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ARCHAEOLOGY OF HISTORICAL CULTURES IN LOWER SAHIBI BASIN

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ABSTRACT

Lower Sahibi (Sabi) watershed is a section of the Ghaggar-Yamuna divide and is known as one of the most productive regions in the country. In their waning years of existence, the Harappans made their home in this region, making it one of the most significant regions in the world. In order to rebuild the archaeological settlement pattern that was once present in the area, the goal of this study is to gather and examine the archeological material that is currently available. This will be done in order to reconstruct the ancient settlement pattern. Despite this, the primary focus is focused on the layout of towns that are discovered in archaeological digs, as well as the chronological investigation of ceramics and other finds. Other discoveries are also taken into consideration.

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

INTRODUCTION

The Sahibi River basin can be found between the latitudes of 27 degrees 25 minutes north and 28 degrees 45 minutes north, and 75 degrees 50 minutes east. It is a drainage basin located within the building. A portion of Delhi and the district of Jhajjar in Haryana make up the entirety of the lower Sahibi basin, which is included as part of the Yamuna river basin. In terms of geomorphology, this region is a component of the alluvial deposits left by the Yamuna and Sahibi rivers. The tectonic upliftment that occurred during the Pleistocene period, which was a significant epoch in the geological history of India (Singh 1988), is responsible for the formation of the alluvial plain. Clay, sand, and kankar were all present in the layers, but in varying amounts. These sediments ranged in age from the Pleistocene to more recent Aeolian deposits. The alluvial plains are believed to be "the last chapter in the geological history of the earth" despite the fact that they are a relatively new phenomena on the geological time scale. They were formed by the silting activity of the earth's meandering streams. Hard rocks, such as the lower and upper Tertiary and the Archaean/Delhi system of rocks, occupy the area adjacent to the alluvial plain (Chopra, 1990). This area is known as the hard rock zone. In the middle of the Aravalli synclinorium, the Delhi system may be traced all the way to eastern Rajasthan, specifically from Delhi all the way to Idar in bands that are quite narrow and severely degraded. Slates and quartzites make up the minor hills and ridges that can be found within the boundaries of this location. Near

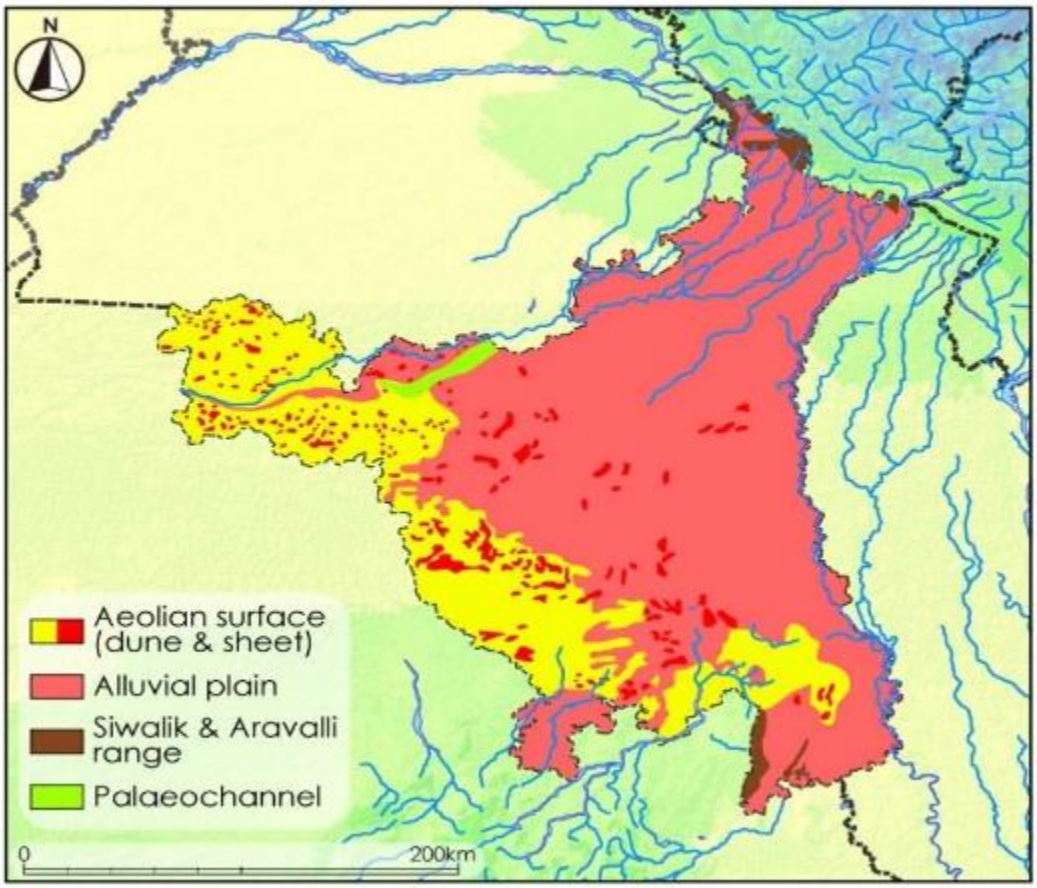
Rewari is where the clayey slate, which is often a fissile clay slate, is quarried. Both brine wells and sulpher springs can be found in Sultanpur Mahal. Sohna is home to the latter. The Aravalli system, which can be found to the extreme south of this alluvial plain, is home to a few depressions that can be described as having a roughly NNESSW direction. These depressions feature improved water facilities and have made it possible to travel between Delhi-Haryana and Rajasthan via other routes. The plain in the southern part of the state of Haryana is characterized topographically by the existence of Aravali offshoots, progressive depressions to the north, and an undulating terrain. The principal depressions that lie in between the higher ranges are as follows: (1) the depression of Firozpur JhirkaNuh; (2) the depression of Sohna; (3) the depression of Sahibi; and (4) the depression of Narnaul of Krishnawati-Dohan. Not only did these depressions create holes in the river system, but they also opened up early pathways leading to central and western India.

JHILS

Mr. Maconachie's Settlement Report has a record that is increasingly explicit regarding the Najafgarh Jhil from the standpoint of its income and water system. It is sufficient to state here that the area of the Najafgarh lake is estimated to be 3,072 square miles, and its water surface with a depth of 12 feet in the water measure at Nankheri is 56,567 sections of land, which is equivalent to around 88 square miles. Although its area was estimated to be 52 square miles in 1833, the season is not currently seen to be present. It's out let channel with a sloppy drowsiness streams toward the north-east by Kakraula, Nilauthi, and Basaiaccross the Rohtak roadway around five kilometers west of Delhi, and it exhausts itself into the Yamuna merely over the town of Wazirabad.

SOILS

The majority of the soils in this area have a medium texture and are overlain by sandy, loamy, and sandy topsoil respectively. The soil that can be found right now is generally suitable for crops that can withstand flooding and salt without being damaged, such as wheat, grain, gram, maize, rice, millets, and sugarcane.



In the fields, the rich salt content of the alluvium that frames the plain is also attributable to the silt that was carried inland by waterways in the arm of the ocean that is located in front of the northern mountains. The neighborhood is starting to take shape on a larger scale on the land. Sand, residue, rock, and kankar are the components that make up the dregs. The surface is variable in texture, ranging from sandy to clayey, with a layer of calcium carbonate present at deeper depths. Sand and sandy topsoil deposits can be found in the north-eastern part of the Sahibi stream basin zone, which covers Bahadurgarh, the south-western region of the country, and Jhajjar. In the southern and eastern portions of the zone, the soil has large beds of mud that are dark yellowish in color and have dark colored shadows in them. The natural carbon, nitrogen, and phosphorus substances in the dirts of this region range from low to medium in concentration. On the surface, the dirts that make up the areas of Matanhail and Salhawas are sandy to sandy-like soil. It has a low level of natural carbon, a low amount of nitrogen, a medium level of phosphorus, and a high level of potassium. Additionally, the shading is mild. Both of the aforementioned types of soil surfaces are applicable to the region in the Beri. Saltiness and alkalinity each contribute to influencing somewhere between 5 and 10 percent of the all-out zone. According to Duggal S.L. 1970, the areas with the greatest amount of effect can be found to the north of Bahadurgarh, between Jhajjar and Beri.

IRRIGATION

The process of providing water to the ground by means of artificially created sources is referred to as the water system. Channels, tube wells, lakes, and precipitation are the primary wellsprings from which the water system draws its supply. The lack of rainfall and restricted capacity to concentrate during the season with the most intense is approximately 400 mm each year. As time goes on, trenches do not cover the places that are

higher than the plain zones; as a result, the shortage of drinking water is discovered in metropolitan areas due to the enormous growth in population. In point of fact, not even the areas that are protected by the trenches are prepared to provide sufficient water to the land. Farmers only get a few harvests out of this land each year. The rancher mismanages the ground water because he is under pressure from the growing population and the demand for a more structured way of life. The depth of the ground water table can range anywhere from 1.3 meters to 20.3 meters below ground level. In ninety-five percent of the regions, the level of the ground water table is lower than ten meters. According to Khan S.A. 2007, the pH values of ground water range from 7.56 to 8.9, which indicates that the water's status is neutral to basic.

Source of Irrigation From Ground Water	**Statistics**
Tubewells / Borewells	940 sq km
Tanks/Ponds	12.45 sq km
Canals	690 sq km
Other sources	-
Net irrigated area	1642.45 sq km
Gross irrigated area	1930 sq km

CROPS

Kharif, which begins in June or July and ends in October or November, and Rabi, which begins in November or December and ends in March or April, are the two primary editing designs. Pearl millet, sorghum for grub, cotton, maize, pulses, and sugarcane are the primary crops grown during the Kharif season, and they are together referred to as Smnu. Wheat, barley, gram, rice, maize, and oil seeds (mustard, toriya, and alsi) are the primary crops harvested during the Rabi season. While the more inconsequential harvests such as vegetables are brought in at either season. After the division of Haryana and Punjab in 1966, many changes have been observed in the cutting style. One of these changes is the transition from an extremely subsistence, expanded, and to a great extent downpour-supported cutting design to a profoundly marketing, specialized, and to a great extent moistened editing design. This is not the result of unusual changes in development strategies, such as an increase in the degree of water system, the adoption of HYVs, the utilization of agro-synthetics, motorization, the advancement of town interact streets, provincial charge, liberal credit offices to ranchers, horticultural research and expansion training, the lowest help cost for selected crops, simple and guaranteed advertising, liberal government approaches, and so on. Each and every one of these components has a cumulative effect on the overall design of the trimming. The tables that may be found below illustrate the many modifications made to the editing layout between 1965–1966 and 2005–2006. This quantitative data was gleaned from the website and includes the following:

CLIMATE AND TEMPERATURE

Even though the warmest months of the year don't begin until the end of April, the evenings often continue to be pleasant all the way up until June. The heat is intense during the months of June and July, right up until the

rain starts to fall. At the same time, the center and western parts of Punjab are not experiencing an abnormally high level of heat in comparison to what it is worth. Throughout the entire day, there is a steady flow of warm breezes coming from the west. The steady residue storms (ándhi) that originate in the Rajputana desert are typically of such a high density that they produce practically total darkness. In general, the heaviest rain falls between the 25th of June and the 15th of July, but the temperature is only unusually cool for a couple of days after each storm. After the final rainfall, which takes place between the twentieth of September and the fifteenth of October, the days continue to be swelteringly hot until the middle of November, but the evenings have since become delightfully cool. The most common time for ice to form is near the end of the year, however it can also appear in February on occasion. During the months of February and March, it is not unusual for strong breezes to blow, which causes extreme discomfort for travelers staying in tents. In the latter part of March and throughout April, it is not unusual for thunderstorms to occur. Around 19.5 inches of precipitation is considered to be the district's usual amount. The environment, despite the seriousness of the heat, is stable, and it is possible that it may be pertinently represented in the peculiar language of the memories of George Thomas, as "all in all salubrious, however or the sandy and desert field lying westward gets warmed."

Fauna

At this time, the natural life and woodlands have been changed as a result of widespread development and rapid urbanization. There is a high degree of similarity between the native animals found in this district and those found in other locations in the southern part of the Punjab. Cows, bulls, wild oxen, hounds, pigs, jackasses, and Kachhars are among these animals. There are fewer camels, fewer ponies, and the steed that has been breaded less frequently than other horses. Foxes, jackals, and wild felines are some of the wild brutes that have a significant quantity of wildness at their disposal. Snakes are common, and the most dangerous kinds, including the cobra, the karkit, and the chitkabra, include these three. The size of the cobra is unfathomable, and scorpions are quite rare. The largest specimens of dark buck (chikara) and nilgai (referred to as ronjh by the locals) may be found in the Chhuchhakwas and Matanhel preserve areas. Monkeys are an astounding pest that may be found on the sides of the trenches and in the homes that have been destroyed in the towns. They will, at every available moment, rob the sugarcane field, and they will frequently target the women and children who are transporting food to the fields.

People and Language

The entire region that is being looked at right now has a number of different cities and towns. People from all around the country have settled in new communities in places like Bhadurgarh and Najafgarh. The Jats, Ahirs, Rajputs, and Brahamins were the first pilgrims to arrive in this region. These gatherings are almost entirely dependent on the agricultural industry. The roles held by members of the minority groups include those of Muslim, Bania, Kumhar, Jogi, Nai, Lohar, Khati, Sunar, and Khatik, amongst others. (Rohtak District Gazetteer 1883-84). The Haryanvi language is used in every single location throughout the region, although Mevati and Bagri are only used in a few isolated pockets where communication in their respective vernaculars is common. The information written in Devanagri script for Hindi is used by a significant number of people since it is more convenient for writing.

OBJECTIVE

Archaeology of Historical Cultures in the Lower Sahibi Basin is the Subject of This Study

The recreation of the region's historical habitation pattern based on archaeological evidence.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

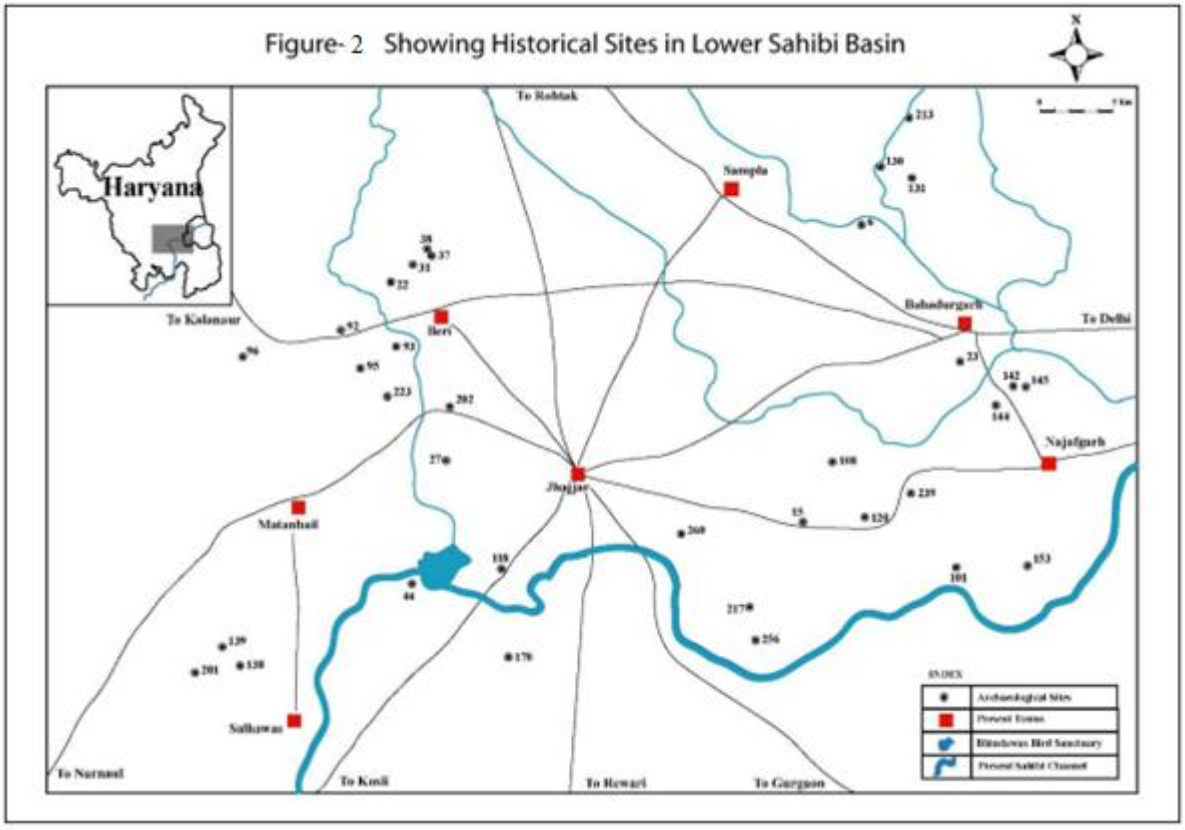
Archaeological digs yield a wealth of knowledge about the past and culture of a certain region, which can be very useful. Village to village suvery is one of the many strategies that have been devised for use in exploration. There are also other methods. It is vital to read all of the relevant literature and examine all of the available facts pertaining to an area before beginning investigation in that area. This information is highly useful for organizing future studies and provides some background on the ancient cultures that used to inhabit the region thousands of years ago. The data from ancient locations can be collected by one through the process of archaeological exploration. A picture of the social, economic, religious, political, and cultural life of bygone times can be pieced together through the examination of data collected in the form of material culture and the various interpretations of that evidence. Before beginning exploratory work in the location, the current researcher has read over the previous study and sources that have been published about it.

DATA ANALYSIS

The sixth century B.C. is regarded as the watershed year that marks the beginning of the historical period in India. At this time, tribal cohesiveness had significantly decreased, and the Janapadas, which had previously functioned only as cultural and geographical entities, had begun to play a more active role in both the political sphere and the geographical landscape. Some of these Janapadas have progressed all the way to the level of being Mahajanapadas. The establishment of coins, a standardized writing system, a considerable increase in the size of the settlements, a specialized class of skilled workers, a centralized management of the surplus production, monumental architecture, a ruling class, long distance trade, and sophisticated art styles are some of the characteristics of this period. Around the 6th century BCE, all of these circumstances contributed to the beginning of the second wave of urbanization in northern India.

The transformation of rural communities into urbanized society had place in some areas in a relatively short period of time, and because of this, Childe (1950) appropriately used the term "urban revolution." However, given that revolution connotes a highly sudden and disruptive change, it is possible that this phrase should not be used in reference to the current political climate in India. According to Dhavalikar (1999), the transformation started in the Ganga valley and then progressively expanded to the places that were next to it over the course of a few of centuries or more. D.K. Chakrabarti (1974) believes that the Early Historical period can be split into three phases based on the development of urban life in different sections of northern India as well as in south India. The criteria for this division are the distinct stages at which urban life emerged in these two regions of India. The initial stage of urbanization occurred between the sixth and fifth centuries BCE and stretched from Rajgriha to Ujjayini via Kausambi, taking in both the upper and middle Gangetic valley. The second phase is distinguished by the rapid expansion of urbanization that took place in the third and second centuries BCE across a large region that encompasses the Punjab Plains (Punjab and Haryana), Sind, the Lower Gangetic valley, Rajasthan, Gujarat, Maharashtra, and Orissa (Odisha). Aside from that, the expansion of the first phase's communities continued unabatedly in the second phase. During the third phase of urbanization, which occurred in the early centuries of the Christian era, the four southern states of Karnataka, Tamilnadu, Kerala, and Andhra Pradesh (now Seemandhara and Telangana) all received the status of

urbanization. In this regard, S.P. Gupta's earlier work (1974) is not all that unlike to his later work. He places the beginning of Early Historical urbanization in the 6th century BC and divides the process of its growth into two phases, namely Formative (600-400 BC) and Mature (400 BC -100 AD). He also states that the beginning of Early Historical urbanization occurred in the 6th century BC. According to Sinha (1979-80), the beginning of urban settlement did not occur in the sixth century BC. He concedes that the groundwork for the creation of future towns may have been laid sometime between the sixth and fifth centuries BC. On the other hand, the urban status wasn't achieved until the fourth to third century BC, which is roughly equivalent to the middle to late NBPW levels and the Mauryan era.



Because the history of this region cannot be separated from the history of Haryana, it specifically falls under the borders of Kurudesha in the sixth century BC. This is because the history of this region cannot be separated from the history of Haryana. The rural cultures persisted in the region until the Kushana period, and it was during this time that the region had its second wave of urbanization, which lasted from the first to the second century AD. This is clear from the fact that it was the first time that people even in small/rural areas have been employing the burnt bricks of size 33 x 23 x 7 cm with three figures. This size brick measures 33 cm long, 23 cm wide, and 7 cm high. The Lower Sahibi basin is a location that has a wealth of historical information, both archaeological and literary, dating back to the time period. The region has also demonstrated beyond a reasonable doubt the existence of a few fragments of NBPW pottery from the Asauda site.

DISCUSSION

The Beginnings, the Advancement, and the Fall of Cultures

The phenomenon of the inception, growth, and demise of cultures in India and the subcontinent have been brought to light by the archaeological investigations that have taken place over the past seven decades. As a result of these discoveries, there is now accessible a nearly uninterrupted sequence of the archaeological cultures beginning with the early farming communities of the pre-pottery Neolithic period and continuing all the way down to the beginning of the history of India around the 6th century B.C. This sequence begins with the early farming communities and extends all the way to the beginning of the history of India. The culture of Harappa does not exist in the beautiful solitude it once did. It is now abundantly clear that its birth was the logical culmination of a long cultural process that assimilated and accommodated numerous elements and influence from a wide variety of preceding cultures that flourished in the 'greater' Indus and uplands valley of the Baluchistan and beyond (Bisht, R.S. 2001).

on the beginnings of the Indus and Harappan civilizations, there are a variety of theories on the location of the early settlements of these two cultures. Marshall was the first person to speculate on where the Harappan Civilization might have originated and make an attempt to locate its roots. On the other hand, he did not develop his thoughts sufficiently within the appropriate framework. In the article that appeared in the Illustrated London News Weekly on September 20, 1924, he provided visual representations of his perspectives and beliefs. According to Wheeler (1953), the builders of the citadels of Mohenjodaro and Harappa were pioneers who brought with them the architectural traditions that were established elsewhere on the manipulation of mud–brick and timber. The excavator at Mohenjodaro came to the conclusion that the dominant culture at the site must have been dynastic rather than cultural. The hypothesis that the Indus and Harappan Civilizations originated in Mesopotamia was supported by the excavators on the basis of evidences discovered from the sites of Harappa and Mohenjodaro. Numerous other researchers, such as Gorden 369 (1958), Heine-Geldern (1956), and Kramer (1963), concurred with the notion that the Indus civilization originated in the western hemisphere. On the other hand, Fairservis (1971) suggests that the Bolan Valley and the territory that surrounds it in northern Baluchistan are where the Early Harappan culture first emerged.

In the most recent few decades, a significant amount of effort has been put into researching various aspects of the Indus and Harappan civilizations that existed in the Indian Subcontinent. Evidence uncovered at many locations, including Dholavira, Harappa, Jalilpur, Rakhigarhi, Bhirrana, Banawali, Kot Diji, Kalibangan, and Balakot, amongst others, has shown that the Harappan civilization was born in the Indus-Hakra Plains. These unearthed sites contain the typical material of early levels of Harappan culture, which was discovered lying beneath the deposit of urban culture. Mughal (1970) refers to these prehistoric societies as the Early Harappan cultures. K.N. Dikshit (1980) is of the opinion that the matrix (Balakot-Amri-Kot-Diji) as the nuclear zone of Early Harappan cultures and the evidences from the Cholistan, northern Rajasthan, and Haryana, were a later phenomena. He bases this on the fact that he believes that these areas were settled later. Historically, Rajasthan and Haryana were at the forefront of the Sothi cultural movement. This was due to the fact that the Sothi people had their own distinct indigenous characteristics, many of which had their roots in the Ghaggar/Hakra plain. The Pre-Harappan category is where the Ghaggar and Hakra regional variants fit in with their other forms. According to S. P. Gupta (1997), the 'shape' of the Harappan culture is believed to have started in the lower Saraswati basin (Ghaggar/Hakra), and from there it proceeded towards the Indus basin. After some time, new discoveries at Bhirrana and Rakhigarhi led researchers to the conclusion that the civilization must have begun in the Ghaggar plains, and Rakhigarhi must have been the civilization's hub. This viewpoint is supported by the fact that the distribution maps show a movement of settlements toward the Yamuna river (Manmohan Kumar 2009). The recent excavations at Harappa of the places at the lower levels comprise the

roots of urban civilization, which flourished in these locations later and gave birth to the metropolitan cities. This is in continuity of the hypothesis that urban civilisation originated in the indigenous parts of the world. It is required to do an in-depth analysis of these cultural artifacts, which can be easily identified, in order to gain an understanding of the role that different cultures had in the development of centralized authority. Recent excavations in Harappa are of critical significance with regard to the question of where the Harappan civilization first emerged. Harappa is said to be one of the most ancient village settlements in the central region of the northern Indus valley by Kenoyer (2000). He goes on to say that the pottery from the Ravi Phase at Harappa (>3700 to 2800 BCE) is comparable to the Hakra pottery that was found in Jalilpur, although the majority of it was hand-built (2000 and 2009). The extension and development of sites that correlates with the formation of urban culture is one of the defining characteristics of the later period. During this historical period, there is evidence of a wide variety of new crafts and architectural traditions involving mud bricks. In addition, there is evidence of the usage of new kinds of model carts, painted wheels, and a wide variety of animal figurines that have wheels. These artifacts lend credence to the hypothesis that the first wheeled carts in the Indus Valley originated in the central regions of the alluvial plain and were a product of local innovation. Along with the development of urbanisation in the later phases of the Early Harappan period, a wide variety of wheeled vehicles, including bullock carts and other types of wheeled vehicles, became increasingly popular.

During the course of development, particularly in the realm of trade, an ever-expanding region of production is required. Consequently, this results in the formation of secondary centers of urban impact. It has not been known, as of yet, to what extent the rural people were turned into urban or semi urbanized people as a result of these urban centers. The agrarian way of life inspired the development of the Indus civilization. It is a society that is, ironically, more village-like than city-like in the meaning of the western word (Fairservis 1971). Between the years 2600 to 1900 B.C., the Harappan culture entered its mature phase, which corresponds to the oldest large-scale urbanism in the Indian subcontinent. This phase is characterized by high levels of technological achievement in town-planning, architecture, ceramics, metallurgy, bead styles, terracotta's, seals, long distance trade, uniform script, uniform standard of weight, measurements, and intensive agriculture, among other fields. Granaries found in Mohenjodaro, Harappa, and Lothal provide strong evidence that a significant amount of cereal was cultivated and produced throughout the Mature Harappan age.

CONCLUSION

In the context of the current research, a comprehensive survey covering a wide area from village to village was carried out with the goal of reconstructing the distribution of settlements of the Lower Sahibi basin. This survey has helped us to recreate the history and culture of the region. It has also contributed to taking a more holistic view of the archaeological potential of the region, with the primary emphasis being placed on the study of the region's historic settlement pattern. This study is primarily based on the researcher's own excursions, as well as on the results of a couple of smaller-scale excavations, for which the comprehensive reports have not yet been published. It is possible that we may be able to obtain more useful knowledge regarding the history and culture of this region if large-scale excavations are carried out in an appropriate and methodical manner, and if the results of these excavations and their full reports are published.

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