



Analysis Of The Case Study Naldurga Fort, "Fortified Legacy: Deccan, Architecture, And Politics Of Late Mediaeval Forts"

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ABSTRACT

This research paper gives a deep exploration of the late mediaeval forts in the Deccan region of India, focusing on the relationship of the forts with war, politics, and architectural innovation. The Deccan, is famous for its strategic significance, varied culture and diverse landscape, witnessed the construction of various forts during the period between 14th to 17th centuries. These forts serve as tangible testaments to the interplay between military extremity and political ambitions. These forts were the measure of a monarch's strength, they were alive and echoing to the sounds and signals of some of the great dynasties and ruthless succession battles. The study delves into the political dynamics of the Deccan Sultanates, exploring how these forts were instrumental in proclaiming sovereignty, negotiating power balance, and projecting political authority, The architecture of these forts reflects not only the military inventiveness of the time but also the cultural and artistic influences that shaped their design.

Through a synthesis of historical accounts, architectural analysis and site specific case studies, selected fort Naldurga in Osmanabad district, Maharashtra. This paper demonstrates how the late medieval forts in the Deccan embody the complex nexus of war and politics, while contributing significantly to the architectural heritage of the region. Understanding this historical and architectural legacy provides valuable insights into the strategic thinking of rulers and the evolving socio-political landscape of medieval India. This research will contribute to a richer appreciation of the Deccans historical significance and the enduring impact of these forts on the political identity of the region.

KEYWORDS- Deccan, politics, wars, forts, Medieval

Introduction

Politics and architecture are intimately related. The relationship between architecture and politics is intricate and multidimensional, ranging from the use of structures to transmit political power and authority to the manner in which the built environment reflects and affects political systems and ideologies. Architects and leaders have communicated political power and authority via the design and construction of buildings throughout history. The use of architecture to represent and uphold the authority and status of people in positions of power has been prevalent, ranging from opulent palaces and political structures to military fortifications and public monuments. The built environment, including building design and function, can be influenced by political views. For instance, the Deccan land forts exhibit inventive modifications following the military technology revolution, with the architecture of the forts strongly affected by the region and kings who placed a high priority on protection. The emphasis on grandeur and monumentality in the architecture was a reflection of the ruling party's martial philosophy. Modifications in a society's architecture can also result from changes in politics. For instance, the Deccan forts' architecture underwent tremendous modifications as a

result of the invasions of numerous monarchs in the Deccan and the development of gunpowder technology in the fifteenth century.

The forts of Deccan have a special place in the ethos of not only the Deccan but all Indians. Militarily and politically important in varying degrees, their unifying influence was vital and they saw the emergence of a new spirit of freedom. (M.S. Nanavare, 1995)

Fort as a defence typology is seen from the earlier period. Jericho is the first example of forts from the Neolithic period about 7000 BC, this layout became the usual method of fortifying the City (Martin Brice, *Forts and Fortress*, 2005). The fortified towns along with the forts were erected for the purpose of strengthening the human settlements against an offensive military operation, floods, marauders and possible intrusion of wild animals. The development of weaponry and armament evidently had a considerable influence on the design and development of fortifications in the late medieval period, as an integral part of the historical evolution of military typology. A fort could provide shelter to the king and his armies against enemies and prevent the invaders from advancing further into the kingdom. Protected by fortifications, a king or commander could engage the enemy with greater confidence and had a chance of repulsing him. Proliferation in the art and science of fortifications provides an index to the political climate in India during the various periods of history. Forts and sieges held a key position in ancient Indian warfare. Built on considerations of strategic location, topography, and the natural advantages provided by the site, forts would be heavily supplemented with manmade fortifications. They were required for the security of the populace that lived in its vicinity and the kingdom as a whole.

The architecture is interwoven in the economic, political and social realities of its period and in the cultural specificities of its region. In recent years, the political vision of architecture has been explored, not only by historians of art and architecture such as George Michell, Helen Philon, Jean Deloche, Klaus Rotzer, Marika Sardar but also by political historians and social, such as Sunil Kumar, Philip Wagoner and Richard M. Eaton, Pushkar Sohoni and Romila Thapar, among others. Through their studies, architecture turns out to be an object of political demonstration and identity affirmation. (Morelle)

Unfortunately, material evidence is lacking to know about the political aspect of the civilization, but in the Vedic period we have abundant evidence about the institutionalization of the political system, and the king was required to protect the people, as a matter of duty one such measure was the construction of forts. Thus, here we find the development of community defensive enclosures into regular political defensive walls namely forts during the period covering from the chalcolithic period to the beginning of the historical period. (ShodhGanga Thesis- Defence architecture in early North Karnataka) The progress made in the development of the architecture of the forts was so much in response to the existing political and social conditions, that the author of Artha Shastra felt necessary to prepare a manual of the fort architecture. The forts have played an important role in the medieval history of Deccan (Tejas Garge, 2014) From the 1490s, the political fragmentation of Bahmani rule led to the emergence of the sultanates of Ahmednagar, Berar, Bidar, Bijapur, and Golconda. Of the five sultanates, only Ahmadnagar, Bijapur, and Golconda remained until the 17th century.

Architecture is interwoven with the economic, political, social and regional realities of its time. For several decades, the scope of the political vision of architecture has been explored, not only by art and architectural historians but also by historians from a multidisciplinary perspective. Architecture thus becomes an object of identity affirmation and political demonstration. The history of architecture is not limited to architectural details but has widened to integrate larger social processes and to encompass several fields of history. (Morelle thesis)

Research Methods or Methodology:

For this research, literature review is carried out to understand the context of Deccan, late medieval period, rulers in that period, changes in warfare technology, sociocultural context, economical and political context along with the same the site visit is carried out to Naldurga fort located in Osmanbad district, detail observations are marked and analysis is carried out. This study considered both primary and secondary information. Besides, the primary data, which was gathered through onsite observation and photography of the various parts of forts and identified structural elements, was also cross-checked with the data extracted from the secondary sources

Deccan

As per the research topic, it is important to understand the Deccan, the "Deccan" is known to the ancients as the Dakshin path or "Great Southern Highway" or entranceway from the north that passed through this region served as India's main north-south thoroughfare and facilitated the movement of goods, people, and ideas across the subcontinent (Dr G. Yazdani, 2007). Deccan is located in Peninsular India, a huge equilateral triangle upside down. Narmada and Tapi, Godavari, and Krishna are the important rivers on the plateau. The soil on the Deccan plateau is extremely fertile and productive. Western ghat with a sheer fall of nearly 4000 feet thus forming a natural barrier of defence. The plateau is almost level as it leaves the Ghats. Deccan had a very different life in that it was connected to the world with maritime connections through the sea, there were many ports on the west coast and some on the east coast. In the region of Deccan, there was a continuous influx

of foreigners from Persia and overseas. Deccan was one of the great centers of culture. Deccan was famous for blooming textiles, saltpeter (Explosive), and diamond mining industries. Cotton products from these regions were exported to Persia, Turkey, and Arabia. Considering all these reasons, the rulers want to capture this territory. Deccan has undergone various changes and has a great history of warfare strategies and Military activities. (Sherwani, Haroon Khan, 1954)

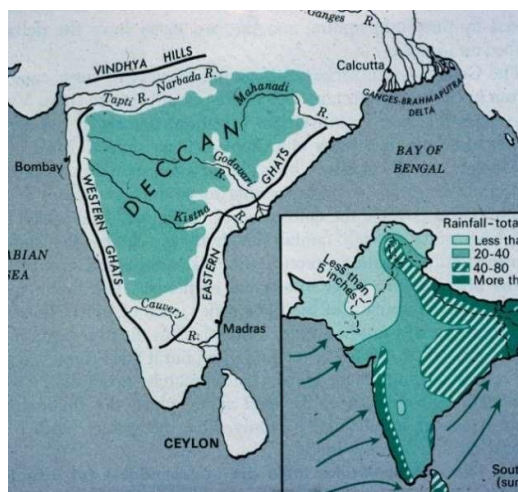


Fig. no.1-Map of Deccan (Source- Internet)

Up to the end of the thirteenth century, the Mohomedans had not invaded the Deccan. It was to them an unknown country peopled by pagan idolaters, as they called them. (Book- History of the Deccan) The Deccan was a seething cauldron of politics. The war between the various Deccani states was a frequent occurrence. The death of a ruler often led to factional fights among the nobles, with each party trying to act as a king-maker. In this, hostility between the Deccanis and the newcomers (Iraqis or gharibs) found free play. The rulers and the nobles, therefore, commanded little loyalty from the people. (Chandra, Social History of the Deccan, Book). In India, the disintegration of the Delhi Sultanate gave birth to cosmopolitan merchant sultanates oriented towards the sea, particularly in Gujarat and Bengal, with the export of cotton. The militarized agrarian empires of the Deccan (Sultanates and empire of Vijayanagara) are themselves involved in trade through communities of merchants that they favor, Hindus, Jains, and Muslims (Persian, Yemeni Pardeshis, Indian Mappilas). The sultanates and Vijayanagara have interests in trading in the distance, in particular for the importation of precious metals, animals for war, then firearms.

Late medieval period

The term 'Medieval' used in the Indian context is more a convenient label than a precise description. It has more of a political and cultural context than socio-economic or chronological. For the Deccan, the term 'medieval' has been used by common usage to indicate a period of around three centuries that was conterminous with the rule of the Islamic dynasties. The rise of the Bahamanis, the first Islamic dynasty ruling the Deccan independent of the Delhi sultanate marks the beginning 1347, while the collapse of the Nizam Shahis of Ahmadnagar round 1640 AD marks the end of this period. Although the Adii Shahis of Bijapur and Qutab Shahis of Golconda lingered on for a few decades more they were de facto if not de jure vassals of the Mugal emperors. It is the culture nurtured in the urban centres established by or adopted by the Deccan Sultans. (MATE, 1997). The history of Deccan throughout the middle Ages mainly spans the years 1317 to 1687 AD. The Mughals finally conquered the Bijapur and Golconda Sultanates, as well as the remaining remnants of medieval Maharashtra, in that year. The Delhi Sultanates did not remain in the Deccan for very long. In 1347, the Bahamanis founded a separate Kingdom in the Deccan. Its rule circumscribed practically the entire area of Maharashtra. The Bahamani Kingdom disintegrated with the death of Mahmud Gavan in 1482. The Deccan was now governed by the five succession states of the Bahamani Kingdom viz., Ahmednagar, Bijapur, Berar, Golconda, and Bidar. Of these, Ahmednagar (which annexed Berar in 1574) and Bijapur (which annexed Bidar in 1619) brought under their administrative control essentially the entire state of Maharashtra, excluding Khandesh and the Portuguese possessions on the western coast. The Deccan was invaded by the Moghal people in the final decades of the 16th century. (MEDIAEVAL ADMINISTRATION AND SOCIAL ORGANISATION, p. 65)

Architecture, Politics and War

The general principles of war in their basic truth are the same in all ages,—namely, how to get at the enemy's armed force, crush it, and thus destroy that people's will to continue the war. Civilization changes with time and the weapons of war change with advancing civilisation. (Military History of India by Jadunath Sarkar)Archive.org

The Delhi Sultanate was transformed into a mighty Indian empire by the conquest of a number of regional kingdoms and feudal estates from 1206 to 1335 CE. However, from 1335 to 1400 CE these regional kingdoms posed a severe threat to the already weakened Delhi Sultanate and with their emergence began the process of the rapid disintegration of the Sultanate. All these kingdoms were usually in perpetual warfare with each other. The nobles, chiefs or rajas and local aristocracy played vital roles in these conflicts. Thus, some of these regional powers were the result of the decline of the Delhi Sultanate while the development of others was independent. A few special characteristic features of the 15th century India are noteworthy. A majority of the regional and provincial states were ruled by Muslim monarchs. The Sultanate as an Islamic state had declined but not so the political dominance of Muslims in the Indian subcontinent. Almost all the provinces gave rise to powerful Muslim states. Islam was firmly rooted in Indian soil. Islamic culture was gradually intermingling with the Hindu culture and had become acceptable to Indian society in general. It is generally believed that the 'antipathy' that existed during the Sultanate period between the Hindu and the Muslim states aggravated the conflicts and clashes during the 13-15th century. Schwartzberg, however, has rightly pointed out, we find more frequent and violent struggles between the Muslim-Muslim and Hindu-Hindu rulers rather than between Hindu-Muslim rulers.

Conflict between Afaqis and Dakhinis The influx of foreigners was felt seriously not by the Hindus or the original inhabitants of the land, who carried no weight in the state politics, but by the old Muslim nobility of the Deccan, including the Northern immigrants from Delhi. It were the latter who came to be known as the dakhinis (Southerners) in comparison with the foreigners who were called pardesis or afaqis. Dakhinis were the real architects of the kingdom but the large scale employment of the afaqis in the highest civil and military offices of the state quickly reduced them to a minority within the ruling elite and bureaucracy of the Bahmani kingdom. It provoked rivalries between the two groups with the result that with the beginning of the reign of Sultan Mujahid Shah, the nobility of the Bahmani kingdom came to be divided into two rival factions, the foreigners and the Dakhinis. The latter, under force of circumstances began to find their interests more and more with the indigenous inhabitants of the land and made a common cause with the local converts to Islam. From among the foreigners, the Dakhinis received ready support from the African immigrants and 'the offspring of African fathers and Indian mothers' who did not see eye to eye with the immigrants from the Asian countries. It is believed that the foreigners, who were more aggressive and brutal in the use of force for maintaining their hold over the country, charged the Dakhinis with cowardice and the quarrels between the rival factions often led to fierce contests and bloody massacres. It is also believed the foreigners were generally Shias while the Dakhinis were Sunnis, and this added bitterness to their disputes. Like the mutual conflict of Bahmani and Vijayanagar kingdoms, the rivalry between these two factions of the Bahmani nobility became very active in the years to come and proved to be harmful to the interests of the state. (M.A history sem II)

Conflict between Vijayanagar and Bahmani Kingdom The Vijayanagar and the Bahmani kingdoms were constantly at conflicts between each other over the control of Raichur doab which was the land between rivers Krishna and Tungabhadra. This area was fertile and rich in mineral resources. The famous diamond mines of Golconda were situated in the Eastern part of the doab region. The geography of both the kingdoms was such that expansion was possible only across Tungabhadra in the Deccan. Apparently, the battles between the two were inconclusive and the status quo was maintained. Sometimes, Bahmani had an advantage and sometimes, Vijayanagar had an advantage.

Following the dismantling of the Vijayanagara Empire in 1565, the local Nayakas declared their independence (notably those of Senji, Thanjavur and Madurai. This return to a form feudalism is reflected in a multiplication of fortifications on a regional scale, such as in Chitradurga in the 17th century. It also expresses a climate of political and military instability requiring increased protection of villages and towns (many famines in the Deccan during this period). The function of the fortifications then changes: the urban enclosures are abandoned or dismantled in favor of small forts to create a defensive network effectively controlling trade routes. A split takes place between the military confined to the forts and the administrative and political in the cities. The political system of the medieval and modern Deccan is not monolith but presents a great disparity in functioning according to the three main Muslim sultanates, where the role of local elites, in particular the Marathas, remains important. In addition to the language and the political environment, social practices at all levels of society bear witness to the intertwining of foreign Muslim communities and the Deccan vernaculars. (Morelle thesis)

Architecture of the forts

Emperors from the northern region when started assaulting the southern part of India, meanwhile, the Deccan region had many land forts constructed by the earlier rulers and afterward, in the sultanate period, constructed many land forts in the Deccan region. According to Jos Gommans, in his book, "Warhorse and gunpowder in India c.1000-1850", there is considerable evidence, both literary and archaeological, that firearms were indeed being used in peninsular India prior to the rise of Portuguese power in the region. The most conclusive archaeological evidence of this is the gun ports that Bahamani rulers built into the walls at three of their principal forts: Bidar, Kalyana, and Raichur. In an important monograph, Iqtidar Alam Khan mentioned in the research paper, "Gunpowder and Firearms: Warfare in Medieval India" has argued that in the second half of the fifteenth century Indians were using cannons cast in brass or bronze, as well as handguns. A primitive

type of Gunpowder artillery was already in vogue in different parts of India during the second half of the 15th century.

Land forts

The arrangement of the defenses of the fort shows a highly developed military architecture. The outermost line comprises a glacis with a retaining wall, completely covering the ramparts of the forts against an attack by artillery from a distance. Next to the Glacis is a belt of open space, which is styled the “Covered Way” in Military Architecture. After that there is a moat about 18’ to 20’ deep and 70’ to 80’ wide. At the end of the moat is built the fauss braye or “Scarp” most massive in construction and defended by Bastions. Beyond the Fauss Braye, there is another Covered Way and then are built the ramparts, which are again defended by towers and Bastions. The moat was kept filled with water and only approach to the fort was by means of a Draw bridge, which although not existing now, yet its site is marked by a causeway of comparatively later date. The Fauss Braye is built of large blocks of dressed masonry laid in mortar and is clearly the work of Muslim Architects, although the presence of numerous sculpted stones, such as Capitals, bases and shafts of pillars. The Fauss Brayes rises to a considerable height and is defended by circular bastions, some are at corners and remaining are at particular distance. In each of the Eastern and Western walls there are also two posterns with semi-circular curtains of massive masonry in front. These were probably built for the purpose of a sudden attack on the enemy in time of a close siege, and they were also the means of a silent escape when the fall of the fort seemed inevitable. For the entrance of the forts, through a small court which is arranged in the form of Barbican. The bastions here are so built that the next gateway of the fort is completely covered and the assailants can be destroyed by musket shots or by the throw of missilies at any point during their entry. The second gateway of the fort is little larger in dimensions than the first. It has a deeply recessed double hall on each side of the approach. After passing through the gateways, there are open courts with a row of massively built rooms towards the north and the west. They were apparently utilized for storing ammunition. Bala Hisar, which literally means the high castle probably served the purpose of the “Keep” of the Medieval European forts. On the bastions of the forts, old guns are mounted, some of them bearing very interesting names. On the Bala Hisar, two inscripted tablets are fixed, one of them records the building of the bastions. After the third gateways, the innermost court of the fort which is strewn over with remains of the old house, gardens, pavilions and mosques. In today’s context, all in an advanced stage of decay and enveloped by a thick growth of rank vegetation. Many of the palaces and buildings have been transformed into some of the govt. offices, etc. Old cisterns, fountains, paved walls and division for flower beds can still be traced. (Report of the Archeological Department "His exalted Highness the Nizam Dominions", 1926)

Nalduga fort

Naldurg is a village of 16,000 inhabitants in the district of Osmanabad (50 Kilometers) located in the south of Maharashtra, on the Bombay-Hyderabad national road, close to Sholapur. The strong immense 41.63 hectares has 101 towers under the protection of the department of Archeology and Museums of Maharashtra State. It is a fortification perfectly preserved which represents an exhaustive catalog of the 16th century Deccan fortification adapted to the increased use of artillery.

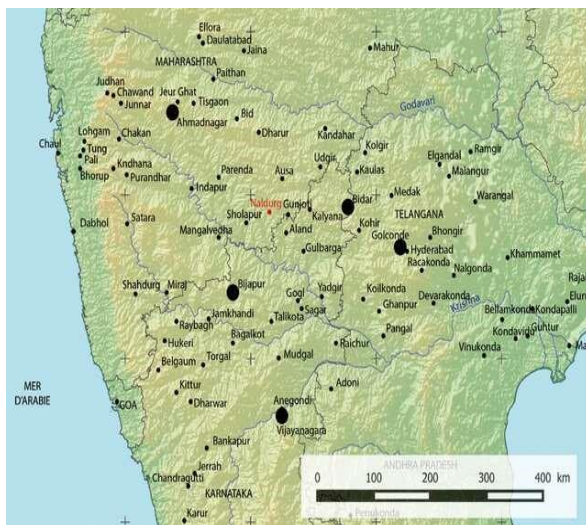


Fig.No.2, Location map (Source-Internet)

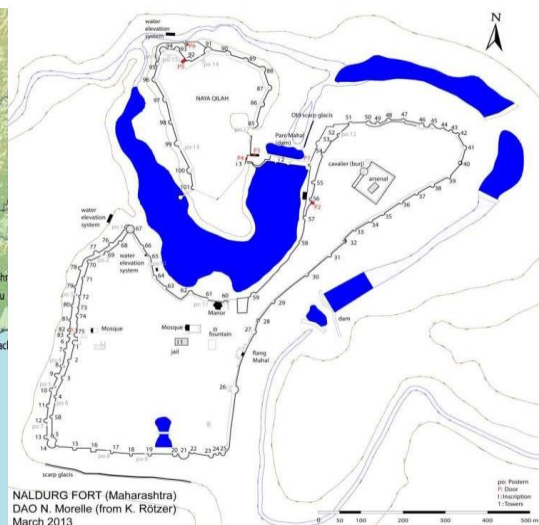


Fig. No. 3 Naldurga fort (Source-Book-Forts of the Deccan)

History of the fort

The fort of Naldurg becomes a strategic element of the borders of the Sultanates of the Deccan from the 16th century, this fort is witness to the evolution of Defense in the Deccan and adaptation to artillery. The existence

of this fortified network has enabled the stabilization of the border and the emergence of political and cultural capitals powerful and influential in the Deccan sultanates. The fort will then be captured by the Nizâm then passed into the hands of the British from 1853 to 1860. Through the story history and literary sources, highlighting its chronology and its relation to the whole of the Deccan make it possible to establish concrete elements for the architectural analysis and the evolution of fortification in the Deccan.

Following the famine of 1460, the authority of the Bahamanis was undermined and crumbled until its division in 1482, then to its end in 1518. The governor of Bijapur, Yusuf Adil Shah, Immigrant of Iranian origin, declares his independence in 1490 and seizes all the territories in south of the Bhima river, including the fort of Naldurg or Nuldroog (then on the lands of Kasim Barid, governor of Bidar and protector of Bahmani interests). A profound political change then took place during the reign of Ibrahim Adil Shah (1535) who dismisses foreigners from his army to return to the Deccani culture. The Brahmans in charge Administration will now have an important role in the politics of the sultanate.

Evolution of the fort

The mythical foundation of Naldurg (derived from Sanskrit Durga, the fortress) by King Nala Raja is not attested according to Firishta. It is more likely that the site is fortified by the Chalukya de Kalyâna, or later by the Bahamani. The Naldurg region is under Chalukya and Rashtrakuta influence from the 7th to the 13th century and then passes under the control of the Yadava with the conquest of Raichur by Vithalanatha in 1294. He built a fortified enclosure there made up of cyclopean granite blocks (blocks up to 6 meters long, joints without lime mortar).

Military advancements and changes in fort Architecture

Ali Adil Shah begins a series of modernization and adaptation of his border forts, Ausa (at 40 kilometers north of Naldurg), Udgir (80 kilometers northeast), Parenda (80 kilometers north northwest) and Sholapur (40 kilometers to the west), as well as on its borders in Andhra Pradesh with the forts of Nellore, Vinukonda, Kondapalle, Adoni, Gutti, Ramagiri, Kaulas, Koilkonda on the border. He first took over the work started at Yadgir by his father Ibrahim I (1535-1558), then built several bastions on the two defensive levels of the fort by Kalyâna. The defensive network of the border allows a coordinated defense thanks to a set of forts quite close to each other, without repeating the mistakes of the past Naldurg, then called Shahdurg, is also the subject of work. From 1558 to 1560 (966 to 968 According to the inscription of the mosque), the fort was enlarged with part of the Naya Qilah and adapted to a new form of defense to make it a powerful lock protecting the Bijapur's border against its neighbor, the Sultan of Ahmadnagar. Ali Adil Shah II built also a multi-lobed tower in Naldurg to protect its border and compensate for the only weak point of the enclosure to the south in prevention of the Mughal threat.

Architecture of the fort 1. Entrance door

The entrance to a fort receives special attention given its importance Strategic in defence as in times of peace where it represents the facade of power and authority of the fort. Beyond its purely defensive role, it is a symbol of power as emphasized by Richard Eaton and Philip Wagoner.

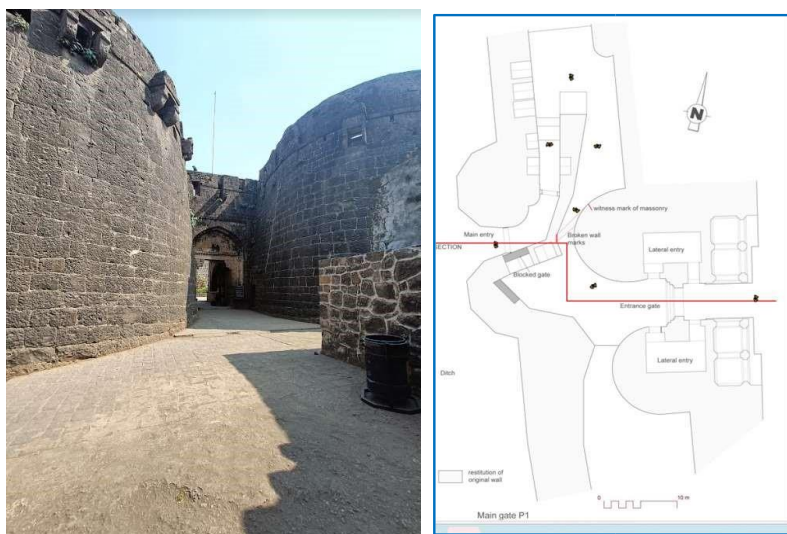


Fig. no. 4 Entrance door (Source-Author) Views after entering in the main Door, Barbican Space

The main gate (P1), called Hulmukh Darwaza, is a wide entrance with two doors separated by a long staircase and baffle path. After crossing the bridge surmounting the moat, the outer door opens between two large polygonal towers. After crossing the first door, the path is made by three consecutive doors on a chicane and

sloping path, which gives the main door a parkota or barbican of protection overhanging the ditch and the first access door. It is a passage that separates two raised rectangular platforms with pillars, coupled with a secondary pedestrian crossing when the main gate is closed. The main door has a mandapa to serve as a shelter for the guard. Several cannons from the surrounding towers were put on display in front of this gate. The lengthening of the entry passage and the multiplication of defensive means is not trivial. In the 16th century, the succession and multiplication of courtyards or airlocks in front of the doors allowed the developing of the active defence of the gates of the forts.

2. Ditch/Moat

The moats were dug out all round the selected site of the fort, the main concern behind the formation of which was to make the access of the enemy difficult. A latterly added moat is 15 meter wide and 8 meter deep.

3. Postern gates

There are 17 postern gates spread out across the fortifications. They are constructed in the walls with lintels, often reusing sculpted columns from temples. These gates are mainly found on the western front of the fort, they enabled defenders to move rapidly from the moat to the main court, by ascending the fauss bray through stairways.

4. Fortification/Curtain wall

The foundation of the wall stands directly upon the basaltic soil. The masonry is made of basalt blocks of a consistent size and shape and thicker joints, using more lime than in earlier periods. The majority of the towers found in Naldurga are circular, apart from the four polygonal towers flanking the main gate, the corner towers on the western front, and tower 50 on the northern fort. The parapets are endowed with thick merlons, 2 m in height, protecting the guard. The parapet has several kinds of loopholes in several directions. The upper part of the parapet allows the passage of a soldier on the curtain wall, protected by a continuous parapet with firing openings for shouldered weapons. The curtain of the false braie is protected by a parapet fitted with very high and thick merlons. In the lower part of the curtain wall, wide openings are made for straight shooting. These gunboats measuring 20 to 40 centimetres are designed for heavy gauge workpieces embedded in blocks at ground level. The gunboat can be served by a firing chamber (casemate) isolable by leaves and able to include a wall cupboard (for the powder).



Fig.no.5 Fortified wall with merlon (Source- Author)

The parapet endowed with 2 feet ht. thick merlons, Holes in lower direction

5. Bastions

The high and well-rounded bastions of Naldurga were specially designed for artillery use and cannons for backup fire, they also provided passive defence by covering other firing positions. Firing took place at two levels, heavy artillery occupied the lower level of the parapet, with gun ports at the ground level of the curtain wall.

6. Fauss Bray

Low level curtain wall is used for heavy artillery, the fauss braye wall constructed on the western side of the fort. The parapets are endowed with thick merlons, 2m in height, protecting the guard. The parapet has several kinds of loopholes in several directions.



Fig. no. 6 Bastions- Circular Towers/Bastions along the walls (Source- Author)

7. Poly-lobbed tower

The Poly-lobbed tower of Naldurga is a defensive structures consisting of towers 20, 21 and 22. The three mutually flanking towers ensured optimal circulation on two levels towards the curtain wall. With loopholes on three levels on all three levels, the poly-lobbed tower dominates the enceinte and the encompassing towers, it stands 14m tall and overlooks a moat with counterscarp. The number of loopholes indicates the tremendous firepower of the artillery tower. On the lower level, eight pivots indicate the usage of light cannons for firing just above the platform. The second level is a simple narrow walk wall with crenels used for small arms. The cavalier at the summit is directly linked to the curtain wall through a stairway and has a firing platform for heavy cannons with a through protective parapet and a paradise to avoid setbacks and to ensure recoil of the barrel. The cannon could fire at 180 degrees.

8. Cavalier

The cavalier of Naldurga Upali Buruj is one of the defensive masterpieces of the fortification done by the Adilshahi sultanate. It was constructed in 1560 by Nimatullah, son of Khwaja Ismail Kurd Khiraji. After the introduction of Gunpowder technology, the fortification was adopted by new defence elements such as cavaliers, and very tall, isolated towers. These impressive and massive structures carry artillery on their terrace and allow observation. The cavalier represents the ultimate innovation in fortification in Deccan in the 16th century. The Naldurg rider is 27 meters high and 20 meters in diameter with an imposing straight staircase of 77 steps (it exceeds the jumper Haidari Burj of Bijapur by 3 meters). Built-in 1558 by 'Ali Adil Shahi, the top is highlighted by an ornamental moulding and carries two circular platforms for the cannons. There is a second staircase allowing go down under the platform, in a guard room fitted out with a large window with a ledge and a latrine at the end of a small, narrow hallway. This living room was intended on the lookout which was responsible for observing the surroundings to warn the garrison in case of suspicious approach. The rider is therefore the highest point of the fort and the cannons can shoot 360 ° around this point.



Fig.no.7 Cavaliers (Source- Author)

The Western and Southern front

The western front is the best defended of the fort of Naldurg with a concentration of works on several levels and a depth of defence thanks to the addition of a ditch and a fauss bray. It was originally the most vulnerable point of the fort because the topography is unfavourable to the defence since the fortification is dominated by the hill to the west, where the village is located currently. Hence the need to block this passage and raise the wall originally, the western front was a simple wall with a curtain wall. The False Braie was built during the

new campaign of fortification and adaptation of the fort to artillery in the years 1558-1570. It was in the 1450s that the false braie seemed to become a specific technique for adapting fortification to artillery and to counter mines. The double line of defence or raoni is frequently found in the forts of the Deccan of the 16th Century

The southern front is between the large corner tower 14 and the corner return of the fortification following the cliff to the east, after tower 25. The defence line is well defended by a wide and high impassable ditch and protected upstream by a masonry counterscarp of six meters high to avoid the scree in the ditch. The counterscarp is slightly higher than the base of the southern enclosure in order to protect it in the lower part. There is an integral flanking on the southern front with towers at regular intervals allowing direct fire.

The eastern and northern fronts

The eastern front is a simple and low fortification because it complements the defence of the high cliff overlooking the valley with the river Bori. The escarpment of the cliff makes climbing almost impossible. There is only one tower with a jumper for order the southern part of the eastern front of the same type as the towers of Naya Qilah or the western front. It allows the firing of counter-battery thanks to a powerful barrel preventing the installation of the besieger on the hill opposite. Simple stairs allow access to the curtain at regular intervals. The northern part of this fortification is heterogeneous and seems composite with old defensive elements. There are a lot of blind spots in the flanking. The two lines of fortification to the northeast are adapted to the topography of the flank of the valley and also to the defence of the dam below. The blind spot under the main rampart at the cordon level is protected by the parapet of the exterior wall. It's a simple and thin wall with a curtain and a crenelated parapet suitable for firearms small caliber shouldered. The line between the two fortified lines is only accessible from the dam or by a postern hidden to the north.

The Naya Qilah

The enclosure of Naya Qilah includes the islet formed by the meander of the river and a wide ditch naturally slightly dug by man. It is a late fortification, Naya Qilah means the new fort in Urdu. The characteristics of the fortification also allow us to attribute its construction to the end of the 16th century. The defensive program is more homogeneous than the first main enclosure in Naldurg. The enclosure has been modified and raised to the north at the level of the main gate to improve the defence with a continuous parapet.

Architectural Analysis

As per the observation, by considering changing conditions of rulers and political situation in the Deccan region and changed warfare technology, various elements added to the landforts. The fortification of the forts of border adapted to artillery made it possible to stabilize the borders until the arrival of the Mughals better equipped technologically. The fort was the subject of several sieges before having benefited from a large campaign of fortification and adaptation to the artillery in 1558-1560 (construction of the dam, cavalier, western front with its two defensive lines, thickening of the ramparts and the Naya Qilah). The search for soldier protection guided the evolution of parapet fortification with taller and thicker merlons. Siege armies outnumbered the garrison defence of the fort.

Conclusion

The topic of "Analysis of the case study of Naldurga Fort" under the heading "Fortified Legacy: Deccan, Architecture, and Politics of Late Mediaeval Forts" turned out to be crucial in understanding how politics and warfare influenced the Deccan region's land fort designs. Due to its nautical connections to the rest of the world via the sea, the Deccan led a completely distinct life. Due to the same, there was a constant flow of immigrants from abroad and Persia. Politics was a boiling pot in the Deccan. The numerous Deccani states were often at war with one another. The progress of military technology and regional politics have had an impact on the construction of forts, which is a significant military typology. One example of a case study that demonstrated the ongoing search for novel approaches to design is the Naldurga Fort. The intricate relationship between politics and war is embodied by the Deccan's late medieval forts. The intersection of architecture and politics is a complex and multifaceted area of study. From the use of architecture to convey political power and authority to the ways in which political ideologies shape the built environment, this relationship has played an important role in the

Development of societies throughout history. Understanding the ways in which architecture reflects and influences political systems and ideologies can provide insights into the values and priorities of a culture and the ways in which they have changed over time.

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