerns, political leaders from both regions negotiated the Gentlemen's Agreement of 1956, which was crucial in finalizing Hyderabad as the capital. The agreement, signed by leaders such as Burgula Ramakrishna Rao (then Chief Minister of Hyderabad State) and Neelam Sanjeeva Reddy (from Andhra), included assurances that:

- Telangana would have a fair share of government jobs and resources.
- Telangana's land, finance, and cultural interests would be protected from Andhra dominance.
- The existing educational and administrative institutions in Hyderabad would be used for the benefit of the entire state.

Despite these assurances, many Telangana leaders remained skeptical about the merger, but political pressure from the central government led to the unification of the two regions with Hyderabad as the capital.

3. Role of the Central Government: Balancing Regional Interests

The Government of India, led by Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru, played a decisive role in convincing both Andhra and Telangana leaders to agree to the formation of Andhra Pradesh with Hyderabad as the capital. The States Reorganization Commission (SRC), which was established in 1953, initially recommended that Telangana remain a separate state, citing concerns over economic inequalities and political imbalances.

However, intense lobbying from Andhra leaders, along with political considerations at the national level, led to a change in stance. Nehru and Home Minister Govind Ballabh Pant believed that linguistic reorganization would help strengthen Indian unity, and merging Telangana with Andhra was seen as a step in this direction.

Additionally, Nehru and other central leaders viewed Hyderabad's integration into Andhra Pradesh as a way to stabilize the region, given that Hyderabad had been under Nizam rule until 1948 and had witnessed political unrest during its integration into India. By making Hyderabad the capital of Andhra Pradesh, the central government aimed to consolidate its hold over the region and promote long-term stability.

Socio-Economic Impact of Hyderabad Becoming the Capital

Growth of Infrastructure and Urban Development

The selection of Hyderabad as the capital of Andhra Pradesh in 1956 significantly accelerated its infrastructure and urban development. As the administrative and political centre of the newly formed state, Hyderabad had to accommodate an increasing population, expand government institutions, and enhance its economic base. The state government initiated large-scale infrastructure projects to modernize the city, ensuring it could support the growing demands of governance, industry, and public services.

One of the most visible transformations was the expansion of government buildings and administrative offices. Hyderabad, which had previously functioned as the capital of the princely state under the Nizam, had a strong foundation in terms of public institutions, but many of these were structured to serve a feudal system rather than a democratic state. The new state government undertook the construction of additional

government complexes, legislative buildings, and public sector offices to accommodate the administrative needs of Andhra Pradesh. This development led to the influx of civil servants, politicians, and business communities, further driving urban expansion.

The city also witnessed significant growth in residential infrastructure. The migration of people from different parts of Andhra and Telangana created a surge in housing demand. To meet this need, planned residential colonies were developed, particularly in areas like Himayat Nagar, Domalguda, and later, the burgeoning suburbs. The expansion of housing facilities was accompanied by improvements in civic amenities such as water supply, electricity, and sewage systems. The Hyderabad Metropolitan Water Supply and Sewerage Board (HMWSSB) played a crucial role in upgrading the city's water infrastructure, ensuring a stable supply for the growing population.

Economic growth further fuelled urbanization, with Hyderabad emerging as an important commercial and industrial hub. The state government encouraged industrialization by establishing public sector units and promoting private enterprises. Key industrial areas such as Sanathnagar, and later Jeedimetla became centres of manufacturing and trade. The development of industrial infrastructure led to increased employment opportunities, attracting a diverse workforce from various parts of the state. To support this economic expansion, the city's transport network was significantly upgraded. Roads were widened, new highways were constructed, and public transportation systems were improved to facilitate the movement of people and goods.

Education and healthcare infrastructure also saw remarkable improvements. Recognizing Hyderabad's role as an intellectual and research hub, the government expanded existing institutions such as Osmania University and established new educational centres, including engineering and medical colleges. The presence of premier institutions not only enhanced Hyderabad's reputation but also contributed to a skilled workforce, further boosting economic growth. Healthcare services were similarly upgraded with the expansion of hospitals like Osmania General Hospital and the establishment of new medical facilities to cater to the growing urban population.

Culturally, Hyderabad experienced a transformation as it adapted to its role as the capital of Andhra Pradesh. While the city had historically been influenced by Persian and Urdu-speaking communities under the Nizam's rule, the integration into Andhra

Pradesh brought an increased prominence of Telugu culture. The government supported Telugu-language media, literature, and cultural programs, reinforcing the city's identity as a centre of Telugu heritage. At the same time, Hyderabad maintained its cosmopolitan nature, embracing a mix of traditions and modern influences that contributed to its dynamic urban character.

Migration and Demographic Shifts

The designation of Hyderabad as the capital of Andhra Pradesh in 1956 led to significant migration and demographic shifts, reshaping the city's social fabric and urban landscape. As the administrative, political, and economic centre of the newly formed state, Hyderabad attracted a large influx of people from both Andhra and Telangana regions. Government officials, professionals, industrial workers, and traders moved to the city in search of employment, education, and business opportunities, leading to a rapid increase in population. This migration not only changed the demographic composition of Hyderabad but also contributed to the city's urban expansion and cultural transformation.

A substantial portion of the migration was driven by the need for administrative personnel. With Hyderabad now serving as the headquarters for the Andhra Pradesh government, officials from the coastal Andhra and Rayalaseema regions relocated to the city. This movement created a demand for housing, schools, and other civic amenities, leading to the development of new residential colonies. Areas like Himayatnagar, Domalguda, and later Ameerpet and Punjagutta saw the establishment of settlements catering to government employees and professionals. Additionally, the growth of public sector enterprises and industrial zones in Hyderabad attracted workers from across the state, contributing to further population growth.

The migration patterns also had a significant impact on the linguistic and cultural composition of Hyderabad. Historically, the city had been a stronghold of Urdu and Deccani culture, deeply influenced by its past under the Nizam's rule. However, as large numbers of Telugu-speaking people from Andhra moved in, Telugu gradually became the dominant language in public administration, education, and media. While Urdu continued to be spoken, particularly among the older generation and the local Muslim community, Telugu's prominence increased with government support and cultural initiatives. The blending of Andhra and Telangana cultural traditions created a

unique social environment, where different linguistic and regional identities coexisted within the city.

Economically, migration played a crucial role in shaping Hyderabad's workforce. The growing industrial and commercial sectors required skilled and unskilled labour, leading to the influx of workers from various parts of the state. Many migrants from Andhra brought business expertise, contributing to the expansion of trade and commerce. The rise of marketplaces, retail centers, and industrial hubs reflected this economic transformation. Meanwhile, Telangana locals, who had historically been engaged in agriculture and small-scale trade, had to adapt to the new economic structure, sometimes facing competition from the more commercially experienced settlers from Andhra.

Hyderabad's educational institutions also became a major attraction for migrants. The presence of Osmania University, Nizams College, and other higher education centres led to an increase in student migration. Young people from Andhra moved to Hyderabad for higher studies, further integrating the two regions. The government's investment in education infrastructure expanded opportunities for both local and migrant populations, fostering a more diverse academic and intellectual environment.

However, the rapid influx of migrants also brought challenges. The city's infrastructure struggled to keep pace with the growing population, leading to housing shortages, increased traffic congestion, and strain on public services. Informal settlements and slums began to emerge on the outskirts of the city as lower-income migrants sought affordable housing. The socio-economic divide between the old city areas, which retained their historical character, and the newly developing urban zones became more pronounced.

Over time, these demographic shifts laid the foundation for Hyderabad's emergence as a modern metropolitan city. The integration of diverse communities contributed to its economic dynamism, while the linguistic and cultural adaptations shaped its evolving identity. Despite occasional tensions between settlers and locals, Hyderabad continued to grow as a cosmopolitan centre, setting the stage for its future role as a major political and economic hub in India.

Impact on Trade, Commerce, and Industrialization

The selection of Hyderabad as the capital of Andhra Pradesh in 1956 had a profound impact on the city's trade, commerce, and industrialization. As the administrative and economic centre of the newly formed state, Hyderabad experienced rapid economic transformation, attracting businesses, industries, and investment. The government's focus on industrial development, coupled with the city's strategic location, led to the expansion of trade networks, the growth of manufacturing sectors, and the modernization of commercial activities.

One of the immediate effects of Hyderabad becoming the capital was the increase in commercial activities. Traders and business communities from Andhra and Telangana migrated to the city, bringing with them expertise in various sectors, including agriculture, retail, and finance. The influx of merchants and entrepreneurs led to the expansion of wholesale and retail markets, particularly in areas like Sultan Bazaar, Begum Bazaar, and Koti. These markets became key centres for trade in textiles, food grains, and consumer goods, strengthening Hyderabad's role as a major commercial hub.

The government played a crucial role in promoting industrialization by establishing public sector enterprises and industrial estates. Recognizing the need for economic diversification, the state encouraged the development of industries in pharmaceuticals, manufacturing, and information technology. The establishment of industrial zones in areas such as Sanathnagar, Azamabad, and Jeedimetla attracted investments and provided employment opportunities to a growing workforce. These industrial estates laid the foundation for Hyderabad's future economic expansion, positioning the city as an emerging industrial centre in South India.

Infrastructure development was another key factor that supported trade and industrialization. The expansion of road and rail networks improved connectivity between Hyderabad and other regions, facilitating the smooth movement of goods and raw materials. The government invested in upgrading transportation systems, which allowed businesses to expand their supply chains and access wider markets. Additionally, the improvement of banking and financial institutions provided support to entrepreneurs, enabling them to establish and expand their enterprises. The presence

of major banks and cooperative credit societies further strengthened Hyderabad's financial landscape, boosting economic activity.

The industrial growth of Hyderabad also led to advancements in small and medium enterprises (SMEs). The government's policies encouraged the establishment of small-scale industries, particularly in the manufacturing and textile sectors. Artisans and craftsmen, who had been engaged in traditional trades under the Nizam's rule, found new opportunities in the evolving industrial economy. The city's rich heritage in crafts and handlooms was integrated into modern commercial enterprises, allowing Hyderabad to maintain its cultural identity while embracing industrial progress.

While Hyderabad's rise as an economic hub brought prosperity, it also presented challenges. The rapid industrialization and commercial expansion led to urban congestion, increased migration, and disparities in wealth distribution. The growth of industries and trade centers resulted in environmental concerns, including pollution and inadequate waste management. Additionally, competition between businesses from Andhra and Telangana sometimes led to regional economic tensions, as local entrepreneurs sought to protect their interests in an increasingly competitive market.

Despite these challenges, Hyderabad continued to thrive as a centre for trade, commerce, and industry. The city's economic transformation during this period laid the groundwork for its later emergence as a major technological and financial hub. The strategic investments made in industrial infrastructure, coupled with a dynamic business environment, positioned Hyderabad as one of India's most important economic areas, setting the stage for its future growth in the decades to come.

Integration of Different Regional Interests

The formation of Andhra Pradesh with Hyderabad as its capital in 1956 brought significant political challenges, particularly in integrating the diverse regional interests of Andhra, Telangana, and Rayalaseema. Each of these regions had distinct historical, cultural, and economic backgrounds, which led to tensions in governance, resource allocation, and political representation. The state government had to navigate these complexities to create a balanced administrative framework that addressed the concerns of all regions while ensuring stability in the newly formed state.

One of the primary challenges was bridging the economic gap between Telangana and Andhra. The Telangana region had experienced a different developmental route under the Nizam's rule, with a feudal agrarian system and limited industrialization. In contrast, the Andhra region, which had been under British rule, had a more developed commercial economy with a strong network of trade and educational institutions. The integration process required policy measures to uplift Telangana's economy while also catering to the growing demands of Andhra's industrial and agricultural sectors. This led to debates over resource allocation, employment opportunities, and industrial investment, as each region sought to secure its share of development benefits.

Political representation was another critical issue. The Andhra region had a politically active and organized leadership that played a key role in demanding a separate Andhra state before the merger with Hyderabad. After the formation of Andhra Pradesh, leaders from Andhra held dominant positions in the government, which created a sense of political marginalization among Telangana representatives. To address these concerns, the Gentlemen's Agreement of 1956 was drawn, promising safeguards for Telangana, including job reservations, balanced administrative representation, and the continuation of Urdu as an official language alongside Telugu. However, despite these assurances, disparities persisted, leading to dissatisfaction and political unrest in later years.

The integration of governance structures also created significant challenges. The bureaucratic systems of Andhra and Telangana had evolved under different administrations—Andhra under British colonial governance and Telangana under the Nizam's rule. The transition required adjustments in administrative practices, legal frameworks, and governance models to create a unified system. Differences in land revenue policies, education systems, and employment structures needed careful negotiation to avoid conflicts. The government had to implement phased changes to ensure that neither region felt disadvantaged during the integration process.

Linguistic and cultural differences further complicated the political landscape. While Telugu was the common language, Telangana had a significant Urdu-speaking population due to its historical association with the Hyderabad State. The integration process saw a gradual shift towards Telugu as the dominant language in administration

and education, which created cultural resistance among sections of the local population. Additionally, differences in local dialects and traditions between Andhra and Telangana led to identity-based political identities, with each region seeking to preserve its cultural heritage within the broader framework of the state.

Over time, the integration efforts faced growing resistance, particularly from Telangana, where concerns over political dominance, economic disparities, and cultural identity remained unresolved. These tensions eventually culminated in regional movements demanding separate statehood, highlighting the long-term challenges in achieving a truly integrated Andhra Pradesh. While Hyderabad continued to function as the capital and economic centre, the underlying regional division persisted, influencing the state's political dynamics for decades.

Initial Conflicts and Opposition to the Merger

The merger of Telangana with Andhra to form Andhra Pradesh in 1956 was met with considerable resistance from various sections of society. The unification, though intended to create administrative efficiency and linguistic unity, faced strong opposition due to historical, economic, and political disparities between the two regions. Many groups in Telangana feared that their interests would be overshadowed by the more politically and economically dominant Andhra leadership, leading to widespread unrest and dissatisfaction.

One of the primary sources of opposition stemmed from economic concerns. Telangana, which had been under the rule of the Nizam of Hyderabad, had a different economic structure compared to Andhra, which had been part of British-ruled Madras Presidency. While Andhra had a well-established system agriculture, trade, and education, Telangana's economy was largely feudal, with landlords holding significant power over agricultural land. Many people in Telangana feared that the advanced Andhra region would dominate economic policies, divert resources, and exploit the region's water and land resources without equitable distribution.

Employment was another important point of contention. The people of Telangana were concerned that government jobs and administrative positions would be taken by individuals from Andhra, as they had better opportunity to education and competitive exams. The Gentlemen's Agreement of 1956 was formulated to address these concerns,

ensuring safeguards such as job reservations for Telangana locals. However, skepticism remained, as many feared that these promises would not be kept in practice. This perception of unequal employment opportunities fuelled resentment, particularly among the youth and educated classes of Telangana.

Cultural and linguistic differences also played a role in the initial opposition. Although Telugu was the common language of both regions, there were significant differences in dialect, accent, and cultural practices. Telangana had a strong influence of Urdu due to its historical association with the Nizam's administration, whereas Andhra had a more Sanskritized Telugu linguistic tradition. The shift toward Andhra's version of Telugu as the official administrative and educational language created discomfort among Telangana's Urdu-speaking and rural populations. This linguistic divide contributed to the perception that Telangana's cultural identity was being sidelined.

Political resistance also emerged from local leaders who had governed Telangana under the Hyderabad State. Many of them feared losing political influence to the dominant leadership from Andhra, which had already demonstrated strong organizational and electoral strategies. The ruling elites of Telangana were particularly apprehensive about the redistribution of political power, as they believed the merger would dilute their authority in decision-making processes. This fear was not unfounded, as Andhra leaders quickly assumed key positions in the newly formed government, leaving Telangana politicians with relatively limited influence.

Public protests and demonstrations were organized in Telangana to oppose the merger, with students, intellectuals, and local organizations voicing their concerns. Many argued that Telangana should remain a separate entity rather than being merged with Andhra, as they believed that an independent Telangana state would better serve its people's economic and cultural needs. Despite these protests, the merger was pushed forward due to political pressure from the central government and leaders advocating for linguistic reorganization. However, the unresolved issues of Telangana's people remained, eventually leading to political movements in the following decades that demanded a separate state once again.

The initial opposition to the merger highlighted the deep-rooted divisions between the two regions, which persisted even after Andhra Pradesh was formed. While

Hyderabad continued to serve as the capital, discontent over economic imbalances, cultural identity, and political representation never fully subsided, ultimately leading to the eventual bifurcation of the state in 2014.

Role of Hyderabad in Shaping Andhra Pradesh's Political Landscape

Hyderabad played a pivotal role in defining the political framework of Andhra Pradesh after its formation in 1956. As the capital city, it became the administrative and decision-making hub, where key policies were formulated and implemented. The city's political significance extended beyond governance, influencing electoral dynamics, leadership structures, and regional aspirations within the state. Hyderabad's historical legacy, economic strength, and strategic position made it the centre of political discourse, shaping the trajectory of Andhra Pradesh's governance.

One of the most crucial ways in which Hyderabad influenced the political landscape was through its role as the seat of government. The presence of the state legislature, the secretariat, and key administrative offices meant that political negotiations and decision-making processes were bound to occur in the city. This allowed Hyderabad to emerge as the focal point for political discussions, legislative debates, and policy planning. Leaders from different regions frequently engaged in power struggles to assert dominance in the political affairs of the state, making the city a battleground for competing interests.

Hyderabad also played a important role in shaping electoral politics. As the capital, it brought politicians, party workers, and activists from all over Andhra Pradesh, leading to the formation of strong political networks. The city's diverse population, consisting of migrants from various parts of the state, contributed to a mixed electoral landscape where regional, caste-based, and ideological factors influenced voting patterns. Political parties had to cater to the demands of different communities, leading to the rise of coalition politics and strategic alliances. The competition for political control over Hyderabad often became the larger struggles within the state, making elections in the city highly competitive.

The economic and infrastructural growth of Hyderabad further reinforced its political importance. As the most developed urban centre in Andhra Pradesh, it attracted significant investments, generating employment and revenue for the state. This economic prosperity made the city an important destination for policymakers, who prioritized its

development to strengthen their political standing. Control over Hyderabad meant gave economic boost to the state, which further heightened political rivalries. Political leaders often used the city's growth as a tool to gain electoral support, promising development projects, employment opportunities, and better civic facilities to secure votes.

The city's intellectual and academic institutions also played a role in shaping political discourse. Universities such as Osmania University became platforms for political activism, student movements, and ideological debates. Many future leaders of Andhra Pradesh emerged from these institutions, using Hyderabad as a stage to voice regional concerns and mobilize public opinion. The influence of student movements on state politics was particularly evident in various protests and agitations that shaped government policies and political realignments, the Telangana movement.

Despite its importance, Hyderabad's dominance in state politics also led to tensions with other regions, particularly Telangana. Many people in Telangana felt that the city was being used to serve the interests of Andhra politicians and businessmen, rather than addressing local concerns. This perception contributed to growing discontent and ultimately played a role in the demand for a separate Telangana state. The political centrality of Hyderabad thus became both a unifying and divisive factor, influencing the broader regional dynamics within Andhra Pradesh.

Over the decades, Hyderabad remained at the heart of Andhra Pradesh's political developments, witnessing leadership transitions, policy changes, and governance challenges. Its strategic importance ensured that it remained the epicenter of power struggles, shaping the direction of the state's political evolution until the eventual bifurcation in 2014. The city's role in state politics was not just administrative but deeply intertwined with economic ambitions, regional aspirations, and ideological shifts, making it a key driver of Andhra Pradesh's political history.

Although Hyderabad is no longer the capital of Andhra Pradesh, its legacy continues to influence the state's governance, economic policies, and developmental strategies. The experience of managing a major metropolitan city, fostering industrialization, and addressing regional disparities remains a guiding force for policymakers in the reorganized state. Hyderabad's contribution to Andhra Pradesh's growth is a testament to its historical, economic, and political significance, ensuring that its influence endures in the formation of a modern, forward-looking Andhra Pradesh.

CHAPTER-VII

CONCLUSION

The intervening years from 1948 CE to 1956 CE were one of great change for the state of Hyderabad, which saw the end of its status as a princely sovereign and its coming about as an Independent State of the Union of India. The initial reluctance of the Nizam Mir Osman Ali Khan to accede to India and his persistence for continued independence, seen as a sign of his political ambition, greatly increased tensions and made Hyderabad the flash point of political and military contention between the Indian Union and the Hyderabad state. This deadlock was resolved through a military operation, code named Operation Polo in September 1948, resulting in the surrender of the Nizam's forces, facilitating the accession of Hyderabad which ushered a new era of governance under the Union administration. This redefined Hyderabad's identity in terms of its composite culture, aristocracy, feudal character and governance.

The state of Hyderabad had come into being in the 18th century on the remains of the Mughal subha in the deccan. The state then, comprised of present-day Telangana, parts of Maharashtra, and parts of Karnataka. A few prominent districts of these states, included (Telangana- Adilabad, Warangal, Khammam, Hyderabad, Nalgonda), (Maharashtra – Aurangabad, Nanded, Osmanabad), (Karnataka- Gulbarga, Bidar, Bijapur). Its first capital was Aurangabad which was later shifted to Hyderabad in 1764 CE during the reign of Nizam Ali Khan, the second Nizam of Hyderabad, as recognized. The distinctiveness of this region was in its **individuality of character, in the nature of state and the apparatus of administration,** where there was only a cursory reflection of the Mughal character in administration, despite the Mughals being the paramount power of India then. The Nizams administration was a **feudal aristocratic autocracy** that embraced in **limited measures constitutional governance towards the close of 20th century**. The fundamentals of their administration were laid during the reign of Nizam Ali in terms of development of public/state infrastructure, boosting personnel administration through recruitment- both civil and military, introduction of jagir system leading to growth of new classes in society and new roles in administration. The Asaf Jah nobility formed the backbone of the Nizams administration at Hyderabad and comprised of the Paigahs at the very apex of the hierarchy followed by Salar Jung family, Rajas/Maharajas, Jagirdars, Samsthana chiefs etc. They were called stately

officers or Prabhu Varga. The estate owners, justices, military commanders, aristocrats belonged to this group. These were followed by class I, II, III, and IV employees. In this category of officers, one had the state officers belonging to agriculture, labour, and revenue, etc. The mansabdari system which determined the rank/status of officials in the Mughal administration, in Hyderabad operated through the grant of jagirs. Jagirs (mansabs) were given as gifts/remuneration/in lieu of service to state, to people both in civil and military. Hyderabad was therefore divided into three primary divisions- Sarf-e-Khas, Dewani, Jagirdari. The first category of land was prime land in Hyderabad that belonged to the Nizam, second category state/government land and last land given in Sanad's/Inaam's to deserving people/officials. The other important officials were local landlords and Doras. The jagirdars or land owners occupied a pre-eminent place in the Nizams administration. Most often than not, they were sovereigns in their own right.

The other factor that featured in administration during this period was the de-facto presence and role of the British Resident. The Principal of Reciprocation of Benefits – guided their relationship in the early years and was also reflective of the fluid political conditions of the early 19th Century Indian States, which were perpetually locked in battle for sovereignty and independence, on one hand and mired in mutual enmity and disunion on the other. Marques of Wellesley, the author the Subsidiary Alliance, by his brilliant statesmanship, successfully turned an alienated but a very powerful and resourceful native ruler into a subservient ally. Cooperation by the Nizam, extended to the British in suppressing the 1857 revolt, the Wahabi movement, accruing to the British resource rich territories like the northern Circars and Berar which added to the British treasury, reforms in financial administrations and finally creation of the Hyderabad contingent, which played a critical role during the outbreak of world war-I are instances of this steadfast loyalty.

The state had also adopted a policy of absorbing talent from across the vast realms of the country in its bid to strengthen and enrich its administration and promote growth of the state. This influx of people led to the shaping of a composite culture. This culture was an inclusive culture of many layers and proportions. Academicians, military personnel, administrators, physicians, legal professionals etc. from different parts of the country made Hyderabad their home. Scholars' familiar with this position of the state, attribute this influx to the creation of a later period phenomenon known as the Mulki agitation.

On 17th September 1948, when the Nizam resigned, a temporary committee was formed to run the administration, till matters were settled fully with the government of India. Major General E.L. Edroos, chief of Nizams army surrendered in the presence of Major General J.N. Choudhury of British Indian army on 18th September 1948 and the **autocratic feudal administrative structure represented by the Nizam and Asaf Jah nobility was replaced by a military- civil administration appointed by the Union government of India.** The civil military administration under Gen. J.N Choudhary was mandated to restore law and order in the state post accession and make functional arrangement to immediately address the pressing issues facing the state. This involved, as chosen at the outset, correcting a glaring a symmetry in terms of representation of the majority culture, language and presence in administrative workforce. As it set about to achieve the desired result, it led to complete decimation of the incumbent political system and consequent socio-economic apparatus. The new civil military administrative apparatus introduced many changes in administration in line with correcting the distortion in representation in government beginning with-Redistribution of land (land reforms), change of calendar, from Fasli to Gregorian/English calendar, Urdu to Telugu/English to name a few. However, the most notable act of administration of Gen. Choudhury government was their strategy to tackle both razakkars and the communists. This development was fraught with limitations, on factoring in the role of communist's post Hyderabad's merger with India. Extensive debates and discussions on this situation which presented itself, did not help the forces under Gen. Choudhury to ascertain the level of force to use to quell the communist rising and possible collaboration with razakkars post accession. The government of Gen Choudhury on charge of usage of excess of force was terminated on 31/12/1949 after one and a half year of helming affairs at Hyderabad and was replaced by a **civil government under an appointed chief minister** belonging to the I.C.S service from Kerala- Mr. M.K. Vellodi.

His government was in place from 1/1/1950 – 31/12/1952. Point to note here, that during both the dispensations the Nizam Mir Osman Ali Khan was the head of the government and in 1950 became officially anointed as the **Rajpramukh.** A closer look at members of the executive council will show that the representation of minority elite has significantly reduced to the point of being negligible in the time of M.K. Vellodi. The locals of Hyderabad state had to endure another phase of contending with outsiders

who were more skilled and adept in taking charge of this transitional administration, as the interim government, ushered in another policy of hiring outsiders, albeit with a minor difference (benefitting people of Andhra). This decision would prove detrimental in long run and lead to the growth of the Mulki agitation. **In 1952, after the first general election, the popular government of Burugula Ramakrishna Rao of Congress was formed.** An interesting fact to take note here, is that in the region of Hyderabad, it was the communist who won majority, but congress formed government due to help from independent candidates and because it did well in areas of Marathwada and Karnataka. The government of Ramakrishna Rao introduced many reforms especially in the areas of large landholdings. At a later date, popular Jan andolan in the form of Bhoodan movement of Acharya Vinoba Bhave, swept across the state. Land reforms and tenancy legislations were the most important acts of governance by the new government. However, the law-and-order situation began to deteriorate owing to the clashes arising out of the Mulki agitation particularly among the student community. The state government set up an enquiry committee to address the issues of the agitation, which categorically stated that there was failure on part of the political leaders and police officials in assuaging the fears of the student's community against the possible threat of the people arriving from the coastal areas.

The tone was set for a separate state of Telangana, as early as 1953, when Fazl Ali commission was set up to look into re-organization of states, and there was a growing demand and by October 1953 formation of the first linguistic state of India, Andhra. The leadership of Hyderabad maintained, that there would be travesty of justice if Telangana were to merge with Andhra on the grounds of linguistic affinity, because in reality no such affinity existed. The Telugu language spoken in Andhra had undergone nuanced development owing to the national freedom movement and also because, it was in competition with another dominant native language, Tamil. Since the coastal regions of Telugu speaking people were part of British administered Madras province, it was but logical for them to fight for their linguistic identity. In the case of Hyderabad, no such opportunity presented itself and when it did, the people once again found themselves at the mercy of outsiders bearing linguistic affinity. The Gentleman's agreement and formation of Vishal Andhra in 1956 CE subsequently, halted the progress of the state and made it subservient to the cause of larger national good. A very heavy price to pay indeed.

When the Police action concluded on September 17th 1948, the Nizam surrendered to the Government of India but neither did the state accede to India, nor did the Nizam recuse himself from administrative responsibilities. The government of Hyderabad continued to operate under the hand and seal of the Nizam. The military governor Gen. J.N. Choudhury though operated on mandate from the union ministry of state, yet he kept the Nizam duly informed of the actions of the interim government. On January 25th 1950, the formal accession of the Hyderabad state happened and a day later on 26th January the constitution of India came into force, making India a Sovereign, Democratic Republic and Hyderabad firmly integrated into the union with the Nizam as the Rajpramukh of the state. It is to be noted here that the Nizam, in his firman of 24 November 1949, declared and directed that the constitution of India should be the constitution for the state of Hyderabad. A formula agreement was signed on 25th January 1950, between the Governor General of India, representing the Indian Government and the Nizam.

From a socio-economic perspective, the transition of Hyderabad into the Indian Union was accompanied by sweeping reforms. The Jagirdari system, which had long been the basis of the feudal economy of Hyderabad, was terminated, whereby the lands were reallocated to peasants and small farmers. This was a very significant move for the purpose of restructuring the agrarian structure of Hyderabad and bringing more people into the economy. Yet, there were challenges in this process as the members of the former elites did not want to give up their socio-political supremacy. Some industrial policies were implemented to incorporate the Hyderabad economy into the national economic environment; and as a consequence, there occurred some shifts in trading, commercial, and labor arrangements. The development of the infrastructure, industrial sectors, and incorporation of the Hyderabad economy into the Indian economy led to economic modernization.

With the fading out of feudalism came the formation of a new social-economic system, which gave increased socio-political power to the peasantry, petty landowners, and the emerging middle classes. The political empowerment of the above-mentioned classes was made possible through the democratization process that made it possible for them to engage in the decision-making process. With the development of democracy in Hyderabad, the previously disenfranchised sectors of the population started to claim their rights and push for greater inclusion in the economy and society. During this era,

there were new movements, labor unions, and farmers 'cooperatives emerging as a result of the new social conditions prevailing in the region.

Alongside these changes in agriculture, industrial and economic policies were put in place in order to make Hyderabad's economy function within the national economic system. Before Hyderabad joined the rest of India, it possessed a separate economic policy which included its own currency, trade policies, and industries. Following the accession, India introduced certain policies that modernized and standardized Hyderabad's economic policy to match the national economic policies. Investments in industries, infrastructure, and commercial ventures were crucial for the creation of a modern economy of Hyderabad. The emergence of industries, trade, and employment opportunities helped transform Hyderabad into a modern economic entity.

The changes in the economy during this era were also accompanied by reforms in society and education, which were directed at creating a modernized society and solving social problems from the past. The old education system, which was mainly operated by the ruling feudal elite, underwent a lot of changes that ensured equal access to education for everyone irrespective of social status. The state ensured that primary and higher education opportunities were available to everyone, including marginalized groups of people who could not receive education before. It resulted in the creation of skilled workers, which were necessary for development of the economy of Hyderabad. Also, there were social reforms regarding inequality between castes and gender, which ensured that more people got an opportunity to work and get educated.

Due to these changes, it may be possible to observe significant inequalities appearing between rural and urban areas. Together with land tenure reforms and agrarian policies remodeled the rural economy, the cities were fast industrializing and infrastructural development. This difference in economic development formed different economic realities in rural and urban Hyderabad, influencing patterns of migration, regional development, socio-economic mobility. The position of the Nizam in the post-annexation period was mostly symbolic but historically significant. The Nizam, though deprived of his political power, remained an important social and economic leader in the city of Hyderabad. His investments in education, medical services and infrastructure were also significant, and his good working relations with the Indian government were of service in stabilizing the transition process.

The role of the Nizam in the post-accession period was largely constitutionally symbolically representative and historically significant**.** Although devoid of his real executive political authority, the Nizam continued to be a key figure in Hyderabad's social and economic circles. His contributions to education, healthcare, and infrastructure development were notable, and his cooperation with the Indian government helped in stabilizing the transition process. Despite this, his influence gradually diminished, as the newly established democratic institutions and governance structures took precedence in shaping Hyderabad's future.

The final phase of Hyderabad's political evolution in this period was its integration into Andhra Pradesh in 1956**.** The States Reorganization Act played a crucial role in redefining the boundaries of Indian states based on linguistic and administrative considerations. Hyderabad, with its rich history and economic significance, was chosen as the capital of Andhra Pradesh. This decision was met with both support and resistance, as different communities had varied perspectives on the merger. The selection of Hyderabad as the capital facilitated the economic and political consolidation of Andhra Pradesh, leading to rapid development in governance, infrastructure, and educational institutions. The city emerged as a crucial urban center, contributing to regional growth and playing a pivotal role in the state's administration.

The year 1956 marked a transformative phase for the independent state of Hyderabad, as it transitioned from a strategic and powerful princely state to the capital of Andhra Pradesh. While the reorganization process faced initial resistance and socio-political complexities, Hyderabad ultimately emerged as a dynamic and influential capital city. Its historical legacy, strategic location, and economic potential allowed it to flourish as a centre of governance, education, and industry, cementing its role as a vital economic and political powerhouse in the days to come in the history of Southern India.

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- Telegram to N. Gopala swami Ayyangar, London, 22 October 1948. File No. 35-12/48-Pak.II, M.E.A., N.A.I. Hyderabad House in New Delhi was designed and built by Edwin Lutyens and Abdulla Peer Mohammad in 1931 for the Nizam of Hyderabad. At present it is an official guesthouse of the Government of India, pp -95
- Cable to Liaquat Ali Khan, New Delhi, 11 November 1948. File No. 35-6/48-Pak.II, M.E.A., N.A.I. Pakistan High Commissioner visit to Hyderabad, pp 101-102
- Correspondence Nehru to V.P. Menon – 15th December 1948. While the official State Congress was represented by its President, Swami Ramananda Tirtha, a parallel group led by Janardan Rao Desai included dissidents expelled from the District Congress Committees and All Hyderabad Congress Committee, pp 117-118.

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- Address to workers of the State Congress, 24th December 1948. From *The Times of India*, 25 December 1948, pp -267.
- Telegram to Gen. J.N. Choudhury, Bangalore, 26th December 1948, J.N. Collection. Visit to Osmania university, pp -274.

- Correspondence Nehru to Nizam, 29th December 1948, pp -277.
- Correspondence Nehru to Rajendra Prasad, 9th January, 1949, pp -279.
- Note to Principal Private Secretary, 30 December 1948. J.N. Collection. Muslim Security in Hyderabad, pp – 278.
- Correspondence Nehru to Rajendra Prasad, dated 2nd February 1949 in response to letter of Rajendra Prasad dated 31st January 1949. K. Tatachari, lawyer and social worker of Secunderabad; suffered detention in 1948 during the Nizam's regime. Factionalism in Hyderabad State Congress, pp- 280.

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- Note to Ministry of States, 8 April 1949. J.N. Collection. Observations by Jawahar Lal Nehru on Minutes of Meeting in the Ministry of States held on 22nd and 23rd March 1949 relating to implementation of reforms in Jagirdari System, pp 340-341.

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- Cable Nehru to V.K. Krishna Menon, New Delhi, 21 June 1949. J.N. Collection. Ministry of States, pp 279.
- In June 1949, the *Daily Worker* published items alleging arrests, shootings and police firings in Hyderabad and Bengal *jails*. There was also a feature article on Hyderabad by Shafar Attar Ali, the *Daily Worker*'s London correspondent
- Dealing with the Communists, the Special Tribunal in Nalgonda had, on 11 May 1949, sentenced to death eight persons on charges of murder and other offences.
- According to J.N. Chaudhuri, the Military Governor of Hyderabad, in Nalgonda district, there were 40 murders in September, 67 in October, 40 in November, 16 in December 1948, 12 in January, 10 in March, 7 in April and 11 in May 1949. The figures of Warangal also showed a similar trend.
- After the Military Governor had taken over the administration of Hyderabad, it was announced in February 1949 that *Sarf-e-Khas* or the Nizam's personal estate, comprising 15,000 Jagirs, that is, 6,500 villages covering one-third area of the State, was merged with the democratically governed parts of Hyderabad.

https://nehruarchive.in/selectedworks/volume-14-part-1-series-2

- Interview with the press at Meenambakkam airport, Madras, on way to Colombo to attend the Commonwealth Foreign Ministers' Conference, 8 January 1950. From *The Hindustan Times*, 9 January 1950, pp- 315-317.
- The movement for an Andhra Province had started in 1913 and had received fresh impetus after the attainment of independence by India. On 16 November 1949 the Congress Working Committee decided to recommend to the Government of India the creation of a separate Andhra Province, excluding Madras city, in accordance with the recommendations of the J.V.P. Committee. Andhra became India's first linguistic province based on the Telugu-speaking people in 10 districts and three *talukas* of the Bellary district—all belonging to Madras Province—having approximately an area of 67,000 square miles and a population of about 20,000,000.

https://nehruarchive.in/selectedworks/volume-25-series-2

- Note to K.D. Malaviya, 8 May 1954. Copy to the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research. File No. 17(129)/56-PMS, pp 121-122.
- Central Laboratory for Scientific and Industrial Research at Uppal (near Hyderabad) was a regional research laboratory for south India working under a coordinated plan in collaboration with the national laboratories, with main emphasis on developmental and pilot project research.
- Husain Zaheer, the Director, had requested for financial assistance for development of the laboratories and wanted to bring them under the general control of the CSIR.

https://nehruarchive.in/selectedworks/volume-16-part-2-series-2

- General Elections - Election manifesto, prepared by Nehru and presented at the session of the A.I.C.C, Bangalore, 13 July 1951 and adopted on 14 July. The manifesto was again moved and adopted at the A.I.C.C. meeting at New Delhi on 16 October 1951. File No. G-63 B/ 1951, A.I.C.C. Papers, N.M.M.L. It was later published in newspapers, pp 3-13.

- Correspondence Nehru to Presidents Pradesh Congress Committee on selection of candidates, 19th September 1951. Misc. File/1951, A.I.C.C Papers, N.M.M.L. pp 33-37.
- Separate electorates came into existence under the Minto-Morley Reforms of 1909. They were abolished by the Constitution of 1950.

https://nehruarchive.in/selectedworks/volume-31-series-2

- Nehru - Address to the Congress Parliamentary Party, New Delhi, 22 November 1955. Tape M-7/ C, NMML. Extracts, pp- 153-156.
- The States Reorganization Commission, in the Report submitted on 30 September 1955, proposed that (i) there should be sixteen states and three centrally-administered territories: (ii) UP, Orissa, and Jammu and Kashmir should retain their present boundaries: (iii) Andhra. Assam, Bihar, West Bengal and Rajasthan should be subject to minor boundary changes: (iv) Bombay, Madhya Pradesh, Madras, Punjab, and Hyderabad should undergo more extensive changes: (v) three new States of Karnataka, Kerala and Vidarbha should be formed; (vi) Madhya Bharat, Mysore, Pepsu, Saurashtra, Travancore-Cochin, Vindhya Pradesh, Ajmer, Bhopal, Coorg. Himachal Pradesh, Kutch, and Tripura should be merged with the reorganized states: and (vii) Delhi, Manipur and Andaman & Nicobar Islands should become centrally-administered territories.
- The Commission had suggested: (i) The Central Government should acquire power to enforce the right of linguistic minorities to impart instruction in their mother tongue at the primary school stage subject to a sufficient number of students being available: (ii) The Government of India should adopt a clear code to govern the use of different languages at different levels of stale administration and take steps, under Article 347, to ensure that the code was followed: (iii) The Government of India should undertake legislation under Article 16(3) to simplify and liberalise the requirements of domicile tests in states for the minorities: (iv) In public service examinations, a candidate should have the option to elect as the medium the language of a minority constituting about 15 to 20 per cent or more of the population of the state: (v) Public Service Commissions should be constituted to serve more than one state and

appointments to them should be made by the President: and (vi) The services of the Governors should be utilized for enforcing the safeguards for linguistic minorities.

- The CWC had adopted resolutions in August 1949 and May 1953 recommending that each language group should have education in its mother tongue at the primary school stage. As basic education became the accepted pattern, the system of elementary education was being brought in line with it. An Assessment Committee was appointed by the Ministry of Education in 1955 to survey the existing situation regarding basic education in various states and to suggest improvements.

https://nehruarchive.in/selectedworks/volume-35-series-2

- Correspondence Nehru to B. Gopal Reddi 29th October 1956, congratulating on formation of Andhra Pradesh government, pp 213.
- 21 October 1956, 147 legislators of Andhra State and 49 of Telangana region unanimously elected N. Sanjiva Reddy as leader of the Congress Legislature Party of the newly formed State of Andhra Pradesh. Shriman Narayan, one of the General Secretaries of AICC, conducted the election.
- After the election, Gopala Reddi appealed to the members of the Party to set aside their rivalries and work unitedly for the prosperity of Andhra Pradesh. He also asked them to support Sanjiva Reddy in his efforts to establish a stable administration in the State.
- B. Gopala Reddi was the Chief Minister of Andhra State from March 1955 to October 1956.
- N. Sanjiva Reddy formed his new Ministry of Andhra Pradesh on 1 November. B. Gopala Reddi joined as the Minister for Home Affairs, and Courts and Prisons.

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- Digitized private papers of Sardar Vallabh bhai Patel, Hyderabad 1948, File/Identifier no.-PP_ 00000006649.
- Digitized private papers of M.R. Jayakar,1935 Hyderabad papers Correspondence matters relating to education reforms. Position of non- Urdu speaking populace in education statistics from 1881-1931. File/Identifier no.-PP_ 000000010122.
- Digitized private papers of Sardar Vallabh bhai Patel, Hyderabad 1948, File/Identifier no.-PP_ 00000006028.
- Digitized private papers of Sardar Vallabh bhai Patel, Hyderabad 1950-51File-6/x. Identifier no.-PP_ 00000005813. Law and order in Hyderabad.
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- Note to V. Shankar Esquire ICS Personal Secy to Sardar Patel. Home Department special- Bombay 6th November 1947 DO.NO-SD.719-II/14265. Deputy IGP, Bombay Province, Activities in Hyderabad.
- Digitized private papers of Sardar Vallabh bhai Patel, Hyderabad Kashmir-14 File no. 7-L Identifier no.-PP_ 00000005123.
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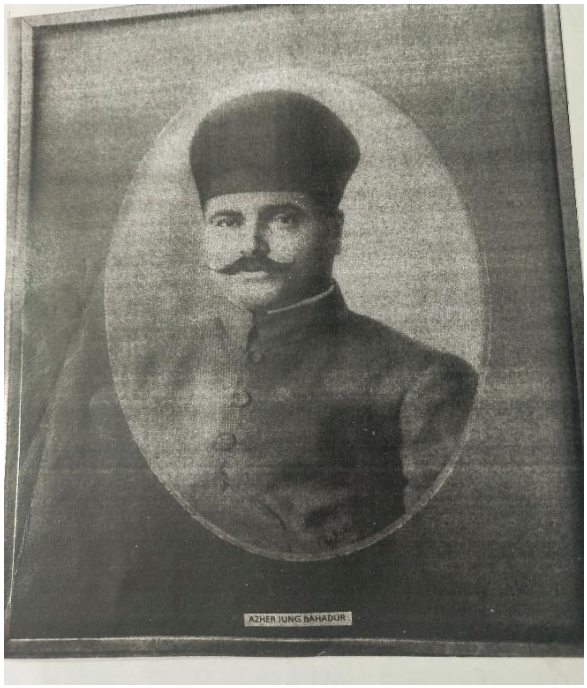
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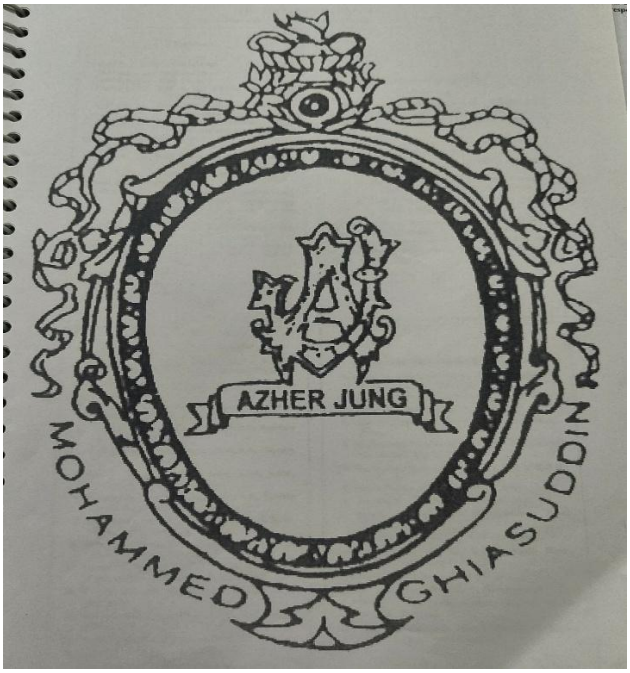
Personal interviews of eminent scholars on Hyderabad History.

Interviews with descendants of old aristocratic families who were part of Nizam Administration in the run up to Operation Polo.

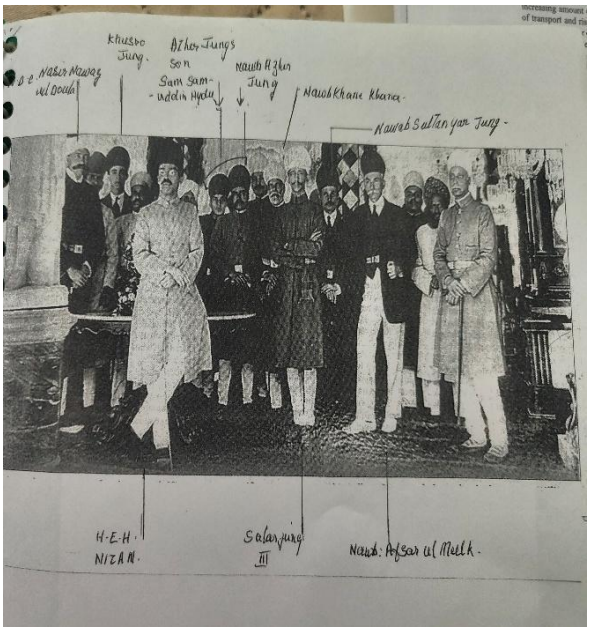
APPENDIX- A



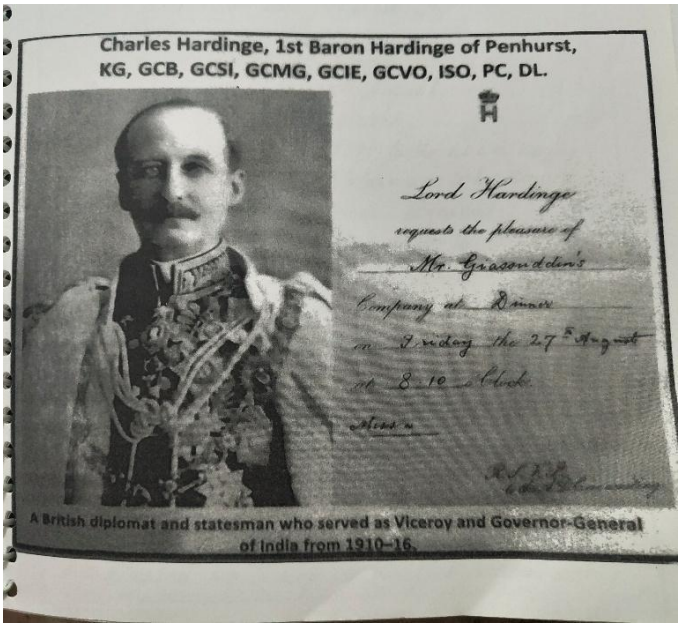
Nawab Azher Jung Bahadur



Family Crest

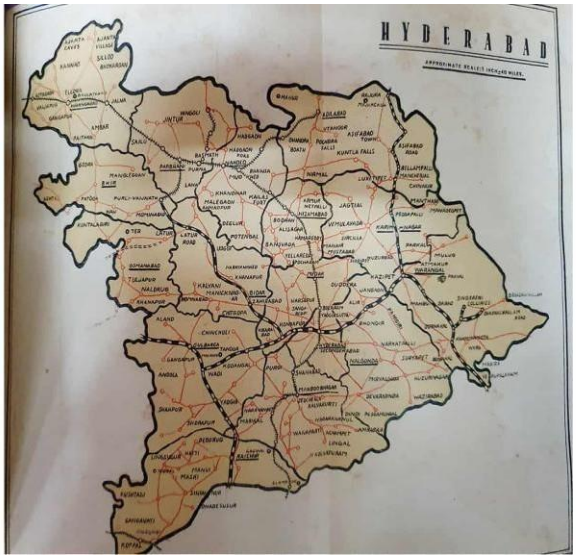


In August presence of the Nizam



Invitation for State dinner of Lord Hardinge

APPENDIX- B



Hyderabad State – 1948



State Trifurcation- 1956



Andhra Pradesh -1956



Telangana-2014

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