

Historical Forts in Pakistan

Shaikh Khurshid Hasan



**National Institute of Historical & Cultural Research
Centre of Excellence, Quaid-i-Azam University
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**DEDICATED TO THE LOVING MEMORY OF MY UNCLE
SHAIKH ABDUL GHANI (SHAHEED)
FOR HIS CONSTANT CARE AND
WELFARE IN MY CHILDHOOD**

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FOREWORD

Forts, once, preserved the kingdoms and nowadays the knowledge about these forts can play a decisive role in guarding the frontiers of the history of Pakistan. As a matter of fact, the study of forts is very significant in historical research process. Hence, to understand the past of Pakistan, historical forts are unavoidable sources of research. But there exists paucity of integrated information regarding the forts built on the soil of Pakistan in different ages. Some of these forts are still existing in good condition and the rest are either ruined or existing in a very precarious condition. There is no denying of the fact that these historical buildings should be maintained well, to preserve the remnants of our history. At the same time there is dire necessity of recording the information as well as knowledge about these forts which are essential parts of our history.

In this direction, Shaikh Khurshid Hasan's present effort is undoubtedly praiseworthy. His book is the product of his many years' efforts comprising exodus material and photographs collection in the far flung areas of Pakistan. Nevertheless, his prolonged and careful study and research efforts has resulted into a presentable work which shall be useful for the students, teachers and scholars of the relevant field. It is also hoped that the book shall pave the ways for further research as well as knowledge seeking activities regarding the historical forts in Pakistan.

My comments shall remain incomplete unless I thank all the persons involved in the publication process. My thanks are especially for M/s Syed Umar Hayat, Abdul Rashid, Muhammad Munir Khawar, Muhammad Saleem and other staff of the Institute.

Islamabad
7 October 2005

Prof. Dr. Riaz Ahmad
T.I.

PREFACE

The history of evolution of military architecture in Pakistan can be traced back to ancient times. Its development in all the subsequent periods is linked with the advancement of military crafts. The history of forts and fortifications in Pakistan can be divided into four periods, namely, Pre-Historic, Hindu-Buddhist, Muslim and Post-Muslim.

In pre-historic times, the site of Kotdiji, District Khairpur (Sindh), which is a forerunner of Indus Civilization, represents in all probability, the earliest fortified town of the Indo-Pak sub-continent. Almost all the sites of Indus Civilization, especially Harappa and Mohenjodaro, were fortified. If we go through the military campaigns of Alexander in the areas now constituting Pakistan, it will be observed that, he had to face a stiff resistance at each and every place from the local rulers. The ancient cities like Massaga, Bazira, Ora, Burrarian, Mallois, Sindimana etc. were well defended, and it was after great struggle that the Greek conqueror was able to annex them.

In the Hindu-Buddhist period, the cities were adequately protected. To name a few, mention may be made of such cities as Sirkap and Sirsukh both near Taxila, Sahri Bahlol in District Mardan, Mian Ali Faqiran (representing the ancient city of Taki or Tase-Kia), Uchh, Sialkot, Swistan etc. The Hindu Shahi rulers had built a chain of forts in the present day N.W.F.P. and Punjab. In *Chachnama*, one can find the names of several pre-Muslim forts like Deybul, Brahmanabad, Nirun Kot, Baghror, Aror, Dahleelah, Multan etc. In the early Muslim period, a series of forts, such as, Mansura, Mahfooza, Bayda etc. were constructed by the Arab rulers in Sindh.

In the Ghaznavid period, some forts like the one at Giri, near Taxila, were built. In the Sultanate period, mention may be made of the forts of Dipalpur and Pharwala in Punjab and Bakhar, Kalan Kot and Nind Kot in Sindh. In Mughal period, forts at strategic places were constructed throughout the empire. The important surviving forts include Lahore Fort, Attock Fort, Sheikhupura Fort etc. To this may be added the gigantic Rohtas Fort built by Sher Shah Suri.

In the post-Mughal period, the local ruling dynasties, like Kalhoras and Talpurs in Sindh, built a number of forts, the most important among them being Runne Kot in Dadu District. In the former State of Bahawalpur, the Abbasi rulers constructed a series of forts in Cholistan desert. The well-known forts are those of Marot, Islamgarh and Derawar. The Thal desert in Punjab is dotted with innumerable forts in the Districts of Bhakkar, Khushab, Leiah and Muzaffargarh. These were built by the Baluch tribes, who ruled over this region during 18th-19th centuries.

In the Northern Areas of Pakistan, because of the unending intra and inter-state conflicts, a number of forts were built. The important forts include Kharpocha at

Skardu, Baltit and Altit (Gilgat) and Chitral. In Balochistan, the local rulers constructed a number of forts. Worth-mentioning are Kharan Fort, Jalwar Fort, Nauroz Fort etc. There is also a fort at Sibi dating back to pre-Mughal times, which is almost in ruins now.

The Sikhs, who seized power after the down-fall of Mughals and ruled over the territories now forming part of Punjab and N.W.F.P., constructed some forts. Worth-mentioning are the ones at Jamrud and Landi Kotal in N.W.F.P. and Satgarha in Punjab. During the colonial rule, the British government concentrated its attention mostly on keeping the turbulent tribes in tribal areas of N.W.F.P. in check. With this in view, they constructed a number of forts in these areas, namely, Alexandria in Razmak, Miran Shah in North Waziristan, Burki in Kurrum Agency etc.

The study of forts and fortresses in Pakistan has not so far been conducted in a proper context. Some monographs have appeared on certain individual forts, but they concentrate more on their graphic details. The foreign scholars, while dealing with the forts in the sub-continent have altogether omitted the forts in Pakistan, barring a casual reference about Lahore Fort. There was, thus, a great need for bringing out a publication on historical forts and fortresses in Pakistan. To embark upon such an undertaking was, however, quite challenging. The historical forts and fortresses are spread-out throughout the length and breadth of the country. Some of them are located at such places, which are not easily accessible. The study and proper documentation of such a vast architectural heritage is not possible unless the requisite facilities are available. Being an old associate of the Federal Department of Archaeology, I was fortunate enough to visit and study most of the principal forts and fortresses in the country. I, therefore, made-up my mind to pen down the results of my studies in the form of a book. In spite of my failing health, I was able to re-visit some of the forts, in order to refresh my memory and also to update the earlier notes. The compilation of the book was possible by the grace of Allah and with due encouragement received from Prof. Dr. A. H. Dani, Prof. Sharif al Mujahid and Dr. Ansar Zahid Khan.

The book is composed of the following Chapters:

Chapter-I	Evolution of Military Craft and Tools of War.
Chapter-II	Military Architecture; Forts and Fortifications.
Chapter-III	History of Fortifications in Pakistan.
Chapter-IV	Historical Forts in Punjab.
Chapter-V	Historical Forts in Sindh.
Chapter-VI	Historical Forts in N.W.F.P.
Chapter-VII	Historical Forts in Balochistan.
Chapter-VIII	Historical Forts in former State of Bahawalpur.
Chapter-IX	Historical Forts in Northern Areas of Pakistan.

At the end, a Glossary, Bibliography and the Index are given. Besides, the book contains a handsome number of colour photographs. The plans of sixteen selected forts have also been provided.

It may be relevant to mention that the evolution and subsequent development of military architecture, as stated above, is greatly linked with the advancement of Military Craft and Tools of War. The details of various types of weapons used in the warfare and the composition of combatant forces, right from Alexander's invasion down to the Mughal period, have been given in Chapter-I. How the advancement of Military Craft and Tools of War had a bearing upon the construction of Forts and Fortresses, with particular reference to Pakistan, has been dealt with in Chapter-II. The history of Fortifications in Pakistan has been given in Chapter-III, based on the contemporary sources, survey reports, District Gazetteers etc. In doing so, an effort has been made to bring into fore almost all the Forts and Fortresses right from the pre-historic times to the Colonial rule. The detailed account of the important historical Forts and Fortresses, located in various Provinces/Regions of Pakistan has, however, been given in Chapters-IV to IX. Every endeavour has been made to cover all the aspects of military architecture, but the need for further improvement cannot be denied.

During the pursuit of my studies, a number of persons assisted me, foremost among whom is Mr. Muhammad Hafiz, Assistant Director, Federal Department of Archaeology, Karachi. He not only managed to provide reference books from the Central Archaeological Library, but also the photographs of certain forts. Mr. Salim-ul-Haq (Lahore); Dr. S. M. Ashfaq (Quetta); Dr. Fazal Dad Kakar, Mr. Tahir Saeed (Karachi) and Prof. Farid Khan (Peshawar) also helped me in the procurement of some photographs. Prof. Ghulam Mohammad Lakho (Hyderabad) provided some useful information about the forts in Sindh. I am most grateful to them for their assistance. My sons, Shaikh Parvaiz Akhtar, Javaid Akhtar Shaikh and Tanveer Akhtar Shaikh were helpful in various ways. My nephew, Mansoor Akhtar Shaikh provided me useful information, through internet, on military architecture. Mr. Nadeem Ahmed Siddique put in quite a hard labour in typing the manuscript. May Allah bless them all.

My profound thanks are due to Mr. S. Jafar Wafa, retired Federal Secretary, who despite ill-health, found time to go through the manuscript very minutely and made it much more readable. I am also beholden to Dr. Riaz Ahmad, Director, National Institute of Historical and Cultural Research, Islamabad, who was the moving spirit behind the printing of this book, under the aegis of his Institute. The publication of the book by such a prestigious Institute is, undoubtedly, a recognition of my humble contribution.

Karachi, 20th February, 2003

(Shaikh Khurshid Hasan)

CHAPTER I

EVOLUTION OF MILITARY CRAFT AND TOOLS OF WAR

The evolution of military craft in Pakistan can be traced from remote antiquity right from pre and proto-history and down to the British occupation of the Indo-Pak sub-continent. Various kinds of weapons were used in the warfare throughout the ages. Until the advent of Bronze Age; weapons were made of chert blades, which included spear heads, blades, knives, hand axes etc. Even animal bones were also used for the purpose.

During the Bronze Age, the main material used was copper and also bronze, though weapons made of chert blades also remained in use. Quite a large variety of arms and tools of war were used by the Indus people. The collection of arms recovered from Mohenjodaro and Harappa included amongst others, hand axes, swords, arrow heads, daggers, mass heads, knives, spear heads, lance heads etc. The blade of one of the biggest axes found at Mohenjodaro is 11 inches long and carries a weight of 3 lbs and 3 ounces. It is again from Mohenjodaro that one can get an earliest evidence of a sword. There are two swords, both made of copper, which are double edged. One is of short length while the other is somewhat large. The blades of spear head are very thin. The knives are generally broad, leaf shaped, double edged

and sufficiently long. Lance heads are similar to spear heads, but small in size. These are double edged, pointed shape and made of copper. (Mackey; 1938, 460-467). Defensive weapons like shields and armour have not been recovered in the course of excavations at these ancient sites so far.

One can also have an idea of the type of arms used in the hoary ancient past by having a look at the Persepolis Reliefs (Iran). It may be mentioned that Gandhara and Sindhu were a part of the Achaemenian Empire. The reliefs at Persepolis give us the vivid glimpse of the Sindhies and Gandharians, in addition to Sattgydians and Macians who were their contemporaries in the North West and west, respectively. All of them carried broad swords, in addition to other weapons. The Gandharians carried spears and shields, while the Sindhies had double edged axes. The relief depicts two Sindhies in a procession carrying upheld sticks the way they do today. A variety of weapons are found on the carved stones of Chaukhandi tombs in Sindh and Balochistan. (Hasan; 1996: 137-142). Herodotus drawing deep on the Persian sources on the Indus Valley, tells us more. According to him, Sindhies and Gandharians were good archers. The Greek historians accompanying

Alexander said that the Sindhies carried two javelins and a small shield and that their bows were as tall as the archers themselves and, to shoot them, they rested them on the ground and tread on them with their left foot pulling the bowstring a long way back. Their arrows were about four feet long and no shield or breast plate, however, robust, could keep them off. All their swords were broad at least four and a half feet long, which they wielded with both hands. Their arrows were iron tipped. (Sami, Ali; 1966, 39, 61 and 81; Chattopadhyaya, 1974, 24; Herodotus, 1964: 467).

The Aryans appeared on the scene as a potent political power in the sub-continent, somewhere in the middle of the second millennium B.C. or in the centuries immediately following it. They were in possession of far superior weapons as compared to the natives. Inter-tribal wars were as frequent as were the wars between Aryans and non-Aryans. The chief weapons used in war were bows and arrows though swords, spears and battle axes were also used. The army consisted of foot soldiers and charioteers. Beyond this description, no precise details are available about the warfare of the Aryans. However, the description of some weapons used in warfare during the Epic period is available in Mahabharata and Purans. An idea about the army of Raja Porus, the descendant of the Vedic Aryans, that confronted Alexander's army (326 B.C) can be had from the accounts of the Greek historians, which show that the army of Raja Porus was composed of:-

i). Chariot; was the proudest arm of the Indian forces. Each chariot was drawn by four horses and carried six men namely a shield bearer and an archer on each side and two drivers armed with javelins. When the chariot could not move and the fighting was at close

quarters, the drivers dropped the reins and hurled dart after dart against the enemy. (Sarkar; 1960: 12, based on Q. Curtius).

ii). Infantry; The Indian infantry was variously armed, most of them with bows and some with javelins, but many carried swords and shields only. Megathenes describes them thus: "The Indian infantry have a bow equal in length to the man who carries it. Placing this down to the ground and stepping against it with the left foot, they discharge the arrow, drawing the string far back. Their arrows are a little less than three cubits long and nothing can withstand one shot by an Indian archer, neither shield nor breast plate. Others have javelins instead of arrows. All wear a broad sword not less than three cubits in length" (Cambridge Ancient History; Vol. IV: 340).

iii). Cavalry; The cavalry mounted on short country born ponies was the weakest arm of Porus army. The Indian cavalymen carried two darts like what the Greeks called saunia and a shield smaller than that of the infantry. (M'Crindle; 1893: 419).

iv). Elephants; Each elephant carried three fighters and only one driver. (Sarkar; 1960: 14 based on Tarn). The army of Raja Porus consisted of 50,000 foot, 3000 horse 1000 chariots and 130 elephants (Majumdar; 1960:166). On the other hand, the elements of Alexander's army which was composed of 20,000 infantry & 2000 cavalry, were:-

i). Companions; The companions of the Sovereign or personal guards of the King were the most esteemed arm of the Macedonian army. It consisted of choice cavalry and the sons of the nobility were enlisted in it. This corps enjoyed the first place in the army like the household cavalry of France and the Guards of England. At the beginning of the

campaign this body consisted of 1500 men, but in the course of fighting their number was increased perhaps to 5000 rider and horse were cased in the armour. (M'Crindle; 1893, 57).

ii). Hypaspists: It was a light infantry. It was more rapid in its movements. Their spears were shorter, sword longer and armour lighter than those of the phalanx.

iii). Hoplites: It was a heavy infantry and reckoned as the backbone of the forces. Their arms included sword, spear and an oval shaped shield, which covered the whole body. They were trained, well equipped, and densely massed for fight.

iv). Phalanx: This was the most notable element in the army. The soldiers wore full defensive armour namely a helmet, breast plate and two curved long plates (greaves) protecting the thighs. Their arms wore a long sword (4 feet) a long shield and distinctive spear called sarissa, which was 24 feet long.

v). Archers: The army had bodies of mounted archers and javelin men. They were light armed and very useful for skirmishing and harassing the enemy ranks from a distance.

vi). Artillery: Gunpowder was then unknown, but Alexander's army had manually operated engines called Ballistas and Catapults, which threw stones and darts upto a distance of 300 yards and often proved very effective in sieges. (ii to v: Cambridge Ancient History; VI:205 and Ency. Britannica, 11th ed; II: 363).

It will thus be observed that there was no comparison between Alexander's army and the native forces. It was just like the men of Bamboo Age fighting the men of Steel Age.

An idea about the military organization of the Maurya dynasty (322-185 B.C.) can be had from Megathenes's account of its army. It consisted of six divisions. One division was associated with the admiral of the fleet, another with the Superintendent of the bullock-teams used for transporting military engines, food for the soldiers, provender for the cattles and other military requisites. The third division had the charge of the infantry, the fourth of the horses, the fifth of the war chariots and the sixth of the elephants that were without bridles. The chariots were drawn on the march by oxen, but the horses were led along by a halter, that their legs may not be galled and inflamed, nor their spirits damped by drawing chariots. In addition to the charioteer, two men at arms used to sit beside him in the chariot. The elephants carried four men-three arrow shooters and the driver. (M'Crindle; 1901:54-55). The horsemen were armed with two lances and a buckler while the foot soldiers had broad swords, javelins and bows and arrows. (Mukherjee;nd.:67). The military might of the Mauryans can be gauged from the fact that the army of Chandragupta, according to Plutarch, consisted of 600,000 men (Majumdar;1960:198). The army of King of Kalinga, which was completely wiped out by the forces deployed by Asoka in a bloody war, consisted of 60,000 foot soldiers, 1000 horsemen and 700 elephants. (Raychaudhuri; 1953: 305). The description of some of the weapons contained in Kautaliya's Arthasastra (Jilani; 1988: 266-268) is given below:-

i). Thunderbolt: It was a weapon which gave a fatal blow to the adversary by producing fearful sound. It was manually operated missile which furlled over the enemies rank. The thunderbolt was considered to be the most destructive weapon being attributed to goddess Indra. In one of the Gandhara sculptures, Indra

is shown holding a thunderbolt. (Zawalf; 1979: Fig.19).

ii). Trident or Trisula: This weapon is attributed to god Shiva. It was a very simple weapon with a long staff, sometimes equal to the height of the individual, with three pronged blades or spikes. In most of the cases, the central blade or spike was kept a bit longer than the other two. The blades or spikes were either straight and parallel to each other or were wavy. In one of the coins of King Vima Kadphises of the Kushan dynasty which is on display in Swat Museum, Shiva is shown holding a trident in his left hand. (Makin Khan; 1997: 63). Hariti, spouse of Panchika, depicted in a Gandhara sculpture is holding a trident in one of her hands. (Ingholt; 1957: 146, Plate 341).

iii). Discus: This weapon was attributed to Lord Vishna. It was a circular disc forming a sharp edged circle made-up of iron. Discus was hurled upon the enemy from a distance.

iv). Maces: The maces were known as musala, yasti and gada. It was like a tapering heavy rod having an over sized head at the bottom. In the earliest days, the maces were made of stones having a hole in the centre for the shaft, but in the later period, wooden, copper and iron maces were used. The bottom head of a mace was either spiked or round.

Some of the Ghandhara sculptures depict certain weapons like spears and shields. (Marshall; 1973: 81, Plate 41, Fig.64). In one of the sculptures, a soldier has been shown with a lance (Exhibition of Ghandhara Art of Pakistan; 1984: 81, Plate IV-12). Some sculptures contain bow in action (Ackermann; 1975: 61, Plate X-a). In one sculpture, the Great Departure, evil Mara is shown holding a bow in hand (Ingholt; 1957: 59, Plate 40). The

coins also depict a variety of weapons. In one of the coins, King Vasudeva is shown holding a sword in his hand (Makin Khan; 1997:63-64). Some of the weapons like swords, arrows, javelins, chariots etc. are found depicted in the Ajanta caves (Mitra; 1983: 33, 58, 59, 62, 63 & 67). Several Stupas and Temples also depict carvings of various items of weaponry.

With the advent of Islam in the sub-continent, consequent upon the conquest of Sindh by the Arab General Muhammad Bin Qasim in 712 A.D., the art of warfare had under gone a sea change and a complete transformation. The Arab army was composed of (i) Infantry armed with lances, spears, swords and shields (ii) Archers equipped with swords, shields as well as bows and arrows and (iii) Cavalry wearing helmets and breast-plates and armed with long lances and battle axes. Each corps had a body of naphtha-firemen, who were given fire proof suits. Engineers incharge of siege machinary including catapults, mangonels and battering rams accompanied the army. (Amir Ali; 1988: 430-433).

Al Baladhuri has mentioned that in the siege of Deybul in Sindh, *manjaniq* (Catapult) known as "al-Arus" was used. It was so big and powerful that it required 500 men to operate it. In addition to *manjaniq*, as is reported by Ibnul Athir, a smaller machine was also used for hurling stones. It was called '*arradah*'. It could be loaded on a barge or boat. This machine was used when the big one could not be brought near the wall by filling up the moat. (Husani;1952:161-162).

After the down fall of the Arab rule, the Ghaznavids and Ghorids held sway over a vast area of present day Pakistan. The Ghaznavids established their kingdom of Lahore, which lasted from 977 to 1186 A.D. Thereafter, the Ghorids consolidated their power in the sub-

continent in three stages. In the first stage (1174-1186 A.D), they extended their authority into the sub-continent and annexed the Ghaznavid kingdom of Lahore. In the second stage (1187-1192), the Ghorid dominions were extended further to the south and the east of India by incorporation of the Chohan kingdoms of Ajmer and Delhi. During the third stage (1193-1205A.D.) the Sultan's trusted lieutenants, acting independently extended their sway further and laid the foundations of the Indo-Muslim Sultanate of Delhi.

The military formation of these dynasties was almost the same as of the Arabs. However, the arms and horses of the invaders from the north gave them indisputable military superiority over the defending Indians. According to Cambridge Medieval History (Vol.I:331) their horses surpassed all other breeds in speed, endurance, intelligence and faithfulness. The horses, as hardy as their riders lived on the wild roots and leaves and yet could cover 650 miles in waterless desert in five days. Their composite bow (of two pieces joined together by a metal band) was the most dreaded weapon of antiquity. (Cambridge Ancient History, Vol.XII:216). According to a manuscript of early 14th century A.D., Mahmud of Ghazna ransacked a fortress with a massive catapult. His forces also included elephants (Lewis, Bernard;1994: 216). While subduing the Jats in Sindh, Mahmud of Ghazna employed a fleet of 1400 boats each armed with an iron spike projecting from the prow and similar spikes projecting from the gunwale on either side. Each of the boats carried a crew of twenty men armed with bows and arrows and hand grenades of naphtha. With the help of this well armed fleet, the Sultan succeeded in destroying more than 4000 boats belonging to the Jats, who were defeated so completely that the invaders

carried off their women and children as slaves to their capital city, Ghaznah. (Nazim based on Farukhi; 1931:122).

In the Sultanate period, the army consisted mainly of cavalry, elephant corps and infantry. The cavalry was, however, the main source of strength. According to Barni (Tarikh-e-Firuz Shahi, 1862:262) Jalauddin Khilji maintained 70,000 horses. Mohammad Tughlaq had 900,000 horsemen, some of them being stationed near the capital and the rest in the provinces. (Masalik tr. Spices Otto; n.d.:26). Firuz Tughlaq maintained 80,000 to 90,000 well trained horses (Afif; 1891: 340). The infantry consisted of a large number of slaves, some of whom served as royal body-guards. The important weapons used in the field were arrows, bows, daggers, swords, javelins etc. The soldiers used coat of mail sleeves composed of steel links and helmets. Mighafar, a network of steel was also worn under the cap or hat as a protection for the face. (Irvine; 1903:65-67).

Elephants were very effective section of the army. Their size and strength struck the same appalling dismay and fear into the hearts of the enemy soldiers as did the first appearance of the tanks in the First World War. The Sultans of Delhi valued elephants highly. Sultan Balban considered a single elephant to be as effective as five hundred horsemen. (Barni; 1974: 11). Some of the elephants carried on their backs small citadels full of soldiers. Masalik-ul-Absar (Spices, Otto; n.d., 28&48) gives a realistic picture in the following words:

'They build wooden castles on the elephant's back which will hold three or four men armed with bows, arrows, arquebuses and other weapons. From these castles, they fight against their enemies. These elephants were clad in plates of steel and large scythes were attached to their trunks and tusks'.

Boats were also an essential adjunct of the army. During the reign of Mohammad Tughlaq, the Sultan had to bring boats from the fiefs of Multan, Uchh, Dipalpur, Swistan etc. for crossing the river Indus. (Prasad; Vol.I, 1936: 249). In the reign of Firuz Tughlaq, the boats played a similar role in the army. On the occasion of his first expedition to Thatta, the Sultan ordered the rulers of Bakhar and Swistan for the collection of 5000 boats which enabled the Imperial army to cross the river Indus and step into the lands of Thatta. (Afif; 1891: 198-199).

An idea of the composition of Firuz Tughlaq's army can be had from the fact that, in his Sindh expedition, it consisted of 90,000 cavalry and 480 elephants. Jam Babaniya, the then ruler of Sindh opposed the Imperial army with 20,000 cavalry and 4 lacs infantry (Afif; 1891: 98 & 202).

Qureshi, drawing upon *Tarikh-e-Alai*, *Khazain-ul-Futuh* and *Adab-ul-Muluk wa Kifayat-ul-Mamluk*, has mentioned about the use of fire arms, siege engines and mines (Qureshi; 1958: 144-147), detailed as under:

i). Fire Arms: In addition to the use of naphtha and Greek fire, incendiary arrows and javelins, as well as pots of combustibles were hurled against the enemy. The Delhi army used generades, fire-works and rockets against Timur. The best defence fire was provided by vinegar.

ii). Siege Engines: The Siege Engines were used for battering the walls of the forts. These were made in different forms. They could be portable or stationary, revolving or fixed. With their aid, charkhs, catapults, slings etc. could be hurled. The projectiles were also used in piercing the walls of the forts.

iii). Gorgaj: It was movable scaffolding which elevated the besiegers to the height of the walls. It was sometimes roofed to give greater protection.

iv). Sabat: It was a covered passage to protect the besiegers from missiles while engaged in making breaches in the walls or in throwing missiles in the forts.

The art of mining was also known. A mine was driven under a wall, the roof was shored up with wooden beams, then the mine was filled with combustible material and set on fire, the support being burnt, the wall subsided and a breach was made in the fort.

Babur laid the foundation of the Mughal Empire in the Indian sub-continent by defeating the forces of Ibrahim Lodhi at the battle of Panipat in 1526. Babur's forces numbered 25,000 horsemen as against Ibrahim's 100,000 men. In the battle of Qanauj, Humayun's army numbered 100,000 men. Sher Shah Suri's standing army was reported to be nearly 300,000 horsemen, in addition to 100,000 infantry. His artillery men at the capital alone numbered about 25,000. (Afif: 1890; 298). Akbar's forces, as estimated by Horn numbered 384,758 cavalry and 387,755 matchlock men and infantry. (Irvin; 1903: 61). The army under Shah Jehan was 200,000 horse and 40,000 infantry including foot musketeers, gunners, rocket-men and fire throwers. (Lahori; 1867-68,II: 751). The total armed forces of Aurangzeb, as calculated by Cartrou, comprised 300,000 cavalry and 600,000 infantry (Irvine; 1903: 61). Under Muhammad Shah, it was 200,000 horse men and 800,000 foot soldiers (Irvine; 1903: 61).

It was the first time that Babur used the fire arms in the battle of Panipat in 1526. It was

absolutely a new weapon of warfare in the sub-continent. Before we proceed further, it will be worthwhile to distinguish between fire arms and fire works. Fire arms must have the propelling power of their shot in some explosive substance, their missile must not be manually hurled or by some dart-throwing machine. Secondly, they must discharge some solid projectile to penetrate and not merely burn. Missiles that merely burn have been in use in the world's history from long before the Christian era, such were the Greek fire (a combustible substance which water cannot quench), fire-balls (ignited cotton balls steeped in oil, resin or naphtha and tied to the point of an arrow and shot into the enemy ranks) or even live coal or burning sulphur put in a pot and thrown by hand like a rugby ball. These were not fire-arms, though gun powder is used in making them. They are merely fire-works. They can start a fire, though not in every case, but cannot penetrate any obstacle. For accuracy of aim and penetration, the missile has to be a solid metal ball or stone, inserted in a long tube and its propelling power created by the explosion of gun-powder in a closed chamber behind the shot. Thus the gun originated.

The Mughal forces consisted of Infantry, Cavalry, and Artillery. There was also a corps of elephants. The weapons used were almost the same as were in vogue in the Sultanate period except that the Mughals were much advanced in the use of fire-arms. The Mughals were fond of large ordnance. The large guns were all dignified with pompous names just as elephants were, such names as Ghazi Khan (Lord Champion), Sher Dahan (Tiger Mouth), Dhumdham (The Noisy) etc. The cannons were mostly of the largest calibres, 24 and 32 pounders, mounted on the middle of a large stage raised six feet from the ground, carrying besides the cannon all the ammunition

belonging to it and the gunners themselves who managed the cannon on the stage itself. These machines were drawn by 40 or 50 yoke of white oxen of the largest size, bred in the country, and behind each cannon walked an elephant trained to assist at difficult tugs, by shoving with his forehead against the hinder part of the gun carriage(Irvine;1903:118-122).

In addition to the balls thrown by heavy guns, a large number of bombs, hand grenades and other dangerous missiles were also used. The '*ghabarah*' was a bomb or a mortar for throwing shells. The "*deg*" was a fire pot or hand grenade which the *Deg-andaz* threw when two armies were coming to close quarters. The '*huqqah*' was a kind of rocket thrown at the enemy. This rocket seems to have derived its name from the resemblance which it bore to the ordinary '*huqqah*' or hubble-bubble used for smoking tobacco. The "*ban*" was a rocket or fire-arrows. It consisted of a foot long iron tube and an inch diameter fixed to a bamboo rod ten or twelve feet long. The tube filled with combustible composition on being set fire flew like an arrow to the distance of upwards of 1000 yards, being directed by hand. Some of the rockets had a chamber and burst like a shell, others, called ground rockets, had a serpentine motion and on striking the ground rose again and bound along till their force was spent. They made a great noise and frightened the enemy. (Moor; 1794: 509).

Among a very large quantity of other implements of war the Sarkub and the Turah are worth-mentioning. The former was a wall breaker or battering ram, and the later a fort of mantelet or covered tower which was used to approach and scale the walls protected from the missiles of the defenders. (Hussaini; 1952: 167).

The siege tactics, as in vogue before, were also followed by the Mughals. These can be summed up as follows:

The besiegers kept up a constant attack giving no respite to the besieged and tried to breach the walls with the use of powerful stone throwing machines and through the use of the “*dabbabah*” which like the Trojan Horse, concealed in it the hole-makers armed with picks and drills to make holes in the walls. While these people were at work, they were protected by a barrage of arrows from the archers. Sometimes a battering ram was also employed. When unable to withstand this constant assault, the defenders of the ramparts sallied forth to attack the besieging force, the invaders defeated them and before they could hurry back to their original posts on the walls, the invaders planted their ladders and scaled the walls and ultimately took the fort by storm. Often they had to swim across the moat. Therefore, every soldier was taught to swim.

Several additional methods were used by the Mughals to force a fortified place to surrender. These included:

- i). The fort was strictly invested and the defenders starved out.
- ii). In many cases, the soldiers or officers of the besieged forts, were won over, treachery from within the walls being a frequent cause of surrendering or losing a strong fort.
- iii). High towers with branches of trees were built and guns were mounted on them as these trees commanded the fortified places. Often

ladders were used for scaling the walls and taking strongholds by storm.

iv). Elephants and battering rams were used to break open the huge wooden gates.

v). Very frequently *sabats* were used to breach the walls and then enter the fort. *Sabat*, as already mentioned in the foregoing paras, is the name for two walls made at the distance of musket shot. The said walls were carried close to the fort, under the shelter of planks and baskets held together by hides and skins. The matchlock-men and the mine diggers could then pass safely through the wide passage between those walls, right up to the foot of the fort where they could dig a mine and fill it with gunpowder. After the fort was breached, the rest of the army reached the spot by way of the “*sabat*” and enter the fort without much difficulty (Irvine; 1903: 275).

One can find in Akbarnama, some miniature paintings in which siege operations have been depicted. Having failed to take the great fort of Chittor by direct assault, Emperor Akbar decided to use mines. This event has been shown in a miniature painting. In another painting in Akbarnama, a mortar is shown being dragged to the battery at the siege of the fort of Ranthambhore. (Catalogue of Exhibition-Paintings from the Muslim Courts of India; 1976: Item No. 40 & 41).

Such advancement in the technique and equipment of besieging and assailing the forts led naturally to the introduction of appropriate protective measures while planning the construction of forts. This aspect is covered in the next Chapter.

CHAPTER II

MILITARY ARCHITECTURE; FORTS AND FORTIFICATIONS

Before the advent of modern weapons of aggression and defence, almost all the important cities had fortifications, so as to check the inroads of the enemies. The fortifications were in the form of high walls encircling the cities. There are several instances where coastal fortifications were also constructed to guard the seaports against naval invasion or to counter amphibious assault. Forts were generally built on the periphery or at strategic points along the likely routes of invasion. In the ancient times, the fortifications were first made of mud; then of sun and kiln baked bricks and finally of stone and mortar with intervening stages of small and large diaper masonry. As the human civilization progressed, the building techniques also improved. To make the fortifications quite impregnable, a number of innovations were introduced, which will be elaborated at an appropriate place in this Chapter. However, as long as weapons remained relatively primitive permanent fortifications pre-dominated. The modern aerial warfare has rendered the medieval military architecture completely archaic and ineffective. The invention of atomic weapons has totally revolutionized the outlook on defensive warfare. The ancient Forts have, therefore, become redundant. Concrete

bunkers and underground defences are now being planned, to give overhead protection. We shall now discuss the various components of a Fort, which had evolved over the years during the pre and post gun power periods.

Selection of a Site

While selecting a site for the construction of a fort, three aspects had to be kept in view. Firstly the site so chosen should be on an elevation and on commanding heights. Such a location was considered to be well suited for a surveillance of the neighboring area, without much difficulty. It was because of this advantage that the Forts were constructed at high mounds or in mountainous areas. The instance of Rohtas Fort in District Jhelum is quite relevant in this respect. The site surrounded by high mountains was also considered to be an ideal one for the construction of a fort. In such cases many a fortification problem was almost automatically solved as the difficult character of the terrain, the sudden abrupt hills and mountains defended by cliffs, afforded natural protection. There are some Forts in Pakistan which are situated in such locations like Runee Kot in Dadu District of Sindh. Its fortification walls, which follow the natural

contour of the hilly area, have solid semi-circular bastions at intervals. The fortifications run on three sides while on the southern side, the lofty peaks of the hillocks serve as a defence wall. The rivers also provide a natural barrier. The forts were, therefore, often built on the bank of rivers as this also provided an additional benefit of ensuring regular supply of water. The instance of Attock Fort can be cited in this connection, as it is located on the left bank of river Indus.

Plan of the Fort

Great care was taken in planning and designing the construction of a fort. From the strategic point of view, the plan of the fort should neither be square shaped nor should have sharp angles. It should preferably be polygonal so that the movements of the enemy should not be obscured by salient corners. The important strongholds in Pakistan like Rohtas Fort, Lahore Fort, Attock Fort etc are all on irregular plan.

Foundations

According to the Mughal traditions, the foundation of a building was laid-out on an auspicious day and hour to be fixed by the astrologers. (Abu Fazal; Vol.II: 1873: 247). According to Abu Fazal, the excavations for Agra Fort were carried through the seven strata of the earth. However, there are indications that the trenches were dug deep into water or rock level. (Lahori; Vol. I866-72:223), whereafter the foundations were laid. Lahori mentions about the use of stone and saruj in the foundations of Lahore Fort and also of Taj Mahal Agra (Lahori; Vol.I, 1866-72:223 and Vol.II:323). For a fort, a moat was excavated adjacent to and around the outer walls; special care being taken to ensure regular supply of water to the moat. (Afif; 1891: 126). Stone and plaster mortar were

used in the moat of Agra (Nizamuddin; Vol.II: 1931: 179). The reason for the use of mortar and plaster has been clarified by Afif when he says that a '*shadurwan*' was put up around a fort, so as to protect the walls from the ravages of moat water. *Shadurwan* literally means a large curtain or sheet suspended before the gate of a fort. (Qaisar; 1988:23).

Fortifications

The real defence of a fort lies in the impregnability of its fortifications. The walls were built-up of great thickness and height. These were further strengthened by massive bastions/turrets. In the forts built by the Mughals, the walls were so cunningly filled that the joints were scarcely visible. The structure from foundation to battlements, was composed of the hewn stones so joined together that even a thin object like the filament of a hair could not find a place between them. The stones were clamped together by iron rings for added strength. Molten lead was also used to fill in the crevices between the stones. (Qaisar; 1988: 21-29). The foundation of the walls was much thicker than the walls raised over it. The width of the wall was kept in such a way that two armed men could cross each other freely on the wall walk. It may be interesting to point out that the wall of II-Khanid city of Sultaniya (1305-13 A.D) was broad enough for four horsemen to ride abreast. (Jairazbhoy; 1972: 309).

In order to withstand the onslaught of artillery, some extra precautionary measures were needed in designing the fortification walls. They were lowered, thickened, slanted and rounded to resist projectiles. New fortifications, set in ditches, were buttressed to withstand heavy shots. Guns for the defence of the fort were mounted behind earthen ramparts.

To nullify the siege-craft devices evolved in the form of battering rams, scaling ladders, catapults and movable towers, the walls were made higher and thicker. In the event of the artillery being not very effective, mine laying had to be resorted to by the attacking forces. It was to ward off such a threat that the fortification walls had to be much thicker at the base. Besides, modifications in the structures were made to adapt them for the new age of fire-arms in the shape of embrasures.

Protective Walls/Curtain Walls

In some forts curtain walls were provided to serve as a second line of defence. In Kotdiji Fort (District Khairpur) there are several lines of defence. If the enemy succeeded in scaling one wall, he could easily be sandwiched in the other two, which were all battlemented. On the right and left of these wall towers were erected to enable the archers to shoot arrows on the invaders from a safe height. Every place in Kotdiji Fort seemed to be a death trap and everywhere the defence was sited in depth.

To provide additional protection, another fort or fortress was built within a fort. In Runee Kot (District Dadu), which is encircled by a battlemented fortification walls covering an area of about 20 ¼ miles, the first line of defence was provided by Miri Fort. At some distance, there is another fort, known as Shergarh Fort, which is perched on a high hill. In certain cases, a fort is partitioned by providing a fortification wall. For instance, the northern part of Rohtas Fort (District Jhelum), is separated from the rest by an interior wall, of about the same kind as those on the outside, so as to form a sort of protected citadel (Anderkot).

Draw Bridges

A deep wide ditch encircling a fort called a 'moat' was provided more often than not to further strengthen the defences. This moat necessitated the construction of Draw Bridges which were of various types, the most common among them, being of simple type that could be drawn back upon a platform in front of the gate. Some were hinged on the inner side and attached by means of chains to the outer side that could be raised up by means of pulleys until they stood vertically against the face of the gate and formed an additional barrier to the passage. In some Draw Bridges, another device was introduced. Some of the Draw Bridges were made to move on a pivot fixed at a short distance from the centre of their length. When raised, the inner portion dropped down into a pit and the outer and the largest portion rose-up to block the gateway. The counter balance of the inner portion greatly facilitated the raising operation, while the pit formed an additional obstruction. (Toy, Sidney; 1965: 200). In Pakistan, several forts were provided with moats and Draw Bridges. The Hyderabad Fort had a moat on its northern side, which was forty feet wide. It had a Draw Bridge, which led to one of the main gateways. (Burton, 1993; Vol.I: 248).

Entrance Gates

The entrance gates played an important role in the defence of a fort. The gates were of various shapes and were designed in such a way as to impress the enemy with their imposing and formidable character. According to Abul Fazal such mighty forts were built to protect the frightened inmates and instill fear in the hearts of rebellious folk and please the obedient ones. (Abu Fazal; Vol. I, 1867:170). The gates were fortified on either side by bastions/turrets which, in turn were

surmounted by machicolated parapets. The gateways were usually of great height, almost touching the point of the arch or the underside of the lintel. The underlying idea for providing great height was to facilitate the entry of the elephants with their 'Howdahs' into the fort. The door leaves were made of timber having a thickness ranging between six to nine inches. It was plated with iron and its outside was covered with line upon line of sharp and stout spikes to prevent the doors being butted into by the intoxicated elephants. It is said that the elephants were given intoxicants and made to strike their heads against the heavily spiked gates and break them open. The entrance gate of Kotdiji Fort (District Khairpur) is the surviving example of such a type of gate in Pakistan. The doors worked on heavy trunnions which fitted into stone sockets at the bottom and top, the lower socket often rising up about two feet and six inches above the level of the door sill, the lower part of the door working round it. When closed, the doors were secured by heavy timber bars which are drawn out from a socket in one jamb passed behind the door and fitted into the corresponding socket in the other jamb. Alternately iron chains were drawn across in front of the doors. Sometimes, there used to be another door also on the inner end of the passage, duly defended by guards, posted in recesses on either side. This sort of arrangement still exists in the fort containing the mausoleum of Miyan Ghulam Shah Kalhora at Hyderabad.

'Postern' which is a back door or side entrance into a fort, was provided to facilitate the exit of the soldiers. Postern was so designed that the soldiers, while retreating, remained completely obscure from the view of the striking enemy forces. A British period postern exists in Lahore Fort, which provides access to Shah Burj Gate.

An important feature which the Muslims had introduced both in the Middle East and in the sub-continent in military architecture was a right angled or crooked entrance to the fort through a gateway in the wall by means of which an enemy who had attained access to the gateway was prevented from seeing or shooting through it into the inner court. These crooked entrances were used in the round city of Baghdad, again at Saladin's citadel at Cairo and culminated in a fine example at the citadel of Aleppo (Rashid, K.A.; 1962:12). The crooked entrance was devised with sharp curves at various trap points and steep rise which obstructed at times the passage of guns and elephants of the invading army and exposed them to the firing by the defenders who took positions on the ramparts above. The Attock Fort in Pakistan has a double crooked gateway.

Barbican

Barbican is another device in the form of an outwork intended to defend the entrance to a fort. The word is derived from Arabic-Persian *Barbar Khanah* meaning "House on the wall" or *Bab-Khanah* meaning "Towered Gateway". It signifies any defence outside the main wall. *Bashurah* was used by Maqrizi as a barbican having a bent entrance (Jairazbhoy, R.A.; 1972:139). This device has been used in several forts in Pakistan. The main gate of the Fort in which the mausoleum of Miyan Ghulam Shah Kalhora at Hyderabad is located, is defended by a powerful barbican. The Shah Chand Wali gate of Rohtas Fort (District Jhelum) is also protected by a barbican. The barbican has been provided very skillfully in the Lahore Fort as well. In the Shah Burj gate, one has to turn to the left and take the steps of *Hathi Pol* for an access to the outer court of *Shish Mahal*. The enemy soldiers, even if they climbed up the stairs of

the *Hathi Pol*, could not have been able to save themselves from the arrow shots or the musketry fire of the guards posted in the niches of the western wall flanking the staircase of *Hathi Pol*. The enemy forces would have had to encounter the same difficulty if they had ventured to enter the Fort through Alamgiri gate where the entry happened to be from the right side.

The entry of the enemy forces was further stopped by providing portcullis in the gates. Portcullis is a strong heavy grating which, with the help of the vertical grooves, can be lowered to block the gateways. In case the enemy forces pushed through the entrance gate, the portcullis, if pulled down promptly, could inflict severe injuries upon the enemy, apart from blocking their entry in the first instance.

Other Defensive Devices

In order to make the defence more effective such features as bastions / turrets / towers, embrasures, battlemented parapets, string courses machicolations etc. were embodied into the fortification walls. The judicious and harmonious combination of all these features, which are essentially of defensive nature, give the fort a substantial aesthetic character, besides making it a strong military structure. Ramparts, which are broad topped defensive mounds or structures, are another significant feature of a fort. Merlons, which are placed on the top of the parapets and ramparts, in addition to serving as decorative motifs, also contribute towards the defence of the fort. The characteristics of all these features are briefly explained as under:

Bastions/Turrets

The bastions/turrets are of various shapes e.g. rectangular, semi-circular, polygonal etc. They were built, where enforcements were

considered necessary. They were provided with loopholes or slits for arrows or musketry. They had also battlemented parapets, with merlons of various shapes. From the tops of the bastions/turrets, the besiegers could shoot arrows or fire from three sides, thereby defending the approaches to the fortification walls. The ultimate aim was to keep the enemy soldiers under fire as far as possible.

Machicolations

Machicolations are bold brackets or corbels closely spaced carrying a projecting parapet. Between each pair of brackets is an opening closed with a trap door, through which arrows, boiling water or oil and molten lead could be dropped on to the heads of the besiegers attempting to mine the bottom of the walls below or to break the gates. The machicolations were built on the crest of the walls as well as on the bastions, gateways, parapets etc. This feature is very much prominent near the gateways of Rohtas Fort (District Jhelum).

Loopholes/Slits

These were provided in the parapet, crest of the bastions, turrets and even in the merlons. They were used by the archers. Subsequently with the introduction of gun powder, the loopholes were modified to make them suitable for the musketeers as well. There were generally three tiers of loopholes, one upon the other in horizontal order. Sometimes walls were pierced at several places for musketry or archery. Additional protection was provided to the archers and musketeers by covering the outer face of the loopholes with a small stone hood.

Embrasures

The existing structures in the forts were modified in an attempt to adapt them for the

new age of fire arms in the shape of embrasures. These were, infact, huge bastions projected from a wall. They were used for firing arquebuses and cannons. The platforms were also strengthened for war mounting heavy ordnance.

Merlons/Crenellations

These are of various shapes such as arched shaped, pear shaped, pointed form etc. Some are like inverted arches. Merlons are also human type as are on the Ibn Tulun mosque at Cairo. (Jairazbhoy; 1972, Plate 28-a). These merlons were considered to be a caricatured barrier of guards with their arms linked at shoulder level and that they had a talismanic function (Jairazbhoy; 1964:21-23). Faruqi does not, however, subscribe to the view expressed by Jairazbhoy. According to him, the author has misconstrued these projections of geometric or stylized vegetal shapes as artistic elements analogous to the gargoyles of a Gothic cathedral or the impish figures carved on a Hindu temple. This attribution of literal symbolism, of magical and dramatic significance, to elements in an Islamic structure reveals a complete misunderstanding of the true nature of Islamic art. It is absurd to personify such non-figural decorative elements in an art which has so consistently evidenced its adherence to abstract quality. Crenellations are, instead, another element of structure which conforms to the aesthetic demands of Islamic culture, to the prescriptions of the arabesque (Faruqi; 1985: 73-74). It is, however, an admitted fact that apart from their decorative role, the crenellations or merlons were also meant to provide a safe base for the archers and musketeers to fire at the enemy through the loopholes provided therein.

Ramparts

Depending upon the size of a fort, there were more than one ramparts. The lower ramparts had a battlemented parapet, the merlons of which were oblong and slope forward to render the scaling by the besiegers impossible. These were alternated by embrasures; machicolations being regularly disposed below them alongwith the string courses. The upper ramparts also contained merlons, embrasures and machicolations, being similarly disposed along the whole length.

The barracks for the soldiers were built within the forts. They were also provided with battlemented parapets.

Provision for Water Supply

Adequate arrangements were made for regular supply of water. It did not pose any problem where the forts were located near the rivers as in the case of Attock Fort. In other cases, wells or baolies (stepped wells) and tanks were constructed to ensure regular supply of water. For instance, there were wells in Lahore and Sheikhpura Forts. In Rohtas Fort, there are baolies. The Kotdiji Fort (District Khairpur) and Shergarh in Runee Kot Fort (District Dadu) had water storage tanks.

The narrative given in the foregoing paragraphs relates to those forts, which are mainly of military character meant primarily for providing defence against an invading army. There are certain forts, which were used by the royalty as residences. These were well fortified and could take care of aggression from outside and contained imposing buildings such as palaces, *Diwan-e-Khas*, *Diwan-e-Amm*, mosques, garden etc. The Lahore fort falls under this category. There is another kind of a fort, which is known as *Ribat* or watch post. These watch posts were

usually set-up at certain vantage points. These were well fortified and were reserved for temporary or permanent warriors posted at the front lines for deployment in emergencies. The watch posts also served as relay posts for changing the horses for dispatch riders carrying mails to different parts of the country. In Pakistan, the well-known watch post is Rewat near Rawalpindi. Rewat is a corruption of *Ribat*. Its description has been given in Chapter IV.

It may not be out of place to mention that the Ribats, apart from military purpose, were also used in the medieval times as desert palaces, caravanserai or even as an institution of Islamic learning—an embryonic madrasah-cum mosque. *Ribat-i-Sharaf*, which is strategically sited on the Merv-Nishapur road, has a mosque, stable for horses, luxury accommodation for the gentry and a large 'Iwan', with a dome chamber behind, to serve for official audiences. Likewise the *Ribat-i-Malik* offered palatial comfort to the travellers of rank plying the road between Bulkh and Samarkand. (Hillenbrand; 1994: 341-344).

Tunnels

There are some legendary stories about the underground passages or tunnels, which were built in the forts, to facilitate the escape of the royalty or the troops in case of enemy's attack. No doubt there are underground passages in some of the forts at places like Lahore and Attock, but we do not find any mention in the contemporary accounts about their purpose to facilitate the stealthy escape of the inmates of the forts in grave emergencies. Besides, it has not been found possible so far to locate the exist points of these tunnels outside the Attock and Lahore Forts. Some tunnels were reportedly constructed to link the Lahore Fort with certain shrines, gardens and baradaris.

But realities on the ground do not support such an assumption.

According to a story, based on a local legend and as contained in the District Gazetteer, there was a tunnel at Attock under the river Indus originating from Begum Ki Serai on the left bank to a tower located on the opposite bank. A Pioneer Officer, although pre-warned by the villagers, tried to re-open the tunnel and during this attempt, the river water flowed in flooding the tunnel and drowning the workmen (District Gazetteer, Attock; 1930: 52). However, there could not be such a possibility, as the tunnel would have led the escapees into the enemy's camp on the opposite side of the fort. There are, reportedly some underground tunnels in Attock Fort, but one cannot go inside for more than a few steps because of the darkness and the blockade of the passage after a short distance. One of these tunnels is connected with the romance of a Mughal Princess, who allegedly used to go secretly outside the fort each night through this tunnel to meet her lover. It is not known whether this story is based on a fact or is just a fiction. Similar stories are connected with Lahore Fort. According to a local tradition, Princess Zebunnisa used to meet her lover in the harem of Lahore Fort through one of the tunnels (Westcoat; 1991: 11). In all probability, the tunnels may have connected certain buildings inside the fort as can be noticed in the basement complex of Agra Fort (Nath; 1985, Vol-II: 132-133). Even in the pre-Mughal period, forts were reported to be provided with under-ground passages or other secret means of escape (Qureshi; 1958: 147). Sultan Firoz Shah Tughlaq (1351-88 A.D) had reportedly constructed three underground tunnels in his Fort at Kotla Firoz Shah which led to certain places in the suburb of Delhi. Sir Syed Ahmad Khan has mentioned these tunnels, relying upon accounts of Hosten, a

Jesuit Scholar (1966:62). Funny stories are still current that there were tunnels in Lahore Fort, one of which was linked with Delhi Fort covering a distance of about 560 kilometres. But so far no concrete evidence has come to light about the existence or otherwise of such tunnels. Sometimes, underground drainages were mistakenly taken as tunnels. The writer had noticed a number of underground tunnels in the forests outside the city of Kaithal in East Punjab (India). There exist points lay in the open ground in forests. They were

constructed with burnt bricks and their depth was such that one could easily stand in them. They were actually meant to catch rainwater and to take it to the various tanks built near the Hindu temples.

There are many Mughal miniature paintings, which portray the scenes relating to the construction of forts. A painting contained in Akbarnama and showing the construction of Agra Fort, is very significant (Qaisar;1988; Fig.4 and 6).

CHAPTER III

HISTORY OF FORTIFICATIONS IN PAKISTAN

Ever since his habitation on this planet, man has had to fight for his survival. In the face of multitude of problems, he had to save himself from the wild animals as well as from the extremities of climatic conditions. In the primitive society, when man started domestication of animals, he felt the need of green pastures and disputes often arose over their possession and grazing rights. Sometimes, such fighting used to take place between the various nomadic tribes in which weapons made of bones and flint were used. As a matter of fact, bone of contention between two tribes had always remained the exploitation of economic resources. Migration from one region to another was necessitated in search of adequate means of sustenance. Hence, the cause of confrontation between the new settlers and the old ones. The need for raising the fortification for protection was however, felt when man started living a settled life. Fortification was raised around a settlement as a measure of defence against the possible attack by the enemy. The archaeological evidence has shown that the concept of fortification was very much there even in ancient times.

One of the earliest fortifications was raised at Jericho (Palestine) in 7000 B.C. The city was

protected by a 21 feet high wall encompassing an area of ten acres, and by an outer moat 15 feet wide and 9 feet deep, hewn through solid rock. (Encyclopaedia of Britannica; Vol.7:549). There was also a watch tower to keep a vigilant eye on the enemy. Apparently, the need for encircling the settlement was to safeguard the water spring against its forcible occupation by the wandering tribes. (Mysteries of the Ancient World; n.d.:34).

In Babylonia, structural remains of ancient walls dating back to 2500 B.C. were found as a result of excavations. These are 23 feet and 4 inches thick and were strengthened at intervals of about 140 feet by towers. They were defended by a moat. In Egypt, near Wadi Halfa, are the remains of three border fortresses, said to date from about 2000 B.C. One of them, at the island of Uronarti on the Nile was built of very thick walls, supported at frequent intervals by massive buttresses constructed of bricks with timber bonding. The city of Khorasbad near Mosul, of which there are extensive remains, was built in 722-705 B.C. One gateway in the northern wall of the city and two each in the outer walls appear to have existed. These gateways were formidable structures each flanked by a tower on either side. In front of each gateway, there

was a barbican, 150 feet wide by 82 feet long, with an outer gateway. (Toy, Sidney, 1966: 2-8 and Brice, Martin, 1990:22-29).

There was a fortress in the city of Tyre in ancient Phoenicia. It was located in an island half a mile from the shore. It was such a formidable fortress that Alexander was able to break its defences after a continuous siege of seven months. (Encyclopaedia of Britannica, Vol.7:549).

Massive elongated walls were also a feature of early permanent fortifications. The great wall of China built by Emperor Shish Huang in 246-210 B.C. stretching along the northern borders of China is 1600 miles long. It has a considerable batter on both sides and is about 25 feet thick at the base and 17 feet at the top. Its height ranges from 25 to 30 feet. The wall walk on the top is 13 feet wide and is paved with stones. The wall towers project on both sides of the wall and rise 12 feet above the walk. The wall was built to protect the country against the incursions of the Mongolians and Tartars (Toy, Sidney, 1966:16). Again in China, remains of Chang City (16th-11th cent. B.C) were discovered to the south of Panlungcheng river. This city was also protected by walls. Also from an exposed section of an earth ditch, remains of 10 metre wide moat are visible (New Archaeological Finds in China; 1978:22-23).

The great Roman Empire was spread out in North Western Europe as well as in Africa and to protect certain vulnerable places, the Romans had built a number of continuous walls, foremost among them being the Hardian wall in Britain. The wall was constructed of stones with concrete core and was seventy three miles long. Its thickness varied between 9 feet and 6 inches to 7 feet and 6 inches. The height of the wall walk was

about 15 feet. For long stretches, the wall ran along on the top of high ridges with precipitous falls on the northern side; but on lower ground, it was defended by a deep ditch with a level terrace or berm between the ditch and the wall. There are sixteen forts along the line spaced at intervals of about four miles. All these walls were built on the usual Roman model. (Toy, Sidney; 1966; 47-48).

In Greece, the fortifications of Mycense and Tiryns both dating from about 1500 B.C. are notable. The acropolis of Mycense stands on a hill at the north end of the lower city and is enclosed by a strong wall of massive hewn masonry and is entered from the lower city by a ramp and a double gateway. The ramp is enclosed on either side by a strong tower of large blocks of stone and is defended by a strong tower at the top on the right hand side of the gateway. (Toy, Sidney; 1966:11).

This, in brief, is the history of fortifications in some principal cities of the ancient World. As regards Pakistan, its historical account can be divided into four periods; Pre-historic, Hindu-Buddhist, Muslim and post-Muslim. Fortifications of all these periods have been described briefly hereunder:

Pre-historic

Kotdiji in Khairpur District (Circa 3500 B.C) tops the list of these fortifications. The most impressive structural features of the Kotdiji citadel is the defensive wall which is of considerable height and width. It was raised on the bed rock, the lower part having been built with undressed lime stone blocks and the imposing structure above it having been built with mud bricks. Externally, it was strengthened with bastions at intervals. Internally, it slanted at an angle of 8½ degrees and was reinforced at intervals with 2 feet

wide stone rivetment bonded with the foundation courses. The outer face was rivetted with mud bricks. The Kotdiji citadel, in all probability, represents the earliest fortified town of the South Asian sub-continent. It is likely that the inhabitants in the plains were not always on friendly terms with their hilly neighbours, who may have posed a threat on several occasions and were considered a permanent menace (Khan, F.A.; 1981:17-18).

Rehman Dheri in Dera Ismail Khan is another important site of pre-Indus Civilization. Since the earliest occupation, except for the extension outside the city in the south, the entire habitation area of Rehman Dheri was enclosed by a massive wall, built of dressed blocks made from clay slabs (Durrani; 1988:26).

Almost all the sites of Indus Civilization were fortified. It will be relevant to mention about an interesting feature of defensive measures adopted at Harappa in Sahiwal District. It is the construction of rectangular salients at regular intervals. The main entrance to the citadel lies in the northern side, while a curved re-entrant in the western arm, controlled by a bastion leads to a system of extra-mural ramps and terraces approached by gates and supervised from guard rooms overlooking the gateway. In tracing the history of the defences, three phases of construction have been distinguished by the excavator. A long time after the initial construction, the mud brick wall, it appears, was worn-out and a rivetment of brick bats was provided, which too had to be replaced subsequently by a better rivetment of whole bricks, as can be seen in the curved re-entrant at the gateway. Finally, the defences in the north-west corner had to be enlarged and the gateway blocked for entry and exit. (Wheeler; 1997:29-30).

Likewise, an elaborate defensive system existed at Mohenjodaro, the other principal site of Indus Civilization. The latest studies have more or less confirmed that each major mound was surrounded by an enormous mud brick wall with gateways at the key points. The western citadel mound is the highest habitation area at this excavated site, where a Buddhist stupa and monastery, dating back to second century A.D., have been found. This mound is surrounded by a massive mud-brick wall or platform, which is now eroded to the modern plain level. Besides, there was a gateway at the south-east corner of the citadel mound. (Kenoyer; 1998: 56). A fortification is also suspected to have existed around the lower city of Mohenjodaro. Digging made in 1964-65 on the eastern edge of the so called H.R. area, had unearthed a massive construction compound of large solid mud brick embankments with baked brick retaining walls. For the present, it would be premature to conjecture that the lower city was fortified in a military sense, though it is abundantly clear that the massive defensive measures were undertaken (Wheeler;1997:47).

During the course of archaeological survey, the team of the Federal Department of Archaeology has recently discovered two pre-historic forts namely Taulaja Fort and Akrand Fort in Khushab District. Fortification walls built with dressed stones are still extant.

Alexandrian Era

Following the trails of Alexander's military campaigns in the areas now constituting Pakistan, it will be observed that he had to face stiff resistance from the local rulers at each and every place. The cities were strongly fortified and it required tremendous efforts for the Greek conqueror to capture them. A glimpse of Alexander's campaigns can be had

from what has been described hereunder, which will bear out the above assertion.

Alexander invaded the Indo-Pakistan sub-continent in 326 B.C. Prior to that he had conquered Kabul whereafter he proceeded towards the valleys of Swat and Bajaur, which were inhabited by fierce tribes. His campaigns in the hills proved to be very arduous task. His first great exploit was the capture of Massaga, the capital of Assakenoi and a hill fort surmounted by a wall of bricks and stones nearly 7 kilometres long. The fort was so impregnable that it was subdued, after five days of severe fighting and the employment of the latest implements of war, special siege machines fitted with draw bridges, mobile wooden towers manned by the bowmen and armed with catapults and siege artillery. Alexander received a leg injury during this campaign. Thereafter, Alexander deputed one of his Commanding Officers to take the city of Bazira (Bari Kot?) while he himself moved towards Ora (Udegram) in Swat. The Greeks succeeded in capturing these cities, though they were strongly fortified. (Mc'Crindle; 1901: 151-152 and Majumdar; 1960: 11-14).

Alexander's most important achievement was the capture of the stronghold of Aornos, which was believed to be impregnable and fabled to have defied the efforts of even Hercules. (Majumdar; 1960: 15-17). He then marched towards the Indus to join the advance guard of his army near Embolima (Hund) above Attock. (Majumdar; 1960:113). After crossing the river Indus, Alexander conquered the territories between the Indus and the Jhelum and also between Jhelum and the Chenab ruled by Raja Ambhi and Raja Porus respectively. He continued his advance eastwards and invaded the territory called Glausians and received their submission. (Majumdar; 1960: 44). He then crossed the

rivers Chenab and Ravi and stormed Sangla (Sangla Hill). It was a fortified city with several gates. (Majumdar; 1960: 48-50 and Mc'Crindle; 1901: 37). Thereafter, he passed through Sibi then inhabited by a rude folk clad in skins and armed with clubs. They submitted to him and were spared. Alexander then advanced his arms against Agalassians who had mustered an army of 40,000 foot and 3000 horse. They were defeated with a great slaughter. (Majumdar; 1960: 136, 174-175).

Alexander could not proceed beyond river Beas, due to the unwillingness of his army. He, therefore, decided to return home. Arrangements were made for voyage down the course of river Indus towards the sea. On his return journey, he had to face resistance of the local tribes. A fierce battle had taken place at Mallois (Tulumba in Khanweal District or Multan?). Alexander is reported to have received fatal wounds while attempting to scale its walls. (Mc'Crindle:1901:154-155 and Majumdar;1960: 176-178). Incidentally, it may be pointed out that the excavations conducted at Tulumba have revealed the remains of a burnt brick fortification around the citadel. It, however, dates back to 7-12th centuries A.D. (Pakistan Archaeology No. 4; 1967: 23). Alexander after subduing several other cities reached Sindimana, which is identified with Swistan/Sehwan. It was also a fortified city. (Majumdar; 1960: 77). Alexander ultimately reached Patala (Thatta) at the apex of the delta as it existed then. Here he established a naval base (Cunningham; 1924: 178). At Tharro Gujo, ten miles off Thatta, close to the sea is a fortified site, which according to Lambrick, was close to Alexander's harbour (Lambrick; 1996:90). Recently some monograms, engraved on stone blocks, have been discovered from this site, which have been dated as belonging to Greek and Scythian Kings. (Ibrahim, Asma; 2002: 93-107).

Hindu-Buddhist

In the Buddhist period also the cities were adequately fortified. The excavations undertaken at the ancient cities of Sirkap and Sirsukh near Taxila in Rawalpindi District, have confirmed this. The city of Sirkap, was founded in early years of the second century B.C. by the Bactrian Greeks. The city had a fortification wall, built in stone, having a length of over three miles with a thickness varying from 15 to 21 feet and 6 inches. It has an irregular alignment broken by various salients and recesses (Marshall; 1960: 61-63).

In nearly 80 B.C. the Kushans decided to abandon the city of Sirkap and build a new one in its place. They selected a new site now known as Sirsukh, situated about a mile from the northern wall of Sirkap. The fortification walls are clearly visible on the southern wall of Sirkap. However, the fortifications built at Sirsukh and Sirkap differ in many respects. Firstly the Sirsukh walls are faced with heavy diaper masonry instead of the coursed rubble masonry at Sirkap. Secondly, the Sirsukh walls are pierced with loopholes for use by the defenders. Thirdly, their bastions are semi-circular on plan instead of rectangular. And finally the ground floors are hollow within instead of solid. In regard to both the cities, it may be assumed that the bastions were divided like the bastions of later fortresses, into two or more storeys and that the upper storeys were hollow. In both the cases, it may be taken for granted that the walls were loopholed and provided with berm, or gallery, in the interior of the first floor level and with an open terrace and battlements at the top (Marshall; 1960: 91-93).

Another fortified town of the Buddhist period, known as "Sahri Bahlol" in Mardan District, is worth mentioning. The extent of the ancient

town is indicated by an elongated mound, today some 30 feet high, and intermittent structures of defensive walling in the variety of "diaper styles" characteristic of the first two or three centuries A.D. are visible. The site is clearly that of a small fenced town of Kushan period. (Wheeler; 1950: 49).

In the province of Sindh, there are remains of an ancient fort known as Mahorta or Maihota, about 10 miles from Larkana, as mentioned by Cunningham and Masson. The former identifies it with the Praesti, Porticanus or Oxykanus of Arian, Curtius, Diodorus and Starbo. Masson identifies it as the remains of an ancient fortress on a huge mound. In Raverty's view, it is the site of an ancient fortified town. As the site has not yet been fully explored and excavated, nothing can be said with certainty about its exact date (Cousens; 1975: 168-169).

The excavations at Mian Ali Faqiran, in Sheikhpura District, have revealed the remains of an ancient city Taki or Tse-Kia, which was once the capital of Punjab. Taki was known as Taifand when Mahmud of Ghazna captured it in 1023 A.D. The diggings show that the city was encircled by a defence wall, remains of which have been exposed in the northern side of the mound. The date of construction of the fortification wall has been assigned between 4th to 6th centuries A.D (Farooq; 1988: 345-47).

The city of Uchh in Bahawalpur District is undoubtedly one of the oldest in the province of Punjab. It was destroyed and a new city of Alexandria was founded by Alexander. The city was known by various names such as Alexandria-Ussa of Greek chroniclers (Cunningham; 1924: 279), Swandi of Arab Historians (Khardazbeh, Ibn; 1889: 57), Chachpur or Askalanda of Kufi (Kufi, M. Ali ;

1938: 15), Bhatiya of the Ghaznavid historians (Nazim; 1973:15) and Uchh of Tarikh-e-Masumi. According to Baloch, Bhatiya was probably situated between Aror and Uchh on the southern bank of the river Beas (Early 8th century A.D). It was captured by Muhammad bin Qasim (Baloch; 1983: 137-138). Later on, it was subdued by Mahmud of Ghazna, when Baji Rai was its ruler (Nazim; 1973: 197-203).

Sialkot is another city which, was fortified in ancient times. Tradition has it that the foundation of the city then known as Shalkil was laid by Raja Shal or Sal (Munshi Amin Chand; 1874:1). According to another legend, it was a fort constructed by Raja Salwan or Saliwahan during the reign of Vikramjit (Vikramaditiya). (Cunningham; 1882, Vol.II: 21). The fort was, however, razed to the ground when the city was attacked in 326 B.C. by Raja Porus (*Cambridge History of India*, Vol.I:1922:337). The Chinese pilgrim Hiuen Tsang, who visited this country sometime in 7th century A.D. has stated in his travel accounts that the fort was in ruinous condition, but its foundation still existed. (*Cambridge History of India*, Vol.I: 1922: 549-550). During the Muslim period, many rulers had assumed control over the city of Sialkot. Sultan Shahab-ud-Din Muhammad Ghauri and Emperor Jehangir are reported to have carried out repairs to the fort. (Fauq.M. Din;n.d 86). It remained in occupation of the Sikh rulers till 1847 when the British forces took it over. Presently the fort is used by the Municipal Committee to house some of its Offices. A portion of the retaining wall on the southern side of the fort still exists.

The Arab General Muhammad Bin Qasim subdued the port city of Al-Deybul in 711 A.D., whereafter the Arab forces penetrated deep into the province of Sindh, whose boundaries at that time also included the

region of Multan. The forts which were of pre-Muslim period included, apart from al-Deybul, Nirun (the present day Hyderabad), Brahmanabad, Swistan (Sehwan), Al-Ror, Multan, Baghror (Bakhar) etc. (Baloch;1983, Text:78-181). Details of some of the pre-Muslim forts are given below:-

i. Banbhore (Al-Deybul?)

The city of al-Deybul was on the sea-shore and so close to it that the waves of the sea lashed against the fort walls. The Arab General had to use Manjaniqs (Catapults) to break its fortification wall (Al-Maqdisi; 1906: 429).

The excavations conducted at Banbhore have exposed the remains of its fortifications, which are constructed with large and heavy blocks of stones and undressed lime stones in mud mortar (Plate-1). The walls are strengthened by large semi-circular bastions at regular intervals (Khan, F.A.;1976: 18).



Plate-1: Banbhore: Fortification Wall.

ii. Brahmanabad

The pre-Muslim city of Brahmanabad, as per Abu Fazal, the Court historian of Mughal Emperor Akbar, had a Fort. It contained 1400 turrets each situated at some distance from each other. (*Ain-i-Akbari*; 1878: 183). Some of the turrets, although in ruins, were found forty feet above the plinth as late as the Kalhora period. In one of the towers, staircase was used as a watch tower by the thieves of the adjoining area and consequently

demolished under the orders of Miyan Ghulam Shah, the Kalhora ruler of Sindh (Gazetteer of Sindh, 1868: 137). The identification of Brahmanabad has not yet been settled although some have identified it with the remains of Depar Ghanghro in Taluka Singhoro, District Sanghar (Pathan; 1978: 366).

iii. **Swistan (Sehwan)**

Alexandar, who invaded the sub-continent in 326 B.C. had first of all subdued the local Rajas of the independent principalities now forming part of the Province of Punjab. Alexander, being disappointed by the refusal of his soldiers not to advance further, decided to return home. Arrangements were made for voyage down to the course of river Indus to the sea. After capturing several places in Upper Sindh, Alexander reached Patala at the apex of the delta as it then existed. One of the cities conquered by Alexander was Sindimana identified with Swistan/Sehwan. It was ruled by Raja Sambo. The Greek conqueror is reported to have built a Fort at Sehwan (Smith, Vincent; 1914: 106 and Aitken; Gazetteer of Sindh; 1907: 86). The fort is now in ruins. The ancient mound measures 400'x200' with a height of about 60'. Remnants of its fortifications are still visible at certain points. The historical account of Sehwan Fort is given in Chapter-V.

iv. **Multan**

The Arab General also conquered the fort at Multan, which had been in existence from pre-Muslim times. The Fort was so impregnable that it was only at the indication of a vulnerable point by a Hindu citizen that it could eventually be captured (Baloch; 1983: 182). According to Cunningham, who had surveyed the fort in 1853, its circuit was 6600 feet and it had 46 bastions including two flanking towers (District Gazetteer, Multan; 1902: 135-136).

v. **Bakhar**

The details of this fort have been provided in Chapter-V.

The settlements of Hindu Shahi dynasty, which had ruled the regions comprising the north-eastern parts of Punjab and almost entire N.W.F.P. in 8-10th centuries A.D. contain the remains of several forts. The main character of these forts is that they are situated on hill tops to guard against the possible invaders from the plains below. Some of the important forts are:

a. **N.W.F.P.**

Raja Gira, Barikot, Damkot, Gumbatuna, Doda, Kamal Khan, Hund, Damkot, Haibat Ram near Thana, Gala or Pehur (Opposite Tarbela), Kafirkots in Dera Ismail Khan, etc.

b. **Punjab**

Nandana, Malot, Nagarkot, Langarkot etc. (Rehman, Abdur; 1979:266-281, Dani; 1995:236 and Rashid; 1962:44-5).

The detail of forts at Hund and Kafirkots is contained in Chapter VI. Description of some other forts is given as under:-

(i). **Raja Gira**

The castle of Raja Gira is situated on the rugged hill to the south east of Udegram (Ora of Alexander) in Swat Valley. The hill has a commanding position in the area and rises to a height of nearly 2000 feet above Udegram. The semi-circular buttresses of the rivetment give the structure a turreted appearance. The excavations carried out have revealed a grand

stairway and some structural remains. It is within the precincts of the castle that a mosque dating back to Ghaznavid period has been discovered. The castle probably belongs to Shahi rulers. This assumption is based on the fact that on the back of an inscriptional tablet in cursive script there is a carved decorative motif in the form of a full blown lotus flower showing two rows of petals. (Scerrato; 1986: 60-62 and Khan, Nazir; 1985: 154-155).

(ii). Barikot

The Fort at Barikot (Bazira of Alexander) is situated on the top of a crescent shaped hill close to the village having the same name. The hill rises to a height of nearly 3095 feet above sea level, about 600 feet above the riverine plain. The defensive wall is built of undressed, but carefully set stone slabs and at one point rises to a height of about 50 feet. Extending for a distance of about 120 feet and facing to the south-east, it protected the fortified summit of the hill on that side where the natural defence is somewhat weak. At the same time, the filling up of the space behind it must have considerably enlarged the level area on the hill top. The wall is clearly visible from the lands by the village and river and continues at the same height to the north. It forms there a bastion like projection and then with a re-entering angle rounds the head of a ravine running down to the river.

(iii). Damkot

Damkot Fort is situated on the right bank of river Swat on a hill adjacent to the modern Chakdara bridge. The hill rises to a height of 500 feet above the

riverine plain and is separated from the adjacent range by a narrow saddle through which passes the modern road to Khadakzai. The defensive wall although much ruined, but is visible at certain points. It spreads on the south-eastern face of the hill and measures 3300 feet along the perimeter. The thickness of the wall varies from 3½ to 5 feet. At certain points it still stands to a height of 9 to 11 feet. The wall is built of roughly dressed stone blocks and shows semi-diaper semi-ashlar masonry.

(iv). Nandana

Nandana in District Jhelum, which became the strong-hold of Sahis, after they had abandoned the city of Hund in the wake of its conquest by Mahmud of Ghazna in 1014 A.D. The fort is located on the top of a bold rocky ridge with a height of about 1500 feet above sea level. The northern wall is buttressed at some points with semi-circular bastions. The southern face of the ridge was for the most part lined by precipitous cliffs and did not require defences. The fort is in a confused mess of debris. It was at Nandana that Al-Beruni carried out the experiment whereby he calculated the measurements of the earth dimensions. It remained the capital of the region throughout the Ghazanvids, Ghorids and the Sultanate periods. Even thereafter, it remained important administrative district until the second half of the 18th century A.D. The place was abandoned thereafter and the population shifted to Baghanawala down below in the plain (Baloch, 1983, 1). There is a temple and a mosque, which are located on the top

of a very massively built terrace. However, both these structures are in a dilapidated condition. (Plates 2-4).



Plate-2: Nandana: Remains of a Fort.



Plate-3: Nandana: Temple.



Plate-4: Nandana: Mosque.

(v). Malot

It is situated some nine miles to the west of Katas and about the same distance to the south of Kallar Kahar in Salt Range. The ruins of an ancient

fort can be seen on a spur of the neighbouring hill, which rises to a height of 3000 feet above the sea level. The fort measures 2000 feet from east to west and 1500 feet from north to south with a citadel on a higher level to the south. It measures 1200 feet by 500 feet in width. The spur to the north is also covered with the remains of buildings to a distance of 2000 feet beyond the fort. The town as well as the fort in its hey days, according to Cunningham, must have been two and a half miles in circuit. (Cunningham; 1872-73, Vol.V: 85). There is also a temple at Malot which is a good specimen of Kashmiri style of architecture.

(vi). Gala Fort Opposite Tarbela

There was another crossing of the Indus at a point where Tarbela is situated on the eastern bank. On the western bank from the place where Pehur pumping station is located, high ridge goes through southward. Standing on the top of the ridge, one can see the opening of the Swabi plain westward. In order to check the advancing enemy from the west, the fort was built on the ridge by the Hindu Shahi rulers. The fortification wall is still intact at certain places with round bastions. (Dani; 1995: 236).

In several other places in N.W.F.P like Kohat and Hazara, there were some forts, which are almost wiped out of the surface.

Muslim Period

Early Muslim

The foundation of a Muslim State in the sub-continent was laid by the young Arab General

Muhammad bin Qasim, when he captured the port town of Deybul in 711 A.D. At the time of his departure from Sindh, the Arabs held sway over the entire region upto Multan. The Arabs had founded a number of cities in Sindh. Hakim ibn Auwanah al-Kalbi, an Umayyad Governor, in order to bring all the Arab tribes together at one place, founded the township of Al-Mahfuzah on the eastern bank of the river Indus. It was a fortified town. Later on Amr ibn Muhammad ibn Al-Qasim, one of the Chief Advisors of Al-Hakam, founded another town opposite to Al-Mahfuza and named it al-Mansurah (Al-Baladhuri; 1902: 448). The fortified city had four gates namely *Bab Al-Bahr*, *Bab Sandan*, *Bab Multan* and *Bab Turan* (Al-Maqdasi; 1906: 479-481). The remains of Al-Mansurah are located 13 kilometres to the south-east of Shahdadpur town in Sanghar District. The excavations carried out at the site confirm the existence of a fortification wall (Plate-5) and two gates on north-western and north-eastern sides of the city (*Pakistan Archaeology*; No.10-12, 1986:17).



Plate-5: Mansura: Fortification Wall.

The town of Bayda was founded by Imran ibn Musa al-Barmaki, Governor of Sindh during the Caliphate of Al-Mutasim Billah. Its fort was garrisoned with a strong detachment of Arab army. (Al-Baladhuri; 1902: 450). Umar

ibn Abd al-Aziz al-Habbari, whose descendants later became the rulers of Sindh for over 150 years (855-1026) had founded the city of Baniyah within the neighbourhood of al-Mansurah. It was the official residence of Arab rulers and was fortified (Istakhri; 1923: 175).

An early Muslim settlement, the remains of which are still extant, is Bhira Bham in Nawabshah District. The excavations conducted at the site have confirmed that the settlement was protected by burnt bricks fortification wall with core of mud and mud bricks. The wall was further strengthened with semi-circular bastions built at intervals and the remains of 24 bastions still survive. The gateway on the eastern side still shows its original plan. The pottery and other finds recovered from the site are comparable with those found from the intermediate Muslim level of Banbhore. The site can thus be dated as belonging to 9-11th centuries A.D (*Pakistan Archaeology*; No.2-1965: 4-5).

The recent archaeological survey of the coastal region of Sindh has revealed the existence of some fortresses of the early Muslim period, one of them being Rattokot, which is located in the island of Muchaq about 27 kilometres as the crow flies to south-east of Karachi. The details of the fortress are contained in Chapter-V. The other fortress is located in Chak No. 1 Deh Khairani, Taluka Mirpur Sakro, district Thatta. The fort lies completely buried in the mud. The surface study has revealed that it is square in shape having a tower on its each corner. There are double walls on southern sides and there is a curtain wall near the western end of the walls. The fort is constructed of baked bricks. Close to the fort at some distance, there are the remains of an old mosque and a baked clay tablet brick, found north of the mosque having

plaited Kufic calligraphy along with rich arabesque on the ground. The Fort can be dated to early Muslim period (Asma and Lashari; 1993: 1-24).

In Balochistan, the archaeological soundings have led to the discovery of a site known as 'Miri Qalat' near Turbat, District Makran. It shows different occupational levels, although the site dates back to proto-historic times. The Islamic period is represented by period VIII-A. The settlement was fortified. The fort is of rectangular shape measuring 350 to 150 metres with two surviving bastions (Hasan; 1997: 332). To the west of Turbat, some 20 kilometres away there are remains of a ruined fortress with a beautiful building on its top constructed of sun dried bricks. It is rectangular in shape (Stein, 1931:54-56 and *Pakistan Historical Society Journal* No. XXXVIII, Oct: 1990, Part IV).

There is an early Muslim fort at Nindkot, located at a distance of 14 miles south of Shah Kapur in District Thatta. It measures about 1500x700 feet. Its super-structure has disappeared completely. The study of its remains reveals that the maximum width of the walls is 7 feet and 2 inches, the number of semi-circular bastions is 42 and one of the bastions is 13 feet in diameter showing a thickness of 1 foot and 9 inches. The fort must have served as a strong bastion of defence in the vast plain of lower Indus Valley, controlling traffic and trade to and from the Arabian Sea. Its probable date ranges between 11-13th centuries A.D (Pakistan Archaeology; No. 2; 1965:9-10).

Ghaznavid Period

There is a fort, known as Giri, located in between the villages of Khurram Paracha and

Khurram Gujar in Taxila Valley. The detail of the fort has been given in Chapter-IV.

Sultan Mahmud of Ghazna annexed Lahore in 1021 A.D. According to Fakhr-e-Mudabbir, the Sultan constructed a mosque known as Khishti Masjid and also erected a victory Tower in the fort (Oriental College Magazine; May, 1938: 38). Some scholars believe that Mahmud of Ghazna also constructed a fort at Lahore. In this connection, it may be stated that Mahmud of Ghazna struck a coin bearing the name of the city as 'Mehmudpur'. Dani has, however, contended that name of the city has wrongly been misread by Edward Thomas as Mehmudpur, instead of Madrapur; the city of Madra people. The history of Madra people can be traced back to Vedic times ranging from 1500 to 1000 B.C. (Dani; 1999: 93-98). It is, however, a fact that a fort existed at Lahore, when Mahmud of Ghazna captured it in 1021 A.D. He might have carried out necessary repairs to the fort, in order to make it more habitable.

In Ghaznavid period, we find a mention of the fortified town of Sodhra in Gujranwala District. The town was called differently in ancient times. It was referred to as Sidra, Ibrahim-abad, Sodra and Sadra. Another view is that it was the place of one of the Alexandrias founded by Alexander (Farooq; 1990:80).

Pharwala Fort was, reportedly, built by Sultan Kaigohar, an associate of Sultan Mahmud of Ghazna, in about 1008 A.D. It is located on the left bank of river Soan on the Keral hills and is about 35 kilometres from Islamabad. Emperor Babur, who visited this fort in 1519 A.D. has mentioned it in his *Tuzuk*. It was also in Pharwala Fort that Gakkar Chief Adam Khan had handed over Prince Kamran to

Emperor Humayun in 1558 A.D. The detail of the Fort is contained in Chapter-IV.

Sultanate Period

Very few forts belonging to the Sultanate period have come to notice. There are, however, indications that the earlier forts were got repaired by certain rulers of the Sultanate period.

Amongst the new forts, mention may be made of the one constructed at Dipalpur in District Okara, during the reign of Sultan Nasir al Din who ascended the throne of Delhi in 1246 A.D. He had appointed a cousin of Ghiasuddin Balban as the Governor of Dipalpur, who further strengthened the fort which was constructed there firstly, because of its strategic location and secondly to check the inroads of the Mongols, who were a constant threat for the Delhi Sultanate (Barni;1862:65). This city was adequately fortified containing as many as 84 towers, 84 mosques, and 84 wells (District Gazetteer, Montgomery; 1933:69). During the reign of Mughal Emperor Akbar, Dipalpur became subsidiary to the Imperial Suba of Multan. It was given as jagir to Mirza Aziz Kokaltash who strengthened the Fort and built a palace there. Later on, Abdul Rahim Khan-i-Khanan, Commander-in-Chief of Mughal Emperor Akbar, rebuilt the town and its present layout within the fortification wall is attributed to him (Rehman, Abdul; 1997: 94).

In the mid-stream of river Indus, opposite Rohri, is an island known as Bakhar, which is quite important from strategic point of view. A fortress is located in this very island from times immemorial. There is no mention of this island when Sultan Muhammad Ghauri conquered Sindh in 1177-78 A.D. The first allusion to it atleast in Muslim times is in

connection with the Viceroyalty of Malik Naisruddin Qabacha in 1227-28 A.D., when it had emerged as a strong fortress. Complete details about this fortress can be seen in Chapter-V.

There is an old Fortress at Kalan Kot or correctly Kalyan Kot as interpreted by Qaleech Beg. According to *Tuhfatul Kiram*, the fort was built by Raja Kala. It was, however, rebuilt during Summa period by Jam Tughlaq. (1427-1453 A.D.) The geographical location of the fortress is quite strategic and its naturally protected walls could defy an attacking enemy for quite sometime. The river surrounds it on three sides, west, north and east and it is open to dry land only from the south on which side two entrances were provided. There is a mosque inside the fortress, now in ruins. Full historical account of the fortress has been given in Chapter-V.

Mughal Period

The Mughals, who ruled over the sub-continent from 1526-1540 and again from 1555-1857, had built a number of forts throughout the length and breadth of their sprawling empire. The name of Bala Hisar at Peshawar figures in the memoirs of Emperor Babur, who strengthened the fort. After the downfall of Mughals, Bala Hisar came into the possession of Durranies and was later destroyed by the Sikhs, but was rebuilt by Hari Singh. Burns ascribes its re-construction to Sardar Kharak Singh. Raverty, however, differs and says that the fort was re-erected by Sher Singh, the son of Maharaja Ranjit Singh. The British replaced the un-burnt bricks of the fort with brick masonry. The detail of the Fort has been given in Chapter-VI.

The Mughal Emperor Akbar, apart from the forts at Lahore and Attock, details of which

have been provided in Chapter-IV, had constructed a number of forts in the Peshawar Valley, which fell in Subah-e-Kabul that comprised the Kabul region also. In order to check the uprising of certain local tribes, the Mughals had to take a number of measures to subdue the turbulent Afghan tribes. With this in view, forts were built at strategic locations. These included, according to *Akbarnama* (1939, Vol. III), Bara Fort, Hund Fort, Langar Fort, Naushera Fort, Ghaladher Fort, Chakdara Fort etc.

Mention may also be made of a fort constructed by Emperor Akbar at Gujrat in 1580 A.D. which does not exist now. The city was also protected by a fortification with a height of 35 to 40 feet. The wall is pierced with bastions at regular intervals. Many of them are still extant (Plates 6-7). Emperor Jehangir has described the construction of the city of Gujrat in his *Tuzuk*. (*Tuzuk-e-Jehangiri*; ed. H. Beveridge, Rpr. 1974:91).

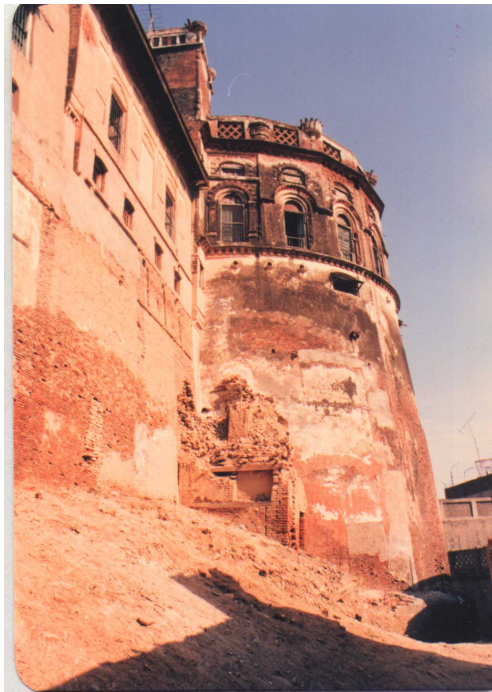


Plate-6: Gujrat: Fortification Wall.



Plate-7: Gujrat: Bastion.

Emperor Jehangir ordered the construction of a fort at Sheikhpura, whose actual date of construction is not known. But it is certain that it was built after the Hiran Minar Complex was constructed, at some distance from there in 1607 A.D. The fort is rectangular in shape and its main entrance is from the east. There are many buildings in the fort, some of which were constructed during the Sikh rule. Detail of the Fort has been provided in Chapter-IV.

There was an interruption in the Mughal rule from 1540 to 1555 A.D., when Sur dynasty ruled over the sub-continent displacing the Mughal as in 1540 A.D. Emperor Humayun was defeated by Sher Shah Suri at the battle of Chaunsa. Sher Shah Suri realized the importance of having fortified towns at most of the strategic places. According to Abbas Khan Sarwani, Sher Shah wanted to build a

fort in every *Sarkar* (or district) which in time of trouble, could serve as a shelter for the oppressed people and as an out-post to check the rebels. With this in view, he ordered the construction of a fort at Rohtas that lies in present day Jhelum District. The construction of the Rohtas Fort was also considered necessary for some other reasons. First to block the possible re-entry of Emperor Hymayun and secondly to punish and defeat turbulent Gakkars who controlled the valley and were on friendly terms with the Mughals. Detail of Rohtas Fort has been given in Chapter-IV.

The Sangni Fort, built at the junction of two small rivers near Suin Chemian village, north of Gujar Khan in District Rawalpindi, is a remnant of the Mughal and Sikh period. According to a local tradition, the fort was constructed by a Mughal ruler and was called Sangi. Later, during the reign of Ranjit Singh, this fort was reconstructed to strengthen the defences of the area and renamed it as Sangni. It also served as a jail during the Sikh period. It is a stone built structure. Its main entrance is flanked by two circular bastions. The parapet of the main gate is bedecked with merlons. (Plates-8ab).



Plate-8 (a): Sangni Fort: General View



Plate-8 (b): Sangni Fort: Main Entrance

In Balochistan remains of Mughal forts can be observed at a number of places. In Zhob District, the remains of a fort called Khanki lie near Shina Khura, about 16 miles east of Hindubagh. Local tradition asserts that the fort was held by Miro, a local Mughal Governor. There are also remains of an old Fort Mughalo Brunj, about 800 yards from Murgha Fakirzai Rest House (District Gazetteer, Zhob; 1986: 49-50).

There are many mounds and ruins of mud forts in Loralai District, which are ascribed to Mughals. Among these mention may be made of Bhani, Kach, Bohri, Utbo, Kale, Duhla, Khahra, Mohrun, Tamani and Khaibara Kala on Chappri hillock close to Mehwal village. There is one more fort Mughlo Kala in Shabozai. It is a square building with bastions

at each corner and an outer enclosure wall, all in ruins. According to local tradition, heads of men killed by Mughals were inserted into the walls and hence bones of the skulls are often found in the ruins. (District Gazetteer, Loarlai;1986: 42-43).

In Sibi District, there are several mud forts, which are attributed to the Mughal period. These are at Ahmadun, Manra, Sangan, Sibi etc. The fort at Sibi is reported to have been constructed by Mir Chakar Khan between 1450-1540 A.D., although it appears to be of a more ancient origin. (District Gazetteer Sibi; 1986: 39). It is a mud brick fort, described in detail in Chapter-VII.

Post-Mughal Period

During the post Mughal period, local ruling dynasties constructed a number of forts at strategic places in their territories.

In Sindh with the weakening of the Mughal Empire, the local Abbasid dynasty known as Kalhoras established themselves as the ruling authority in the early 18th century. Miyan Noor Muhammad (d.1753) and Miyan Ghulam Shah (d. 1772) were their most illustrious rulers. Miyan Ghulam Shah constructed two forts at Hyderabad namely Pucca Qila (fort) and Kutcha Qila (fort) in 1768 and 1772 A.D, respectively. The Umarmkot Fort, in Tharparkar District, though dates back to pre-Muslim times, was rebuilt by the Kalhora rulers. Details of all these forts have been given in Chapter-V.

The Kalhoras were replaced by Talpurs, who ruled over Sindh from 1742 to 1843 A.D. Apart from Runne Kot and Kotdiji in Dadu and Khairpur Districts respectively, the Talpur had constructed a series of Forts/Fortresses to

protect their borders from intruders. These, interalia include:

- a). Sea-front; Manhora near Karachi, Ratto-Kot on the Gharo Greek (built on earlier Islamic Fort), Vikkur near Jati and Kotri at the crossing of the Koree Greek to Kachch opposite Lakhpat;
- b). Southern border in Tharparkar District; Naukot, Diplo, Singario, Chellhar, Mithi, Islam Kote and Nagarparkar;
- c). Eastern border with Jodhpur and Jesalmer. The defence line starting from Mirpur Mathelo and ending in Nagarparkar, had the following Forts and Fortresses:-

- (i). Sutiyo Kote in Taluka Mirpur Mathelo,
- (ii). Liyo Kote in Ubaoro Taluka touching the boundary of the Rahimyar Khan District,
- (iii). Fortress of Tanot in Ubaoro Taluka,
- (iv). Fortress of Dangu, six miles east of Ghotaharu,
- (v). Fort of Dingarh, sixteen miles north of Tanot,
- (vi). Fortress of Gadhrro,
- (vii). Stone Fort of Shahgarh in Khuddi, 25 miles east of Chhachhro,
- (viii). Judey-jo-Kote, 40 miles south of Shahgarh,
- (ix). Fortress of Satti-Dera, on the present boundary line between Chhachhro and Nagarparkar Talukas.

All the Forts/Fortresses mentioned at S.No. (i) to (ix) (Baloch;1966:291-292) are in ruinous condition, except the Fort of Naukot, the detail of which has been provided in Chapter-V.

The local Chieftains in Balochistan used to construct forts, which are still extant at certain places. Right from the ancient times, the villages in Balochistan were generally clustered round the forts, which formed the refuge of the people in times of emergency. There was an ancient fort known as Quetta Miri, which is no more there. (Kausar, 1981: 551). Sardar Ahmed Khan built several forts in Kharan District about one hundred years ago. Worth mentioning is the one at Jalwar Pass. It is actually a fortification wall containing three rounded shaped bastions. He built another fort at Kharan. Detail of both these forts is contained in Chapter-VII. At Washuk, there is a fort, but it has got no entrance. The admission is gained by means of a rope, which is let down from inside over a wall enabling one person at a time to ascend. (District Gazetteer Kharan; 1986: 187). In Turbat (Plate-9) and Pasni there are small forts which are in a dilapidated condition. (District Gazetteer Makran; 1986: 273 & 304).



Plate-9: Punu Fort (Turbat)

Due to the weakening of Mughal power, the Sikhs seized control of the territories now forming part of the existing provinces of Punjab and N.W.F.P. The first ruler of this Sikh Kingdom was Maharaja Ranjit Singh (r. 1799-1839 A.D.) The Sikh rulers constructed some forts and also made additions in the earlier ones like those at Lahore, Bala Hisar,

Sheikhupura etc. The forts built by the Sikhs which are worth mentioning, are Jamrud and Landi Kotal in N.W.F.P and at Satgarha in District Okara in Punjab. The fort at Satgarha was reportedly constructed in 1775 A.D. by Sardar Qamar Singh. It is square on plan measuring 400'x400'. The fortification wall contains bastions at its corners. There are also octagonal bastions in the middle of the northern and southern walls. The height of the fortification wall is about 18 feet. (Rehman Abdul; 1997: 266). The tomb of Mir Chakar Khan (d.1555 A.D.); a Baloch Chieftain is located within the fort. (Plate-10).



Plate-10: Satgarha Fort

During the Colonial rule, the British government concentrated its attention mostly on controlling the turbulent tribes in the Tribal Area of N.W.F.P. With this in view, they constructed a series of forts in those areas. For instance they constructed the fort known as Alexandria in Razmak, another in Miran Shah in North Waziristan, Burki Fort in Kurram Agency and Bajaur Fort. These forts were usually, although not necessarily, built on heights from where a watch on vast area could be possible. These forts were not a luxury, but a necessity for the British army of occupation as it helped them in keeping the hostile tribal lashkars in check.

Forts in Former State of Bahawalpur

The former state of Bahawalpur, which falls under the territorial jurisdiction of the province of Punjab, now is quite important from archaeological-cum historical point of view. Its Cholistan desert is immensely rich in antiquarian remains dating back to 4th millennium B.C. From its recorded history, commencing from 495 A.D., one can find the name of Rai dynasty followed by various other dynasties that ruled over this region till 1748 A.D., when Abbasi Daudpotras dispossessed them and took control of the entire area and named it as 'Bahawalpur State' and continued to rule over the State till the sub-continent's partition, when in 1955, it lost its independent status and became a part of Pakistan. In order to secure their borders, the Abbasi Daudpotras had not only constructed a series of new forts in Cholistan desert, but had also repaired the earlier ones that were built in pre-Muslim times. Description of some of the important forts including those of Marot and Derawar is given in Chapter-VIII.

Forts in Thal Desert (Punjab)

In Thal desert, which presently comprises the Districts of Bhakkar, Khushab, Leiah, Muzaffargarh and some parts of Jhang in Punjab, there is a chain of forts. These were constructed by various Baloch tribes who ruled over the area during 18-19th centuries A.D. According to some scholars, some of the forts date back to pre-Muslim times. One of the forts is at Mankera in District Bhakkar. It is now in ruins. Some details of the forts located in Thal desert as well as the description of the fort at Mankera, is given in Chapter-IV.

Forts in the Northern Areas of Pakistan

The Northern Areas of Pakistan covers an expanse of about 27,188 square miles. The region is located between 71 and 75 E. Longitude and 32 and 37 N Latitude. From administrative point of view, the area is subdivided into three Districts of Gilgit, Baltistan and Diamar with their headquarters at Gilgit, Skardu and Chilas respectively. Chitral had remained historically a part of the Northern Areas, but it was separated by the British in 1895 on account of some administrative reasons.

The archaeological evidence at-present is not sufficient to give a complete account of the pre-historic culture of the man in this region. Whatever little has been discovered relates to a late period and shows a stage of hunting and food collecting in a manner that smacks of primitive life, but not necessarily of great antiquity. The entire material is limited to rock art. The rock carvings fall in four chronological orders. The earliest group includes purely hunters and food gatherers using pebble tools and stone tipped arrows. They are widely spread from Chilas to Yasin in the north and Skardu in the south. They may be dated prior to second millennium B.C. and may go back to 6th or 5th millennium B.C.

The second group includes the pre-Kushan engravings at the sacred rock of Hunza, the contemporary Scythian period engravings near Chilas and the appearance of first Stupa and anthropomorphic figures in this region. The third group includes figures of demi-gods, stock rising and herd rearing communities. They may be placed in the second and first millennia B.C. (Dani; 2001:97-99).

Because of the troubles of unending intra and inter-state conflicts, a number of forts were built in the region. Detail of some of the important ones is given hereunder:-

In Gilgat, Raja Firdaus who ruled from 1359 to 1397, brought a large number of craftsmen and artisans from Kashmir, with whose help, he laid the foundation of a strong fort in Gilgit, which was known, after his name, as Qila Firdausia. Within this Fort, there was a small castle and a beautiful graden. The castle contained a residential palace, a mosque and a madrassah. The palace was known as Painted Castle. There was also a seven storeyed tower in it, where the family treasure was deposited. A forty columned hall of audience was also built which had a throne, called Nilo Takht (Dani; 2001:176). According to Drew, the fort at Gilgit used to be Maharaja Kashmir's stronghold in Dardistan. It had at different times been taken, destroyed, rebuilt, extended and altered. Its central part had high towers. This fort was built in Dard style of wooden framework for the wall, filled in with stones. Due to earthquake in 1871, its considerable portion collapsed. (Drew, 1877:156-159). The remains of the fort can be seen near the polo ground in Gilgit. Only a lone tower, square in shape, now survives (Dani; 2001:33). The other important forts in Hunza Valley are Baltit and Altit. Their detail has been provided in Chapter-IX.

In Baltistan, there are a number of forts, the most important being Fort Kharpocha at Skardu, which is the crown of the city towering as it does, high at the edge of a hillock (Dani;2001:28). From strategic point of view, it can be equated with Gibraltar. The fort was built by Makpon Bokha, who ruled over Baltistan from 1490 to 1515. (Khan Hashmatullah;1969:448-450). The detail of Kharpocha Fort appears in Chapter-IX.

In Chilas, which lies to the south of Gilgit at a distance of about 145 kilometres, there are some forts. Sometime in 1850, a band of Chilasies belonging to Dard tribe, raised a strong fort known as Chilas Fort among the lofty mountains. The fort was destroyed by Dogras in 1846 (Charak; 1977:388). Beyond Harpan hill and on the right side of the Indus river, there is a dilapidated fort in Hodur Valley (Dani; 2001: 37).

The history of fortification of the Northern Areas of Pakistan will remain incomplete if mention is not made of the fort at Chitral. Chitral, it may be mentioned, is a three hundred kilometers long valley in the upper north-western corner of Pakistan. The Hindukush mountain range separates it from Afghanistan in the west and Tajikistan in the north. Chitral is well known because of its aboriginal tribes called as 'Kalash' inhabiting the valleys of Bamburat, Rambur and Birir. The entire group of valleys is known as 'Kafiristan'. The way of life, beliefs, rituals, customs etc., of these tribes are still primitive and pagan. They are essentially a simple people living in close contact with nature and responding to its various moods without any inhibitions. The picturesque valleys, with their natural environment and inhabited by Kalash tribes, whose beauty still remains unsurpassed, are indeed very fascinating. The ruler of Chitral formerly used to be called as Mehtar of Chitral in pre-partition days.

The Fort at Chitral (Plate-11) is perched on a raised gravel ground along the bank of Chitral river, presenting a majestic view with the hills of Trich Mir overlooking the valley. It was founded by Raja Nadir Shah sometime in the 14th century A.D. Its fortification stone wall encircling the Fort is 25 feet high. Its front portion facing the river has a British period

red stone building with a number of black cavalry guns displayed in the verandah. The fort assumed importance some 200 years ago, when the valley turned into a strategic area. It provided and controlled the shortest and easiest route from China and Central Asia to the north-west of the sub-continent. The fort is

used as a palace for the former princes of the native State.

In the subsequent Chapters, detailed account of some important historical forts in various Provinces/Regions of Pakistan has been provided.

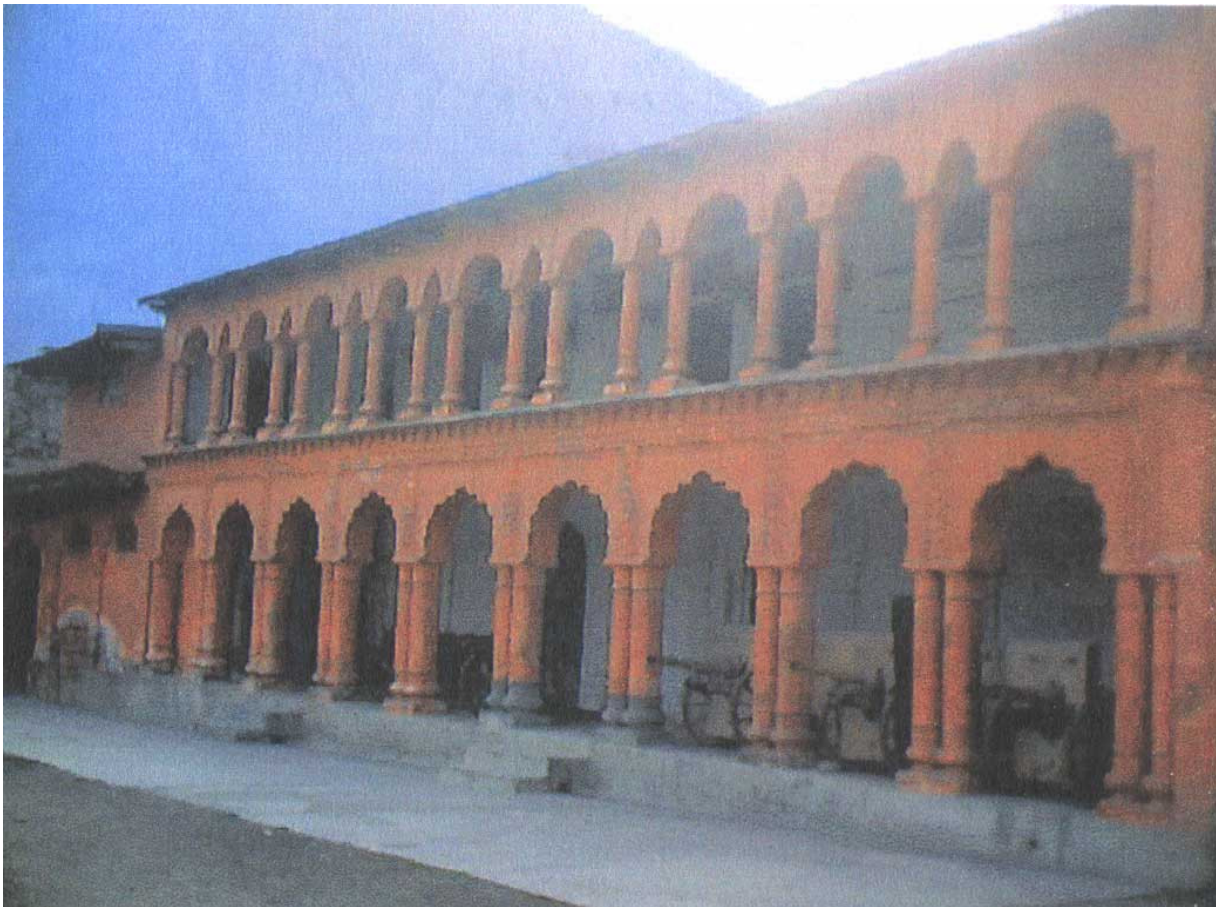


Plate-11: Chitral Fort

CHAPTER IV

HISTORICAL FORTS IN PUNJAB

A. ATTOCK FORT



Plate-12: Attock Fort: Mori Gate

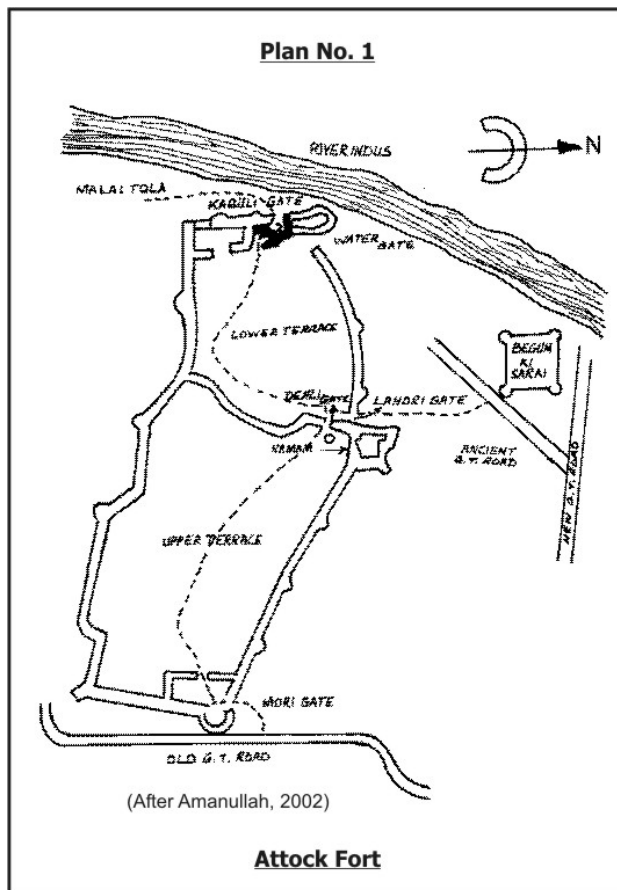


Plate-13: Attock Fort: Merlons on the Fortification Wall

Attock Fort is situated on a hilly terrain on the left bank of Indus close to the confluence of Indus and Kabul Rivers. It is an impressive fort representing one of the fine specimens of the military architecture of the Great Mughals. While returning from Kabul, Emperor Akbar had laid the foundation of the Fort in 1581 A.D. Khawja Shamsuddin Khafi was the Incharge of its construction (Abu Fazal; Vol:III, 1939: 519-20) It took nearly two years and two months to complete the construction work. The Persian inscription on a marble slab above the inner north gate-way is dated 991 A.H/1583 A.D. which gives the authentic date of its completion. The Fort was primarily built

by Akbar to check the activities of his brother, Mirza Mohammad Hakim, Governor of Kabul, who had once revolted against the Emperor. Besides, the Fort also served as a military outpost to control the important river crossing and also to guard the boat bridge, now replaced by a modern one. Sometime in 1748 A.D. Ahmed Shah Durrani, an Afghan Chief obtained it from the Mughals. In 1812 A.D. Ranjit Singh seized the Fort from the Wazir of Kabul and it remained under the possession of the Sikhs till it was finally captured by the British in 1846 A.D. after the First Sikh war (District Gazetteer Attock; 1930: 50).

The Fort was named as Attack Banaras, so as to distinguish it from Katak Banaras, the Chief Fort at the other extremity of Akbar's empire in Orissa. The fort is in the form of a parallelogram. (Plan-1).



The fortifications are over a mile in circumference (Plate-I) and are strengthened with eight bastions; all circular except one which is rectangular, rhythmically dotted with battlements and machicolations march in step with the contours of the hill down to the river ending in an elaborate gate on the river front. Internally the Fort is divided into two parts. i.e. upper and lower parts. The upper part was reserved for the soldiers while the lower was meant for the general public. There are several gates, namely Lahori, Kabuli, Aabi (water), Delhi, Mori and Mallahitola. The entrance is

now from the Mori gate facing the Grand Trunk Road. The Kabuli gate on the west is the only old entrance, which is peculiar in its design. It is double and flanked by round towers, the outer gate being in line with the fortification wall and is backed by a square court from which the inner gate opens into the interior. The gates are of sand stone; with four centered openings under musketry slits. The inner gate also has three windows with balconies and is panelled.



Plate-I: Attack Fort: General View of Fortification Wall



Plate-II: Attack Fort: Kabuli Gate

An interesting feature of the fortification is a narrow gallery contrived high up on the walls to give the defenders head and back cover. The greater part of the gallery has a vaulted roof, but in one stretch thick flat roofing-slabs replace the brick vaulting. Midway up the wall

of a tower, in the north and over-looking an extensive stretch of the river, is a balcony approached through a four centred doorway in the front of the tower, and sheltered by a *Chajja* above. This is the only building in the fortifications which is designed for residential purposes for which it is still in use albeit with alterations.

There are Mughal Hammams like Turkish Baths located near the Delhi gate of the fort. They contain a large lounge and various smaller rooms which were used as *Carlidaria*, *Tepidaria* and *Frigidaria*. The floor is hollow to allow the passage of hot air. At the bottom of the steps leading down into the Hammams is the entrance to a tunnel, which led originally to the old Lahori Gate. It is now blocked at a point about 30 yards beyond its entrance. (District Gazetteer Attock;1930: 51).

In the far west of the Fort is a steel gallows built by the Mughals. Below the gallows, now covered with iron cage, for safety purposes, is a deep well with water visible at the bottom. Those who were hanged to death were thrown into the well from where their corpses went into the river Indus. The bodies of those who were hanged in this Fort were never found. The passage to the gallows is along a wooden bridge leading from the middle of the rampart wall near the river. A balcony was built above the wall from where the hanging could be watched. Ranjit Singh is reported to have had a large number of people hanged to death on the gallows. The British are also believed to have hanged a number of Afghan insurgents between 1860 to 1890 A.D. The gallows have been abandoned since then.

B. GIRI FORT

About five miles north-east of Taxila at the foot of Margalla and at the spur end of a small

secluded valley lies the glen of Giri. Above this glen, the hills of Margalla rise some 150 feet on the south. It is approached by way of a rough torrent bed near the two villages named Khurram Gujar and Khurram Paracha. The prefix 'Khurram' is traditionally attributed to a visit of the Mughal Emperor Shah Jehan during the days of his princehood, when he was called Prince Khurram.

The glen with its perennial spring of excellent water with calm and serene environs must have attracted the Buddhist monks of yore who selected it for building a centre of learning consisting of stupas and monasteries. There still exist remains of two monasteries with stupas, one on the top of the hill and the other below it. There are also remains of a fort perched on the top of the hill. Besides, there are also two mosques and a *ziarat* (shrine).



Plate-14: Giri Fort: Remains

The fort (Plate-14) measures roughly 1350 feet east-west and 800 feet north-south with springs falling within it. The walls built in semi-ashlar type of masonry, are 10 to 11 feet thick and further strengthened with circular bastions. All the bastions are placed at regular intervals and also at the salient and re-entrant angle—a system of strengthening the corners and angles that is seen much later in the time of Hindu Shahis. According to Sir John

Marshall this stronghold was intended as a place of refuge in times of need. It was also built especially for the protection of the large bodies of Buddhist monks living at the Dharmarajika and neighbouring monasteries (Marshall; 1960:143-44). Inside the Fort, the ruins of dwellings and other structures are in evidence here and there, but there were not many potsherds and antiquities. According to Dani, the assumption made by Marshall is unwarranted unless it is shown that such a type of fort was built for such a purpose in the fifth century A.D., a date assigned to it. If the fort was meant to protect the Buddhist monks and their monasteries, then the walls should have brought all of them within its ambit which is not the case. By contrast, the way in which the salients and angles are strengthened, suggests a different type of military architecture that is seen in the forts of the eighth and ninth centuries A.D. The fort must have been in use at the time when Sultan Mahmud of Ghazna (r.998-1030 A.D) made incursions into this region in the early eleventh century A.D. There is, therefore, no reason to ascribe this fort to the fifth century A.D. (Dani; 1986:139-140). According to the contemporary sources, Giri was one of the principal Ghaznavid strongholds of north-western India. Sultan Masud, the second son of Mahmud of Ghazna, assumed the sovereignty in the year 422 A.H/1030 A.D. and took the government of his father's dominion into his hands. However, due to intrigues, his deposed elder brother Amir Muhammad got him imprisoned in Giri Fort where he remained upto 11th Jumadus Sani 432/1040 A.D. Later on without the knowledge of his elder brother, Sultan Masud was killed and his head was sent to Amir Muhammad upon receipt of which he wept bitterly and reproached the culprits (Gardezi; 1928: 109-110).



Plate-15: Giri Fort: Mosque

The mosque (Plate-15) near the water spring is a fine specimen of earlier Islamic architecture. Its prayer chamber contains a *mihrab* facing the west and a courtyard outside the chamber. It has got a fluted dome on its prayer chamber which has been erected with the aid of pendentives. The mosque, although very simple, is built entirely of rubble walls based on arcuate system of construction. Another mosque, which is just about a half mile towards east-south, is located near the ancient tank. It, however, belongs to a little earlier period, as its dome and other structural elements are not so refined. It is smaller than the earlier mosque, although the general layout is almost the same.

C. LAHORE FORT

The old name of Lahore is Madrapur, the capital of Madra people. Madra or Madraka was one of the branches of the main Aryan tribe Anu, who were settled in Central Punjab. If we take into consideration the long history of Madra people, the oldest date of the city can be traced back to Vedic time, ranging from 1500 to 1000 B.C. at the latest. Thus Lahore becomes the oldest living city in Pakistan, nay in the whole of the South Asian sub-continent, if not the whole world. (Dani; 1999: 97).

Lahore Fort In Historic Perspective.

The forts are normally constructed at some commanding place in the cities. Usually a fort once built is used by every ruling dynasty, though some additions and alternations are carried out to suit their requirements. A fort, therefore, rightly serves as a true index of the history of a particular city, ever since its foundation. In order to unfold the early history of Lahore Fort, archaeological excavations were carried out in 1959 in front of *Diwan-e-Amm*. The remains in chronological order from the top represent British, Sikh, Mughal, Sultanate, Ghaznavid and Hindu periods. A 12 feet high wall of mud bricks discovered in the lower levels is certainly of pre-Muslim era (Pakistan Archaeology No. 5; 1968:159). This pre-Muslim fort constructed with mud bricks can be the one recorded to have been sacked by Mahmud of Ghazna in 1012 A.D (Nazim, 1931: 105). On his return from Qannawj, Mahmud of Ghazna had ordered a minaret to be erected in the fort as a memorial of his victory. (*Oriental College Magazine*, May, 1938:55. It is based on *Adab al-Harb wa Shujaat*). The last Ghaznavid ruler, who had his palace in Lahore Fort was Khusro Malik. He was defeated by Sultan Shahab-ud-din Ghauri in 1189 A.D (Minhajuddin; 1881: Vol.I:453-456). Sultan Shahab uddin Ghauri was succeeded by Sultan Qutub-ud-din Aibak, who was crowned as the independent ruler of India; the coronation ceremony having been held in 1206 A.D. in '*Qasar-e-Humayuni*' in Lahore Fort (*Tarikh-e-Fakhr-e-Mudabbir*, 1928: 32-34). It shows that royal palaces were very much there in Lahore Fort. In the reign of Sultan Muezuddin Bahram Shah, the Mongols had ransacked the Lahore Fort, sometime in 639 A.H./1241 A.D. and it was got repaired by Ghiasuddin Balban in 666 A.H./1267 A.D (Sirhindi; 1976:94 & 106). Thereafter, Lahore had to bear tremendous shocks of successive

raids of the Mongols. Under the Khaljis and Tughlaqs it remained in obscurity until Sultan Mubarak Shah paid due attention to it. The author of *Tarikh-e-Mubarak Shahi* referring to the desolated condition of Lahore says that when the Sultan entered the ruined city in 825 A.H./1421 A.D, it was literally the abode of inauspicious owls. The Sultan encamped by the side of river Ravi for nearly a month and arranged for the repairs of the old mud fort and the gates of the city. However, in the same year Jasrath Shaiykha Khokhar attacked the city and a fierce fighting took place within the mud fort. He was, however, defeated whereafter Jasrath made several unsuccessful attempts to capture the fort (Sirhindi; 1976: 299-304). Sheikh Ali, Governor of Kabul attacked the city of Lahore several times, his third raid taking place in 836 A.H./1432 A.D. During his stay in Lahore, Sheikh Ali arranged for the repairs of the fortifications, which were damaged during the siege of the fort (Ahmed, Nizamuddin; Vol.I, 1973: 319).

The Syed dynasty was replaced by Lodhies in 855 A.H./1451 A.D. When Mughal Emperor Babur conquered India in 1526 A.D., the palaces of Sikhandar Lodhi, according to *Tarikh-e-Shahi* were very much therein. Infact Emperor Babur stayed in these palaces and made renovations (Chaghtai, 1973:11). It was, however, Emperor Akbar who demolished the old mud fort and rebuilt it in brick and solid masonry. The fact is thus referred to in *Ain-i-Akbari*:-

"Lahore is a large city in the Bari Doab. In size and population it has few rivals. In old books it is called Lohawar. It lies in longitude 109 22' and latitude 31 50'. In this everlasting reign the fort and a palace have been built of burnt bricks. As it was for sometime the seat of Government, lofty edifices were erected

and delightful gardens added to its beauty". (Abu Fazal; 1877, Vol.I: 538).

Emperor Akbar visited Lahore off and on from Agra and Delhi,. But due to political compulsions, he had to stay continuously at Lahore from 1585 to 1598 A.D. No definite date is available as to when the masonry fort was built by Emperor Akbar. Most probably it was built before he came to Lahore in 1585. A.D., because in connection with the rebellion of Mirza Muhammad Hakim in 974 A.H/1566 A.D., there is a mention of a masonry fort at Lahore (Abu Fazal; Vol.I, 1877:538).

Emperor Jehangir continued the work commenced by his father Emperor Akbar. An inscription in Persian over an archway to the west of *Diwan-e-Amm* records the date of completion of Jehangir's palaces in these words:-

'In the twelfth year of the blessed accession of His Imperial Majesty, the shadow of God, a Solomon in dignity, Kayomarth in state, an Alexander in arms, the asylum of the caliphate, the Emperor Nuruddin Jehangir, the son of the Emperor Jalaluddin Ghazi, corresponding with A.H. 1027 A.H. (A.D. 1617-18), the building of this auspicious palace was completed and slave, the devoted servant, Mamur Khan' (Latif; 1892:125).

The details of numerous buildings constructed by Emperor Shah Jehan are available in contemporary sources like *Badshah Nama* of Mulla Abdul Humid Lahori, *Shah Jehan Nama* of Inayat Khan, *Amal-e-Saleh* of Mulla Mohammad Saleh Kamboh etc. However, there is a conclusive evidence in the form of a Persian inscription (reproduced below) over the Shah Burj Gate, behind the British period postern:

English Translation

'The King, a Jamshed in dignity, a Solomon in grandeur, a Saturn in state.

Who has carried the banners of his glory beyond the sky and the sun.

The rival of Sahibqiran, Shah Jehan, to whom in justice and generosity. Nausherwan is no equal nor Afredun a peer,

Ordered a Shah Burj to be erected which for its immediate heights.

Is like the Divine Throne beyond imagination and conception.

In purity, heights, elegance and airiness, such a tower.

Has never appeared from the castle of the sky nor will,

The sincere servant and faithful disciple, Abdul Karim,

After the completion of the building devised this date:

For ever like the fortune of this king, a Jamshed in arms,

May this auspicious lofty tower remain safe from destruction,

A.H. 1041, 4th year of the accession: (Latif; 1892:121).

Emperor Shah Jehan in the above inscription has been equated with the ancient Persian Kings Jamshed and Nausherwan and even with Hazrat Soloman (A.S). Almost all the Mughal Emperors associated themselves with the Kings of the goneby ages whose courage, valour, justice and humanism were proverbial. Emperor Jehangir, in the inscription on the North West angle of *Diwan-e-Amm* of Lahore Fort, has been styled as Soloman in dignity, a Keomars in grandeur, an Alexandar in armed strength and the asylum of the Caliphate (Latif; 1892: 125). The soffit of Kala Burj in Lahore Fort contains a painting showing the retinue of Hazrat Soloman. (Plate-III). Again in the inscription on the southern facade of

Emperor Akbar's mausoleum at Sikandra, near Agra, Emperor Jehangir has been praised as a King who has the grandeur of Darius, the triumphs of Alexander, the justice of Nausherwan and the pomp of Solomon. (Smith, E.W.;1909: 34). In one of the inscriptions at the Akbar's mausoleum, the concept of power, grandeur and dignity of the Mughal Emperors has become much more emphatic. "... The crowner of fortunate Emperors, enthroner of Kings of exalted dignity, renewer of the marks of perfection, renewer of the phases of prosperity, a Sahibqiran, a Humayun in pomp, displacer of the glories of Kisra and Caesar, meaning thereby the heaven exalted King of Kisra's dignity, father of Ghazi (Jehangir), the Emperor Jalauddin Muhammad Akbar, was the diamond of the crown of Kings and crown of the head of the lords of the world (endowed with) Jamshed's power and dignity and Solomon's pomp and majesty". (Smith; 1909: 31-35).

Emperor Aurangzeb, according to a Persian inscription on the big marble ornamental slab fixed on the forehead of the main gateway of the Badshahi Mosque, constructed this mosque in 1084 A.H/1673-74. (Khan, Waliullah; 1978: 1) After his accession to the throne, Emperor Aurangzeb came to Lahore in 1086 A.H/1663 A.D. He held a darbar in *Shah Burj* (*Shish Mahal*). Again he came to Lahore in 1086 A.H/1675 A.D. and stayed in Shalamar Garden. He offered his prayers in Badshahi Mosque. But there is no mention about any construction work in Lahore Fort. (Khan, Mustaid; 1932: 31 and Kazim 1868: 833). However, construction of Alamgiri Gate is attributed to Aurangzeb Alamgir, which is controversial. No other Mughal Emperor is reported to have constructed any building in Lahore Fort.



Plate-III: Lahore Fort: Painting in the interior of the dome of Kala Burj

After the collapse of the Mughal Empire, the Sikhs took advantage of the chaotic situation. Maharaja Ranjit Singh made Lahore capital of the new Kingdom in 1799 A.D. During the Sikh rule, a few additions were made in Lahore Fort, which are easily recognizable by their gaudy ostentation and barbaric uncivilized splendour. The new structures include a marble pavilion (*Athdara*) outside Shish Mahal, Mai Jindan's Haveli, Kharak Singh's palace and certain upper storey buildings over the Shish Mahal. The Punjab was, however, annexed by the British in March, 1849 A.D. (Bell, Evans; 1975:105) and during the British occupation, modern buildings sprang up like mushrooms all over the Fort, ancient building having been subjected to extensive change, alterations and additions to make them suitable for use as barracks, hospitals, godowns etc. The north east Burj of the Jehangir's quadrangle and *Diwan-e-Khas* were converted into cathedrals. The royal hamams (baths) were used as kitchen and the *Lal Burj* as a liquor bar. (Lal; 1977: 353). In 1927, the Fort was handed over to the Department of Archaeology, after demolishing a good portion of the fortifications on the south, in order to demilitarize it. Almost all the modern buildings and new additions made by the

British were gradually removed and the Fort brought to its original layout as far as

practicable. The Fort was inscribed on the World Heritage list by Unesco in 1981.

General Layout of Lahore Fort.



Plate-IV: Lahore Fort: General View

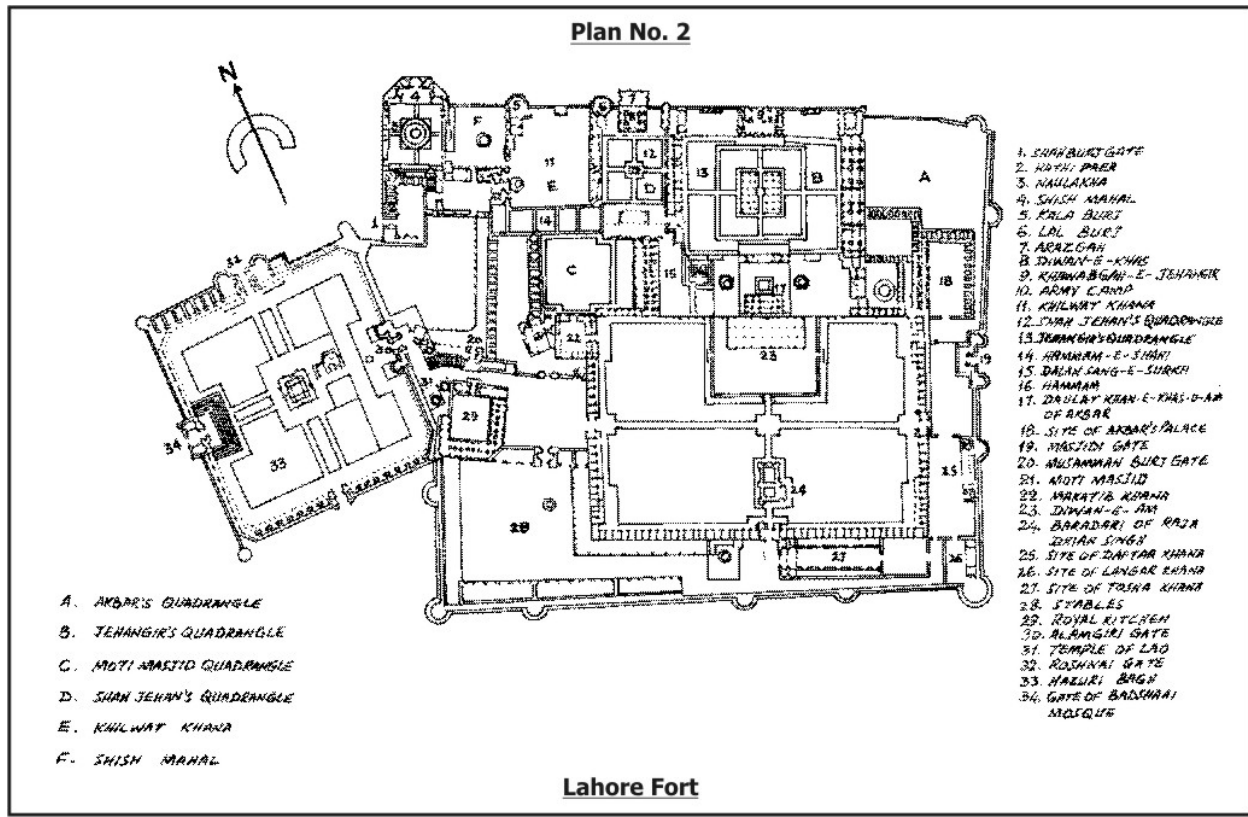
Lahore Fort occupies the north-west corner of the old walled city. (Plan-2). It measures about 1400 feet east-west and 1100 feet north-south excluding the moat and the northern fortification wall, which were added in the reign of Maharaja Ranjit Singh, the Sikh ruler (1799-1839). The river Ravi which originally used to flow close to the fort wall, shifted its course further north. This had necessitated the erection of northern fortification wall. It is

topped by battlements and loop-holes for musketry. The fortification wall is a lofty structure built in small burnt bricks laid in lime mortar and strengthened with semi-circular bastions all along its perimeter and corners.

There are three gates in the fort; *Masti* gate in the east, so called Alamgiri gate in the west and *Shah Burj* gate behind the British period

postern. Emperor Akbar's palaces were at the north-east of the fort. Emperor Jehangir built his palaces and courts against the north-wall,

immediately close to those of Emperor Akbar. Emperor Shah Jehan added the extensive and elegant palaces at the north-west.



Layout Plan of Lahore Fort

Description of the Buildings

AKBAR'S PERIOD

Akbar's Quadrangle

Emperor Akbar, as mentioned above, remained in Lahore from 1585 to 1598 A.D. He must have, therefore, lived in his palaces, which were constructed when the foundation of the *pucca* fort was laid by him. The remains of his palaces are still visible towards the *Masti* gate in the west of the fort. While going through the contemporary sources, one can find a reference about the construction of a

tank in Lahore Fort. Such a reference is also found in *Akbarnama* (Abu Fazal; 1973, Vol. III: 1000) in connection with the narrative for the year 1594 A.D. by Abu Fazal. Relevant extracts are reproduced below:

"At this time, Hakim Ali Gilani made a wonderful tank. There was a passage in it to a room and a wonderful thing was that the water of the tank did not enter it. Men who went down into it to find the entrance had much trouble and many returned halfway. On the 5th His Majesty went to inspect it and personally went down. He did not listen to the warnings of men and entered the water palace and stayed for sometime. The spectators nearly

died (of terror), but came to themselves on hearing of his welfare. I lost my senses on seeing his misplaced courage, but submitted to fate and remained silent”.

According to *Muntakhabut Tawarikh*, Mir Hyder Ali, a riddle maker, found the date of its construction in the phrase, “The pond of Hakim Ali”, viz 1002 A.H/1594 A.D. Some seventeen years before, Hakim Ali also constructed a similar tank at Fatehpur Sikri, but the pretension of the Hakim failed (Badayuni, 1973, Vol.II:272 and Vol.III:232). It may be recalled that according to Gulbadan Begum, Emperor Humayun had built a similar water palace in Agra which was named as *Imarat-e-tilism* (House of Magic). (Begum, Gulbadan; 1972: 118).

A *Suffa* (Musalla) was constructed in Lahore Fort by Emperor Akbar, so that prayers could be offered there. He issued an order to the effect that anybody, who wished to do so might offer their prayers there in his presence. Hakim Misri had praised the construction of the *Suffa* in the following couplets:

English Translation

‘Our Emperor has established a mosque,
Greeting to all the believers,
Herein too there is a purpose;
To count the number of worshippers’
(Badayuni; Vol:III: 1973: 230).

In *Tarikh-e-Shahi*, the construction of the *Suffa* has been eulogized in the following verses:

English Translation

‘Thank God, it occurred to the Emperor sitting
on a high pedestal, to do this,

The land became embellished, as for its face

lifting jewels were procured from all the four corners,

To decorate and consolidate the world hereafter, Jalaluddin Muhammad Akbar has arrived,

From the unseen came a voice about its year of construction,

That the platform built by Emperor Akbar is aglow with light,

From the year that he ascended the throne, my mind said “awareness ensured”.

The remains of the *Suffa* are, however, not traceable. It is likely that the foundation of the *Moti Masjid* constructed subsequently was laid over this *Suffa*.

The details of the buildings belonging to Emperor Akbar’s period, which are still extant, are as under:-

1. Masti Gate

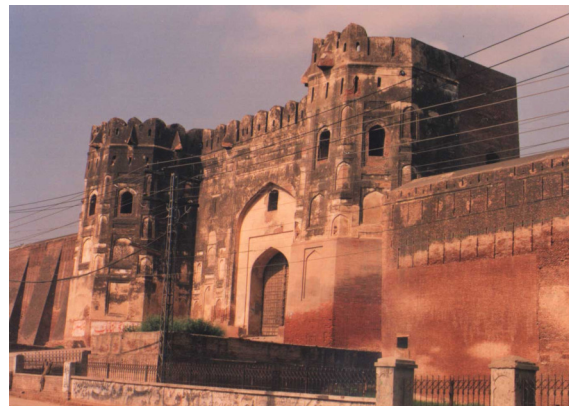


Plate-16: Lahore Fort: Masti Gate

Masti Gate means gate of intoxication. But infact it is the Masjidi gate, which came to be known as such after a mosque was built near it according to an inscription in 1020 A.H/1614 A.D. by Queen Maryam Zamani; the mother of Emperor Jehangir (Chaghtai; 1976: 50). It is a monumental gate defended by a pair of semi-circular bastions; one on each side. The parapet and top of the bastions contain

battlements having loop-holes and machicolations. The arched entrance is placed within a recessed arched way, enclosed in its turn by a rectangular frame. The recessed arched way is topped by an arched window. The exterior surface of the bastions is divided into vertical blocks and arched and panelled areas.

2. *Daulat Khan-e-Khas-o-Amm (Hall of Public and Private Audience).*



Plate-17: Lahore Fort: Daulat Khana Khas-o-Amm built by Emperor Akbar

There is a mention in *Muntakhabut Tawarikh* that, in connection with the celebrations of *Nauroz*, Emperor Akbar sent orders for the decoration and reparation of *Diwan Khanah* at Lahore. The hall consisted of 114 porticos decorated with all sorts of ornamentations such as valuable stuffs and embroidered curtains. The event relates to 22nd Rabi-us-Sani, 996 A.H/29th December, 1587 (Badayuni; Vol.II, 1973: 377).

The *Daulat Khana-e-Khas-o-Amm* built by Emperor Akbar (Plate-17) is located to the north of *Diwan-e-Amm* (Hall of Public Audience) which was constructed by Emperor Shah Jehan. The building comprises a series of rooms to which access is possible through a

stair-case provided in *Diwan-e-Khas*. The interior of the rooms is decorated with stucco tracery both in geometrical and floral motifs. The chambers contain multi-cusped arches, built in marble. The dado of the main chamber is covered with marble slabs having lines of black and yellow stones in zig zag patterns in the borders. The ceilings of the rooms are embellished with floral designs in colour or lime plaster.

3. *Jharoka*



Plate-18: Lahore Fort: Jharoka

The *Daulat Khan-e-Khas-o-Amm* contains a projecting balcony of white marble supported by four serpentine brackets of red sand stone. This is also known as *Jharoka*, from which the

Emperor allowed himself to be viewed by the people of all ranks. This mode of showing is called *as Jharoka Darsana*. The architectural style of the balcony is the same as is reflected in similar balconies of Akbar's period in Agra and elsewhere. The representation of *Nagas* (serpents) on the red sand stone brackets is just a decorative motif irrespective of its iconographic significance in Hindu mythology. This motif is found very commonly even in tomb architecture. The mausoleum, at Makli Hill, Thatta, of Jam Nizamuddin Nindo; a Summa ruler (d. 1508 A.D.) is quoted as an instance. (Hasan;2001:186). The serpentine motif is deeply rooted in the hoary past as we find its depiction on pottery recovered from pre-Indus ancient sites. (Hasan;1990:-82).

4. The Khanas / Basement Chambers.

The basement chambers are located in the northern part of the fort. At the time of construction of the *pucca* fort by Emperor Akbar, the northern part apparently had a great depression, which was covered by constructing the basement chambers. In this way the level of the northern part was brought at par with that of the northern area. The device, so adopted, not only strengthened the stability of the upper structures, but also provided adequate space for storage purposes, with no extra cost. Some of the basement chambers, particularly those under *Shish Mahal* could be used as cool shelters during the summer season. Traces of fresco paintings are visible in these chambers.

5. Akbari Hammam

In the south western corner of the Jehangir Quadrangle, some parts of a luxurious bath exist. In view of its prominent location and superb decoration, it seems to have been

reserved for the use of the royalty. The bath is actually in the north-western corner of *Daulat Khan-e-Khas-o-Amm* (S.No.2 above) of Emperor Akbar. Abdul Hamid Lahori has given some description of this bath in *Badshah Nama* (Lahori; Vol.I, Part I, 1866: 148). English translation of the relevant extracts is reproduced below:

‘In the reign of His Majesty (Akbar) whose abode is heaven, between *Diwankhana* (Hall of Audience) and the royal *haram*, there was a room in which the Emperor used to bath. In this place some courtiers received admittance and the Prime Minister and the Pay-master also, being honoured by the royal presence, presented to the Emperor their urgent requests. In course of time, the private apartment became to be known as *Ghusalkhana* because of a bath room built near it and so it was on the lips of the high and low, but now it is called *Diwankhana-e-Khas*, by the public as the most holy majesty has named it.’

On close examination of the bath room one can find that it had originally a tessellated marble flooring, a central cistern for taking a dip and beautifully carved red sandstone cascade in the centre of the niche in the southern wall. The walls are decorated with beautiful floral and lineal motifs in fresco as well as with some human and angelic figures added later in the Sikh period. During the British period, all these decorations were plastered. The central cistern was filled and the room used as a kitchen with the result that the entire interior surface was covered with a thick layer of soot. As a result of the conservation measures recently adopted by the Department of Archaeology, the original decorations have come to light again.

6. Akbari Mahal/Jehangir's Quadrangle.



Plate-19: Lahore Fort: Jehangir's Quadrangle

From the back of the *Jharoka* described at S.No. 3 above, one can overlook a quadrangle apparently known in Sikh times as *Akbari Mahal*. Its construction was undoubtedly commenced in Akbar's time as is obvious from the two rows of the buildings along the eastern and western sides of the quadrangle, which are distinguished by porticos of red sand stone with broad eaves supported on brackets. The quadrangle was, however, completed in Jehangir's time. (Plate-19).



Plate-20: Lahore Fort: Sculptured stone work in:
Jehangir's Quadrangle

The frontage of the chambers in red sand stone with richly carved pillars and elaborate brackets in animal form such as lions, elephants, peacocks etc. is a fine specimen of carved and sculptured stone work. (Plate-20). There is a spacious garden in the quadrangle with a tank in its centre. The tank has a square marble platform in the middle known as '*Mahtabi*'. It contains a cistern with a fountain. There are a number of fountains in the tank which when played, produce a delightful atmosphere and impart elegance and beauty to the surrounding area.

JEHANGIR'S PERIOD

Emperor Jehangir visited Lahore several times whenever proceeding from Delhi enroute to Kashmir. There is, however, some confusion as regards the buildings which he had ordered to be built in Lahore Fort. According to his *Tuzuk*, he had deputed, in his 7th regnal year 1021 A.H/1612 A.D., Khawja Dost Mohammad, who was well versed in architectural planning, to prepare a plan for the erection of a new palace *Daulat Khan-e-Jehangiri*. (1974: Vol.I: 225). The work was executed by Mamur Khan as is mentioned in a Persian inscription dated 1027 A.H/1617-18 A.D., over the archway (Plate-21) to the west of *Diwan-e-Amm* as mentioned earlier.



Plate-21: Lahore Fort: Makateeb Khana

Shah Jehan, when a prince had inspected these buildings in 1029 A.H/1619 A.D. (*Tuzuk-e-Jehangiri*; Vol.II, 1974: 114). Subsequently, the Emperor Jehangir himself paid a visit to these buildings in 1031 A.H/1620 A.D. an account of which has been given in his Memoir. (Hadi; 1999: 351). Relevant extract with English translation is given below:

“Nov. 21, 1620 A.D. (5th Muharram, 1031 A.H)

On Monday the ninth *Azar* (Nov.21), I mounted on an elephant named Tund (In some manuscript Indra) in Mumins’s gardens and proceeded scattering coins into the city. After the lapse of two time periods and three ‘clocks’ of the day, I entered the royal precincts at an auspicious hour and set foot in the buildings that had been renovated by Mamur Khan. They were really delightful quarters and gorgeous sitting rooms constructed with utmost subtlety and taste and every thing had been painted/and decorated by the masters of the time. The gardens were great and green with all sorts of charming flowers and herbs.

All over, everywhere, I took a blandishment skirt, saying “This is the palace”. In toto seven lacs of rupees, which is 23 thousand tumans of Iranian currency have been spent on this building.”

But, unfortunately, when one enters to visit the *Daulat Khan-e-Jehangiri* through the archway, referred to above, nothing is extant except the Moti Masjid or some ruins and *Hammams* in the west and north, respectively. William Finch, who visited Lahore during the reign of Emperor Jehangir in 1611 A.D. and spent several months there had dealt on certain wall paintings representing Emperor Jehangir with his ancestors and nobles. (Vogel; 1920: 17). As is borne out by the contemporaneous work of Mohammad Salih Kamboh (*Amal-e-Salih*; Vol. II, 1927:8), Shah Jehan, when he became the Emperor of India, did not like the buildings in *Daulat Khan-e-Jehangiri* and had ordered their demolition and he started the construction of a new palace in their place. This could be the main reason that no significant building remains of *Daulat Khan-e-Jehangiri* are now visible.

There is a general impression that the *Shah Burj/Shish Mahal*, as per Persian inscription over the *Shah Burj*, behind the British period postern (already mentioned above) was constructed by Emperor Shah Jehan. The work on the construction of this project was infact commenced by Emperor Jehangir as is testified by a contemporary historian Inayat Khan in *Shah Jehan Nama* (Khan, Inayat;1990: 25-26). Relevant extract of the English translation is reproduced below:

‘that the building of the Royal tower (Shah Burj) in the palace should be completed. The foundation of this tower had been laid in the 19th year of the Emperor Jehangir’s reign (1033

A.D/1624 A.D). By the 4th year of his majesty's reign (1041 A.H/1631 A.D)., these foundations were brought upto a height of 22 yards and in every layer one lakh and 80,000 bricks were used. Subsequently, after the plinth had been brought up, an addition of 11 yards, a continuous upper surface was prepared and the heavenly building completed'.

The detail of some of the buildings of Jehangir period is an under:-

7. Moti Masjid



Plate-22: Lahore Fort: Moti Masjid

The mosques were built as a matter of course by Mughal Emperors in the forts at Delhi, Agra and other places. Thus a mosque was constructed in Lahore Fort also. Prior to it, as already mentioned above, a 'musalla' was built by Emperor Akbar. It is, however not easy to determine as to who actually built the mosque that exists in the Fort. It seems probable that it was built as a part of *Daulat Khan-e-Jehangiri* in 1617 A.D. The plan of the building shows that it was built in two phases. The second phase was built in Shah Jehan's time in 1645 A.D., when it was further expanded by extending the length of the *Qibla* wall. This fact is corroborated by the presence of different types of pillars in the 'aiwan' of

the mosque. The mosque is built entirely in chaste white marble. It contains triple domes, the central one being bigger than the side ones. The arched openings in the prayer chamber are multi-cusped. The floor, also constructed of white marble, is divided into 'musallas' marked by lines in black marble. The mosque was also used as a 'Maktab' as separate seating arrangements exist for the purpose in its eastern part. During the occupation of the fort by the Sikhs, it was used as treasury. Besides, its name was changed to *Moti Mandar*. When the British came to power, they also used it as a treasury. (Lal; 1977: 353).

8. Bari Khawabgah (Larger Sleeping Chambers)

On the large platform on the north side of the Jehangir's Quadrangle (mentioned at S.No. 6 above), probably stood beautiful buildings forming the royal apartments. With the exception of a building in the centre, which now houses a museum, all have disappeared. This very building is said to have been the *Khawabgah* or bedroom, of Emperor Jehangir. (Plate-23). The *verandahs* added to this building on its three sides are undoubtedly of British period.



Plate-23: Lahore Fort: Bari Khawabgah

SHAH JEHAN'S PERIOD

After the demise of his father Emperor Jehangir, Shah Jehan ascended the throne of Delhi in 1627 A.D. He is popularly known as 'Architect King' of the Mughal dynasty. Shah Jehan is credited with the construction of imposing buildings which are no doubt of resplendent beauty and architectural splendour. In Lahore Fort, a number of buildings were constructed, some of which are of exceptional beauty and are unparalleled in the whole range of Mughal architecture. The detail of notable buildings constructed by Shah Jehan in Lahore Fort is as under:-

9. Diwan-e-Amm (Hall of Public Audience)



Plate-V: Lahore Fort: Diwan-e-Amm

During the reign of Akbar and Jehangir, the Public Assembly used to be held in front of the *Jharoka* both at Agra and Lahore. However, there were no coverings over the area reserved for those standing in the royal presence. They had, therefore, to bear the hardship if it rained in the monsoon season and of scorching sun in the summer. To alleviate their hardships, Shah Jehan ordered in the first year of his reign, that a hall of forty pillars (*Chehal Satun*) should be constructed in front of the *Jharoka* (S.No. 3 mentioned

above) both at Agra and Lahore. (Khan, Inayat; 1990: 25-26).

Standing on a large rectangular platform, some 7 feet high with stairs on its three sides, the hall measures about 187' x 60' with a height of nearly 24 feet. It occupies the centre of the fort with a spacious open court on its south. The hypostyle hall is covered by a flat roof. Its façade is formed of an arcade of nine arches with double pillars between each arch and a group of four at the corners. Three aisles of pillars with engrailed arches form the interior. To be exact, the hall is divided into three aisles of nine bays each.

Due to infighting among the Sikh royalty, the pillared hall was collapsed as a result of bombardment. It was re-built by the British Government sometime in 1846 A.D. The hall, in its present shape and form, does not truly represent the Mughal architectural features.

The red-sand stone railing around the platform is an interesting feature of the building which presumably dates back to early Mughal period. It is constructed in the technique of carpentry. Such type of railing was very much in vogue in Buddhist monuments such as the Stupa at Sanchi. On the northern half of this platform, is another platform with a height of 5 to 6 feet. This too had a similar railing on its three sides made of white marble.

It has been argued that the concept of *Chehal Satun* has got its roots in the Achaemenian hall of Persepolis in Iran. The concept of *Chehal Satun*, as is the view of a learned scholar, was acquired by the Mughal Emperors particularly Shah Jehan as they were heirs to the Iranian Kings. The Iranian heirship, it seems, has been conferred upon the Mughal Emperor i.e. Jehangir and Shah Jehan as in the Persian inscriptions at the arch-way to the west of *Diwan-e-Amm* and *Shah Burj* in Lahore Fort, they have been equated with

Soloman and Jamshed (Ebba Koch, 1993:83-89). At the outset, it may be stated that the Mughals Emperors were not heirs to the Iranian Kings. The Mughals had their roots in Central Asia and were the sovereign rulers of the sub-continent. The mere fact that both Jehangir and Shah Jehan, in their inscriptions equated themselves with Soloman and Jamshed, does not ipsofacto confer upon them the heirship of the Iranian Kings. If it was so, then we should also confer upon Emperor Jehangir, the heirship of the Macedonian Kings, as Alexander, has also been referred to in the Persian inscriptions at the arch way to the west of *Diwan-e-Amm* in Lahore Fort.

Chehal Satun in Persian means forty. It is, however, this figure of forty, indicates in Persian language, a considerable number or a large number of columns or pillars in a building. There are several monuments of this name in Iran and Central Asia i.e. *Chehal Satun* and *Chehal Dukhtaran* in Iran and *Chehal Satun* in Samarkand. The *Chehal Satun* in Isfahan built by Shah Tahmasp (1524-76 A.D) contains 20 pillars only. The Achaemenian palace of Darius at Persepolis has a Throne Hall in the form of an Apadana or a hypostyle hall. It contains 100 pillars and has also been termed as *Chehal Satun*. In plan, it differs entirely from the *Diwan-e-Amm* in Lahore Fort or at other places. (Tilla, A.B., 1978: 31 & Figure 4).

The hypostyle hall or an Apadana hall is a wide spread phenomenon and, no doubt is an indigenous style of construction. Prior to the construction of *Diwan-e-Amm* at various places by Shah Jehan, one can find some hypostyle buildings in the sub-continent. There is a building known as '*Chaurasi Khumba*' (84 Pillared hall) in Gawaliar Fort. It was built by Raja Man Singh Tomar, who had ascended the throne in 1486 A.D. This hall was even used as *Diwan-e-Amm* by Emperor

Humayun during the period he had resided in Gawaliar Fort. The greatest importance of *Chaurasi Khumba* lies in the fact that it was a forerunner of the typical Mughal *Diwan-e-Amm*, which was, as a rule, an open pillared hall. (Nath; 1982: Vol.I, 16-20).

10. *Diwan-e-Khas* (Hall of Private Audience)

To the east of *Lal Burj*, is the *Diwan-e-Khas* built entirely in white marble by Wazir Khan, Governor of Lahore in 1055 A.H./1645 A.D., at the command of Shah Jehan (Lahori, 1866;II.414). *Diwan-e-Khas* is a rectangular pavilion erected on elegant pillars containing multi-cusped arches on its three sides. It measures 51'x51' and contains 20 openings. Its northern side is, however, covered with beautiful perforated marble screens with a window in the centre. The floor is laid in marble intarsia of colourful geometrical patterns. In the centre of the pavilion, there is a cup-shaped cistern inlaid with pietra-dura work. The marble ceiling is tastefully decorated. Its parapet, which is embellished with inlay work, provides an added attraction.



Plate-VI: Lahore Fort: *Diwan-e-Khas*

11. *Khawab Gah* (Sleeping Chambers) of Shah Jehan

In front of the *Diwan-e-Khas* is a small garden with a square marble platform in the middle approached by means of steps on its four sides. In the centre of the platform, there is a fountain. On the other side of this garden i.e. to the south, is a long brick platform running east-west. Adjacent to this platform is the *Khawab Gah* of Shah Jehan which was built in 1043 A.H/1633 A.D (Kamboh; 1927, Vol. II, 8).

It contains five spacious rooms having multi-cusped arched openings. The room in the centre is comparatively bigger than the remaining rooms; which contains stone built door frames. The back portions of the sleeping chambers are closed with latticed marble screens. In the central chamber, there is a fountain. There are some fresco paintings of the Sikh period in the chamber on extreme west. The fresco paintings represent Radha and Krishna in the central chamber (Plate-VII) and the portrait of a Sikh Prince with his wife on a jamb of the western room.



Plate-VII: Lahore Fort: Fresco Painting in Khawab Gah of Shah Jehan

12. Hammam-e-Shahi (Royal Baths)

Adjacent to Shah Jehan's *Khawabagh* on the western side lies the *Hammam-e-Shahi*, which were constructed in 1043 A.H/1643 under the superintendence of Wazir Khan (Kamboh; 1927; Vol.II.8). It is a single storey structure. There are two separate sets of bath for men and women. The bath room reserved for the Emperor contains three main apartments. Running along the apartment on the northern side is a vaulted passage connected by two entrances with the first and one entrance with the last apartment of the *Hammam*. The apartment adjoining the Shah Jehan *Khawabgah* was known as '*Jama Khana*' (Dressing and un-dressing room). The square platform in the middle of the '*Jama Khana*' which is like 'apodyterium of Roman thermi has an octagonal tank with a semi dome, one each on the eastern and western sides and



Plate-24: Lahore Fort: Khawab Gah of Shah Jehan

rectangular alcoves to the north and south. The '*Jama Khana*' has four square rooms at each corner and the royal entrance passes through the north-eastern room of the apartment. These square rooms were meant for keeping clothes and refreshments.

An arched entrance, blocked and divided into two rectangular entrance during the British period leads into the second apartment of the *Hammam*, which is infact a tepidarium of the Roman thermi. In the centre of the tepidarium is a square tank topped by a dome. The tank was meant for hot and cold baths. A recess in the southern wall of the tepidarium indicates that the space was occupied by a couch of pleasing design for the repose of the Emperor. Such a couch still exists in the central apartment of Shah Jehan's *Hammams* in the Delhi Fort (Delhi Fort, Archaeological Survey of India, 1932:53).

The third or the western most apartment corresponding to the calidarium of Roman bath is a three bay spacious hall built in north western corners. To the west of the central bay is a reservoir for water with a furnace beneath it. The rooms on either side of the reservoir are hot baths to which metallic feeding pipes carry hot water from the reservoir. The north-western room was used as a *Bait-ul-Khala* (Latrine).

The hall of the tepidarium served as a venue for holding meetings. It was also used as a Cabinet Council chamber. Sir Thomas Roe met Emperor Jehangir in the *Shahi Hammam* in Agra Fort (Foster, 1899, 106-107). Elaborate arrangements had existed in the *Hammam* both for hypocaust and aqueduct. (Lundkhawar; 1986: 254-259).

13. *Khilwat Khana* (Private Chambers)

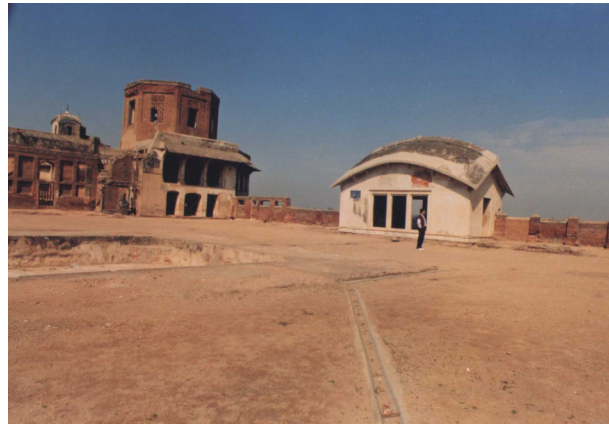


Plate-25: Lahore Fort: Khilwat Khana

North of the Shahi Hammams and on the west of Shish Mahal, there is an open court. It contains a pavilion (now in ruins) with a curvilinear roof in its centre (Plate-25). It is generally called *Khilwat Khana* (now in ruins) or private chambers of the royalty. According to some scholars this was, probably the *Khilwat Khana* or Royal Wardrobe. Dresses and pieces of embroidered cloth for the use of the royalty were prepared and kept here. Some of these were, of course, given to the nobles of the court for the distinguished services rendered by them. Since the building is located close to the *Shahi Hammams*, the possibility of its being used as a Wardrobe cannot be ruled out.

14-15. *Kala Burj* and *Lal Burj*

The *Kala Burj* and *Lal Burj* are located on the west and east respectively of the ruined pavilion mentioned at S.No. 13 above.



Plate-26: Lahore Fort: Kala Burj

Kala Burj (Plate-26) contains a square room with a narrow verandah all around and an extensive row of rooms on its southern side. The top storey is an addition made during the Sikh period. Its original features have been marred by additions and alternations made both during the Sikh and British periods of occupation. The eave (*Chhajja*) is constructed in interlocked brick work. Such sort of device does not require any reinforcement.

Lal Burj is a domed octagonal structure consisting of three storeys. The top most storey is of Sikh period while the rest are of Shah Jehan's period. There is a double storey verandah on its northern and western sides. Parts of the walls and arches are embellished with floral designs.

16. *Paien Bagh* or *Ladies Garden*

It is located towards north of the *Shahi Hammams* mentioned at S. No. 12 above. The garden was exclusively reserved for the inmates of the *Haram*. In the middle of the garden, there is a spacious platform built in cut brick work with a basin in the centre. On each side of the platform, there are four grassy plots contained in a square, which was originally enclosed by a stone railing.

17. *Shah Burj Gate*



Plate-VIII: Lahore Fort: Shah Burj Gate

Shah Burj Gate is behind the British period postern. It was built by Emperor Shah Jehan in 1041. A.H./1631-32, as already mentioned above. It leads to the *Shish Mahal* i.e the *Haram* portion of the fort. The arched gateway is quite imposing and is embellished with beautiful glazed tiles in multi-colours.

18. *Hathi Paer* (Elephant Path). (Plate-27)

Starting from *Shah Burj Gate* and ending on the ruined entrance of the outer courtyard of *Shish Mahal*, is a stair case with 58 low and broad steps 216 feet in length and 18'-8" in width. It is constructed entirely of small country bricks covered with lime plaster. This path was meant for elephants carrying the royalty from and to the palace.



Plate-27: Lahore Fort: Hathi Paer

Flanking the stair-case on either side are high panelled walls decorated with imitation brick-work in red, white and green colours. The western wall is provided with niches both in the lower and upper storeys wherein used to stand the *Khawaja Sara* (Eunuch) as also the *Naqib* (Announcer) to announce, in their awe-inspiring voice, the departure and arrival of the royalty. The upper gallery was the *Ghulam Gardish* (servants gallery) connected through an inter-communicating door with *Shish Mahal*.

19. *Shah Burj (Shish Mahal)*

The construction of *Shish Mahal*, as mentioned above, was commenced by Emperor Jehangir in 1033 A.H/1624 A.D. and was completed by Emperor Shah Jehan in his 4th regnal year i.e. 1041/1631 A.D. (Khan, Inayat; 1990:25-26).

The *Shish Mahal* consists of a spacious lofty hall in front and several rooms behind and on either side of it. The north or back wall in the central chamber contains a large marble screen tastefully, carved out in tendril designs. The main decorative features are (a) '*Aiena*' *Kari* or the mosaic work in convex mirror glass with *munbat kari* or stucco tracery (b) gilt work (c) *pietra dura* (inlaid floral patterns in semi precious stones on a marble background) specially in the spandrels of the arches and on the bases of the columns carrying the superb multi-cuspsed arches and (d) the marble screens of extraordinary beauty and perfection skillfully carved in geometrical and tendril designs.



Plate-IX: Lahore Fort: Shish Mahal

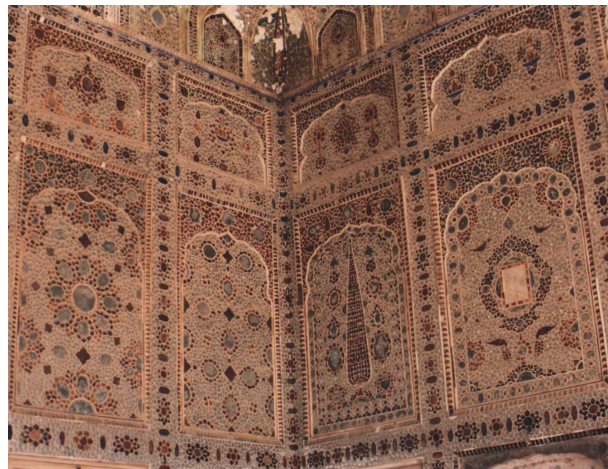


Plate-X: Lahore Fort: Interior Decoration: Shish Mahal

There is a spacious courtyard in front of the chamber. Its floor is paved with stone slabs of various types of variegated marble such as *Sang-e-Badal*, *Sang-e-Abri*, *Sang-e-Musa*, *Sang-e-Khatu* etc. In the centre of the courtyard, there is shallow water basin round in shape. A '*mahtabi*' occupies the centre of the basin.

20. *Naulakha*



Plate-XI: Lahore Fort: Naulakha

The beautiful pavilion in the centre of the western side of *Shish Mahal* with *Bangla* roofs (curvilinear) and eaves (imitation of thatched roofings) is called as *Naulakha*. It contains a single room with three entrance doors in the front. The central entrance is of multifoil-arch type and is flanked by two small openings of lintel type. There is also a similar opening on its left and right sides. The back side is covered by a perforated marble screen. Its walls and pillars with their capitals and pedestals are embellished with peitra-dura work of the most exquisite type. Semi precious stones such as agate, jade, gold stone, lapislazuli etc. of various hues, sizes and shapes have been inlaid into the white marble surface. The stalactite decoration of the capitals of half pillars contains miniature niches. In one such niche about 102 minute

pieces of semi precious stones have been inlaid to form one floral pattern (Khan, Waliullah; 1964:36). The ceilings of *Naulakha* are decorated with floral colour paintings and design made of small convex mirror pieces embedded in plaster. The pavilion is known as *Naulakha* as a sum of Rupees nine lacs was incurred on its construction. The *Naulakha* pavilion of chaste workmanship was, however, stripped of its semi-precious stones by the Sikhs and the British.

21. Pictured Wall

The exterior of the fort wall in the north and north-west known as 'Pictured Wall' presents a series of mosaic tile panels, which are amongst the most remarkable and unmatched in the world. It is famous for its variety of designs and beauty of colours. According to J.Ph.Vogel, who published the study of 116 tile mosaic panels had remarked in the year 1920, "the pictured wall is a lasting monument of the Great Mughals, remarkable alike for the vastness and variety of its decoration and more than any other of their buildings. It affords a striking illustration of their peculiar culture in which barbarism and refinement were so strangely blended". (Vogel; 1920:3).



Plate-XII: Lahore Fort: Pictured Wall

The wall is nearly 500 yards in length and 16 yards in height. The total decorated surface area thus works out to be 8000 square yards. The decorations are placed between the two cornices divided into double row of arched recesses, while the spandrels are tastefully decorated with tile-mosaic. An endless variety of subjects, designs and motifs have been depicted on the wall through the medium of glazed tiling. These include stylized florals, geometricals, arabesques and figuratives. The figural art is, however, at its best. Some of the outstanding figural scenes are (a) Horsemen and wrestlers (b) Dromedary led by men, (c) Elephant mounted by two men, (d) Elephants fight, (e) Horsemen and Footmen, (f) Fighting Bulls, (g) Camel led by men (h) Horseman hunting lion, (i) Horsemen, elephant and footmen playing polo, (j) Swords men (k)

Four horsemen playing polo, (l) Elephant preceded by footman holding *Charkhi*, (m) Antelope led by a man (n) Goat and Monkey man, (o) Tiger pursuing a goat, (p) Man holding dagger and many more. Some panels depict hunting scenes, processions, animal or mythical beings, fairies with wings, musicians with instruments, pastimes, portraits of nobles etc. The human figures on the wall give an idea of the various styles of the dresses in vogue in the Mughal period from royalty down to servants and gladiators.



Plate-XIII: Lahore Fort: Pictured Wall: Horsemen

The figural art depicted on the pictured wall received inspirations from the contemporary miniature paintings. This is borne out by the fact that the typical subjects of paintings, such as animal fight, hunting and other scenes, games, processions and mythical figures, are depicted on the pictured wall in glazed tiling. The glazed tiling was done by a team comprising the architect, potter, painter and glazed tiler. Mural space was planned and panelled by the architect. The potter prepared different denominations of the brick work, which were used on the pictured wall as an integral aspect of the glazed tiling. The painter provided motifs and the designs of the figurative art, which were translated in letter and spirit on glazed tile panels. The glazed tiler was certainly the chief man. With a selected variety of colours and tints, with blues, violets, yellows and reds predominating, he worked wonders on the mural space. The architect, being also a coordinator, arranged the whole composition in a systematic manner. The magnificent pictured wall of Lahore Fort, in its finished form, was thus the result of combined efforts of the glazed tiler, potter, painter and the architect.

AURANGZEB's PERIOD

22. Alamgiri Gate



Plate-XIV: Lahore Fort: Alamigiri Gate

The western wall of the fort contains a monumental gate which opens towards *Hazuri Bagh*. It is a double storey gateway and is approached by a ramp. On its either side, there is a semi-circular bastion topped by elegant domed pavilions and the corners by *Guldastas* (vases). It is known as Alamgiri Gate, because its construction is attributed to Emperor Aurangzeb, although no contemporary evidence is available to prove it. On the basis of its style of construction and the material used in it, the gate can be termed as an edifice of the era of Emperor Akbar. If it was constructed by Aurangzeb, he would have certainly used red-sand stone in its construction like the Badshahi mosque, in order to harmonize the over-all landscape of the area.

SIKH PERIOD

23. Ath Dara (Building with Eight Openings)

Outside the Shish Mahal, close to its modern gate and alongwith its eastern wall, there is a small marble pavilion with eight openings, erected on slender pillars. It is said to have

been built by Ranjit Singh and was used as Court of Justice. It seems to have been built by robbing the material from some other Mughal buildings. This is testified by the fact that the combination of white marble and red sand stone brackets and marble trellis screens with red stone posts in the railing on the roof show the workmanship reminiscent of the Mughal period. There are frescoes on its western wall showing some scenes from the life of Krishna who is believed by the Hindus to be the 8th incarnation of Vishnu.

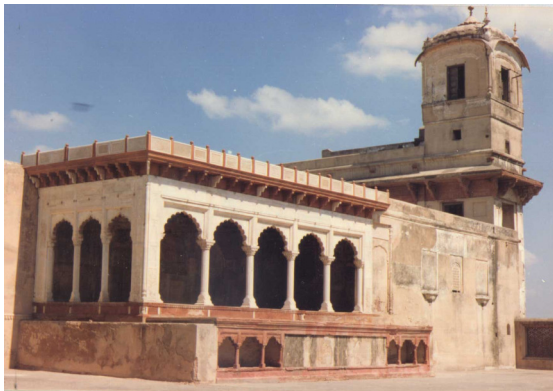


Plate-28: Lahore Fort: Ath Dara

24. Mai Jindan's Haveli

Passing through the archway, which is also known as entrance to *Makatib Khana*, there is a raised platform on its east on which stands a double storeyed building. The lower storey can reasonably be considered to have formed part of *Daulat Khan-e-Jehangiri*.



Plate-29: Lahore Fort: Mai Jindan's Haveli

The upper storey is known as *Mai Jindan's haveli*. She was one of the queens of Ranjit Singh. It consists of a large hall with beautiful wooden windows on its exterior walls, fashioned out in typical Sikh domestic architecture. The Haveli houses at-present some Sikh period paintings, ivory objects, trappings of the horse of Ranjit Singh etc.

25. Kharak Singh Palace



Plate-30: Lahore Fort: Kharak Singh's Palace

On the large open platform, to the south of Jehangir's quadrangle, there is a double storey building to the east. Its ground floor is ascribed to Akbar's time. It is presently being used as a Library. The upper storey is the palace of Kharak Singh and now houses the

Regional Office of the Department of Archaeology.

26. Baradari of Raja Dhiyan Singh

It is a small pavilion measuring 37' x 28' with an out-stretched platform on its east. The platform has a small tank in its centre. There are also three small water basins and four cascades at various places in the pavilion. The pavilion was used as a reception hall of Raja Dhiyan Singh, the Prime Minister of Ranjit Singh.

27. Dalip Singh Pavilion



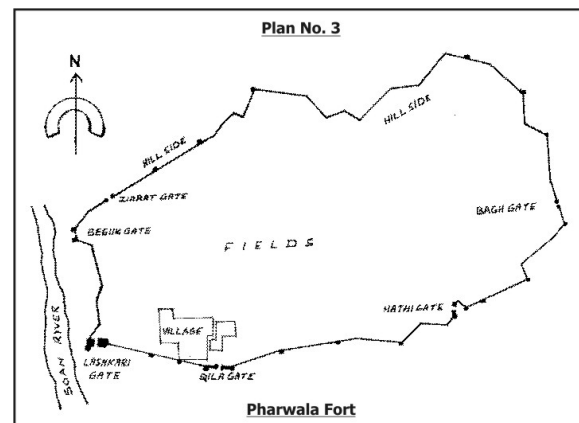
Plate-31: Lahore Fort: Dalip Singh's Pavilion

On the east of the Sleeping Chambers of Jehangir (mentioned at S.No.8), there is a rectangular pavilion built in bricks with a sprinkling of red-sand stone. In the centre of the pavilion, there is a large hall containing three door entrances. Its roof is like a *chauchalla* or a bangla roof. The central hall is flanked by a square room on each side. Both the rooms are surmounted by a ribbed dome, topped by a finial. At the parapet level, there is a *chhajja* (eave) all around in curvilinear form; a characteristic of the Sikh architecture. According to a tradition, Kunwar Dalip Singh, grandson of Ranjit Singh, was born in this pavilion. He was taken to England by the

British government, where he died subsequently.

D. PHARWALA FORT

Pharwala Fort is located on the left bank of river Soan on the Keral hills and is about 35 kilometres from Islamabad. It is 5 kilometres north of village Aliote on Kahuta road. The fort is said to have been built by Sultan Kaigohar, an associate of Sultan Mahmud of Ghazna, in about 1008 A.D. on the ruins of an earlier one of Hindu origin.



Why this place is called Pharawala is shrouded in mystery. There are several assumptions about its name. One is that Kaigohar, who was the ruler of the area used to wear a plume or feathers in his headgear. The Persian word for plume is 'Par' (feather). The wearer of the plume is 'wala'; both spoken together are Par wala, which due to the fouling of the language is pronounced as Pharwala. The second is that there is a gap in the mountain range where the place is located. The mountain is called as 'Par' and the gap as 'Hala'. So, it came to be known Par Hala, which became Pharwala because of the fouling of the language. The author of family history '*Kaigoharnamah*', Rai Duni Chand has given it the name of Pharhalah whereas

his son Rai Brij Nath, names it as Pharwala. According to Raja Changiz Sultan, the correct name is 'Parwala' which due to corruption of the language is written and spoken as Pharwala. (*Dawn*, 19th March, 1995:III).

Pharwala Fort is located on a very difficult terrain, which is ideal from tactical, strategic, military and climatic points of view (Plan-3). The perimeter wall is about 1½ mile and the average length and width are 980 and 1150 feet respectively. The fortification wall is 9 feet, 3 inches wide and is surmounted by heavy merlons. It is strengthened with as many as 13 semi-circular bastions. It has six gates—*Hathi*, *Lashkari*, *Begum*, *Ziarat*, *Bagh* and *Qila* (Plates-32 & 33).



Plate-32(a): Pharwala Fort: Hathi Gate (Exterior)

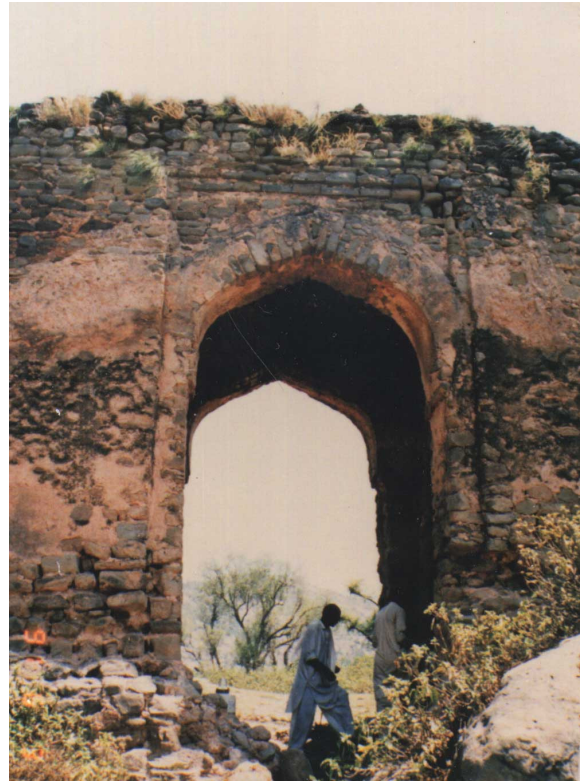


Plate-32(b): Phawarla Fort: Hathi Gate (inside)

Hathi gate was meant for the movement of elephants, horses and mounted elements; *Lashkari* gate for the infantry; *Begum* gate for the movement of ladies; *Ziarat* (meaning shrine) gate leads to the burial place of an ancestor of the tribe. Finally, the *Bagh* gate stands, where there was once a 'bagh' or garden. *Lashkari* gate is still in a good state of preservation. Laid between two massive bastions, it is a double gate having shouldered arches in recess with two small cells in the interior to provide accommodation for the watchmen. The face is finished with panels created in lime Surkhi plaster.



Plate-33(a): Phawarla Fort: Gate from West (Exterior)

On the western and southern walls, the rooms for the warriors, eating places for elephants, horses and other animals have been made. The ruins of old places like *Naqqar Khana* are visible. Across the river Soan, there is a resting area, a caravan serai with a mosque and the graves of the Gakhar rulers of Sultan Adam Khan, Sultan Momara Khan and the tomb of the last ruler Sultan Muqurab Khan. From different historical sources, it is gathered that 50 elephants, two hundred horses and five hundred foot soldiers always used to be in the fort. The fort has got association with Mahmud of Ghazna, Ali Al Hajveri, popularly known as Hazrat Data Ganj Bakhsh (1012 A.D). Alberuni (1018 A.D), Shahabuddin Mohammad Bin Sam Ghauri (1191 A.D), Jalal-ud-din ruler of Khawarzam (1220 A.D), Mongols (1250 A.D) and many more, not the least Emperor Babur, who visited the place in 1519 A.D. The account given by him in his Tuzuk is as under:

“Perhaleh which stands high in the midst of deep valleys and ravines, has two roads leading to it, one of them on the south-east which was the road that we advanced by. This road runs along the edge of the ravine and has ravines and precipices on both sides. Within half a ‘kos’ (meaning a mile or so) of Perhaleh, the road becomes extremely difficult and continues so upto the very gates of the city; the ravine road, in four or five places being so narrow and steep that only one person can go along it at a time and for about a bow shot it is necessary to proceed with the utmost circumspection. The other road is on the north-west. It advances towards Perhaleh through the midst of an open valley. Except these two roads, there is no other on any side. Although the place has neither breast

work nor battlement, yet it is so situated that it is not assailable. It is surrounded by a precipice seven or eight yards in perpendicular height”. (*Babarnama*; Vol.I: 1975:387-396).



Plate-33(b): Phawarla Fort: Gate from Inside

It was at Pharwala that in 1552 A.D., Prince Kamran took refuge with Sultan Adam. The Sultan, while keeping him under surveillance informed Emperor Humayun. He reached Pharwala in 1554 and camped in tents on the banks of river Soan, where Kamran was brought to his presence. Four or Five days later, he was blinded at the camp near the fort (Begum Gulbadan; 1974: 51–201}. Finally it was in 1825 A.D. that Sardar Budh Singh during the Sikh rule, deprived the Gakkars of all their property and expelled them from Pharwala Fort, which then fell into ruins.

E. REWAT FORT

Rewat Fort, situated at a distance of about eleven miles from Rawalpindi on the right side of G.T. Road, seems to be a corruption of the Arabic word ‘Rabat’ meaning a Serai or Inn. The Fort is oblong on plan measuring 306 feet, 9 inches east-west and 348 feet, 9 inches North-South.(Plan-4). It has got semi circular bastions on its four corners and also on either side of the two gates located on the eastern and northern flanks.

The main gate being on the eastern side

(Plate-34). In the centre of the Fort, on the western flank is a big mosque.

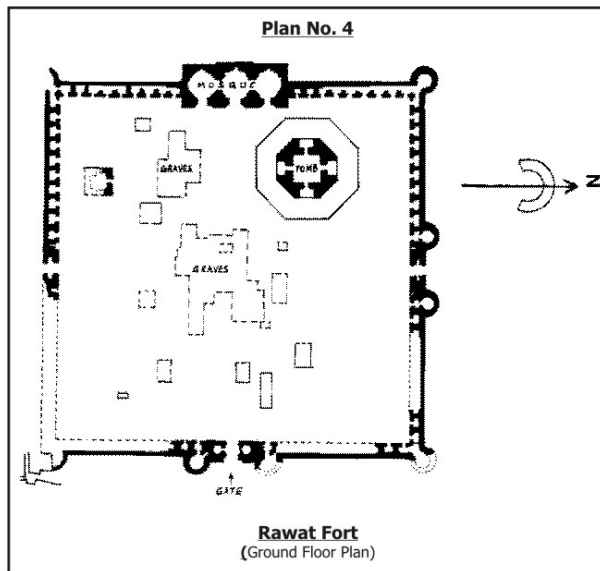


Plate-34: Rewat Fort: Main Gate

Flanking the gates and the mosque along the fortification are small cells each measuring 6 feet, 3 inches by 7 feet, 9 inches. Originally, there were as many as 76 cells. The enclosure wall is topped by merlons constructed in the shape of pointed arches. The Fort has been constructed with rubble stone with a sprinkling of burnt bricks. The vast area within the fortification is occupied by stray buildings of a mosque and a tomb. The tomb

is without any cenotaph. As such it cannot be said with certainty as to who is lying buried there. The tomb is generally ascribed to Sultan Sarang Khan, the Gakhar Chief, who was killed along with his sixteen tribal Chiefs, while fighting against Sher Shah Suri's forces led by Khawas Khan in 1546 A.D. (Distt. Gazetteer, Rawalpindi; 1909:42). The description of the mosque and the tomb is as under:

The Mosque.

It is a three domed mosque and measures 96 feet, 9 inches by 39 feet, 9 inches. The domes have been erected by means of roughly constructed squinches of local variety. The façade and the interior have recessed decorative panels with pointed arches.



Plate-35: Rewat Fort: Mosque

The Tomb

It has been built on a typical architectural plan. Externally it is octagonal in shape each side measuring 22 ½ feet. From inside, it is square in shape. The platform on which it is raised, is octagonal in shape measuring 39 feet from each side with a height of 2 ½ feet. The dome is squat and has been raised on squinches, which are identical in shape and design to those used in the mosque. The arches, domes and cornices are in brick while the rest of the structure is of stone. The

structure is quite massive and robust.



Plate-36: Rewat Fort: Tomb

There is also a graveyard within the fortification. It contains mostly the graves of those who had laid down their lives while fighting with the forces of Sher Shah Suri.

F. ROHTAS FORT

Background

Rohtas Fort was built by Sher Shah Suri, who had become the Emperor of India in 1540 A.D. by de-throning the Mughal Emperor Humayun. Sher Shah Suri had a great passion for the construction of forts, mosques, roads, serais (inns) etc. According to Abbas Khan Sarwani (*Tarikh-e-Sher Shahi*, 1964:419-20), Sher Shah once said “If my life lasts long enough, I will build a fort in every *Sarkar* on a suitable spot, which may in times of trouble become a refuge for the oppressed and a check to the contumacious”. The Rohtas Fort was, however, constructed by Sher Shah for a specific purpose. In order to consolidate his empire, he had to take a number of steps thereby ensuring that the exiled Mughal Emperor Humayun might not stage a comeback. Besides, he also wanted to curb the nefarious activities of the turbulent Gakhars

inhabiting the Salt Range, who were the great allies of the Mughals. Forestalling all these apprehensions, Sher Shah Suri decided to construct a fort at some strategic location in the Salt Range. Neamatullah has stated the circumstances which had compelled Sher Shah Suri to construct the Rohtas Fort in the following words (*History of Afghans*; 1829:131):-

‘The Afghans from all the regions of Roh, hastened to congratulate Sher Shah, who, in turn loaded them with all sorts of bounties, before their departure. Of all the Zamindars, Rai Sarang Kaker (Gakhar) was so inflated with pride that he neglected to wait on Sher Shah. Sher Shah intended to have a fortress built in their territories which they all together would be unable to take and which would serve as a check on the inroads, of the Mughals. He accordingly made a tour of the mountains circumjacent, until a proper space met his view, where he caused a fortress to be erected, which he called Rohtas. Sher Shah issued firmans to complete its fortification, but Todar Khatri is said to have represented that the Kakers (Gakhars) to whom that country belonged, entertained such an aversion to work for wages, that they had agreed amongst themselves upon oath, to expatriate every person that would act contrary to it. Sher Shah, in answer told him flatly, “that he would in no way be allowed to give up that work, which he only wished to do to satisfy his greed for gold”. On receipt of this fresh command, Todar fixed a golden Ashrafi as the price of one stone, which paramount sum induced the Gakhars to flock to him, afterwards a stone was paid with a rupee and this payment gradually fell to five tankas; thus the fortress was completed”.

One can also find a reference about the construction of Rohtas Fort in *Tarikh-e-Sher*

Shahi written by Abbas Khan Sarwani (1964:419). His narration is as under:

‘Sher Shah also built a fort at Rohtas on the road to Khurasan to hold Kashmir in check, as also the country of the Gakhars, near the hill of Balnath Jogi, four kos from the river Behat and about sixty kos from Lahore and fortified and strengthened it exceedingly. A place so fortified was never seen before and immense sums were expended upon the work’.

Abbas Khan Sarwani further states” I have heard from the relators of the history of Sher Shah that, when building this fort, stones were not procurable. The overseers wrote in their reports that stone was not procurable or only procurable at an enormous outlay. Sher Shah wrote back in reply, that his order should not be allowed to fail from avarice and they should go on with the building though they paid for the stone its weight in copper. He called that fort “Little Rohtas”. (1964:419).

In the selection of a site for the construction of the fort, Sher Shah Suri had in view the Rohtasgarh fort in Bihar. This fort was infact constructed by a Hindu Raja on a plateau atop, a hill with steeply rising sides. Its circumference is nearly 28 miles. There are fourteen gates in the fort. The fort is considered one of the largest and strongest hill forts in the sub-continent. The Rohtasgarh fort was taken over, through deceit, by Sher Shah Suri in 1539 A.D. (*Tarikh-e-Sher Shahi* 1964:358-361 and Mahmud B. Amir Wali Balkhi Vol.I, Part.II’1996:81-82). Accordingly Sher Shah Suri chose a commanding height of the Tilla spur, known also as *Jogi Balnath Ka Tilla*, for the construction of a fort to match the old Rohtas of Bihar in impregnability and also to name it after it. It was magnificently planned on a scale that indicates the grandeur of Sher Shah

Suri’s conception.

Rohtas Fort is located about 10 miles north-west of Jhelum. One can also visit the fort from Dina about 8 miles from Jhelum on the main G.T. Road leading to Rawalpindi. From Dina a narrow bumpy road on the west of the G.T. Road leads to a village Baghanwalla from where the fort is clearly visible. However, in between the village and the fort the passage is obstructed by Kahan river on which there is no bridge. An unusual type of transport i.e. the old Dodge trucks, is locally available at the village. It commutes between the two river banks. The four miles journey from Dina on the Dodge swirling through the river Kahan and splashing through shallow waters is in itself a great experience. Unless one has a sturdy transport like a four wheel drive motor car of one’s own, there is no other way of reaching the Rohtas Fort. It is almost impossible to cross the river when it becomes quite turbulent during the rainy season.

Date of Construction

According to an inscription in Persian, fixed on *Shishi Gate*, as recorded below, the fort was constructed in 948 A.H/1541 A.D.

“When 948 years had passed after Hijra.

A great fort was built by the ruler.

The Shahinshah (emperor) is Sher (lion) and the world runs before him.

His good fortune is visible from its grandeur.

It was completed by Shah (?) Sultan.”

An exact copy of the inscription is also fixed on Talaqi Gate (Khan, M.Ishtiaq;2000:60).

Cost of Construction

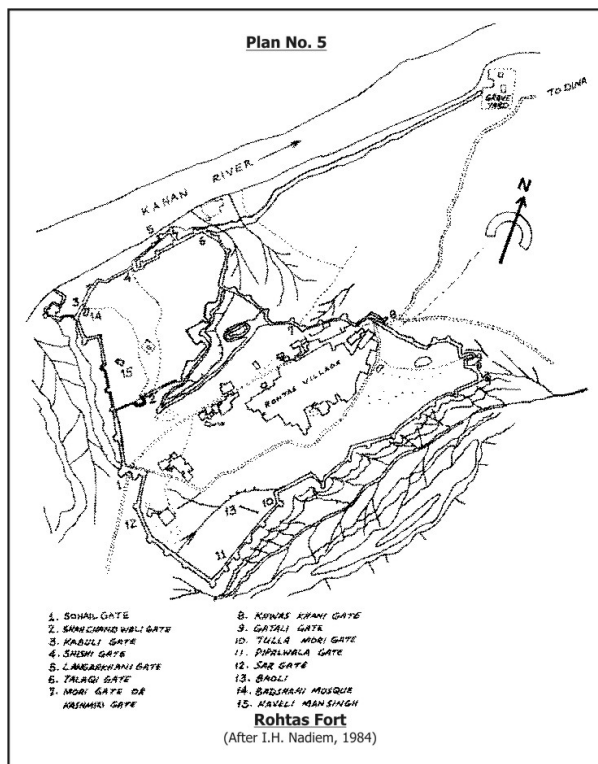
The exact cost of construction of the fort is not known. However, according to *Wakiat-i-Jehangiri* (1975:32), the cost of construction engraved on a stone slab fixed on one of the

gates is 16,10,00,000 dams. It is equal to Rs. 34,25,000 in the local currency. The engraved stone slab is, however, no more there.

According to *Tarikh-i-Daudi*, the fort was known as 'New Rohtas' and it further adds that its cost was eight krors, five lacs, five thousand and two and a half dams, which means Bahlois. The cost is written over the gate of the fort. (*Tarikh-i-Sher Shahi*; 1964: 419).

General Contours of the Fort.

The fort, which is irregularly oblong on plan and built of grey ashlar masonry, has a circumference of about 2.5 miles (Plan-5).



The massive fortification walls, which meander and turn with the undulating contours of the hills, are strengthened by 68 bastions constructed at irregular intervals. The walls at their base are 30 to 40 feet thick and from 30

to 50 feet high in many places. The bastions not only provide strength to the walls, but also add to the beauty and grandeur of the fort. The inner side of the ramparts is constructed in three tiers, which are connected with each other through stair-cases. The top of the fortification walls is surmounted with merlon shaped battlements. The walls are everywhere pierced for musketry or archery and here and there for cannons in the battlements. Near the gateways are machicolations from which molten lead could also be poured on the enemy troops. A number of vaulted galleries of different sizes have been set up within the thickness of the walls for use of the soldiers as well as for storage purposes.

Twelve gates have been provided at strategic points. The whole complex can be divided into two parts; each part being separated by a massive wall containing a well fortified gateway. The upper part on the west, overlooking the Kahan river represents the citadel (Andarkot). It was, probably meant for the military hierarchy. The Shahi Masjid, Haveli of Raja Man Singh; a General of Emperor Akbar and a 'baoli' are located in the citadel. The lower part was reserved for the soldiers. It contains a *baoli*, a well and five tanks.

Fort in Historic Perspective

The general outlook of the fort is robust in character and represents truly the towering personality of its builder, Emperor Sher Shah Suri. (Plate-XV). After the collapse of the Sur dynasty, the Mughal Emperor Humayun regained his lost empire and came back to India in 1554 A.D. In view of the changed circumstances, the strong-hold of Rohtas lost its strategic importance. Emperor Akbar is reported to have visited the fort in 989 A.H/1582 A.D. on his way to Nilab (river Indus) from Kalanaur and again in 1000

A.H./1591 A.D, on his onward journey to Peshawar. (Badayuni; Vol:II, 1973, 301 & 398). His successor, Emperor Jehangir first visited the fort on 18th April, 1607 (*Tuzuk-e-Jehangiri*, Vol.I, 1974:96). In one of his subsequent visits he went for hunting. He killed two hundred red and white antelopes.

Red antelopes were the rarity of Rohtas area (*Tuzuk-i-Jehangiri*, Vol.I, 1974:129). On another visit, the Emperor took his sisters and some other ladies alongwith him for deer hunting (*Tuzuk-e-Jehangiri*; Vol.I,1974:130). No other Mughal Emperor seems to have ever visited the fort.



Plate-XV: Rohtas Fort: Fortification Wall (western side)

However, the Durrani Kings of Afghanistan, who occupied this region in 18th century A.D. knew its value. They had maintained a garrison and also posted a Governor there, so as to keep intact the line of their communication with Kabul. With the emergence of Sikh power, the Durrannies lost control over this region. The Sikh ruler Maharaja Ranjit Singh, on his return from the un-successful expedition to Kashmir, passed through Rohtas. A tragic event is connected

with this fort. It is narrated that it was here that Ranjit Singh came to know of the death of his General Hari Singh who was killed in a battle against the Afghans at Jamrud. He wept bitterly, for Hari Singh was one of the few whom Ranjit Singh trusted and loved. (District Gazetteer Jhelum:1904:273). The fort changed hands from time to time amongst different Sikh Chieftains until 1849 when the province of Punjab was annexed to the British possessions in India. The fort was declared as

a protected monument in 1919 A.D. and subsequently, inscribed on the World Heritage list by Unesco in 1997 A.D. The fort is not in a good state of preservation as its fortification walls have collapsed at many places. Besides, some of the buildings located in it are also deteriorating rapidly.

The salient features of various buildings in the fort are described hereunder.

Gates:

The number of gates is 12. Their location-wise detail is as follows:

(a) Western side:

(1) *Kabuli* (2) *Shishi* (3) *Langar Khani* and (4) *Talaqi*.



Plate-37: Rohtas Fort: Kabuli Gate



Plate-38: Rohtas Fort: Shishi Gate



Plate-39: Rohtas Fort: Langar Khani Gate



Plate-40: Rohtas Fort: Talaqi Gate

(b) Northern side:

(5) *Mori or Kashmiri*
(6) *Khawas Khani* (7) *Gatali*



Plate-41: Rohtas Fort: Mori or Kashmiri Gate



Plate-42: Rohtas Fort: Khawas Khani Gate



Plate-43: Rohtas Fort: Gatali Gate

- (c) Southern side:
(8) Sohail (9) Sar
- (d) Eastern side:
(10) Tulla Mori and (11) Pipalwala

The 12th gate having a barbican and known as Shah Chand Wali has been pierced through the inner fortification wall. It serves as a passage between the upper and lower parts of the fort. The *Purana Qila* Delhi, though constructed by Emperor Humayun, is also associated with Sher Shah Suri. Like Rohtas Fort, the *Purana Qila* Delhi also contains *Kabuli* and *Talaqi* gates.



Plate-44: Rohtas Fort: Shah Chand Wali Gate

The gates have been named keeping in view the age old traditions. The gates are often named to commemorate the memory of certain saintly persons or celebrated personalities. For instance, the Sohail gate has been named to perpetuate the memory of Sohail Bukhari, a spritual personality, who lies buried close to the south-western bastion. Khawas Khani gate has been named after Khawas Khan; the most trustworthy General of Sher Shah Suri. Sometimes, the gates are named to indicate the direction of a particular city. The Kabuli gate falls under this category. In some places, there used to be a secret gate (*Bab al Sir*) by which an army could easily leave or enter a city. Some have interpreted such a gate as the gate of betrayal (Oleg Graber; 1978: 68). There is some controversy about the naming of *Talaqi* gate in Rohtas fort. It is said that this name stands in memory of the mishap to Sabir Sur, who according to a popular story, entered the gate and had an attack of fever. Thus taking it as a bad omen, the gate came to be known as *Talaqi* (Nadiem; 1984:143-11). Similar views have been expressed by another writer (Rehman, Abdul; 1997: 164). As stated above, there is also a *Talaqi* gate in *Purana Qila* Delhi. According to *Asarus Sanadeed* (Khan, Sir Syed Ahmad; 1904, Chapter II:11), relying upon a tradition, the *Talaqi* gate was closed after a king had left for a military expedition through this gate. It

was closed because, in the event of the failure of the military expedition, the king was supposed to be divorced. The word *Talaq* (طلاق) means divorce. The word as such is also used in the meaning of condemned. The author of *Asarus Sanadeed* has, however, not supported the tradition on which the story was based. It may be relevant to mention that in Sura 40 (*Al-Mumin*) of Holy Quran, word *Talaq* (طلاق) has been used in its Ayat No., 15, as reproduced below:

Translation

“By His Command doth He,
Send the spirit (inspiration),
To any of His Servants,
He pleases that it may
Warn (men) of the Day of Mutual Meeting.”

The meaning of *Talaq* (طلاق) is a meeting place. It would thus appear that the correct name of the gate is ‘تلاقى’ and not ‘طلاق’. The gate might have been used as a meeting place by those who wanted to have an audience with the Emperor or some other dignitary.

The gates are constructed in ashlar masonry and protected by well fortified bastions, one on each side. All the gates, with the exception of *Shishi* gate, *Talaqi* gate, *Gatali* gate, *Tulla Mori* gate, *Pipalwala* gate and *Sar* gate, are double gates with off-sets. Their parapets contain battlements having loop holes, in some cases, machicolations. The arched gates are located in a rectangular frame. The spandrels of the arches are generally decorated with roundels of different motifs such as sun flowers, lotus flowers and calligraphic inscriptions. The *Sohail* gate is one of the finest gates and is well preserved. (Plate-XVI).



Plate-XVI: Rohtas Fort: Sohail Gate

It is not only aesthetically designed, but is also superb in its decorative elements. The description of the gate is given below:-

It is a lofty structure built on a rectangular plan and is flanked by massive bastions, which are circular in shape. The gate is 70 feet high with a width of 68 feet. Its depth is about 50 feet. The arched entrance is placed within a recessed arched-way enclosed in its turn by a rectangular frame. The gate is surmounted by a embattled parapet with loop-holes for defence. There are two oriel shaped balconies which project from the each bastion at a second storey level. They are constructed on indigenous style similar to the balconies in Elephant gate of Rohtas Fort in Bihar. (Hillenbrand; 1996: 116, fig 7). The balconies are supported on carved and moulded corbels. They are topped by merlon shaped finials. The spandrels of the central arch are bedecked with bosses of sunflower *motifs*. There is a miniature oriel window at the apex of the inner arch.

Haveli Man Singh

Raja Man Singh was one of the high ranking *Mansabdar* of Emperor Akbar, who held important positions both in the reign of Emperor Akbar and his son Emperor Jehangir. He was very fond of constructing palaces, gardens, temples and even mosques. When he was Governor of Bihar, he constructed a palace in Rohtasgarh Fort in 1596 A.D. This fact is corroborated by an inscription over the

main entrance of the fort. (Catherine;1995:71).

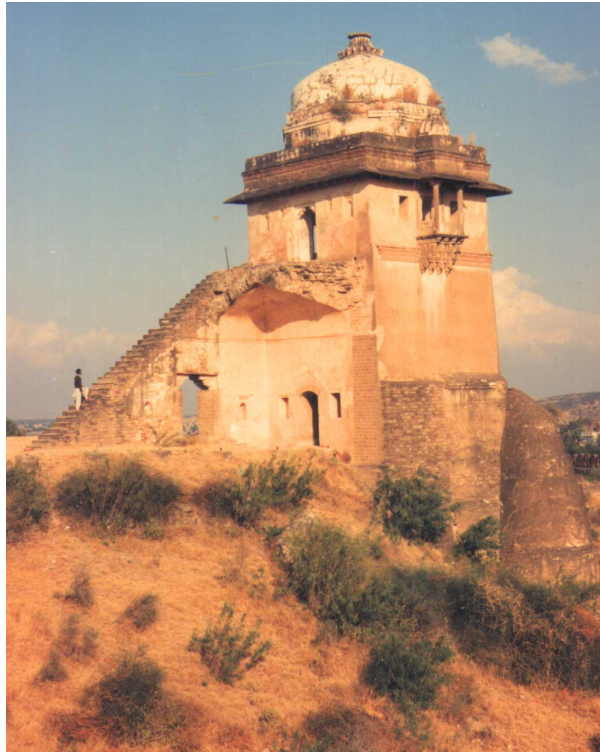


Plate-45: Rohtas Fort: Haveli Man Singh

A Haveli is reported to have been built by Raja Man Singh in the Rohtas Fort. The Haveli is located almost in the centre of the citadel, on a hill top. It is a double storey structure. Because of its commanding position, the Haveli dominates the sky-line. It contained a number of rooms, but at the moment only one survives. The access to the upper storey is through a 34 steps staircase. It is a square room measuring 18'x18'. The room is crowned by a bulbous dome with lotus cresting. Besides, the room has a projected *Jharoka* erected on four carved stone brackets on its two sides. Such type of *Jharokas* are the characteristics of the Mughal architecture of Akbar's period. The *Jharokas* in Man Singh's haveli are infact the replicas of a similar *Jharoka* built in one of the walls of Rohtasgarh palace erected by Raj Man Singh (Catherine; 1995: 71, Plate: 36). The

Jharokas are the highest point of the fort, from which one can look upon the rest of the structure and also the surrounding area. From the strategic point of view, it is likely that these *Jharokas* were built at such a height, so as to keep a vigilant eye on an area within 30 miles or so of the fort. The projecting cornice has roundels in between the brackets. The roundels are embellished with floral decorative motifs like sun-flowers, and multi-colour stars. The local people call the haveli as 'Kala Mahal'.

Shahi Masjid



Plate-46: Rohtas Fort: Shahi Masjid

It is located near the Kabuli gate. Sher Shah Suri constructed mosques in other forts also like Purana Qila Delhi and Rohtasgarh in Bihar. The later mosque was infact constructed on the orders of Sher Shah Suri in 1543 A.D. by one of his Generals Azam Huymayun alias Haibat Khan. (Epigraphia Indo-Moslemica; 1923, 24-27). The mosque in Rohtas Fort contains a three arched façade. It has a small prayer chamber (63'x24') and a compound. Though there are three domicles inside the mosque, yet the roof is flat. The decorative scheme of the mosque is quite attractive. The parapet of the mosque is bedecked with merlons which contain 'Shamsha' bearing the word 'Allah' in floral

design. The spandrels of the arches contain bosses in the form of rosettes, which are bordered by colourful lily designs. The rosettes have been inscribed with “*Kalima Tayyaba*”. The frontage of the mosque, below the parapet, contains a projected *chhajja*, erected over carved brackets.

Baolies

As stated above, there are two ‘*baolies*’, one near the Kabuli gate and the other close to the *Tulla Mori* gate. The one at Kabuli gate contains 60 steps leading to the base of the well. There are small chambers around the ‘*baoli*’. They were used probably during the summer season as a cool resort. The other *baoli* contains 148 steps.



Plate-47: Rohtas Fort: Baoli near Mori Gate

G. SHEIKHUPURA FORT

Sheikhupura City, which is the District Headquarters in the Province of Punjab is located some 35 kilometres north-west of Lahore. The fort is situated at a short distance on the south of the Lahore-Sheikhupura main

road. According to *Tuzuk-e-Jehangiri*, the fort was constructed under the orders of Emperor Jehangir (Vol.I:1974:90). The study has revealed that except the fortification walls and the main entrance, the existing buildings are of the Sikh period.

With the demise of Emperor Aurangzeb in 1707 A.D., the Mughal Empire lost its grip over certain areas. There was a complete disorder in Punjab where the Sikhs had established their own semi-independent principalities. Various clans of the Sikhs were fighting among themselves to gain supremacy. At long last Ranjit Singh emerged as victorious, who captured Lahore in 1799 A.D. During the second half of 18th century, a number of Sikh tribes held the fort of Sheikhupura. It was surrendered to Ranjit Singh in 1808 A.D. Later on the fort was given as a Jagir by Ranjit Singh to his queen Raj Kaur popularly known as Rani Kauran. She was the mother of Kharak Singh. After the British occupation of Punjab, the fort was used as a prison for Mai Jindan, the last queen of Ranjit Singh. The fort also served as District Headquarters of Gujranwala district till 1881 A.D. After the creation of new district of Sheikhupura in 1918 A.D., the fort was used as its Police Headquarters. In 1967, it was declared as a protected monument and since then is in the custody of the Federal Department of Archaeology.

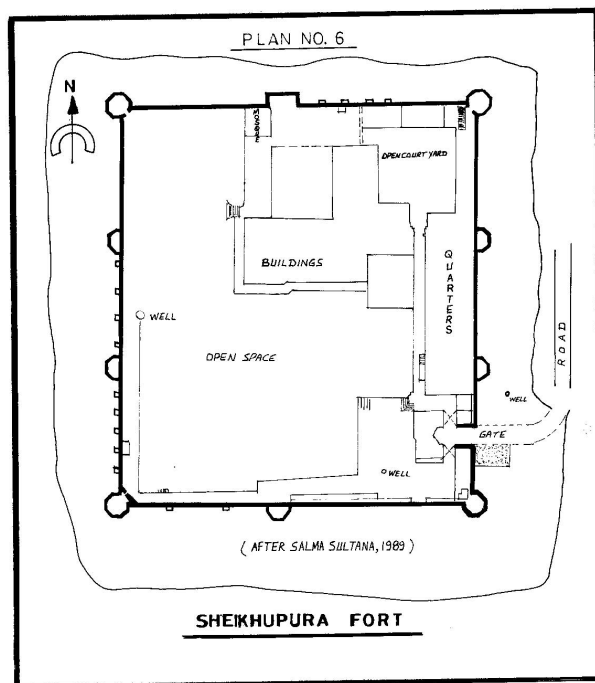
The view that certain existing buildings in the fort were constructed by Prince Dara Shikoh is not supported by the contemporary historical sources (Salma Sultana; 1989:110 and Abdul Rehman; 1977: 210). Traces of structural remains in north eastern section of the fort, however, give clue of their association with the Jehangir period. Of particular mention are the dislodged parts of the red sand stone columns, which are carved in relief with the

same floral motifs as are seen on the red sand stone columns in the Jehangir quadrangle in Lahore fort. The columns were probably used in the construction of some buildings during the reign of Emperor Jehangir.

The detail of the various components of the fort is given hereunder:

Fortification Walls.

The fort is rectangular in plan and measures 128 m. north-south and 115.5 m east-west. (Plan-6).



The height of the fortification walls varies from 11.12 to 12.4 m at different places. (Plate-48). The traditional small bricks have mostly been used in its construction while the plaster has been done with kankar lime mortar of reddish colour. The use of red sand stone has also been made as is evident in the recessed part of the main gate-way and the perforated stone *jalties* in the arched windows. The tops of the fortification wall, bastions and the main gate-way are crowned with *kanguras*

(merlons). Owing to their attenuated necks they look from a distance like rows of heads stuck upon stakes. At each corner of the fort there is an octagonal bastion, slightly tapering upward. A set of two semi-octagonal bastions has been provided in the eastern and western walls. Another semi-octagonal bastion has been constructed in the middle of the southern wall. In order to harmonize the entire setting, an off-set on rectangular form was provided on the western wall. In the later period, buttresses of brick wall slanting upward were provided at certain vulnerable points.



Plate-48 (a): Sheikhpura Fort: fortification wall

Main Gate. (Plate-XVII)

The main gate is situated at the south end of the eastern wall and in between the corner octagonal bastion and the semi octagonal bastion. The gateway slightly projects out of the wall as an off set and has a sunken four centered arch to frame the main arched entrance of the same shape. The space between the two arches has a red stone facing with some white marble inlay work. The facade on both sides of the gateway has been divided into two registers. The lower register contains a sunken panel with a flat arch. The upper register is bedecked with a lattice screen carved in red sand stone. The screens carry the usual hexagonal holes in honey-combed patterns as are found in the Mughal

monuments. The gate-way is fitted with wooden door containing two leaves having decorative panels. The door is apparently of later period. Just upon the top of the inner arch of the gate-way, there was a marble slab containing an historical inscription. It was removed probably during the Sikh occupation of the fort. The cavity so created was plastered and white-washed.



Plate-XVII: Sheikhupura Fort: Main Gate

Residential Buildings (Plates-48-50)

There are two groups of buildings in the fort. The one is a 'L' shaped complex of four storeyed havelies. As stated above, some scholars are of the view that this complex was constructed by Prince Dara Shikoh when he was the Governor of Punjab. Stylistically the buildings in this complex belong to Sikh period. It may be worth mentioning that the various elements of Sikh buildings are mainly derived from the Mughal architecture, but they undoubtedly represent a radically different style. The domestic architecture of the Sikh period includes Havelies which are of extraordinary height comprising two to four storeys. The main structure usually contains identical facades on each side with a wooden main gate in the centre containing beautiful carvings both in geometrical and floral motifs. The upper storeys contain oriel windows with a projected balcony with *chauchalla* or *bangla* roof introduced in the reign of Emperor Shah Jehan (Mumtaz; 1985: 89). This curvilinear

form (projected to form eaves especially its wavy variant reflecting the lines of a multi cusped arch) became one of the most distinctive features of Sikh architecture. All these elements are found in the buildings located in the 'L' shaped complex. The outer walls of the buildings are plastered and lime washed. Solid turrets have been provided at each corner of the havelies. But they are inconspicuous and of no architectural merit. The havelies are divided into two portions. One was serving as a *Zanankhana* while the other as *Diwankhana*. Rani Kauran probably lived in *Diwankhana* till the marriage of her son Kharak Singh in 1812 A.D. She shifted to her palace situated to the west of the 'L' shaped complex.



Plate-48 (b): Sheikhupura Fort: Zanan Khana Haveli



Plate-49: Sheikhupura Fort: Façade of Diwankhana Haveli

The other portion is represented by massive rectangular buildings with basement and double storey above, built of red tile bricks and without any outer plaster.



Plate-50: Sheikhupura Fort: Front view of Rani Kauran's Haveli

The buildings in both the complexes contain beautiful fresco paintings. The paintings in the Havelies located in 'L' shaped complex are comparatively of good quality. The themes of these paintings include Ras Lila, anecdotes from the romances of Krishna Lila and other popular Hindu folklore. Those in the other complex contain mural paintings with floral and bird motifs and a few scenes painted from the Ramayana and other Hindu classics. All these paintings seem to have been influenced by the *Pahari* paintings. (Plate-XVIII-XX).



Plate-XVIII: Sheikhupura Fort: Scene depicted on a wall panel from Ras Lila in the picture gallery of Diwankhana

There are two wells in the fort, one on the south eastern side and the other on the western side of the terrace. There is also a small mosque adjacent to the rectangular bastion on

the northern side. From the architectural point of view, the buildings situated in the fort are not so important, but the colourful paintings in the rooms make it an attractive place for the tourists.



Plate-XIX: Sheikhupura Fort: Scene depicted on a wall panel from Ras Lila in the picture gallery of Diwankhana



Plate-XX: Sheikhupura Fort: A Scene depicting Guru Arjan Singh riding in State

H. Historical Forts in Thal Desert (Punjab)

The detail of forts is as under:-

- I. Bhakkar District
 - a. Mankera.
 - b. Hyderabad.
 - c. Dhingana.
 - d. Dullewala.
 - e. Nautak.

- f. Kallurkot.
 - g. Mahni.
 - h. Kirari Kot.
- II. Leiah District
- a. Leiah
 - b. Kot Sultan
 - c. Karor
 - d. Chauk Munda
 - e. Chaubara
- III. Muzaffargarh
- a. Muzaffargarh
 - b. Khan Garh
 - c. Mubarak Garh
 - d. Daira Din Panah
 - e. Mehmood Kot
- IV. Jhang District
- a. Garh Maharaja.
- V. Khushab
- a. Adhi Kot.

History of Mankera Fort

The town of Mankera is located about 43 kilometres to the west of Bhakkar on Bhakkar-Jhang Road. Presently it is one of the Tehsils of the newly created District of Bhakkar. The history of Mankera is based on conjectures. Some modern writers have equated it with Malkher of the Alexander's times. It, however, came into lime light when Saddozies of Multan gained control over this area. First of all Nawab Muhammad Khan Saddozai, a cousin of Muzaffar Khan, Nawab of Multan, was appointed in 1792 A.D. by the King of Kabul as Governor of the Sindh Sagar Doab from Kallurkot to Mehmood Kot and from Indus to Chenab. In view of his good performance, Zaman Shah, the King of Kabul conferred upon him the title of *Sarbaland Khan* and also entrusted to him the Province

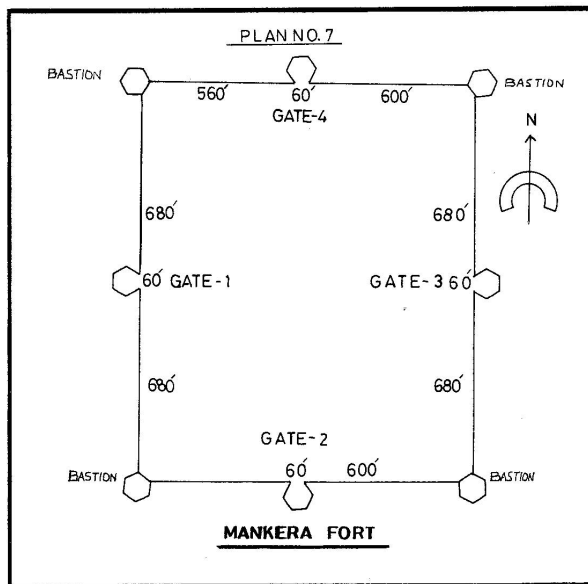
of Dera Ismail Khan. Nawab Muhammad Khan had his Headquarters at Mankera and Bhakkar. He died in 1815 A.D. and was succeeded by his son Hafiz Ahmad Khan. He could not resist the growing power of the Sikhs, who had already taken over Multan, Bhakkar, Leiah, Khangarh etc. Mankera, fortified by a mud wall and having citadel of bricks, but protected more by its location in the midst of a desert, was now left the only stronghold of the Saddozies. A division was advanced by Maharaja Ranjit Singh for the investment of this place on 18th November, 1821. Sardar Khan Badozai, a bold impetuous man recommended the Nawab to march out at once and attack the Sikhs. "To fight in the plain" said he "is the business of a lion, to hide in a hole is that of a fox". The Nawab, however, was not to be persuaded and preferred to stand a siege. The Sikhs made arrangements for the procurement of adequate ration and also engaged *Beldars* to dig kacha wells to ensure un-interrupted supply of water for the use of the troops. The wells were ready by 25th November and Ranjit Singh then moved to Mankera with the main force. The bombardment of the place continued for ten days, but without any loss to the besiegers. At last one of the minarets of the Fort mosque was broken down by the Sikh fire. The Nawab considered this an un-lucky omen and thinking that he had done enough to save his honour agreed to surrender the Fort. This was on the condition of his being allowed to march out with his troops and property. Besides, he should be allowed to retain the town and Province of Dera Ismail Khan with a suitable Jagir. Ranjit Singh agreed to the terms and the fort was finally surrendered by the Nawab. On 22nd March, 1849, the Province of Punjab was annexed and became formally a part of the British Empire. So the fort at Mankera was taken over by the British forces. (District Gazetteer, Mianwali; 1915:34-37).

At present the Fort is in ruins. However, some structural remains are still standing.(Plate-51).



Plate-51: Mankera Fort, District Bhakkar

The fort is of rectangular shape measuring 1400' x 1200'. (Plan-7).



Entrance gates have been provided on all its four sides. Besides, there are hexagonal shaped turrets on its each corner. There is a deep ditch all around the fort, which probably served as a moat. It was filled with water from

16 wells dug out for the purpose. The fort contains the tomb of Nawab Muhammad Khan. Close by there is also the so called tomb of Prince Shah Shuja son of Mughal Emperor Shah Jehan. (Plate-52).



Plate-52: Mankera Fort: The so called tomb of Shah Shuja son of Mughal Emperor Shah Jehan

The writer visited another tomb of Prince Shah Shuja at village Dherama in District Sargodha. As is well known, Prince Shah Shuja, after the war of succession (1657 A.D) had fled towards Arakan hills in Burma and thereafter what happened to the fugitive Mughal Prince is not known (Hasan; *Dawn*, Magazine Section, 4th May, 1990).

CHAPTER V

HISTORICAL FORTS IN SINDH

A. BAKHAR FORT

In the mid-stream of river Indus between Rohri and Sukkur, there are some islands. They are known as Bakhar, Sadha Bela and Din Bela. There is also a compact island upstream above Bakhar and opposite Rohri known as Khawaja Khizr (Khidr). It contains

the shrine of a legendary saint, Zinda Pir.

The biggest of all islands is Bakhar. It is oval in shape, 800 yards from east to west, about 300 yards wide and 25 feet high. The northern fork of the river separating it from Sukkur is between 100-200 yards at different points while the Rohri fork is between 300-400

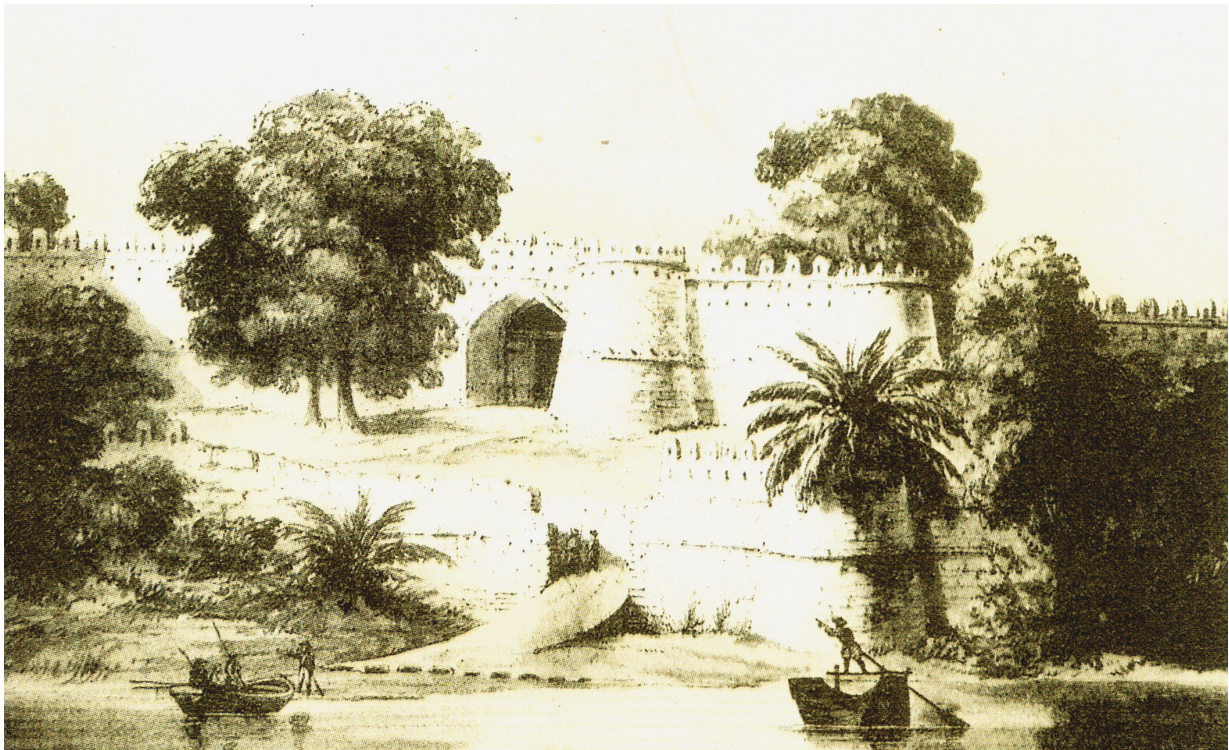


Plate-53: Bakhar Fort as it existed in 1841 A.D.

yards. The total width of the river between Sukkur and Rohri including the island of Bakhar being 800-900 yards (Siddiqi; 1972: 235).

There is a Fort in Bakhar Island from time immemorial. The entire island falls within the fort as the fortification wall runs on the outer periphery of the island touching the Indus water all around. The fortification wall is still extant at some places. A number of bastions of semi-circular and elliptical shape are also visible. Some gates of different sizes are also there. These have been blocked with the rubble stones. The railway line divides the island into two parts. The island/fort continued to change hands.

The island remained under the occupation of Sultans of Delhi. Nasir al-Din Qabachah, when he was ousted from Uchh by Iltutmish (1210-35), took refuge in Bakhar fort in 1228 A.D. Nizam al-Mulk, a *Vazier* of Iltutmish laid a siege to the Bakhar Fort. Qabachah committed suicide by jumping into the river (Siraj, Minhaj; 1985: 84). After the demise of Muhammad bin Tughluq at Sonda near Thatta on 20th March, 1351 A.D., Firuz Tughluq was crowned as the new Emperor. On his return journey to Delhi, the Emperor visited on the way, besides others, the *khanqah* of Bakhar. Again in 1365 A.D., when the Emperor came to Sindh to take punitive action against the Summa rulers, Firuz Tuguluq visited Bakhar and placed the fleet of 1000 boats under the charge of Shams 'Afif' (Agha, Mahdi Hasan; 1936: 390-404). Ala al-din Jam Juna bin Banhbinah, (1352-53 and 1366-67 A.D). a Summa ruler occupied Bakhar, but it was recaptured by the forces of Sultan Ala al-Din Khalji (1296-1316). (Qaani; 1971: 100). From the subsequent historical accounts, it appears that the Summa again gained control over Bakhar. Jam Nizam al-Din alias Nindo (1416-

1508 A.D) remained in Bakhar, for about a year, after his succession, to subdue the rebellious activities (Qaani, 1971: 105).

Bakhar, however, came into prominence when the Arghuns gained ascendancy over Sindh in 1520 A.D. According to the *Tarikh-e-Ma'sumi*, Shah Beg was very much pleased to see the fort. He inspected the quarters and houses of the town and allotted these to the nobles and soldiers. He surveyed the fort and divided it among the nobles, so that they could build it gradually. The fortress of Alor, which was formerly the seat of government during Arab period was demolished and its baked bricks were carried to Bakhar. Some of the dwellings of the Turks and the Summas which stood around Bakhar were pulled down and the materials were utilized in the construction of the Fort. During the time when the foundation of the fort was being laid down, Shah Beg said to his son, Mirza Shah Hasan, "These two hills, which are situated on the southern side of the fort, are dangerous head strikes against this fort. We should first of all give our attention to these hillocks and then proceed to the construction of the fort". But after pondering for sometime, he said "First of all the construction of the Fort is more important. Since a large river flows round it, we should not be so much frightened about these two hillocks. For that reason no shrewd king would turn his attention to attack this small fortress and in case of defeat the king and the nobles would not be able to make good their escape". The building of the fort was completed in a very short time. Shah Beg decided to reside in the citadel himself alongwith Mirza Shah Hasan and gave some quarters to some of the nobles.

Earlier when Shah Beg had arrived in the outskirts of Bakhar, he was received by his foster brother Mir Fadal and his son Sultan

Mahmud Khan. They had brought with them some 47 chiefs of the Darejats. Sultan Mahmud Khan narrated the conduct of the Darejats to Shah Beg, who turned to Qadi Qadin. The Qadi said "The lands of this country have become flooded with water, where weeds grow up in abundance and (therefore) the hoe must always be kept in hand". On hearing this advice, Shah Beg instantly gave orders for the execution of those men. Sultan Mahmud Khan returned to the town immediately and beheading those people, the same night, threw their bodies from the tower, which subsequently came to be known as the "Bloody Tower". The next morning Sultan Mahmud Khan took the Sayyids into the presence of Shah Beg and introduced them to him making some complimentary remarks about the loyalty and faithfulness of the Sayyids. Shah Beg showed great favours and honour to them and made many inquiries about their welfare. When the meeting was over, Shah Beg summoned Sultan Mahmud Khan in private and inquired about the conduct of the Sayyids. Sultan Mahmud Khan repeated what he had said before and in the end said, "Although these people are loyal, yet the presence of all these people of the same ethnic group inside the Fort is not in the interest of the State." Shah Beg remarked with a smile. "You have put forward their case in an excellent manner." He eventually sent a message to the Sayyids asking them that since the Mughuls had arrived with their families, they should all move to two or three large houses. The Sayyids finding it unsafe to remain inside the fort asked for permission to quit. Their request was accepted and they were given some quarters in the village of Rohri (Bakhari; 1959; 168-169).

Bakhar also figured during the visit of the deposed Mughul Emperor Humayun in Sindh

sometimes in January, 1541 A.D. He wanted to occupy Bakhar, but could not do so due to the situation being diplomatically handled by Sultan Mahmud Khan. Earlier Sultan Mahmud Khan had re-inforced the Bakhar Fort. In his time, the Bakhar Fort had got double walls, the outer enveloping wall with four gates and seventy bastions. At that time the circumference of the fort was 1875 yards (Siddiqi; 1972: 235-236). Emperor Akbar had constituted Bakhar as a separate sarkar (division) when Sultan Mahmud Khan, before his death, had married his daughter to Emperor Akbar (1556-1605) and later surrendered his dominion. It was one of the 17 *mahals* of the *Birun-i-Panjanad* area of the sarkar of Multan in the province of Multan. (Akhter, M. Saleem; 1990: 266). When the war of succession took place between the sons of Emperor Shah Jahan, Dara Shikuh, the heir apparent, like his great grand father Emperor Humayun, sought shelter in 1655 A.D. in Sindh. He besieged Bakhar Fort, but without any result. He had hoped that the native country of his mystical teacher Miyan Mir would be more hospitable to him, but it was his wishful thinking. After the down fall of the Mughals, Bakhar passed on to the Kalhoras and subsequently to Talpurs. The British after their occupation of Sindh, took over the island from the Talpur Mirs of Khairpur as per treaty of 24th December, 1838 A.D. (Burton; 1933: 227) and named it as Victoria. (Postan; 1973: 30). But the new name could not gain popularity. The island is still known as Bakhar.

It is not quite certain as to when the place was named as Bakhar. According to the *Tuhfat al-Kiram* (Qaani, 1971:383) the town did not exist in the time of Hindu rajah nor we hear its name in the early Muslim period. In the *Fathnamah-i-Sindh (Chach Nama)*, there is a reference to a place 'Baghrur Fort.' When

Muhammad bin Qasim completed his strategic campaigns upto the northern most limits, he turned southward (to the side of Jacobabad-Shikarpur-Sukkur) till he reached the banks of the Indus opposite to the Baghrur fort. The Fort stood on the other side of the river and belonged to Raja Dahar. It was under the direct administrative control of the capital city of Aror. According to Dr. Baloch, the ancient name of 'Baghrur Fort' has continued in that of the Bakhar Fort which is at-present situated in the mid river island. Just as the capital city of 'Arur' situated on the Rud (the main Indus or its distributory) was named as 'City on the Rud' (Persian rud=river; al-rud, Arrur, Sindhi, Aror, Alor) during the political ascendancy of the Sassanid Persia (circa 5th century A.D) so also the other town founded on the river was named 'Baghrur (Per. Bagh+rud=river gift of the god 'Bagh'). It seems that the northern Deltaic Apex was then higher up, to the north-east of Rohri-Sukkur from where a smaller channel took off on the left hand side and passed by (on the north-west) Aror, while the main trunk-river flowed on the north-west of Baghrur (Bakhar) fort in between the Bakhar island and the hilly formation in northern sector of the Sukkur city (which area was the main bed of the Indus). Thus, the twin cities of Arur and Baghrur were not separated by the main course of the Indus (which then intervened between Muhammad bin Qasim's camp on its northern bank and the Baghrur Fort on its southern bank) and because of the main river intervening, Muhammad bin Qasim could not conquer the Baghrur Fort. (Ali, Kufi; 1983:81).

According to the *Tarikh-e-Lubb-e-Sindh*, the origin of Bakhar fort dates back to Arab period. As per its version, the date of construction of the fort can be derived from 'Bala Hisar'. It comes to 333 A.H/944-45. (Kludadad; 1994:35). There is a reference in

some historical accounts that during the reign of Caliph Harun al-Rashid, the fort was reconstructed and renamed as Farishtah (Bhatti Rashid; 1985:26). On the contrary, Mirza Qaleech Beg has stated that Farishtah was founded by Shaikh Abu Turab in 171 A.H./787 A.D. (Beg, Qaleech;1999:9). All these assertions are not backed by contemporary historical evidence. The *Tuhfat al Kiram*'s version is that the place was named as Bakhar instead of Farishtah by Sayyid Muhammad Makki who came from Yemen to Sindh in 644 A.H/1246-47 A.D). There is a popular tradition that Sayyid Muhammad Makki, while arriving at this place expressed his feeling by saying (God has dawned our day in a blessed place). The place came to be known as Bakra or Baqar and from it the name changed to Bakhar. (Qaani, 1971; 383-386).

In the mediaeval period, we hear the name of Bakhar round about the first half of the thirteenth century A.D. The place may have existed prior to this time of no significant importance. Had its position commanded the passage of the Indus as it has subsequently continued to do so, it would have certainly figured in the campaign of Sultan Muhammad b. Sam Ghauri (d. 1205 A.D). (Beg Qaleech, 1962: 9). The Sultan after capturing Multan, invaded Gujrat by way of Uchh in 1177-8 A.D. and five years later marched from Multan to Deybul and annexed the whole province. Bakhar is not mentioned in the accounts of these operations. Presumably, it did not had the strategic importance at that time. In this connection, it may also be mentioned that according to the *Tarikh-e-Masumi*, Sultan Mahmud of Ghazna (d. 1030 A.D). after having captured Multan and Uchh established his headquarters at Multan. From there, he sent his Minister'Abd al-Razzaq, who entered Sindh in 417 A.H/1026 A.D. and

conquered the country by subduing Bakhar, Siwistan and Thatta. (Bakhari; 1959: 45). The version of *Tarikh-e-Masumi* appears to be a concoction unsupported by historical evidence. Sultan Mahmud of Ghazna had no minister by the name of 'Abd al-Razzaq (Nazim, M; 1973: 120). The minister Khawjah Ahmad Hasan Mayamndi had a son by the name of 'Abd al-Razzaq', who was appointed as a Governor of Seistan long afterwards during the reign of Mawdud; a grandson of Sultan Mahmud of Ghazna (Pathan; 1978: 241).

Bakhar possessed the far famed *Charbagh*, which attracted emperors and nobles. Its two gardens *Nazar Gah* and *Guzar Gah* were quite well known (Cousens, 1975: 145-147) which were laid out by Sultan Mahmud Khan. According to the author of the *Bahr Al-Asrar Fi Ma'rifat al-Akhyar*, who undertook extensive travels from Kabul to Dacca in the reign of Emperor Shah Jahan, Bakhar produced lot of good quality dates, grapes, pomegranates, melons and managoes. (Balkhi; 1996: 48-49). The melons of Bakhar rivaled those of Kabul. Besides, Bakhar was noted for its butter and ghee, which was supplied in round flasks of hide weighing as much as 165 to 320 pounds. Bakhar, besides its political importance, also served as a centre of commercial activities in Upper Sindh. It was a place for the procurement of ghee, indigo, textiles etc. which found a ready market abroad. Caravans were sent to Jaisalmeer and Qandahar. (Khan, Ansar; 1980;149, 154 & 261).

Bakhar was a centre of great learning. During the Arghun period, the Purani Sadat, the family of Qadi Qadin and Sa'in Dittah of Siwistan were noted for their scholarship. In the reign of Sultan Mahmud Khan, the number of 'ulama' was quite considerable. Some of the well known scholars were Shah Qutb al-Din Harvi, Mir Sayyid Safai, Qadi Daud, Mir Mahmud Purani, Mawalana Muhammad Qasim Diwan etc. (Quddusi; 1976:140). Mir Sayyid Safai also served as Shaykh al-Islam of Bakhar. He was the father of Mir Muhammad Ma'sum, the well known commander, diplomat, poet and calligrapher during the reign of Mughal Emperor Akbar. He was born at Bakhar on 7th Ramadan 944 A.H./7th February, 1538. Sometimes in 1599 A.D., Mir Masum returned to Bakhar where he erected a domed cistern for the benefit of the inhabitants (Bakhari; 1959:1). The background for the construction of the cistern is that at some distance from the fort there used to be a small hill in the middle of the river. During the summer, when the water subsided, it became visible whereas in the flood season it disappeared. Consequently, the boats coming down stream ran into it, were ship-wrecked and sunk. Mir Masum caused a ship laden with stones to be sunk at that place and upon it constructed a green dome naming it Sitasar, which was developed into a beautiful recreation spot. Plenty of people used to go there for a walk and enjoyment. In front of this dome, in the direction of Sukkur, Mir Masum also built a ship like mosque on the top of a hill on the bank of the river Indus. This was also a pleasant spot. With the passage of time, all these edifices, built by Mir Masum, have disappeared.

B. HYDERABAD FORT



Plate-XXI: Hyderabad Fort: Main Gate



Plate-XXII: Hyderabad Fort: Fortification Wall

The Kalhora dynasty ruled over Sindh from 1701 to 1783 A.D. In the beginning their capital was at Khudabad in present day Dadu district. However, in 1768 Miyan Ghulam Shah Kalhora shifted the capital to his newly founded city of Hyderabad on the remains of the ancient city of Nirunkot. Some scholars do not, however, agree that the new city was built there. Miyan Ghulam Shah also built a fort there, which is situated on the summit of a lime stone rocky table hillock known as *Ganja Takar* running in north-south direction for several miles parallel to the east bank of river Indus. The fort is an irregular oval, about three quarter of a mile round, spread over some 36 acres. From the narratives of various travel accounts, one can get an idea of the shape of the fort. The walls are of burnt bricks ranging from 15 to 30 feet high, their foundations being placed on the very edge of the summit. The round towers that flank the whole area erected in judicious positions at intervals of three or four paces and combined with the steepness of the hill, have an imposing appearance. On the northern side, there is a forty feet wide moat that has a bridge across it leading to the gate, which is protected by a massive bastion built over it. (Pottinger; 1976: 370). Miyan Ghulam Shah Kalhora had built a palace known as *Shish*

Mahal, *Diwan-e-Khas*, *Diwan-e-Aamm* etc. After the down fall of the Kalhoras, Talpurs also constructed a series of buildings in the fort. The Talpur's *Diwan-e-Aamm* or the Hall of Audience was a lofty square shaped room, located at a short distance from the main gate. The walls were decorated with fanciful paintings executed by the Sindhi artists. The floor was covered with Persian carpets of variegated colours (Durate; 1976:196-197). The apartments were usually lined with gypsum and elaborately decorated with colour arabesques. In some of the rooms, the ceilings with their rafters were lacquered painted and heavily gilt. There was a tall watch tower in the fort. (Plate-54).



Plate-54(a): Hyderabad Fort: Round Tower, 1844

There was a wind mill like bastion of huge proportion, which was used by the Talpurs as a treasury. The painted Chamber of Mir Shahdad, when Burton saw it, still contained a painting showing the meeting between Ranjit Singh and Lord Lake. Some of the rooms were painted with tiles from Hala and Multan (Burton; 1993, Vol:1; 250). After the British occupation of Sindh, the old houses in the fort were demolished. In 1906, two explosions took place which caused a great destruction. The fort is now covered by residential buildings. The most impressive feature of the fort at present is its imposing fortification wall which varies from 29 to 40 feet in width. The extent of the fortification wall is about two miles. Structurally, the fortification wall is built of country bricks of 9x6x1.5 inches held in mud mortar. Along the crest of the fortification walls are ornamental Kanguras or merlons, which from a distance appear as rows of heads stuck upon stakes owing to their attenuated necks. Richard Burton, who visited the fort in 1845 after the battle of Miani, in which the Talpurs were defeated, describes thus; "The defences appear as if a few round of grapes would level them with the plain, an appearance the reverse of deceitful, the boasted stronghold of the boasted Talpurs being one of the weakest of the strong looking corner of Asia". (Burton; 1993: 250).

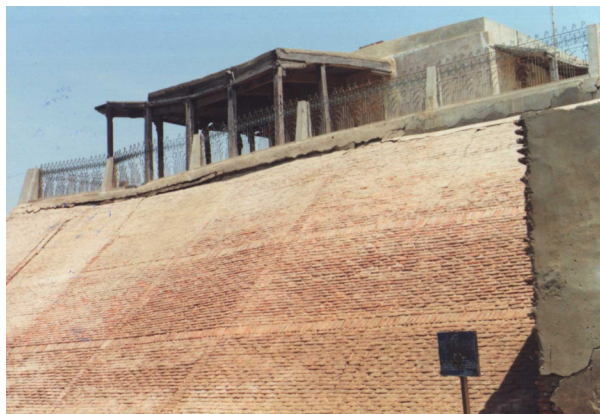


Plate-54(b): Hyderabad Fort: Mir's Haram

The painted Chamber, also known as *Mirs Harem*, is a single square room measuring about 28 feet and 5 inches. (Plate-54). The Chamber is having on its four sides a verandah with a roof of wooden battens resting on wooden beams and supported by wooden posts. All the four walls of the *Harem* are pierced at the centre, with door ways and windows, two each in northern and southern walls. The door in the western wall is finished with fine carvings. The entire ceiling of the chamber is decorated with lacquer work. Likewise, the wooden battens, beams and ceiling of the outer Verandah were also originally painted in floral designs. The lacquer on ceiling is still preserved to a great extent. The walls of the room which are of burnt bricks are covered with lime niru plaster with a elaborate display of fresco paintings, both in floral and geometrical patterns. The paintings also depict some life scenes at the interior. The exterior of the chamber and the platform were also once bedecked with fresco paintings in floral designs, traces of which are still visible.



Plate-XXIII: Hyderabad Fort: Kutcha Qila: Main Enterance and Bastion

Another fort built by Miyan Ghulam Shah is of Kutcha construction and was built by him around the tomb of Shah Mohammad Makki, in 1772 A.D. It also strengthened the defence of the main fort on the northern side.

Rectangular in shape, the tapering fortification wall has semi-circular bastions at regular intervals. (Plates-XXIII & XXIV). Lying on a hillock, the fortification has one arched entrance on the southern side. The wall is not a compact mass, like the Pucca Fort. The interior is of mud bricks encased by burnt bricks on the interior and outer faces, now mostly disintegrated and vanished.



Plate-XXIV: Hyderabad Fort: Kutcha Qila: Fortification Wall

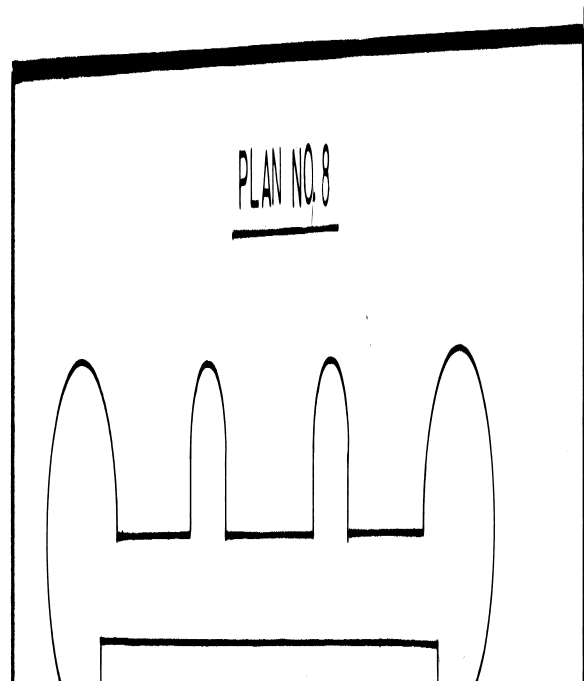
The tomb of Ghulam Shah Kalhora is located in a fortress like complex. It is of rectangular shape and looks like a military post from outside rather than the last resting place of a ruler (Plate-55).



Plate-55: Hyderabad: Fortification wall of the Tomb of Ghulam Shah Kalhora

From the exterior it looks like a formidable fort. The fortification wall was built with

burnt bricks laid in mud mortar both on interior and exterior sides the core having been filled with mud bricks which are now greatly damaged. It also contains bastions at regular intervals (Plan-8).



The top of the fortification wall must have been provided with the merlons. The gate of the fort in the centre of the eastern wall has a powerful appearance. Not only the ancient gate is so designed, as to suggest a heavy suit of protecting armour, but its entrance is so cleverly contrived as to constitute a death trap to those attempting to force it. The main gateway is defended by a powerful barbican taking the shape of a larger bastion. The barbican must have been defended from the battlements, which are no more in existence. Before reaching the arched entrance of the outer gate, an open defence is formed by the barbican and the bastions, making it necessary to negotiate it first. The inner domed entrance has an elegant appearance. Beyond the door on either side are the recesses as resting place

for the guards. The interior is richly decorated with paintings. The enclosure is believed to

have been added by Talpurs (Lundkhwar; 1981, Vol. 1; 83-84).

C. KALAN KOT FORT, THATTA

Kalan Kot fort is located about 5 miles north of Makli Hill, Thatta, near the old bank of river Indus, on a road leading to Pir Patho. The fort is known by various other names such as Tughlaqabad, Tughrilabad, Thakurabad etc. 'Kalan' is infact the corruption of 'Kalyan' which is a Sanskrit word, meaning recreation, security and prosperity. One view is that Kalan Kot was named after one Raja Kala (Qaani; 1994:67). Panhwar's argues that the name may possibly have come from Kali Devi's shrine situated in a cave at Makli Hill, Thatta. (1983:388). Hindu origin of the fort has, however, been ruled out by Dani because the type of brick masonry and the round towers used in the fort reveal its Muslim origin. (1982:30). According to *Tarikh-e-Tahiri*, it was named as Tughrabad (Nisyani; 1964: 317), which was converted into Thakurabad by Raverty (Siddiqi; 1972:46). As per *Makli Nama*, the fort was named as Tughlaqbad, as it was got repaired and enlarged by Jam Tughlaq; a Summa ruler (Qaani; 1994: 678). At one time the fort was called Tughrilabad, after the name of a Mughal noble who also had got it repaired. He lies buried in a tomb pavilion at Makli Hill, Thatta (Qaani; 1994:679 and Dani, 1982:128). The fort can rightly be termed as 'Kalan' as in Persian it means big or large. This is rightly so, as the fort is about a mile and a quarter in circumference. It was once surrounded by a natural moat filled with water which gave it a strong defensive position (Cousens; 1975: 122).

How the citadel came into being at this place, one has to go through the views expressed by Lambrick. According to him, Summas had

established their capital in the western delta in a position chosen probably for its suitability for defence against an enemy. In about 1340 A.D., the western branch of the Indus seems to have run in two widely separated channels that to the right hand passing to the north of the Makli Hill on the line of the modern Kalri canal and the left hand arm following approximately the line of Baghar, the two reuniting above Lahri. The 'island' thus enclosed had an area of some hundred square miles and included the whole of the range of hills. Here, the fortresses of Tughlaqabad, the short-lived Samui and Thatta were built in quick succession. (Dani;1986:188).

The fort is oblong in shape. Its walls are 14 ¼ feet thick, with a core of mud and rubble and faced with burnt bricks of square shape laid in mud mortar. The fortification wall facing the river side contains round bastions. There are holes in them for musketry. Entrance to the fort is through two gate-ways, provided in the southern wall. The fort is divided into various sectors by means of brick partition walls. The fort is now in a ruinous condition, only the remains of the structures being visible. (Plate-56). There is a mosque inside the fort, which, is most probably, of Tarkhan period. (16th century A.D). (Plate-57). Additions and alterations were also made in the subsequent period. What now remains of the mosque is only a single arched entrance in the east that leads to the central prayer chamber. It was originally, covered by a dome, since collapsed.



Plate-56: Kalankot Fort: Bastion

The fort has got a chequered history. It has witnessed many upheavals during the rule of Arghuns, Tarkhans and Mughals (Qaani; 1994: 679-684).



Plate-57: Kalankot Fort: Mosque

D. KOTDIJI FORT, DISTRICT KHAIRPUR (Plates XXV & XXVI)



Plate-XXV: Kotdiji Fort: General View

Mir Fateh Ali Khan was the founder of Talpur dynasty, which ruled over Sindh from 1784 to 1843 A.D. In order to ensure smooth running of his Kingdom and also to create a sense of participation among the various tribal chiefs, he divided Sindh into three distinct regions, each ruled by a separate branch of Talpur family. These regions included Hyderabad, Khairpur and Mirpur Khas. The ruler of Khairpur region, Mir Sohrab Khan established his headquarters at Kotdiji and built a Fort there in 1803 A.D. It almost took 28 years to complete the Fort in 1830 A.D. The fort was named as Ahamadbad, as is corroborated by a



Plate-XXVI: Kotdiji Fort: General View

Persian inscription on the *Shahi Darwaza*. It reads as:

Tradition has it that the Fort was so named as it was designed by Ahmad, a Persian architect. The Fort is situated about 40 km. east of river Indus close to the National Highway. One can also reach there from Khairpur from where it lies at a distance of 25 km. The fort served as a residence of the Talpur Mirs both in times of peace and war. (Plates-58-60).



Plate-58: Kotdiji Fort: General View

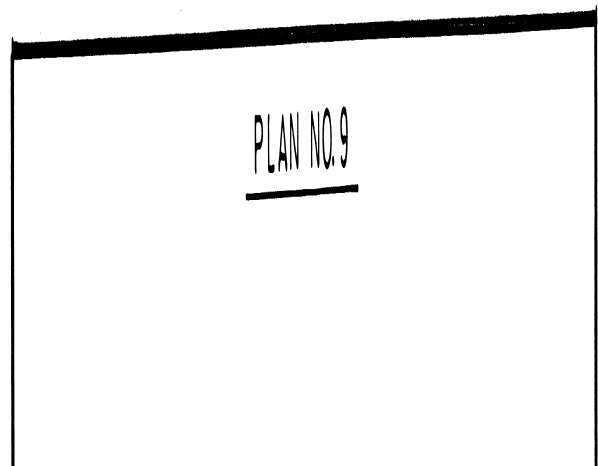


Plate-59: Kotdiji Fort: Bastion



Plate-60: Kotdiji Fort: Fortification Wall

Constructed on a 100 feet high lime-stone hill with 30 feet high walls of burnt bricks, the fort has got four strategically placed towers in addition to several bastions each about 50 feet tall. (Plan-9). The names of these towers are (i) Jaisalmir Tower (ii) Maryam Tower (iii) Shaheed Badshah Tower and (iv) Saffan Saffa Tower (Ansari; 1996:391).



Its walls run over a length of 2265 yards, while the total area covered by the Fort is 94,000 sq. yards. Approach to the Fort is through three strong gateways in the east, situated on different terraces. The main gate is known as “*Shahi Darwaza*”. (Plate-XXVII).



Plate-XXVII: Kotdiji Fort: Shahi Darwaza

The gates are heavily covered with long iron spikes, probably for repelling enemy elephants if employed in breaking them. The fort, which runs north-south in a narrow strip has got a number of buildings. To the right of the main entrance, is a building known as “*Mir’s Harem*”. It is not in a good state of preservation, but it has got some beautiful fresco paintings at its interior walls (Plates

XXVIII & XXIX). Besides, the interior of its roof is decorated with floral motifs in lacquer paints. There are vaulted chambers running along the defences. These served as living quarters for the soldiers and few were even used as prisons.



*Plate-XXVIII: Kotdiji Fort:
Fresco Painting in Mir's Harem*



*Plate-XXIX: Kotdiji Fort:
Fresco Painting in Mir's Harem*

A pavilion on a raised platform, built in beautiful cut stone work commands the eastern defences near Jaisalmir Tower (Plate-XXX).

It measures 20'x15'. The pavilion has got beautiful multi-cusped arched entrances; three each on the larger side and two each on the smaller side. The pillars are embellished with floral motifs. The pavilion must have been the royal seat, where the Mir used to sit to watch the activities of his men. Possibly in

emergency, he might also be directing the defensive operations from this pavilion. It is an ideal observation post from where one can easily see the panoramic view of the adjoining area covering a radius of 15 km.



Plate-XXX: Kotdiji Fort: Pavilion

Viewed from strategic angle, the Fort is so adroitly designed that it could surround the attacking enemy from three sides. The Fort is built on a vital ground and it was extremely difficult for the enemy to maintain momentum of the attack and scale the walls easily. While the defenders had all the advantages of being perched on the dominating part, which was adequately fortified and from where they could kill the enemy by simply rolling down the stones. There was a gun at every two hundred yards emplacement and, in between, were the battlements with the aperture at a distance of one yard for shooting arrows or firing muskets. There are several lines of defence within the fort. If the enemy succeeded in scaling one wall, he could be easily trapped in the other two which all contained battlements. On the right and left of these walls are towers, where archers could easily shoot arrows on the invaders. Each place in the Fort is a death trap and everywhere the defence was sited in depth.

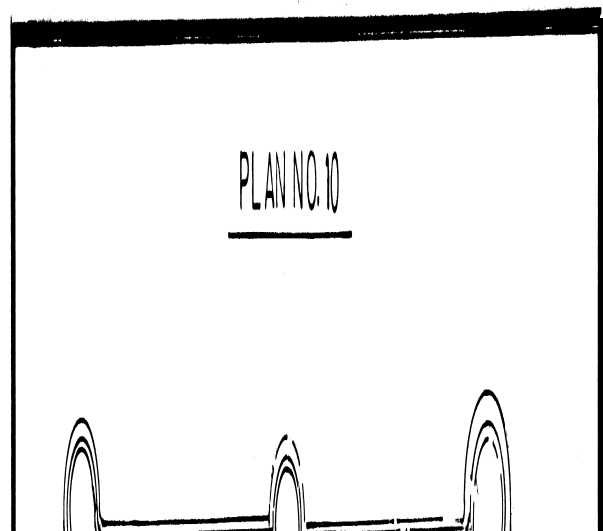
As stated above, the vaulted chambers were used as living quarters. The roofs of the chambers served as battlements. Every chamber had a small opening through the Fort wall. The purpose behind it is quite apparent. The soldiers could go easily to their posts without wasting time. There are also underground apartments, which were probably used as armouries and for storage of gun powder. The cannons once decorating the

bastions are no more there. These cannons amongst others, included some precious ones, belonging to Nadir Shah and the Safvid dynasty of Persia. At-present there is only a brass gun known as "Mariam". It contains inscriptions in Persian. There is a water tank inside the Fort. An idea about the vastness of the Fort and location of various buildings therein can be had from its plan.

E. NAUKOT FORT

The Talpur Mirs, as stated above, ruled over Sindh from 1784 to 1843 A.D. The important task the Talpur rulers set for themselves was to safeguard the independence of Sindh against the kind of external aggression that had weakened the position of their predecessors. Two important steps were taken to secure the borders of Sindh by constructing a strategic defensive line of forts and fortresses and by building a stronghold deep into the interior of Sindh to be able to take a final and firm stand against any invading army. The first phase of the construction plan was completed in 1202 A.H/1790 A.D. i.e. within a period of about ten years during which two fortresses on the sea front, viz Vikkur and Kotri, two forts of Fatehgarh (Naukot) and Islamgarh and the fortress at Mithi on the southern front in the present day Tharparkar district, were completed (Baloch; 1966: 285-286). The description of Naukot Fort is as under:

Naukot town is located about 65 miles to the south of Mirpurkhas. The fort is situated in the outskirts of the town in its north-west direction. It is roughly square on plan and measures 640 x 600 feet (Plan-10). It is built with burnt bricks and its fortification walls give a tapered look, their thickness being



about 15 feet. There is an arched entrance in the north-west corner of the fort which is known as 'Shahi Darwaza'. It is flanked by semi circular bastions, each bastion being about 30 feet high and having a circumference of about 140 feet. (Plate-61), A covered passage starting from the main entrance takes one to a rampart measuring 40x48 feet, which is protected by a 25 feet high fortification wall with a thickness of about 20 feet.

The access to the interior of the Fort (Plate-62) is again through a covered passage having a gate at the end of the rampart. Arched niches on both sides of the passage have been

provided for the soldiers. There are some barracks close to the fortification wall near the rampart. These were, probably, meant for the storage of gun-powder or used as prison for the captives. There are in all, nine bastions in the fort, three each in northern, southern and western walls. The fortification as well as bastions contain loop-holes.



Plate-61: Naukot Fort: Shahi Darwaza & Bastion

The remains of a well have also been noticed in the fort.



Plate-62: Naukot Fort: Interior View

F. **RUNNE KOT FORT (Plates-XXXI – XXXII)**



Plate-XXXI: Runne Kot Fort: General View

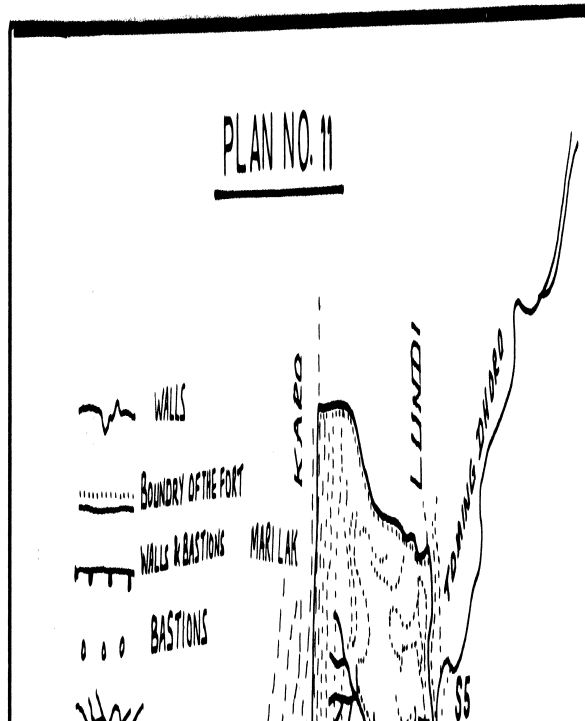
Runne Kot Fort is about 18 miles to the south-west of Saan in Dadu district. Saan is about 56 miles, to the north of Hyderabad on the National Highway. It is perhaps, the greatest existing fort of the world with its gigantic fortifications running up and down the contour of the hilly area over a circumference of 20¼ miles encircling hillocks, villages, two small



Plate-XXXII: Runne Kot Fort: Sann Gate Bastions.

fortresses etc. (Plan-11). Perched high on the hills, it appears like a crawling serpent running sinuously over the hills, valleys and ravines very tortuous in places, sometime suddenly descending or ascending. The fort wall is built of dressed limestone blocks of yellowish colour strengthened with circular and rectangular bastions at irregular intervals.

It runs on three sides of the area, while on the north side, the lofty peaks of the Kirthar Range serve the purpose of a defence wall.



The fort is known by various names such as Rani Ka Kot, Runne Kot and Mohan Kot. Its correct name is, however, Runne Kot. The origin of the name 'Runne' is to be sought in Sindhi language to which it belongs. The 'Runne Kot' literally means 'The Fort on the Hill Torrent' or 'The Hill Torrent Fort'. (Baloch; 1996: 233-85). The fort has four gates namely (i) Saan or the Eastern Gate (2) Amri Gate or the North-Eastern Gate (3) Shah Peer Darwaza or the Southern Gate and (4) Mohan Gate or the Western Gate.

As one approaches the Saan Gate, one notices dry stream once full of water, cutting cross the middle of it. In places, it still has scanty water, which is clear and palatable. On both sides of the stream, there are two rounded bastions

from which the wall curves upwards and inward. In the middle of the dry bed of the stream, there are two oval pillars, one in its original position and the other partly broken and shifted away from its exact location. These pillars have holes in them on the distal side, which run in a line from above downwards. These holes indicate that metallic bars were inserted between these pillars to which wooden planks were tied to form a dam for the storage of water, thus forming a lake in the valley. On the top of pillars wooden planks were placed horizontally to form a draw bridge. This enables one to cross from one side of the Fort to the other.

The entrance to the fort from Saan Gate is rather circuitous. One has to take a sharp left turn round the left circular bastion to get in, while the entrance in fact, remains hidden from sight and unless one has fair knowledge about it, it is difficult to locate it. There are two circular bastions on either side of bridge. There are others after them, which have been built by converting the rectangular towers into circular ones. They are a later addition for positioning the artillery fire. Originally, it appears that there were no circular bastions at all. The reason for giving a double gate is to create an extra obstacle to the entry. The bastions are not to be found all along the fortifications, but few in number are found only in the vicinity of the gates or at the corner of the Miri and Shergarh fortresses located in the Fort. A domed structure greets the visitor who enters from the Saan Gate. (Plate-63).

The Fort is square on plan with an arched entrance door. There are no visible signs of any grave nor there is any inscription. The dome which is squat in shape, has been raised with the aid of corner squinches. The structure is identical to a Ghaznavid mosque at

Giri near Taxila (Chaghtai;1975:Plate-II). There is also a mosque on the left of the Saan Gate right on the top of the fortification, but it is now in a ruinous condition (Plate-64).



Plate-63: Runne Kot Fort: Domed structure near Sann Gate



Plate-64: Runne Kot Fort: Mosque

The average height of fortification wall is 30 feet and its thickness varies. It is six feet high near the bastions. It tapers away from the bastions to a width of five feet, exclusive of the thickness of the rampart, which is eight feet wide. This thickness is made up by filling it with rubble. The wall is not upright or vertically straight, but inclines slightly inwards, so as to give it more strength. The entire wall is constructed of lime stone. At the top, it has the usual corbel arrangement with the machicolations. The wall was originally

constructed for the bow and arrow warfare. Subsequently, the machicolations have been enlarged for the lateral play of the cross-bow and, perhaps, also to accommodate the fire-arms. The fortification wall, which stretches over an area of 20¼ miles containing two other fortresses within its perimeter, it is the biggest fortified area in the world. It can be compared with the wall of China as its snake-like formation is concerned.

As stated above, there are two fortresses inside the fortification wall viz Miri and Shergarh, the former fortress serving as a royal residence. It is located at a distance of about 3½ miles from the Saan Gate (Plate-65).



Plate-65: Runne Kot Fort: Miri Fortress

It is approachable from the southern side by a double door and crooked passage behind the bastion like curtain wall at the centre. Inside, it is divided into three living areas; each containing living apartments. The entrance to Miri fortress has two arched vaults on either side. They contain beautiful carvings with a scroll of pomegranates (Plate-66). A stone, lined well in south-west corner within this fortress, serves for water supply in emergency. Shergarh fortress is located about 2 miles towards the north from the Miri fortress (Plate-67). It is erected on a lofty hill rising to about 500 yards and served as the third

defence line. It is approachable only through the southern side while the remaining three sides are inaccessible due to steep rise of the hill on which the fortress is erected.



Plate-66: Runne Kot Fort: Carvings with a scroll of pomegranates



Plate-67: Runne Kot Fort: Shergarh Fortress

Inside the fort, there are three graveyards. But the one to the west of Miri and at a distance of about a mile and half, is worth mentioning. It is in this graveyard that a grave built in sand stone was noticed by the present writer in September 1985. The stone slabs are dislodged, one of them containing the carvings of traditional jewellery (Plate-68). This confirms that the grave belongs to a lady. The other slab contains beautiful carvings in floral patterns. Another unique feature of the carved decoration is the pictorial representation in the

form of buffalo, peacocks and lions. The representation of buffalo and lions is unique in the sense that it has never been noticed earlier on any stone monuments in Sindh and Balochistan. One could find many stone reliefs dating back to Seljuk period in northern Iran depicting the images of lions. Some pieces of this type are available in Metropolitan Museum in USA. The frequent depiction of lions on their buildings may be attributed to the fact that the lion was used by the Seljuks as their emblem. (Hasan; 1996: 111).



Plate-68: Runne Kot Fort: Carved Grave Stones

The depiction of buffalo on the gravestone in Runne Kot Fort may be due to sentimental attachment of the deceased lady with this animal. But we should keep in mind the association of Jats with the buffalos, who live in the Province of Sindh. The Jats are credited with the introduction of water buffalos to the Near-East when they were deported to Iraq in the 8th century A.D. The reason for their deportation was that the Jats were in a state of constant rebellions during the Arab rule over Sindh. Every time, the Arab Government led expeditions against these rebellious people, they surrendered, but only to gain time. The moment, the Arab forces were back in their barracks, the Jats again created trouble. Attacks on Multan as well as on Sukkur

particularly the island of Bakhar by these rebellious Jats were frequent and severe (Aziz; 1981:37). The carving of lions is yet another interesting feature, confirming the presence of lions in the hilly area around Runne Kot. Also the name of “Sher Garh” meaning the abode of lions lends further support to the area being a habitat of lions in those days.

Who were the builders of this fort? It is still controversial. Some local chronicles and almost all the British annals have associated the construction to Mir Karam Ali Khan and Mir Murad Ali Khan in the first quarter of the 19th century A.D (Hasan; 1996: 15). According to the Gazetteer of Sindh (Huges, A.W.; 1874: 696-97), the Fort was intended to serve not only as a stronghold and a safe place for the deposit of their treasure, but also to afford refuge for the rulers in the event of attack by an enemy. The cost of construction given in the Gazetteer is Rs 12 lacs. According to Col. Rashid, the Talpurs were neither rich nor so resourceful to undertake this gigantic construction. They had no standing army as the maximum they could muster was about 50,000 men. In so far as their finances were concerned, their revenue was based on zamindari system, which hardly brought them revenue of Rs 35 lacs per annum. The total expenditure on construction of this fort as given in the Gazetteer is 12 lacs, which is not a realistic estimate. Col. Rashid is of the opinion that no less than two crore of rupees were spent on the construction of this fort. The finance and resources of the Talpurs were, therefore, insufficient to meet this huge expenditure. Besides, Col. Rashid does not agree that the fort was constructed in 1812 A.D. It was certainly repaired about that time, but the fort is, undoubtedly a much earlier construction. For the reasons advanced by him, Col. Rashid is of the opinion that the Fort was built by the Scythians (200-100 B.C)

(Rashid, K.A.; 1965: 41-48). Panhwar, who is in general agreement with Col Rashid, has concluded that the Fort was built either by the Indo-Greeks between 145-90 B.C. or by the Scythians between 74 B.C. to about the beginning of the Christian era (Panhwar; 1981: 17-18).

Dr. N.A. Baloch, who has made an in-depth study of Runne Kot is of the firm opinion that the Fort was constructed by the Talpur Mirs. According to him, the planning and construction of this fort was entrusted to Nawab Wali Muhammad Khan, an able Military Commander, who also excelled in his knowledge of engineering. He chose the site of Runne Kot because it was visited by Talpur Mirs for hunting purposes. The site had natural high ridge line all around it on which the fort wall was conveniently raised. Water was available not only during the rainy season, but all the year round from a spring in the bed of the Runne. Also, there was underground water which could be exploited by sinking wells. As such, sufficient supply of water could be ensured even in an exceptionally dry season. The work on the construction of the fort had started immediately after the Talpur Mirs had taken over the country. According to Mirza Qaleech Beg, Runne Kot was constructed on the orders of two senior rulers. Mir Karam Ali Khan and Mir Murad Ali Khan by about 1812 A.D. It was in this year that the elderly Mir Ghulam Ali Khan died and his brother Mir Karam Ali Khan became the senior most Amir in his place. The approximate year given by Mirza Qaleech Beg coincides more or less with 1228 A.H./1813 A.D. The planning and construction of the fort is enthusiastically recorded by Mir Hasan Ali Khan in his historical *masnavi`Fatehnama`* as under:-

‘The well known Runne Kot is a wonderful fort in the mountains, a monument left by my successors. The stone cutters worked with zeal like Farhad’.

Further conclusive evidence regarding the construction and completion of the Fort is provided by two compositions of Ghulam Ali Ma'il (died 1251 A.H/1835 A.D). He was a court poet of Mir Karam Ali Khan whom he eulogizes for the achievement.

The First Composition

The fort was built on a high mountain with its circular foundation and the vast environment. It is an all stone construction built on the stone. It is a grand fort, the like of which is neither in Rome or Russia. It is called Aliabad. Construction work commenced in 1230 A.H/1815 A.D.

The Second Composition

It is named Aliabad. It is as high as the sky and as vast as the earth. It is perfect in construction and towering in height. The year of its completion is 1234 A.H/1819 A.D. Thus, it took five years, 1230 A.H/1815 A.D to 1234 A.H/1819 A.D. to complete it.

The family records of the descendants of Nawab Wali Mohammad Khan Leghari, who had supervised the planning and construction of the fort, also confirm the account of the construction of the fort.

Some questions whether the Talpur Mirs had the vision and resources of accomplishing this stupendous task of constructing the fort have been answered by Dr. Baloch. According to him, the existence of Runne Kot is neither mentioned by any of the historians of Sindh or by any of the historians and writers of Kalhora period. Neither Mir Muhammad Masum among the earlier historians nor the versatile

genius Mir Ali Sher Qaani, mentions about Runne Kot. In his history of Sindh, Mir Masum did not even miss to record some smaller wonders of Sibi district and its adjacent mountains. He knew Sindh much better and he could not have missed to mention this great wonder of Runne Kot. Mir Masum had accompanied Emperor Akbar's army led by *Khan-i-Khanan* (1590-91 A.D) on his conquest of Sindh from Mirza Jani Beg Tarkhan. As recorded by Mir Masum himself, the royal army had halted and encamped at Sehwan, Unnarpur and Saan and an entire monsoon season was actually spent at Saan. Had this remarkable fort been there (only 18 miles south of Saan), it would, in no case have escaped the attention of *Khan-i-Khanan* from purely military point of view or of Mir Masum from historical point of view. As regards the resources of Talpur Mirs, it is a fact of history that the Talpur Mirs had built a series of forts and fortresses to safeguard the borders of Sindh. (Baloch; 1996: 286-294). The evidence provided by Dr. Baloch shows that the fort was built by the Talpur Mirs. The architectural style and the material used in construction also confirm that the existing edifice does not belong to pre-Christian era. It, however, seems that keeping in view the strategic importance of the area, this place might have been used as a 'Check Post' even in ancient times. The existing Fort appears to have been raised on the remains of an earlier construction. There are some ancient structures near the Miri fortress. Some test diggings by an archaeologist, might solve the mystery as to the origin of Runne Kot Fort (Hasan;1996:13).

Whatever details about Runne Kot have been provided above are based on the personal observations of the writer who visited it in September, 1985 as well as those contained in earlier studies made by Col Rashid (1965:34-49) and M.H. Panhwar (1981:1-18). The

Sindh Exploration and Adventure Society in 1990 conducted a comprehensive survey of the Fort. Their findings are contained in a book in Urdu "*Diwar-e-Sindh; Runne Kot*" by Badar Abro (1996). As a result of this survey some interesting features of the Fort have come to light. These are summarized as under:-

- There is no formal gate by the name of *Shah Peer Darwaza*. On the spot examination by the team, it has been noticed that the fortification at this point has collapsed. The opening, so created is now being used by the local people and the shepherds as a passage. Usually the gates are fortified by bastions as one can see at other gates like Saan and Mohan gates. But at the so called *Shah Peer Darwaza* there are no bastions (p.46).

- The fortification walls of Runne Kot contain in all 47 bastions. Seven bastions are of rectangular or square shape while the rest are round (p.46). Shergarh and Miri Forts contain 5 bastions each. (pp.53 and 57).

- There is a tank in the Shergarh Fort, for the storage of water. (p.56).

- There are several caves in Runne Kot. One is about one kilometre away from Saan gate. It is known as *Tori Dhoru* cave. It measures 70 x15 feet with a height of about 18 feet. (p.85) Besides, three caves of *Duhul Dhoru* are quite important. They measure 50'x25', 50'x60'

and 50'x70'. The last one is the largest and its height ranges from 12 to 15 feet. The caves are all man made and not natural. The observations of Zafar Kazmi about these caves have been mentioned. According to him, the caves are well ventilated and seem to have been used for human living. One of the pillars contained carved out figures of animals like ibex. The pillars also contain inscribed signs which showed resemblance with Greek or Roman script. The team could not, however, trace-out such inscribed signs as mentioned by Kazmi. (pp.87-88).

There is a general agreement among the modern scholars that the present city of Hyderabad was founded on the site of Nerun Kot, which was conquered by the Arab General Muhammad bin Qasim. Besides, the old fort stood at the same place where the present fort was built by Miyan Ghulam Shah Kalhora in 1182 A.H/1786 A.D. However, Abro does not subscribe to this view (Abro; 1996: 115-118). His contention is that Runne Kot is infact Nerun Kot. His arguments, though somewhat convincing, but still there are certain aspects which require further investigations and field studies. Such a course of action is considered necessary as another scholar has come out with a preposition that Kiran Kot and Sonemiani are Nerun Kot and Deybul, respectively (Hasan, M. Usman; 2002:54-71).

G. SEHWAN FORT (Plates – XXXIII & XXXIV)

Sehwan is situated on the main Indus Highway at a distance of about 135 kilometres to the north-west of Kotri. It is also connected by rail (Kotri-Sehwan-Larkana). The citadel is itself located on the west bank of river Indus. It is surrounded by various mountains; the

Kirther range to the west and the Laki range to the south. The north-south chain of mountains blocks the access to the Indus Valley from these two directions. The east bank is edging the arid desert of Thar. In view of its strategic location, Sehwan holds the key to unlock the



Plate-XXXIII: Sehwan Fort: General View

door for entry into the Lower Sindh. It was for this reason that need for having a fort at Sehwan was always felt from time immemorial.

The origin of Sehwan is obscure. Tradition has it that its ancient name Siwistan derives from Sivi or Siwi, a tribe which inhabited the Indus Valley in ancient times (*Journal of Punjab Historical Society*, Vol.I, No. 2:174-175). Siwistan has been identified with the Sindimana of Alexander's time, whose ruler Sombos fled to the mountains on arrival of the Greek army. Alexander is reported to have built a fort at Sehwan (Cunningham; 1924: 263-66). Some scholars have linked the name of Siwistan with Scythians, as in 2nd/3rd century A.D. the region where Sehwan is located, was dominated by the Scythians. It came to be called as Siwistan (Siwi-asthan=the Scythian land) which figures in *Fathnama* and also in Beruni's *al-Qanun al Masudi* in the 5th century A.H. (Baloch, 1983:77 notes). The Hindus, who came to power in later times, connected it with one of their deities, Shiva and hence Shiva-Wahan or Siv-Wahan i.e the resting place of Lord Shiva. The existence of a big temple dedicated to Shiva where Lingham and Bhag worship was common down to the sixth century A.H., has



Plate-XXXIV: Sehwan Fort: South Towers of the Citadel

been reported by the later historians (Pathan; 1978:280 & 359).

The Arab Geographers like Baladhuri have named it Sadusan and Sahban (Cunningham; 1924:266). As the contemporary accounts show, there was a fort at Sehwan even during the rule of Rai and Brahman dynasties. It was taken over by the Arab General Muhammad bin Qasim by defeating the forces of Raja Dahir in 712 A.D. Later the control of the fort was taken over by the Ghaznavids and Ghorids in 1026 and 1126 A.D. respectively. The fort also remained in possession of Khaljies and Tughlaqs. Sultan Mohammad Tughlaq, who had come to Sindh in pursuit of rebel Taghi, died near Sonda, District Thatta on 20th March, 1351 A.D., was temporarily buried close to the mausoleum of Lal Shahbaz Qalanadar at Sehwan (D.673 A.H/1283 A.D.). Subsequently, the local dynasties of Sindh namely, Soomrahs and Summas had the control over the fort till it was occupied by the Arghuns under the command of Shah Beg sometime in 1519 A.D. The Mughal Emperor Humayun, after having been defeated by Sher Shah Suri arrived in Sindh sometime in 1540 A.D. He laid a siege to the fort in November, 1541 A.D., but could not dispossess the Arghuns. The fort was, however, taken over by the Mughal forces during the reign of

Emperor Akbar in 1593 A.D. When the rule of the Mughals came to an end, Kalhoras assumed control over Sindh. They had their capital first at Khudabad and then at Hyderabad. Sehwan thus lost its importance and fell into oblivion. The Fort due to lack of proper care and maintenance, collapsed and turned into heaps of rubbles.

The remains of the citadel are spread over an area of 33 acres. The height of the mound ranges from 80 to 100 feet. The whole complex consists of heaps of disjointed mounds. At certain places, deep depressions have occurred due to continuous flow of rain water over the years. The towers/bastions have become of conical shape due to erosion by rain water. In the present situation, the exact plan of the fort cannot be clearly ascertained. The field work at the site has been going on since 1996 and from the preliminary reports some idea about the structural remains can be had. The structural remains are represented by two building periods i.e. ancient fort and the mediaeval fort.



Plate-69: Sehwan Fort

The ancient fort forms a remarkable hill towering the north of the town. Pieces of walls and torn-out towers are hanging up on its uneven sides (Plate-69). Four main ravines are going deep inside the mounds, two of them

being presumably, the old entrances of the citadel. The fifth ravine to the south is the main entrance of the mediaeval period fort. Its walls are built of burnt bricks. Remains of large buildings can be seen on the western part of the citadel. The thickness of the walls and the quality of their construction as well as the architectural decoration such as carved lintels, glazed tiles, door frames etc. testify that the buildings were meant for the royalty. Remains of four collapsed domed structures have also been noticed. One can also see the remains of towers numbering about 30 and a moat surrounding the citadel on its southern side.

The defence of the Fort was strengthened with a number of ramparts, which were possibly used in hurling the cannon balls upon the invaders as a number of cannon balls, their diameter ranging from 30 to 35 cm, and weighing from 28 to 32 kg, were found at the site.

Tuhfat al-Kiram (Qaani; 1971: 245-246) while narrating the military operation of *Khan-i-Khanan*, the *Spih Salar* of Emperor Akbar against Mirza Jani Beg in 1592 A.D. has also mentioned about the fort at Sehwan. Relevant extracts are reproduced below, which will give an idea about the grandeur and impregnability of Sehwan Fort:-

“Jani Beg left the fort of Sehwan—famous among the forts of Sindh. Its height equalled that of the fort of Asir (garh) and the fast flying bird of imagination could not fly over the environs of that high structure and travellers could only conceive of its pleasant airs and the encircling rope of morning breeze with all its activities and high reach retires or visits to a corner only of its threshold and the world illuminating such reaches its first foundation (only) and its height rivals the seventh heaven (sky). In the strength of its

towers and rampart, it conceals (excels) the seven forts of the Deccan (probably Bijapur with its seven surrounding forts).

Arzaqi said:

Due to the fear of its height, the celestial vault passes with bent back over its battlement (as) a guard. And celestial guard *shies* away from guarding it.

Verse

“And from its sling the stone that is hurled,

sharper than the tip of the sword breaks the head seventh heaven,

The bloody thirsty Mars is its guard, Mercury writes daily accounts of those killed by it, Saturn is honoured to be its watchman and the Seventh heaven (or Saturn) is honoured to serve as its guard,

And it is renowned in inhabited quarters of the world for abundance of instruments and equipment of war and uncountable stores and food beyond “calculation”.

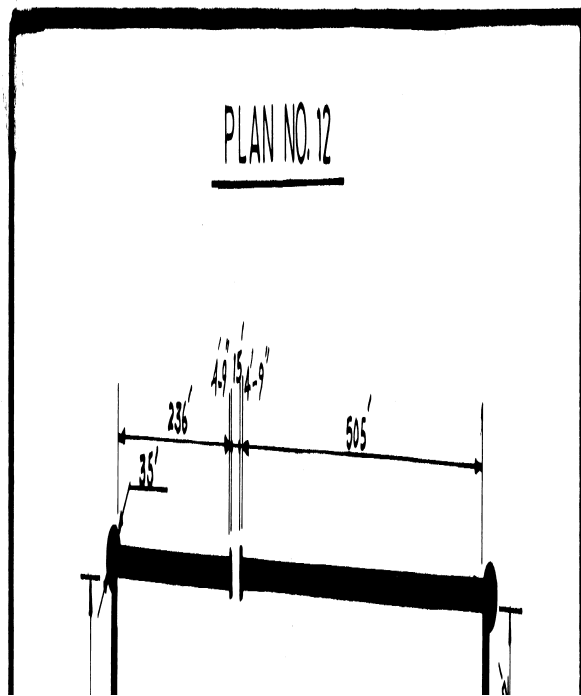
H. UMARKOT FORT

Umarkot is one of the district headquarters in the province of Sindh. It is located about 140 kilometres to the east of Hyderabad city. According to a legend, Umarkot is said to be founded by Umar, a Chief of Soomra tribe, that ruled over Sindh from 1141 to 1180 A.D. (Tod James, 1820, Vol.II:285-68 and Qaani; 1971:484). This legend, however, lacks creditability as the capital of Umar Soomra was at Tharri in Matli Taluka and not at Umarkot, which was then known as Amarkot (Mehran No. 2 1959:139-150). It was under the control of Raja of Marwar. It is generally believed that Amarkot was founded by Raja Amar Singh Permar in 11th Century A.D. The Mughal Emperor Humayun, when he was ousted by Sher Shah Suri, came to Umarkot in 1542 A.D. at the invitation of Raja Bir Sal (and not Rana Parsad). According to *Tarikh-e-Masumi*, the Raja went out with his followers to receive Emperor Hymayun and attained the honour of kissing his feet and vacated for him the chambers of the citadel. The Emperor had stayed outside the fort for a few days and let Bilqis Makani Hamida Banu Begum stay inside the Fort. Emperor Akbar was born there on 15th October, 1542 (Siddiqi; 1972:98-99).

It is, however, controversial as to whether or not Akbar was born in the present day Umarkot Fort. His place of birth is situated about 1½ kilometres north of Umarkot. A canopy to mark the site was raised there by a local Zamindar Mehar Shah in 1898 A.D. As per *Tarikh-e-Registan*, (Bokhari;1992:136), there was an old fort, extinct now, at Joglai Asthan where the present birth place of Akbar is located. The reality on the ground does not, however, prove it. The area around the so called birth place of Emperor Akbar is all plain and does not show any sign of ancient habitation, what to speak of the structural remains of a fort. Emperor Akbar was, in all probability, born in the present day Umerkot Fort as is confirmed by the narrative of Gulbadan Begum in *Humayun Nama* (1972: 58). The researches made by Moinuddin (1975: 32-34) and Lakho (1986: 110-112) also confirm it.

The Umarkot fort mostly remained in the possession of Rajputs of Sodha tribe. When Nadir Shah invaded Sindh in 1740 A.D. Miyan Nur Muhammad Kalhora had taken refuge in it. (Mehar Ghulam Rasul, 1958, Part I: 439-42). In 1914 A.H. /1780 A.D. Miyan

Abdul Nabi Kalhora, with the active support of the Raja of Jodhpur got Mir Bijar killed and gave the Fort of Umarkot to the Raja as a reward for helping him in the execution of the heinous assassination (Mehar Ghulam Rasul, 1958, Part II:803-04). The fort was taken back from the Rajputs by Mir Ghulam Ali Khan Talpur in 1813 A.D. (Baloch;1996:287). On the British conquest of Sindh, the Fort came under their possession in 1843 A.D.



The existing fort was rebuilt by Kalhoras. It is rectangular on plan and measures 946x785 feet. (Plan-12). It is built with burnt bricks and carved stones. Both the interior and exterior walls give a tapered look. There are four semi-circular bastions on its each corner. On the eastern side, there is an arched gateway flanked by semi circular bastions. (Plate-70). The fortification wall was originally, 17 feet wide and raised to a maximum height of 45 feet from the surrounding level. The thickness of the wall is 8 feet. There is a Watch Tower

inside the fort, which once contained seven heavy cannons. (Plates-71 & 72). A Museum was established in the fort, by the Federal Department of Archaeology in 1968, in memory of Emperor Akbar. There is, in addition, a Circuit House and some other Govt. buildings inside the Fort.



Plate-70: Umerkot Fort: Arched Gateway with Bastions



Plate-71: Umerkot Fort: Watch Tower

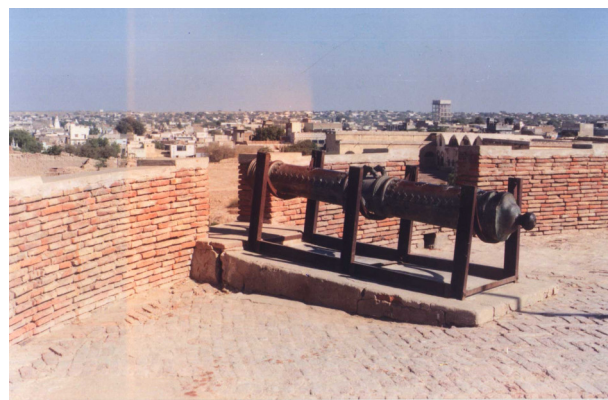


Plate-72: Umerkot Fort: Cannon fitted on Watch Tower

I. RATOO KOT, DISTRICT KARACHI

Ratto Kot is situated in Muchaq Island in the vicinity of Port Qasim area, some 27 kilometres to the south east of Karachi. Banbhore, which according to some scholars represents the historic city of Deybul, that fell to the Arab General Muhammad bin Qsim 712 A.D., is located about 29 kilometres east of Ratto Kot. This place has been marked as Samar Khand Pir on the quarter inch survey map of 1935. Ratto Kot is also known as "Bloody Castle" as "Ratto" in Sindhi means blood.

The field work done in 1990 has revealed the remains of a fortress. It is square on plan slightly irregular since its west east sides (107m and 109m) are a little bit larger than northern and southern ones (97m and 101m) (Plan-13).

The fortress is built of baked bricks fired to a deep red. The bricks measures 29 to 32 cm long, 20 to 22 cm wide and 4 to 4.5 cm thick. The height of the walls at places is preserved upto 3.60m. Each wall is reinforced by bastions, elongated semi circular in form, their number being five each on north, east and south sides. The

western side contains six bastions. The width of the bastions varies between 6.80 and 7.40m while their length generally 8m to 9m projecting out from the exterior of the fortress wall. The corner towers are also not uniform. The south west corner tower is mostly circular

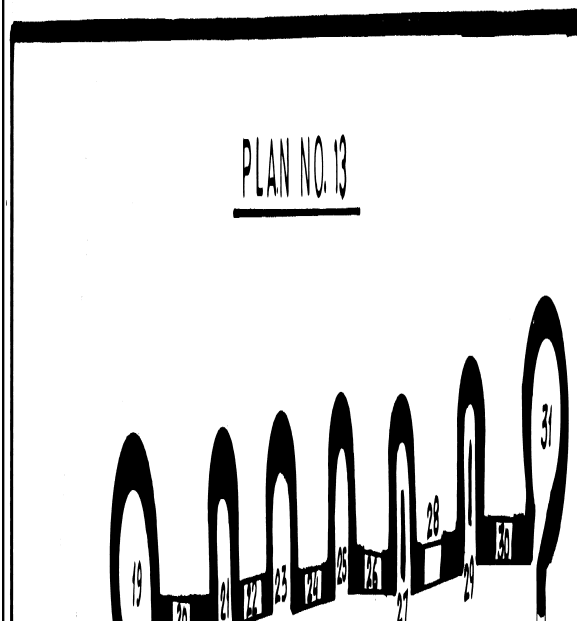
in form while the three others have an elongated pear shape. All the corner towers extend out from the exterior of the wall of the fortress, some 8 to 10m. The thickness of all towers is 2.30m.

The walls (curtain walls) which lay between each of the bastions have various lengths between 5.80-15.00m. Those of the west side are the shortest since here are located six bastions instead of five on other sides. A peculiar feature of this fortress is the inordinately small size of the curtain walls some barely exceed the width of the bastions.

The entrance is on the southern side near the south west corner. It consists of a direct access

door protected by two bastions flanking it. Inside the fortress, remains of some buildings can be seen. These were probably used as stores or as guard rooms. The centre formed a large open courtyard. A rectangular structure built against the western wall is presumably of a later date. It is 15m on each side. Inside, a small room has been preserved still containing a great

number of clay ball projectiles of baked earth, each about 15 cm in diameter. In another area of the site, outside the fortification wall near the brick structure at the centre of the western wall, fragments of decorated terracotta moulded plaques were found These certainly



served as part of running frieze for this facade of the fortress. A second row of terracotta friezes made of Arabic Kufic letters was also applied to the fortress wall. A small part of it, one letter only, has been found near the entrance. Among the surface finds are fragments of early Umayyad/Abbasid ceramics, pieces of glass suggesting Syrian techniques and pieces of imported ceramics from China. Glass and stoneware give the indication of a principal occupation between 8th and 11th centuries continuing upto the 13th century. Ratto Kot is, therefore, comparable with Banbhore. It was, probably, a custom house and also a forward defensive position against marauding pirates and invaders, being of a size sufficient to control the channel access to Banbhore.

The architectural features of the fortress of Ratto Kot provide a fascinating study. They

resemble, to a great extent, with some of the fortresses in Iran and Central Asia. In Iran the fortress of Siraf has quadrangular surrounding wall with projecting elongated semi-circular bastions on each side and pear shaped towers on each corner. The fortress of Tureng Tepe in Gorgan province of Iran has got semi-elliptical layout of its bastions similar to those of Ratto Kot. Two other similarities between the two fortresses can be seen in the entrance gate. Both the fortresses have a drainage canal passing under the main gate threshold and a barbican in front of the main door. The fortress layout is not typical of the architecture of Syria or Iraq. Perhaps Muhammad bin Qasim; the Conqueror of Sindh or the subsequent Arab Governors, did not follow the architectural traditions of their native place in constructing the forts, as they did in case of mosques. (Kervran, Monik; 1992: 165-170).

J. DAHLEEL KOT/DALEEL KOT

During his military campaigns in Sindh, the Arab General Muhammad Bin Qasim, after the conquest of Deybul in 711 A.D. had subdued a number of fortified towns. Their details are available in *Chachnama*. One of the fortified towns was Dehlelah. Jaisiah son of Raja Dahir took refuge in Brahmanabad, when the town of Alore was captured by Muhammad bin Qasim and in the process Raja Dahir was also killed. Jaisiah made necessary preparations, in collaboration with his associates, to fight against their common enemy, Muhammad bin Qasim. Upon knowing all this, Muhammad bin Qasim, determined to march against Brahmanabad, where Jaisiah was encamping. In between Alore and Brahmanabad, there were two fortified towns namely Bahrur and Dahlelah, which were protected by 16,000 soldiers. However, the Arab army with the aid of

naphtha arrows and battering rams stormed the Bahrur fort and captured it by killing almost all the enemy soldiers. When the news about the fall of Bahrur reached the people of Dahlelah, they were much frightened. The merchants and traders, escaped to various towns of Hind, while the people belonging to military class, remained behind to defend the town. The Arab army, under the command of Muhammad bin Qasim, laid siege to the fort, which continued for about two months or so. The besieged having lost all hopes of outside help put on the clothes of death and applied Otto of roses and other sweat herbs to their bodies and taking their families with them escaped from the fort in the darkness of the night, through the gate facing the town of Ramal and managed to cross the river Manjhal. The next day when the facts came to the notice of Muhammad bin Qasim, he

ordered his soldiers to chase them. Some of them were caught while the others made their escape via Ramal to Hindustan. Ultimately the Dahlelah was captured and its Governorship was entrusted to Banunah son of Dharan. (Beg, Qaleech; 1900:156-158).

The exact location of Dahlelah is not yet certain. Dr. N.A. Baloch, who has edited Ali Kafi's *Chachnama/Fathnama*, is of the view that Dahlelah is in all probability Ali Kufi's misreading or the first scribe's error, for Damlelah, which is the later Damrelah of Sultan Muhammad bin Tughlaq's campaign in Sindh. (1350/51 A.D.) According to him, it is to be identified with the site of Nuhato in Umerkot Taluka, where the more ancient mounds lie on the right (western) bank of the abandoned river bed of the Hakra-Nara, while the ruins of a fortified town of the mediaeval period (which possibly continued to exist upto 17th century A.D. are situated on the left (eastern bank). The popular name Nuhato (Town of nine stores) signified the prosperity of this place in later times, though the old name of Damlelah/Damrelah has survived in village name of Dambharlo (in its typical Sindhized form) in the vicinity.

The identification of Dahlelah with Damrelah (i.e. the ruins of Nuhato situated on the Hakra-Nara) is supported, claims, Dr. Baloch, by further statement in *Chachnama* to the effect that (i) during its siege the defenders sent away their dependents through the fort-gate opening to the desert (Ramal-sand) side and they crossed over the channel of Manjhal to the other side. The desert beyond Demrelah/Nuhato would obviously be the Thar of Sindh with its further continuation into Hind. The distance from Dahlelah to Brahmanabad, as given in *Chachnama*, was one *farsang*. According to Dr. Baloch, the distance of one *farsang* is obviously the

scribe's error, because the distance from Dahlelah (identified as Damrelah/Nuhato) to Brahmanabad should be about 100 miles. Counting 2.5 miles to one faresang, distance between sites of Brahmanabad and Nuhato should about 40 or 41 farsangs. Most probably, therefore, the original reading was (چهل و یک فرسنگ) of which the initial part (چهل و) got omitted due to scribe's error. (Baloch; 1983: 112-115). The observations made by Dr. Baloch need further examination by way of excavations at the site of Damrelah/Nuhato.

There is a fortified settlement by the name of Daleel Kot/Dahleel Kot. It is situated in the neighbourhood of Sakrand at a distance of about three miles on a link road leading to Nawabshah. This place has been identified by some scholars to be the Dahlelah of Muhammad bin Qasim's times (Ansari; 1996: 120-155). The conquest of Dahlelah by the Arab forces has also been described by the later writers, but their main source is *Chachnama*. Its exact location as stated about is, however, still controversial. The fort at Daleel Kot/Dahleel Kot is in ruinous condition. Presently, there is a village inside the fort, which has further deteriorated its condition. The fort is circular on plan. (Plan-14).



The fortification wall is built of mud, (Plate-73), but its interior and exterior core was originally covered as the evidence show, with burnt bricks. It was strengthened by horizontal timber framing. The parapet is crowned by merlons. Loop-holes have been provided in the upper part for musketry. Semi-circular bastions have been provided at equi-distance, 12 in number, in the fortification wall. The distance between each bastion is nearly 158 feet. The circumference of the circular fortification wall works-out to 2768 feet: its diameter being 668 feet. The thickness of the fortification wall at the base is about 20 feet, but it gradually decreases upward giving it a tapered look. At the top, the thickness is about 14 feet. The bastions are of conical shape. Their height is about 30 feet while the diameter is about 26 feet. The thickness of each bastion is 36 feet. The main entrance i.e. *Shahi Darwaza* is of crooked shape and is defended by bastions; one on each side. All the bastions are well fortified by machicolations and loop-holes for musketry. There are remains of three postern gates one each on north, south and west.



Plate-73(a): Daleel Kot Fort: General View

Before entering the fort, from *Shahi Darwaza*, one has to pass through a 20 feet long passage, which used to be protected by the soldiers posted in arched niches on its both sides. Then

one has to come across a rampart, which is square in shape, each side measuring 50 feet. At the end of the rampart, there is an entrance, followed by a passage duly protected like the main entrance. There are no buildings inside the fort. However, remains of another circular fortification wall are visible, which is at a distance of about 15 feet from the outer wall.



Plate-73(b): Daleel Kot Fort: Main Entrance



Plate-73(c): Daleel Kot Fort: View of another Gate

Before entering the fort, from *Shahi Darwaza*, one has to pass through a 20 feet long passage, which used to be protected by the soldiers posted in arched niches on its both sides. Then one has to come across a rampart, which is square in shape, each side measuring 50 feet. At the end of the rampart, there is an entrance, followed by a passage duly protected like the main entrance. There are no buildings inside

the fort. However, remains of another circular fortification wall are visible, which is at a distance of about 15 feet from the outer wall.

It is not yet certain, as to who built this fort. According to *Tuhfat al Kiram*, Raja Sahasi remitted the taxes of his subjects on the condition that they should raise (or repair) the earth-work of six forts namely Uchh, Matela, Seorai, Mao or Mad, Alore and Siwistan (Qaani, 1973:12). There is, however, no indication about the fort at Dahleel Kot/Daleel Kot. According to local tradition, the fort was constructed during the reign of Talpurs by one Nawab Daleel Khan Magsi. Another version is that it was got repaired by Miyan Nur Mohammad Khan Talpur (Ansari; 1996:122).

It is no doubt true that Talpurs, in order to secure their borders, had constructed a series of forts at some vulnerable points in Sindh. The place where Dahleel Kot/Daleel Kot is located, was not so strategically important, as to warrant the construction of a fort by the Talpurs. Moreover, the plan of the fort is circular in shape and is not to be found in any other forts constructed by the Talpurs. The style of construction, vis-a-vis, the defensive features like loop-holes for musketry and machicolations do not confirm its association with the pre-Muslim times. It is a fort of post-gun powder period, which might have been constructed by a local tribal chief in late 18th century A.D. However, further probe is necessary to determine its exact date.

CHAPTER VI

HISTORICAL FORTS IN N.W.F.P.

A. BALA HISAR FORT, PESHAWAR

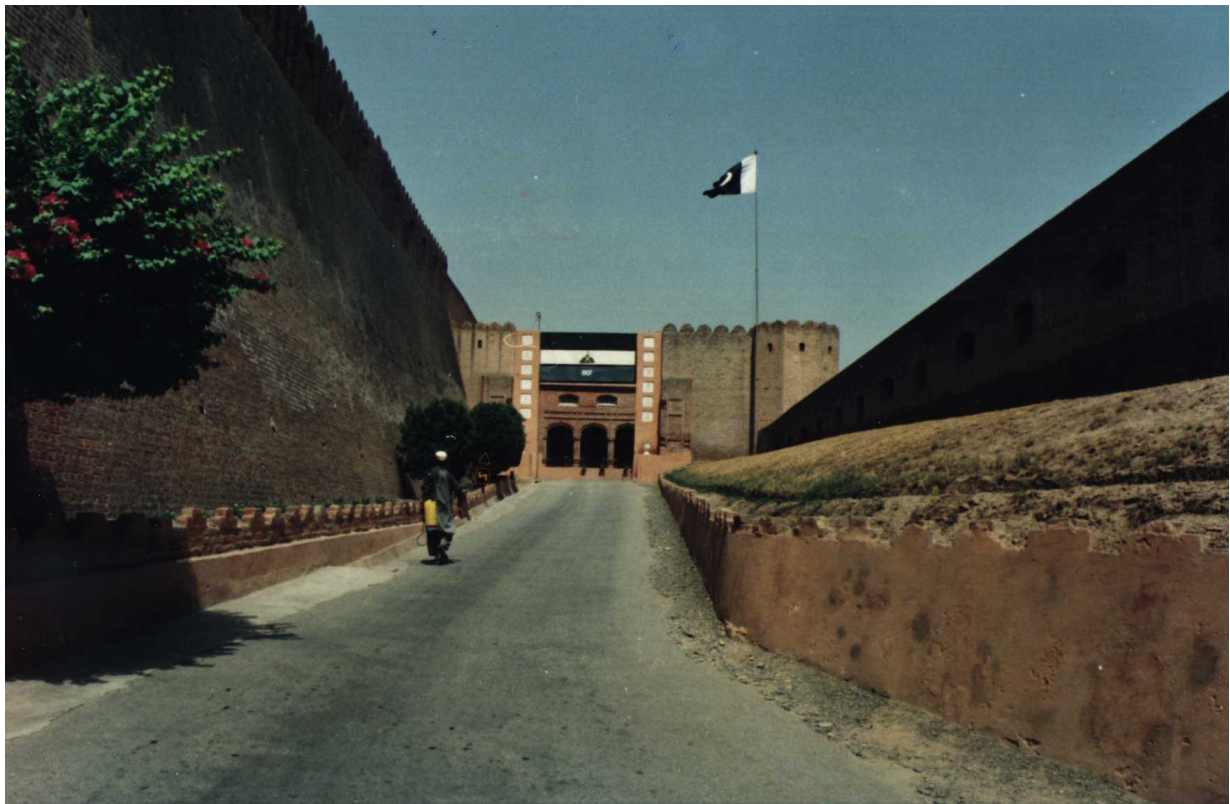


Plate-XXXV: Bala Hisar Fort: General View

While entering the city of Peshawar from Rawalpindi, one can see the Bala Hisar Fort on a high mound just on the left of the G.T. Road. It measures approximately 220' x 220' and is encircled by a thick wall constructed

with baked bricks. The outer wall is smaller in height than the inner wall. The walls are interspersed with bastions. (Plate-74). There is a double crooked gate to the north overlooking the road. (Plate-75). There are no



Plate-74: Bala Hisar Fort: Bastion

residential buildings inside the Fort except a few barracks. It is understood that the Fort was built for defensive purposes only.

The Fort has got a chequered history. Under the Mughals, it witnessed several ups and downs until it came into the hands of Durrannies. The Fort was destroyed by the Sikhs. It was re-built by Hari Singh Nalwa after the battle of Nowshera. But according to Burns, it was reconstructed in the time of Sardar Kharak Singh (Peshawar New Gazetteer: 299). Raverty on the other hand, records "that the present Fort was erected by Sher Singh, the son of Ranjit Singh on the orders of his father and in consequence whatever remained of the old Bala Hisar was razed to the ground"(Raverty; 1852: 25). The British later on replaced the mud walls with brick masonry. The inscription over the inner gate of the fort reads as follows:

Translation

Victory to Porakh. Through the grace of Sri Akal. Under the liberal Govt., of Maharaja Ranjit Singh Bahadur over the region of Peshawar, in the year 1891 (Vikram Samvat) (A.D. 1834), this was built by Raja Bikramajit and was named Samir (correctly Samar)garh.

Bala Hisar was indeed a beautiful place, when it was serving as a residential palace of Shah Shuja. Its description given by Elphinstone, when he came to meet Shah Shuja in 1809, is given below:

"At length we reached an open space under the palace, or castle, in which the king resides; this space was filled

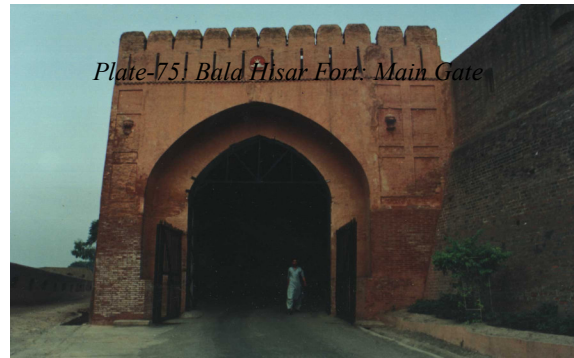


Plate-75: Bala Hisar Fort: Main Gate

with people, who covered the side of the hill on which the castle stands, like the audience at a theatre. When we reached the gate, over which the king's band was playing, we were requested to leave the greater part of our attendants behind, and here our drums and trumpets were required to cease playing. Sometime after we entered the gateway, we dismounted, and after walking about one hundred yards, we ascended a flight of steps, and entered a long narrow room, where about one hundred and fifty persons were seated in great order along the walls. This was called the Kishki Khauneh, or guard room.... The Chaos Baushee came to us.... He then conducted us up the sloping passage, and through a gate, after which we passed behind a sort of screen, and suddenly issued into a large court, at the upper end of which we saw the king in an elevated building. The court was oblong, and

had high walls, painted with the figures of cypresses. In the middle was a pond and fountains. The walls on each side were lined with king's guards three deep, and at various places in the court, stood the offices of state, at different distances from the king, according to their degree. At the end of the court was a high building, the lower storey of which was solid wall, ornamented with false arches, but without doors or windows; over this was another storey, the roof of which was supported by pillars and Moorish arches highly ornamented. In the centre arch sat the king, on a very large throne of gold or gilding. His appearance was magnificent and royal, his crown and all his dress were one blaze of jewels. He was elevated above the heads of the eunuchs who surrounded his throne, and who were the only persons in the large hall where he sat; all was silent and motionless". "The throne was covered with a cloth adorned with pearls, on which lay a sword and a small mace, set with jewels. The room was open all round. The centre was supported by four high pillars; in the midst of which was a

marble fountain. The floor was covered with the richest carpets, and round the edges were slips of silk, embroidered with gold, for the Khauns to stand on. The view from the hall was beautiful. Immediately below was an extensive garden full of cypresses and other trees, and beyond was a plain of the richest verdure; here and there were pieces of water and shining streams; and the whole was bounded by mountains, some dark, and other covered with snow" (Elphinstone; 1842:76-97).

Some scholars have opined that the Bala Hisar Fort was founded by Mughal Emperor, Babur (Jafar; 1945:97-98). But there is no evidence to prove it. According to *Tuzuk-e-Babri*, Emperor Babur only strengthened the Fort. (*Babarnama*; 1975, Vol.II: 409-412). There is, however, a possibility that at the time of visit of Hiuen Tang, the channel of Bara river had surrounded a high spot in the old city which included the area of Bala Hisar and City centre called *Andar Shehar*. This higher area could have been the present citadel (Dani; 1995: 37-38).

B. HUND FORT

Hund is an important site on the old crossing of the river Indus in Swabi tehsil of Mardan District. Name of eminent personalities such as Alexander, Changiz Khan, Mahmud of Ghazna, Shahabuddin Ghauri, Timur, Babur, Akbar, Aurangzeb, Ranjit Singh, Syed Ahmed Shaheed Barevli etc., are associated with it.

Hund was known as Udabhandapur in the ancient times. The name is composed of Sanskrit words. 'Udak', 'bhand' and 'pur'

meaning water, pot and city, respectively. One can gather from its name that river Indus was crossed at this spot with the help of earthen pots in ancient times. The Chinese pilgrims called it Udakabhanda while in Kashmir chronicle it is mentioned as Udabhand. Alberuni calls it Wayhand or Oaihand in 1030 A.D. It is also pronounced as Ohind (Sehrai; 1979: 2). It remained the capital of Hindu Shahi rulers in the 9th century A.D. Al-Muqaddasi, a contemporary Muslim traveller

(10th century A.D) gives an eye witness account of the city in the following words:-

“It is a capital city of great glory and is bigger than Mansura. Situated on a square open plain, it has many gardens clean and attractive. The river is full of water. We also get rains. The fruits of both summer and winter seasons are plentifully available. Around the city are the gardens full of walnut, almond, banana and date. The prices are low. Three maunds of honey could be brought in one dirham. Bread and milk are very cheap. Pestilent insects are absent. People are free from incurable diseases. But the weather is comparatively humid and hot. It is therefore, open to fire. Short of these dangers, it could match with the best cities of Iran”. (Faruqi, Khurshid Ahmad; 1962: 264-65).



Plate-76: Hund Fort: Remains of Fortification Wall

The archaeological remains at Hund (Plate 76) relate to Hindu Shahi and Mughal periods. The remains of Hindu Shahi fortification wall running parallel to the west bank of the river can be identified. Besides, two squarish

bastions of diaper masonry in the same wall can be seen in a cliff on the river bank. There is a ruined mound called Salamgarh. There was probably a temple of Hindu Shahi period, as indicated by the presence of a number of images, Sanskrit inscriptions and old coins, some of which are on display in Peshawar Museum.

In 1586 A.D., Emperor Akbar built a fort in which a modern village is now housed. The fort is square on plan. There is a gateway in the centre of each side of the fortification wall, which contained thirty six bastions originally. The walls and bastions are constructed on rubble masonry. The entry to the village is through the northern gate and the straight road which goes to the village, terminates at the southern gate at the bank of the river.

Hund lost its importance when Emperor Akbar got another fort built on the bank of river Indus near Attock. The government of N.W.F.P. has constructed a memorial known as Alexander point at Hund (Plate-77).



Plate-77: Hund Fort: Alexander's Point

C. JAMRUD FORT

Sikhs had made great strides during the reign of Maharaja Ranjit Singh. In the beginning, their rule was confined to Punjab. Subsequently, finding no stable Government in the areas now constituting the North-West Frontier Province, Ranjit Singh over-powered the local Tribal Chiefs and by 1818 A.D., he conquered almost the entire region. In order to consolidate their position, the Sikhs had constructed a number of forts. These included Jehangira Fort, Tarbela Fort, Bala Hisar, Haripur Fort, Mansehra Fort etc. (Sabir; 1966:20 & 69).

Jamrud Fort is situated at a village having the same name, ten miles to the north-west of Peshawar. The highway from Peshawar to Kabul and the railway line from Peshawar to Landi Kotal pass through Jamrud. The Khyber Pass begins from here and goes upto Landi Kotal. In other words, Jamrud is the eastern gate of Khyber Pass and has therefore, great strategic importance. The Fort was built by Hari Singh Nalwa on 6th of Poh, 1893, Vikram Samvat (1836 A.D) and was named as Fatehgarh (Jafar; 1945:120-22). The Fort is located on a high mound and it appears that some sort of an earlier construction was

already in existence there. Moorcraft, who came here before the construction of the modern fort writes that the plain terminated at the foot of the Khyber range. It appeared to have been formerly a place of importance, as remains of broken stone walls are scattered all over the area as well as of some large tanks, one of which was sixty yards square” (Dani,1995:230).

The fort is constructed of rough stones. The exterior surface of the walls is covered with clay mixed with hay. It thus gives a yellowish appearance. It is a three tiered building; the lower fort, an upper fort and a keep. The lower fort has a square terrace with a circular bastion at each corner. The ramparts used to have some barracks for the soldiers. The upper fort has an octagonal terrace. Its main gate is made of thick steel doors. The path leading to the interior winds through the rampart and gradually spirals up. Hari Singh Nalwa was killed in an encounter with the Afghan forces on 30th April, 1837. After the demise of the Sikh General, a Samadh and Gurdawara were built within the fort, in his memory (Khan, Waliullah; 1962: 56).

D. FORTS AT KAFIRKOT, DERA ISMAIL KHAN DISTRICT

There are two fortified complexes at Kafirkot in Dera Ismail Khan District, which contain citadels as well as Hindu temples. For the sake of identification, the two complexes have been named as northern Kafirkot and southern Kafirkot. The northern Kafirkot can be approached from Chashma Barrage from where it is hardly 12 kilometres away close to the west bank of river Indus. The fortress is located on a projecting spur of Khisore range of hills hanging over the river Indus just 10

kilometres below the junction of the Kurram river. The southern Kafirkot, 56 kilometres from Dera Ismail Khan, is situated in the vicinity of a well known shrine of a Muslim saint at Bilot on Chashma right bank canal. It occupies a small defensible plateau, about 350 feet above the Indus. The complex is visible from an irrigation headwork short of 3 kilometres from Bilot. One can also go to northern Kafirkot from here. It is nearly 40 kilometres away in the north.



Plate-78(a): Kafirkot, Northern; Fortification Wall.



Plate-78(b): Kafirkot, Northern; Bastion

Both the forts are of cut-stone construction having bastions connected by curtain walls. The fort at northern Kafirkot is oblong in shape and measures 1000 feet from east to west and 600 feet from north to south. (Plate-78). The fortification wall of dry built masonry is strengthened, at close intervals, by round and rectangular towers. Within the western end against the defences is a kind of a citadel about 140 yards long and upheld by massive retaining walls above the general level and commanding the most exposed approach. The wall towers are sharply sloped inward or battered. In some of the towers where the outer skin of the masonry has fallen, an inner skin is revealed. There is a marked difference in the style of the masonry between the outer skin and the inner skin. This certainly confirms that there are two building phases. The interior of the fortified area is

littered with ancient dwellings of un-mortared masonry. Apart from the temples, there is a two storied building known as “Mari”. (Plate-79). It is located in the south-eastern corner of the fort and measures approximately 40’ x 40’. Both the storeys contain windows with sloping jambs. Between the storeys is a string course with tooth mouldings, but otherwise there are no traces of any decoration. There are some Muslim graves in the complex which are attributed to *Ashabies* i.e the companions of the Holy Prophet.



Plate-79: Kafirkot Fort: Northern; Mari

As regards southern Kafirkot, its fortifications resemble generally with the northern Kafirkot. The walls are massive and faced with carefully dressed stone blocks with large blocks towards the base. There are upwards of 22 round fronted towers and at least two choked gateways. The interior is filled with a mass of crumbling structures (Plate-80).



Plate-80(a): Kafirkot Fort: General View from Southern Side

A question, however, arises as to why the complexes at Kafirkot are fortified. If we look at the geographical location of this place, it will be observed that, being located close to the river Indus, it was certainly serving as a deterrent against any possible attack either



Plate-80(b): Kafirkot Fort: Southern; Bastion

from the lowland or from the highland intended to disrupt the free flow of trade from its hinterland, the Kurram Valley or the Bannu basin. In the opinion of Stein, Kafirkot was of vital importance for the military and commercial operations for the Bannu region. (Stein; 1905: 14). The more plausible reason as to why these complexes were fortified, was the inroads of the Muslims who had already established their control in Bannu region in 7th century A.D. According to al-Baladhuri, Muhallab ibn Sufrah had invaded this region in the reign of Amir Muawiya in 44 A.H./664 A.D. (al-Baladhuri; 1978: 421). Further movements of Islamic forces into north-west Afghanistan continued until the early 9th century A.D. as per the evidence from two inscriptions quoted in the *Akbar-e-Makka* of Azraqi (Ghafur, M.A.; 1965-66:4-12). It is possible that the whole kingdom of Kabul Shah was a part of the eastern Caliphate of Abbasid Caliph Mamun (813-833 A.D). The three Tochi inscriptions (Arabic, Bactrian and Sanskrit) now in Peshawar Museum dated to various eras to about 9th century A.D., also suggest a real Muslim presence in Bannu region (Dani; 1964: 125-130). It was due to similar reason that there was a great fortress building activity not only in Kohat and Bannu regions, but also around the Hindu temples in Salt range, including those in Punjab like

Nandana in Jhelum District. (Stein; 1905: 2-4 and Rehman, Abdur; 1979: Plates VII and XIII).

The architectural style of the temples provides an interesting study. The rich plastic embellishment and some of the

architectural details like Corinthian pilasters, dentil ornamentation etc have been influenced by the decorative motifs of Gandhara and Buddhist origin. These temples, despite Buddhist influence, were Brahminical. This fact is further confirmed by the discovery of a three headed Mahesvara figure in a seated posture recovered from one of the temples in northern Kafirkot (*Pakistan Heritage Society News Letter* No. 1, January, 1998). The temples belong to Hindu Shahi period on stylistic grounds and have been dated as belonging to the period between the 6th and 11th centuries A.D. Stein's view is that the temples at northern Kafirkot and southern Kafirkot belong to 7-8th century and 9-10 century respectively. (Stein; 1905: 14). There is no inscriptional evidence to support this contention. Some coins of the Hindu Shahi ruler 'Samantadeva' have been recovered from northern Kafirkot which confirm the association of the place with Hindu Shahi dynasty.

There are divergent views of the scholars as to the style of architecture of these temples. Cunningham's view is that the Shahi temples show resemblance to Kashmirian style (Cunningham; 1978-79: 26-28). Waliullah describes these temples as affiliated to Kashmiri style (Khan, Waliullah; 1955: 12-

22). Percy Brown mentions them as 'Provincial off-shoots' of the Kashmiri architecture (Percy Brown; 1965: 161). Rehman's view is that the important details which the temples of the Hindu Shahi period share with those of Kashmir are (a) the general plan in which a massive gateway faces the shrine, (b) the trefoil arch or niches, and (c) other common features being the fluted pillars and quasi-classical bases and capitals. But these points of similarity, according to Rehman suggest that the influence flow only from the side of Kashmir and not vice-versa. (Rehman, Abdur; 1979: 283). Lohuizen de Leeuw with the exception of the temples of Malot which are decidedly of Kashmiri style, leaves out the rest of the temples in Salt range and those at Kafirkot as a separate group under the designation 'the mediaeval architecture of North-West India'. According to her, the most important difference between the Kashmiri style and the temples at Kafirkot is the roof which, instead of showing the pyramidal form of Kashmiri temples, displays the more or less conical shikara, common to

the mediaeval architecture of large parts of India. Another significant difference is the absence of the triangular pediment which is very common in Kashmir. (*Oriental Art*, N.S., Vol. No.1, 1959: 61-69).

Meister, who has studied the Hindu temples along the Indus has come out with a theory that the Kafirkot temples, are closer to the Nagara style of northern India; notwithstanding the Gandhara antecedents (Meister; 1996: 41-54). The basic structure of Kafirkot temples, as already pointed out above, has got its roots in Gandhara architectural traditions. But it has also been influenced by the external elements like the trefoil niches which show similarities with the shape and design of the mehrabs in the mosques, particularly of the pre-Mughal period (Hasan; 2001:184). The credit goes to their builders who, with the due process of assimilation and synthesis, created a new style of temple architecture, which has got its own identity and stature.

CHAPTER VII

HISTORICAL FORTS IN BALOCHISTAN

A. FORTS IN KHARAN

Though now spelt and pronounced as Kharan, the ancient name of the place was Karan or Qaran. Istakhri mentions the Qaran or Barfen mountains which are possibly identifiable with Raskoh. Price, in his *Mohammadan History*, relying upon *Rauzut-Suffa* describes the defeat of the Nikoudrians by Miran Shah, son of Tamerlane (Amir Timur) in the plains of Keren. Abul Fazal, in describing the mountains of Balochistan speaks of a range, one extremity of which adjoins Kech and the other adjoins the Kalmati district. The range of mountains was called Karah. (District Gazetteer Kharan; 1986: 3).

Kharan is now a District Headquarters in the province of Balochistan. It is a wide plain, irregularly quadrilateral in shape. Its ancient history is buried in obscurity. The scanty archaeological remains, which are to be found here indicate that the inhabitants were drawn from Seistan and the Helmand Valley. All the Kharan traditions centre round the Kianian, Tahrid and Saffarid Maliks. It can thus be asserted that Kharan acknowledged the paramount supremacy of Iran. Subsequently, the Ghaznavids and Seljuks also held sway over Kharan. In the fourteen century A.D.,

Kharan came into limelight when Miran Shah defeated the Nikoudrians. Not much is, however, known about the history of the area after the down-fall of the Timurid of Herat until the beginning of the 17th century A.D., when Ibrahim Khan was the Nausherwani Chief of Kharan. The Nausherwanies claim descent from the Kianian Maliks who taking full advantage of their desert-protected country claim credit for organizing raiding expeditions against their neighbours and professing a fitful allegiance to Iran, to Kalat and to Afghanistan in turns. The two most famous Nausherwani Chiefs were Purdil Khan against whom Nadir Khan had to send an expedition sometimes in 1734 A.D. and Azad Khan who died in 1885 A.D. It was Nasir Khan of Kalat who brought Kharan under his control. However, quarrels arose between Mir Khudad Khan of Kalat and Azad Khan in the middle of the 19th century A.D. The situation was, however, brought under control by the British government. Eventually political control over Kharan was transferred to the British crown.

Azad Khan had constructed a number of forts in Kharan area. These are located at Kharan,

Hurmagai, Kattik and Jalwar. There are also remains of Nausherwani forts at Gazzi and Tagazzi, Kalaghan, Pulkian and Kutan. (District Gazetteer, Kharan; 1986:42, 148, 149, 153 and 164). Description of some of the forts is given as under:-

1). Jalwar Fort

Jalwar Pass is located at a distance of some 50 miles south-west of Kharan. At the mouth of the pass, there is a small fort built in burnt bricks. Infact, it is a fortification wall covering a length of about 270 feet, both ends of which meet at the mountain foot, west of which, is a vast open space between the cliff and the rampart. In the west, the natural defence is provided by the high mountains. The wall is about 17 feet high. Along the fortification wall vaulted chambers, having a width of 11 feet, have been constructed. Entrance to the citadel is through an arched gate provided in its southern end. The fortification wall is bedecked with three round shaped bastions. The first one is in the centre, the second in the northern portion of the fortification and the third is over the entrance. Azad Khan used to take refuge with his family in this Fort and deposit the treasures here whenever in difficulty with other Chiefs, particularly the Khan of Kalat. (District Gazetteer; 1986: 9 & 164).

2). Nauroz Fort. (Plates-81-82)

The fort is situated about 20 miles to the north-east of Kharan. It was built by Azad Khan for his eldest son. It stands on a low hill in a delta of the Baddo river in the Baddo Pass. Though small in size, it is strongly built and serves as the summer residence of the Chief. The fort is built in burnt brocks with mud mortar. The fortification wall is about 30 feet high and 15 feet thick. There is only one

entrance facing the south. In east-west direction, the fort wall is 80 feet long while in the north-south it is 92 feet long. (Distt. Gazetteer; 1986:149).



Plate-81: Nauroz Fort: General View



Plate-82: Nauroz Fort: Bastion

3). Kharan Fort.

It is a strong fort, built with burnt bricks and is square in shape. It commands the country for miles around, but it is self-commanded from the hills to the west. The fortification wall is about 250 feet long in north-south direction, while its width is about 140 feet and height 35 feet. The thickness of the wall is 15 feet. The fortification wall has got four bastions; one each on its four corners. There is an arched shaped entrance in the eastern wall towards south-eastern direction. (Plates-83 & 84).



Plate-XXXVI: Kharan Fort: General View

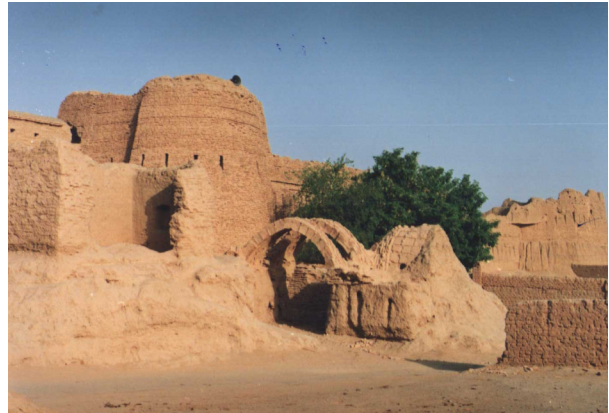


Plate-83: Kharan Fort: Bastions

In the rampart of the fort, vaulted chambers of different sizes have been constructed for various purposes both at ground floor and the first floor. There is a mosque inside the fort, which contains recessed panels having floral and geometrical motifs in relief. The outer face of the fortification wall contains machicolations for musketry.



Plate-84: Kharan Fort: Interior View

B. SIBI FORT (Plate-XXXVII)



Plate-XXXVII: Sibi Fort: General View

Sibi is the District Headquarters in the province of Balochistan. The town owes its name to a tribe which lived there in ancient times (Ballimoria;1944:33-34). Some scholars are of the opinion that Sibi is the perversion of 'Sewi'; the name of a river as well as a mountain pass. The importance of Sibi lies in the fact that in mediaeval times, it commanded access to the Bolan Pass (Riaz-ul-Islam; 1970: 60).

The antiquity of this Fort is uncertain. It is generally known as Mir Chakar Khan's fort, who had ruled this area between 1450 to 1540 A.D. However, from the historical accounts, it is apparent that the Fort was captured by Shah Beg Arghun in 1511 A.D. and his son, Shah Hasan Arghun got it repaired in 1526 A.D. (Siddiqi; M.H;1972:51). Besides, prior to Arghun's rule in Sindh, the Sibi Fort was under the control of Summa rulers. It is thus evident that the Fort is quite an old edifice. Emperor Humayun, on being defeated by Sher Shah Suri, encamped near this Fort (Abu Fazal; 1939: Vol:I;389), before he took refuge in Persia.



Plate-85: Sibi Fort: Bastions

The Fort is located at a short distance from the town. It is in a dilapidated condition; some parts of the fort having been fallen down long ago. Having been constructed on a high mound covering an area of 400 square yards, its fortification wall is still extant with an

average height ranging from 10 to 15 feet. The thickness of the wall is about 8 feet. On its four corners, there were turrets for surveillance and they contained machicolations (Plate-85). There is a large rectangular building in the Fort, which is topped by a balcony containing three arched entrances. The building was probably, used by the royalty for residential purposes. Close by are some barracks meant for the soldiers, which are now in ruinous conditions. The entrance to the Fort was through a gate in the west, which is no more there.



Plate-86: Sibi Fort: Some building remains

There are two mud brick dome shaped structures in the south-west of the Fort. Each is 25 feet in height with narrow steps leading to the top. They are hollow from inside. (Plate-XXXVIII). Their exact purpose of construction is not known. They might have been used for storage of food grains. The Fort is presently in occupation of the Pakistan Army, who has made certain additions and alterations in it.



Plate-XXXVIII: Sibi Fort: Mud Brick Dome shaped structure

CHAPTER VIII

HISTORICAL FORTS IN FORMER STATE OF BAHAWALPUR

The former State of Bahawalpur lies to the north-west of Punjab and north-east of Sindh and forms a connecting link between the two provinces. Its area is roughly 15,918 square miles, out of which a tract of about 9881 square miles is desert. The area covered by the desert is known as “Cholistan”. After Independence, the State was merged into the newly born country of Pakistan. The former State of Bahawalpur is an ancient land and its antiquity dates back to hoary past. As a result of archaeological explorations carried out along the dry bed of river Hakra in Cholistan, in addition to several sites falling within the time-scale of 4th millennium B.C., some 174 sites representing the mature phase of Indus Civilization were mapped. (Hasan; 1997:329).

The authentic history of the region can be traced back to 495 A.D., when it came under the suzerainty of Raja Diwaij of Rai dynasty. (District Gazetteer, Bahawalpur; 1904/1908: 398). Since then, a host of ruling dynasties held sway over this region until Abbasi Daudpotras rose in early 18th century A.D. to rule the territory forming part of the former State of Bahawalpur. More than nineteen forts exists in the region, which barring a few, were

built by the Muslim rulers. Detail of some of the Forts is given as under:-

1. Islamgarh (Plate-87)



Plate-87: Islamgarh Fort: General View

The Fort is located in the centre of Cholistan desert, some 100 kilometres from Rahim Yar Khan. According to an inscription in Bhabri character, the Fort was built by Rawal Bhim Singh in Samvat 1665/1608 A.D. Its original name was Bhimwar, but was changed to Islamgarh, when it was taken over in 1706 A.D. by Ikhtiar Khan; a feudatory lord of Garhi Ikhtiar Khan (District Gazetteer; Bahawalpur;1908:366).

The Fort is square on plan (315'x315') and is built with burnt bricks. The fortification walls, which are nearly 50 feet high, are

strengthened by nineteen bastions five in the north, eight on east (including corner bastions), three each on the west and the south including two turrets located in between the bastions on each side. The bastions contain beautiful cut brick decoration depicting various patterns in different design (Plate-88). The most dominating are the squares dotted with diamonds which encircle the bastions at their necks as well as in the middle. Some of the bastions contain musketry holes. There is an arched entrance on its east flanked by a bastion on each side. There is a small mosque and a series of dwelling houses in the Fort. In its hey day, the Fort must have been quite an impressive structure, but due to continued neglect and Indian shelling in the war of 1971, it is now in a dilapidated condition.



Plate-88: Islamgarh Fort: Bastion

2. Bijnor Fort. (Plate-89)

The Fort of Bijnor or Winjhrot was constructed by one Raja Winjha or Bija Bhatia. It was demolished by Shahab-uddin Ghauri in 574 A.H./1167 A.D. However, according to Tod, it was founded by Tunno, the father of Biji Rai and grand father of Deoraj; the founder of Derawar. "Tunno having the inter-position of the goddess 'Beejasanni' says Tod "discovered a hidden treasure, erected a fortress which he named

'Beejnote' (District Gazetteer; Bahawalpur, 1908:392).



Plate-89: Bijnor Fort: Bastion

There are two sets of fortifications. The outer one is square on plan and measures 300 feet on each side. Its height is 21 feet, while the width close to the top is 7 feet. The entrance has been provided in the west. There are bastions in the corners and in between the corner bastions, semi-circular turrets have been provided. The bastions contain musketry holes. The walls are built of lime stone blocks.

The fortified area in the interior is also square on plan and measures 160 feet on each side. There are semi circular bastions at the corners. The height of the walls is 10 feet while the width is 4 feet. The entrance is in the east. The

Fort is quite sturdy and is in a fairly state of preservation.

3. Liyra Fort. (Plate-90)

The Fort is located about 130 miles to the south west of Bahawalpur city. It was built in 1195 A.H/1780 A.D. by Sabzal Khan. (District Gazetteer; Bahawalpur; 1908: 372). The Fort was damaged to a great extent in 1804 A.D., due to high floods in river Indus.



Plate-90: Liyra Fort: Mud Brick walls & Bastions

It is a mud brick Fort having bastions at its corners. It measures 120 feet from north to south and 110 feet from east to west. The existing thickness of the eastern wall is 8 feet. Originally there was a gate in it. It is now covered with debris of burnt bricks. The height of the southern wall is 20 feet from outside. Internally, the height of the wall is 15 feet. It is due to the fact that the ground level inside the Fort is somewhat high. The corner bastions are twelve sided and rise up to a height of 42 feet. Some of the bastions contain wide loop-holes.

4. Jamgarh Fort. (Plate-91)

The Fort is located 30 miles east of Bahawalpur city. It was constructed by Jam Khan Marufani in 1208 A.H/1788 A.D.

(District Gazetteer; Bahawalpur, 1908:367). It is a beautiful Fort constructed with burnt bricks. The Fort is of square shape; each side measures 115 feet. The walls, which are 30 feet high, are strengthened by corner towers. There was originally a mud rampart, which has since disappeared. A 9 feet wide arched entrance has been provided in the eastern wall.



Plate-91: Jamgarh Fort: General View

5. Khairgarh Fort. (Plate-92)



Plate-92: Khairgarh Fort: General View showing main entrance on East and the South Eastern Bastion

The Fort, built by Haji Khan son of Ikhtiar Khan in 1189 A.H./1754 A.D., is 30 miles south-west of Bahawalpur city. (District Gazetteer; Bahawalpur, 1908: 367). It is constructed with mud and burnt bricks. The Fort is of square shape and its each side measures 170 feet. The height of the mud bricks fortification walls is 24 feet with a thickness of 8 feet. The bastions have a

diameter of 46 feet, containing a thick burnt brick facing. The bastions on the inner side have a circular vaulted chamber of 19 feet diameter, which provide access to the top. The main gate in the eastern wall is flanked by two engaged bastions, which are approached through a walled enclosure. The main gate, which is 6 feet wide, is flanked by two rectangular rooms with corbelled roofs and arched openings. An ancient brick-lined well is located close to the Fort, outside its north-western corner.

6. Machki Fort. (Plate-93)

Lal Khan, son of Ikhtiar Khan Kehrani built this burnt brick fort in 1777 A.D. Its length between the corners bastions is 125 feet. The fortification walls, having a thickness of 6 feet are 20 feet high. The corner bastions contain a diameter of 42 feet and rise upto a height of 40 feet. The entrance gateway has got engaged bastions; their diameter being 20 feet. The corner bastions are double storied and approachable through a winding staircase.



Plate-93: Machki Fort: General View

7. Mojgarh Fort. (Plate-XXXIX)

Initial construction of the Fort was started by Maruf Khan Kehrani and his sons in

1743 A.D., on the ruins of an ancient town known as Lodhra. The construction of the Fort was still half way when Maruf Khan died. He was buried in the tomb, which is located at a distance of about 400 feet to the south of the Fort. The tomb, embellished with glazed tiles is crowned by a hemispherical dome. The Fort was completed by Umar Khan; one of the descendants of Maruf Khan. At the interior gateway, several iron plates are fixed. On one of the iron plates, there is an inscription. Its English translation reads “Wadera Jan Muhammad Khan and Muhammad Maruf Khan are masters. This door was made by Sri Ram iron-smith in the month of Shawwal 1212 A.H./1769 A.D. Elphinstone and Masson, who had visited Mojgarh, have described the Fort as a lofty structure. They have also mentioned about the mosque near the gateway and a tomb with a cupola ornamented with painted tiles. (District Gazetteer; Bahawalpur, 1908:373).

The Fort is square on plan and measures 325 feet almost on all its four sides. The fortification walls have been strengthened with semi circular bastions. There are also bastions on its four corners. There was an arched gateway in the eastern wall, which collapsed long age.



Plate-XXXIX: Mojgarh Fort: General View from South

8. Mirgarh Fort. (Plate-94)

Nur Muhammad Khan son of Jan Khan started construction of this Fort in 1799 A.D. and completed it in 1802. A.D. On the door of a ruined house, there is a Persian inscription dated 1874. A.D. It shows that the founder of the Fort was the disciple of Gilani Makhdum of Uchh (District Gazetteer; Bahawalpur, 1908:375).



Plate-94: Mirgarh Fort: General View

It is a burnt brick built Fort having a square shape. Its each side measures 90 feet and is strengthened by bastions at intervals. The number of bastions is seven including those at the four corners. The bastions, which have a diameter of 38 feet, rise upto a height of 40 feet. The eastern wall contains a 10 feet wide entrance, with a 48 feet long passage flanked by vaulted rooms on either side. There used to be well inside the fort, which has now dried up.

9. Marot Fort. (Plate-95)

The Fort is located in the centre of the Cholistan desert. In ancient times, Marot was situated on the bank of now dried up Hakra river. One can reach there from Yazman or Fort Abbas. In its hey days, Marot was a flourishing commercial town on the highway leading to Delhi from Multan via Hansi and Saraswati. Presently the place is almost

deserted. According to *Tabqat-e-Nasri*, Nasiruddin Qabacha stayed here for sometime and later fled to Bakhar Fort in Sindh, in order to save himself from the invading army of Altutmish. The author of *Tabqat-e-Nasri* himself passed through Marot on his way back to Delhi in 1250 A.D. In *Ain-e-Akbari*, Marot has been mentioned as the 17th Mahal within the Doab situated outside *Panjnad* in the province of Multan. There is a small mosque in the Fort, which was constructed in 976 A.H/1569 A.D. by Muhammad Tahir, during the reign of Mughal Emperor Akbar. The fact is recorded on an inscription in Persian once fixed on the entrance gate of the mosque. The same is at present housed in Bahawalpur Museum. After the creation of Pakistan, the Fort, for the first time, was seen by Muhammad Idris Siddiqi along with Dr. Henry Field, leader of the Peabody Museum Expedition (Pakistan Archaeology No. 1; 1964: 34). Full text of the inscription and its reading has been published in one of the issues of the Journal of Central Asia. (Dar; 1981: 147-163).



Plate-95: Marot Fort: General View

According to District Gazetteer, Bahawalpur, the Fort is built of mud and is of considerable antiquity. On the bricks at its entrance, there is an inscription in Hindi, which shows that the Fort was in possession of Jam Sumr who had

repaired it in 1491 A.D. It was taken over by Nawab Mubarak Khan, ruler of Bahawalpur State, from Raja of Jaisalmer in 1749 A.D. Masson visited this fort during his journeys in Afghanistan and Punjab. His observations are "The Fort is surrounded by mud walls of considerable extent and strengthened by numerous towers" (1908:372-373). Recently an inscription in Hindi has been discovered from the Fort. According to Dani, who has deciphered it, the inscription commemorates the death of the daughter of Maharaja Sri Trilokasiha. She died in 1732 (Saka)/1790 A.D. (Dani; 2001: 176-177).



Plate-XL: Marot Fort: A carved pillar of yellow sandstone from Jain's temple.

The Fort is now in a dilapidated condition. On the basis of its existing remains, the plan of the Fort appears to be of a rectangular shape. It measures 825 feet on western side and 460

feet on the southern side. The height of the surviving walls is nearly 90 feet. Two bastions are still extant. Inside the Fort, there were a number of religious shrines including a Jain temple. Some yellow sandstone pillars containing profuse carvings, (Plate-XL) rescued from the Jain temple, are now on display in Bahawalpur Museum.

10. Derawar Fort (Plate-96)

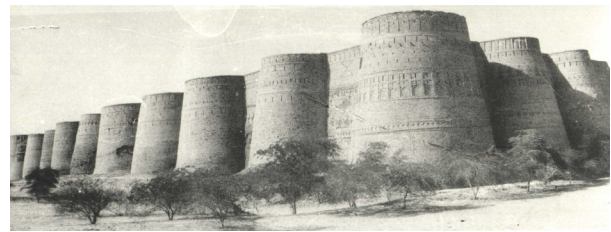


Plate-96: Derawar Fort: The fortification wall: view from southwestern corner

The fort is located at a distance of about 60 miles from Bahawalpur. It is a most impressive and well preserved fort. The existing fort was presumably constructed on an pre-Islamic fort, which according to a legend was built by Dev Rawal. It was originally named as Dev Rawal, after the name of its builder, but subsequently its name changed to Derawar. Its early history is obscure. The fort was, however, taken over by the first Nawab of Bahawalpur, Sadiq Mohammad Khan I in 1733 A.D. Thereafter, the fort frequently changed hands, from time to time. It was again taken over by Mohammad Bahawal Khan II, the fourth Nawab. The fort has remained continuously under the control of Nawabs of Bahawalpur since the last quarter of the 18th century A.D. (District Gazetteer; Bahawalpur; 1908:360-361).

The fort is square on plan measuring about 670 feet on each side, with a gate on its southern side. Most of the bastions,

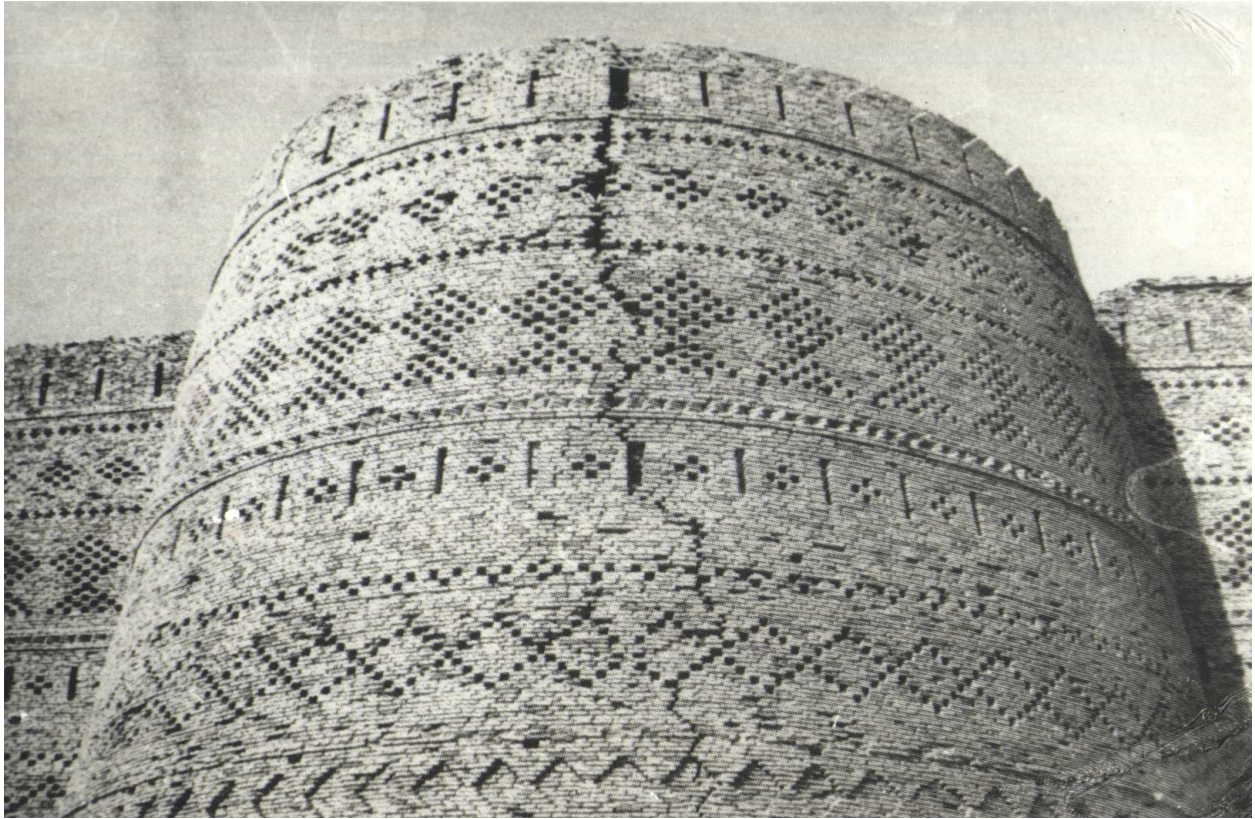


Plate-97: Derawar Fort: Detail of brick work of a Bastion

numbering 40, are well preserved and are bedecked with geometric patterns with cut bricks. (Plate-97). The walls are over ninety feet high. A number of buildings, meant for the Nawab's family, are located inside the fort, but their state of preservation is not good. There is a marble mosque outside the fort. Not far away from the mosque is the royal graveyard.

CHAPTER IX

HISTORICAL FORTS IN NORTHERN AREAS OF PAKISTAN

A. BALTIT FORT, HUNZA VALLEY (Plate-XLI)

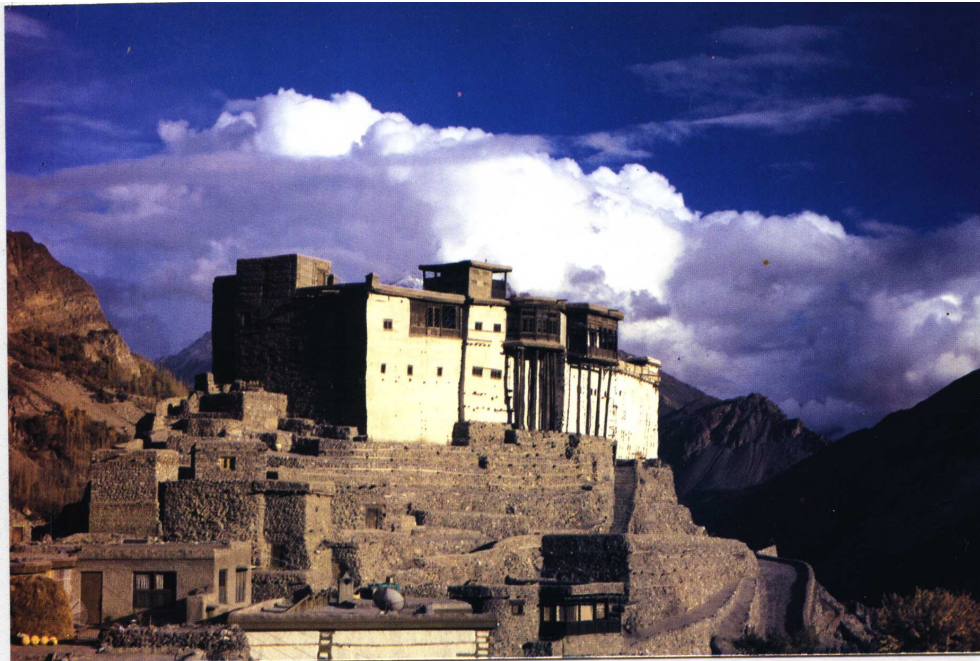


Plate-XLI: Baltit Fort: General View

Baltit Fort lies within the territorial limits of Hunza Valley in the Northern Areas of Pakistan. Hunza is situated at the confluence of the world famed three mountainous ranges- Karakurum, Himilayas and Hindu Kush. The Central Hunza is a combined group of six villages. While coming from Gilgit following

the Karakurum Highway, one can come across Aliabad, just above which on the hill, are perched the villages of Altit and Baltit.

Baltit Fort, poised majestically above the village and itself dominated by the Ultar glacier; one of the highest peaks of the world,

represents truly important phase of the architectural heritage of Pakistan. The origin of the Fort is still shrouded in obscurity. According to a local legend, the Fort was built some 700 years ago. The recent carbon-dating has confirmed its antiquity going back to 765 years. The Fort became a part of royal dowry when a princess of Baltistan Shah Khatoon (Sh A Qhtun) married in the early 15th century the reigning prince of Hunza, known as Ayasho II. The princess brought with her about 300 workmen such as carpenters, masons and other skilled labourers. They first repaired and renovated the Altit Fort and thereafter, did the similar work at Baltit Fort. (Qudrutullah; Vol.I, 1962:68).

the region are notorious from their age old tribal rivalries and conflicts. It seems quite certain that the Fort was originally, constructed to protect the villagers and their livestock in times of siege. The plan of the Fort shows that it evolved from a nucleus of one and, subsequently, several towers came up. These towers were linked by one storey of high walls and were divided into many small rooms with under-ground storage vaults. A second storey and a part of the third were added at different periods of its history. (Plate-98).



Plate-98: Baltit Fort: Tower

In ancient times, Baltistan was a part of Tibetan Empire and at that time Baltistan was known as 'Little Tibet'. The reflection of Tibetan architectural traditions can be observed in the Baltit Fort if it is compared with the well-known Potala Palace of Tibet at Lahasa. The numerous small principalities in

The close examination of the Fort has revealed that its main structural elements consist of pegged timber frame. Along the wall face, inside and outside, are longitudinal squared timber tie beams. Where the timber does not span the required length, it is scarf jointed, designed to resist the tensile strains. The Fort, in fact, was originally a private residence. It grew as an addition of narrow houses, with confined interior passages and low doorways. Each house had a main room, the seven metres square hall, in which the family could assemble and eat together. One side was for men and the opposite for women. The back portion was reserved for cooking and there was a special area in front of the fire for

guests. There was also an area set aside for animals and storage of food grains. Generally, the fireplace, meant for cooking and heating was in the centre of the room directly below an outlet for smoke exhaust and for provision of a little natural lighting. This hole in the roof structure was a device made of a complex wooden frame arranged to give the room a central dome inside and a drainage slope above. For both climatic protection and anti-seismic reasons, the number of openings and their size was limited. At the most, a typical house would have one entrance and skylight and an occasional small window. The Fort was just a complex arrangement of many such structures. Only its size of 1000 square metres and its decorative elements made it different from other buildings. The main west elevation is two and three storeys high while the east side elevation is generally single storey. The south-west corner tower is, however, four-storey high. There are 35 internal rooms connected by a warren of low corridors on varying levels reflecting the various phases of the Fort's construction. Other buildings include Throne Hall, *Diwan-e-Amm* and Mosque. All these structures contain beautiful wood carvings (Plates-99-100).

Life inside the Fort was organized according to a well ordered room arrangement and new rooms were added for new functions. On the ground floor, the oldest rooms such as the queen's apartments, the storage rooms, prison and kitchen indicate the traditional way of life. The additional rooms on the first and second floors, of a larger size with better lighting and more facilities provided more comfortable living for the royal family. These rooms were mostly used in summer. In winter, the occupants retired downstairs to the darker, but warmer rooms. In the 19th century, the west façade was modified by the addition of an outer layer to improve the external military

appearance of the Fort and provide, within the wall structure, special guard rooms for security around the only access door. At the start of the 20th century, the Fort was modernized and its defensive role modified with the addition of a wooden verandah, reception areas and guest rooms, all constructed to take advantage of the spectacular scenery.

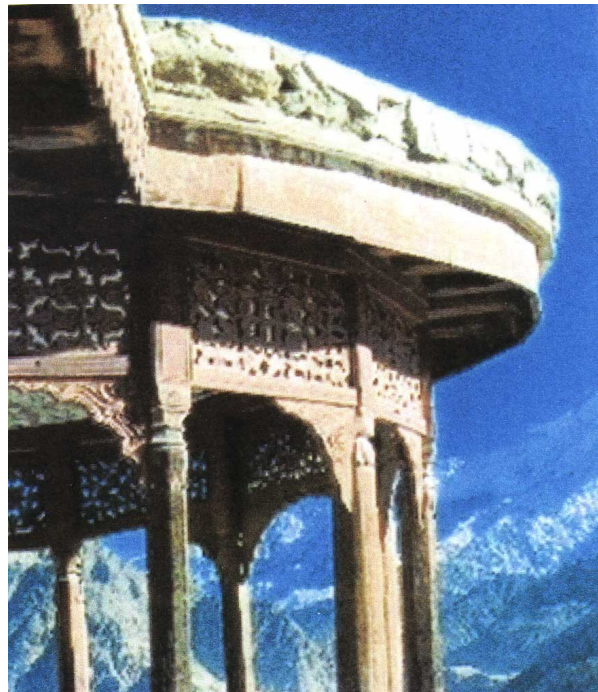


Plate-99: Baltit Fort: Throne Hall

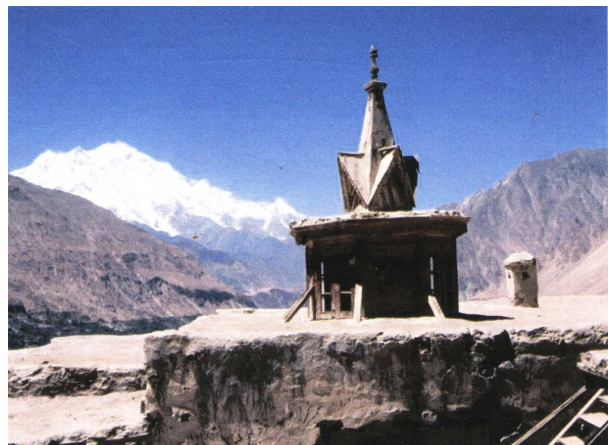


Plate-100: Baltit Fort: Mosque Tower

The ruler of Hunza at the time of British conquest in 1891 was Mir Safdar Khan, but he had fled to Kashgar. The British installed M. Nazeem Khan, as Mir of Hunza in his place in 1892.

The Baltit Fort continued to serve as a residential palace until 1945, when the last ruler Mir Muhammad Jamal Khan moved into a new palace after his coronation. He died in 1975. Due to lack of care and regular maintenance, the Fort started showing signs of decay. In 1985, the present Mir of Hunza Ghazanfar Ali Khan appealed to H.H. Prince

Karim Agha Khan to consider ways to save Baltit Fort' from total collapse. The Agha Khan readily responded to Mir's request and the Historic Cities Support Programme of the Agha Khan formed a Consultation Team to look after the restoration project. In the meantime, the Mir of Hunza donated the Fort to a public foundation named Baltit Heritage Trust. In order to revive the Baltit Fort's pristine glory, the restoration work was started in 1991. It was completed in 1996 at a cost of \$2,00,000. A Museum and a Cultural Centre has been established in the Fort.

B. Altit Fort



Plate-101: Altit Fort: General View

As already stated above, a Baltistani Princess Shah Khatoon, who had married a reigning prince of Hunza known as Ayashoo II, had brought with her a team of craftsmen. They were commissioned, besides Baltit Fort, to construct Altit Fort. The date of construction, as recorded on the wooden lintel of a doorframe at the main square tower is 919 A.H/1513 A.D or 989 A.H/1581 A.D. It is written in Arabic Script. (Dani;1989:156-162).

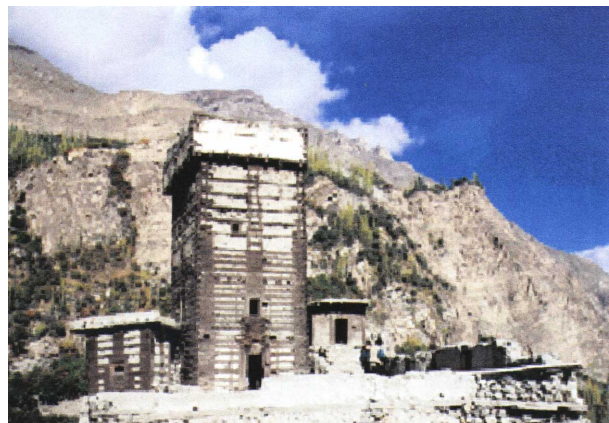
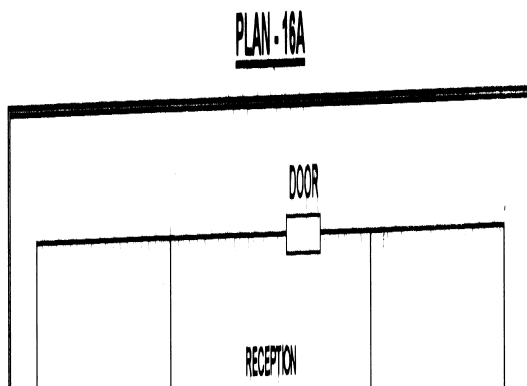


Plate-102: Altit Fort: Tower

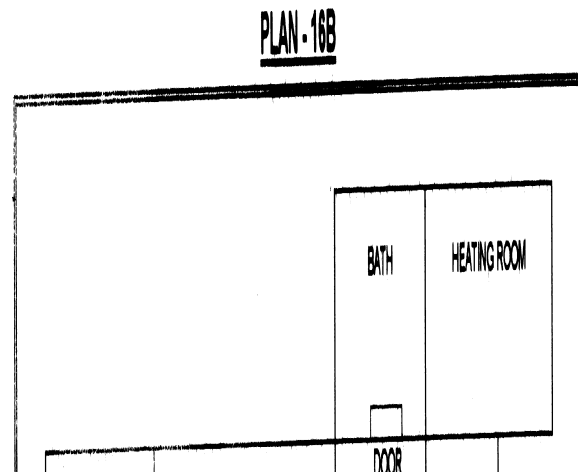
The Fort is perched on the edge of bedrock over-looking the Hunza River on the south. Rough stone pebbles and rubbles are used in

the construction of the Fort and the associated buildings. The stones are usually placed in layers with mud mortar in between the wooden beams and logs of wood. These are intended to hold the stones together and as such are placed horizontally flush with walls and wooden pieces at right angles to the beams inserted into the walls. The exterior face of the walls is left as it is, but the inner parts of the walls are plastered. The Fort contains ground, first, second and third floors.



On the ground floor, there is a guardroom and a cellar meant for the preparation and storage of Hunza water; a kind of intoxicating drink. The second floor contains mostly the living rooms. The third floor is open to sky with a square hollow watch tower in the middle

(Plate-102), a small store room to its south, a hall for guards on the west and a small mosque to the north. The mosque is named as Bibi Ghoras or Gohar. (Dani, 199:2001). The upper part of the tower has a broad gallery for watchmen. The tower has a door entrance on the south and two windows on the top.



The mosque consists of a square prayer hall, with a verandah on the east having two arched openings. The mehrab is in the shape of an elongated trefoil arch. Over the roof is the faceted room having a towering pyramidal spire culminating in a finial.

C. KHARPOCHA FORT, SKARDU, BALTISTAN



Plate-XLII: Kharpocha Fort: Main Entrance

The Fort is located at a height of about 1880 feet above the bed of river Indus. The natural formation of the hillock is such that it is almost impossible to scale it. To build such a Fort at such a great height and in such a remote place speaks greatly of the skill of the Balti craftsmen. Huge boulders and sizeable wooden logs measuring between 20 to 30 feet were used in its construction. To carry them to such a great height was indeed a herculean task. The Fort is rectangular on plan and covers roughly an area of two square kilometres. The height of the walls ranges from 15 to 25 feet. (Plate-103).

They are constructed in rubble, stone set in mud mortar and strengthened by layers of

squared timbers. There are covered casements behind the walls with a parapet on top. These casements have loopholes through the front walls. The loopholes are high vertical slits large inside and narrow outside. The main entrance is towards the south facing eastward and consists of a strong pair of wooden doors. The highest point of the Fort is the water tower which was built by Mohammad Morad, also known as Shah Morad (Khan, Hashmatullah; 1969: 510). There is a mosque near the main entrance of the Fort on its southern side. (Plates-104 & 105).



Plate-103: Kharpocha Fort: Main Entrance Gate Side Wall



Plate-104: Kharpocha Fort: General View/Mosque

There is another Fort known as Mandok, which is just below Kharpocha Fort. Relying upon Hashmatullah Khan, Dani has stated that the Fort was built by Ali Sher Khan Anchan's Ladakhi queen Mandok Gyalmo. This Fort is entirely different in architectural style from that of Kharpocha and presents some elements derived from the Mughal architecture. At the same time, the Queen was famous for constructing Mughal style gardens and bringing water channels from Satpara lake right upto her Fort. The channel, built of cyclopean stones, is still in existence (Dani; 2001: 221).



Plate-105: Kharpocha Fort: Wodden Work on Mosque Gate

Dr. Husain Khan's version, based on Balti legend, is that Ali Sher Khan Anchan who had taken refuge in the Mughal Court, during the reign of Akbar, had subsequently married a Mughal princess named Gul Khatun. She was called as Mindog Rigialmo meaning 'flower' and 'queen' respectively in local language. She brought with her Engineers, Carpenters, Sculptors, Blacksmiths and other artisans from India and was instrumental in introducing Mughal culture and art in Baltistan. (Khan, Husain;1984:179-180).

GLOSSARY

Andarkot	Inner sanctuary
Arrow Slits	Loopholes
Barbican	An outwork intended to defend the entrance to a Fort.
Bastion	A projection at the angle of a fortification from which the garrison can see and defend the ground before the rampart.
Battlement	A parapet with alternating indentations or embrasures and raised portion or merlons; also called crenellations.
Corbel	Blocks of stone projecting from a wall or pier; brackets.
Crenellations	The gap in a parapet; an embrasure.
Curtain Walls	The main wall of a defensive work, usually the length of a rampart between the two bastions.
Draw Bridge	Bridge hinged at one end for drawing up to prevent passage or to open channel.
Embrasure	A small opening in the wall or parapet of a fortified building through which a gun could be fired without exposing the gun crew.
Jharoka	Window, Opening.
Loophole	A long and narrow opening in a wall to provide for vision and small arms fire; loop window or arrow slit or a loophole for cross bows.
Moat	A wide and deep trench surrounding the walls of a Fort usually filled with water.
Machicolation	A gallery or parapet projecting on brackets and built on the outside of towers and walls with openings in the floor through which to drop molten lead, boiling oil and missiles.
Merlon	The solid part of a parapet between two embrasures or crenels.

Parapet	A breast work on top of a rampart intended to provide shelter for troops behind it; Upper portion of a wall above the roof.
Postern	A sally post; a vaulted stone tunnel under the rampart leading to an inconspicuous rear gate used for sorties in war; a small door near a larger one.
Porticulus	A large iron or wooden grating used to block a passage when released vertically in retaining grooves cut in the jabs of a fortified gateway.
Rampart	A stone or earth wall surrounding a Fort or a fortified city for defence purpose.
Sally Port	A concealed gate or underground passage leading from inside the Fort into the ditch; postern.
Salient of Bastion	Corner of a bastion; the projecting front angle of a bastion.
Turret	A small and slender tower sometimes projecting from the main rampart

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