

INDIAN TRADITIONAL KNOWLEDGE

Department of IT

4-Traditional Production and Construction Technology

Unit-2

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Many of the advances in the sciences that we consider today to have been made in Europe were in fact made in India centuries ago.

-Grant Duff (British Historian of India)

The earliest evidence of technological progress in the Indian sub-continent is found in the remains of the **Harappan** civilization (4000-3000 B.C.).

Archaeological remains point to the existence of well-planned urban centers that boasted of private and public dwellings (living place/నివాసం) laid out in orderly fashion along with roads and drainage systems complementing them.

The drainage systems were remarkable for the times since they were built underground and were constructed in a manner to allow for regular cleaning.

Smaller drains from private homes connected to the larger public drains.

Larger private dwellings were multi-storied and all homes were constructed from standardized fired bricks and had separate cooking areas and toilets.

Indus Valley Civilisation -Mature Phase- (c. 2600-1900 BCE)



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Storage facilities for grain and goods for trade were built as were public buildings and other buildings intended for various public functions.

Urban centres were often planned near riverine or seaports.

Accurate weights and measures were in use and ports such as Lothal were developed as export centres of early manufactured products from stone, metal (copper and bronze).

Crucibles (furnace) for smelting copper ingots (rods,..) and casting tools were in existence as were metal tools such as curved or circular saws, pierced needles and most significantly, bronze drills with twisted grooves.

The bronze drill enabled the production of items with unparalleled precision and is regarded as an ancient precursor of the modern machine tool.

There is also evidence of planned irrigation systems and it appears that flood control measures to protect farms and villages were also in place.

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ans(శిల్పకారుడు) made use of the wheel and clay pottery was decorated with a variety of colors and designs.

cotton was grown and used to produce textiles.

Urban centres in the Harappan region traded with each other as well as with counterparts in Babylon(Iraq), the Persian Gulf, Egypt and possibly the Mediterranean(South Europe/North Africa).

The span of the Harappan civilization was quite extensive, and included modern Sindh, Gujarat, Rajasthan, Haryana, Punjab and Western UP.

Prior to its disappearance, there is also evidence of considerable social decay and disintegration.

Excavations from the later phases of the Harappan civilization suggest that population pressures led to greater anarchy in building construction.

Urban dwellings became smaller and settlements became more haphazard, indicating a breakdown of social norms (customs).

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Conditions and Technological Progress

quite possible that the decline in civil society extended to other areas of agricultural planning and maintenance of irrigation systems making the civilization more vulnerable to natural disasters such as droughts, floods and earthquakes- thus contributing to the eventual extinction of that civilization.

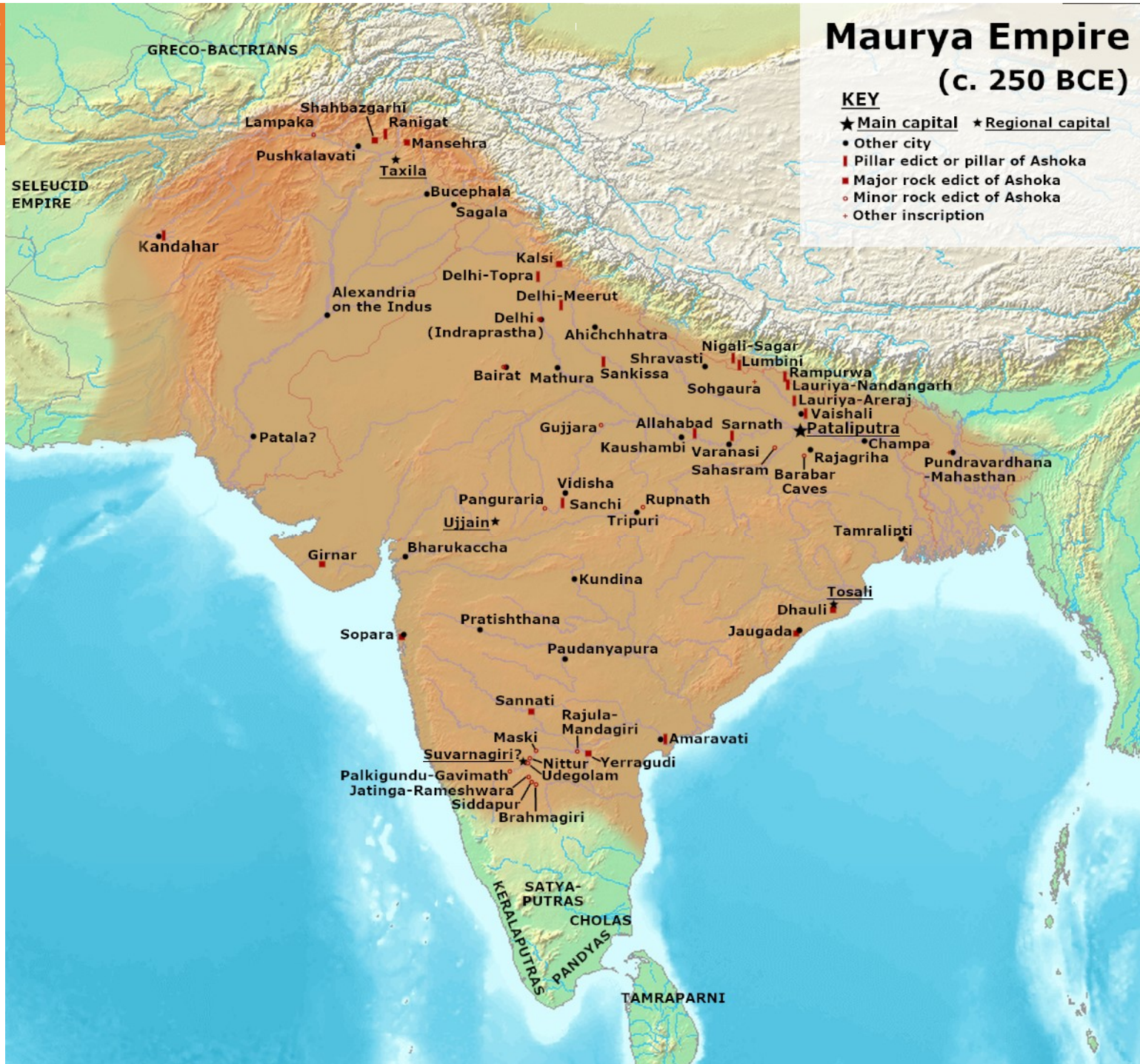
It suggests that technological progress cannot be divorced from the social conditions that may either encourage the progress of technology or conversely hinder it. These civilizations that may be (in relative terms) quite advanced to start with can even decline.

For instance, 3,000 years after Harappa, we find anecdotal (stories) evidence of impressive urban settlements constructed during the **Mauryan** period. Travellers have left behind admiring descriptions of Patliputra--the Mauryan capital. But **social strife** brought a precipitous end to the grand civilization.

Maurya Empire (c. 250 BCE)

KEY

- ★ Main capital
- ★ Regional capital
- Other city
- | Pillar edict or pillar of Ashoka
- Major rock edict of Ashoka
- Minor rock edict of Ashoka
- Other inscription



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**the growth of a parasitic, exploitative and socially oppressive elite
massive social upheavals.**

the course of the civil wars, fires and looting destroyed virtually all
wood-based dwellings including grand palaces and public buildings.

As a result, an entire tradition of wood-based urban construction (which ma
had taken several centuries to develop) was destroyed.

This also led to a greater emphasis on the use of more lasting constr
materials.

These very social conditions that destroyed technological progress in
one area gave birth to technological progress in another.

Archaeological finds from the Mauryan period indicate that Mauryan scul
at that time had achieved a high degree of proficiency in working with stone

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They must have had tools and implements that enabled them to produce both roughly modelled and highly polished representations of human and animal figures.

Earlier civilizations in India employed these skills not only for the purpose of sculpture but also for creating entire monuments constructed from a variety of different building materials.

In the 7th century, various methods for preparing cements were developed, and in the 7th century, cement of highly durable quality came into use for the construction of important monuments that survive to this day.

Impetus for Metallurgy

Monumental architecture required considerable advances in the technology of lifting, loading and transportation, building construction ramps, scaffolding, and other tools and implements. As in ancient Egypt or Babylon, appropriate techniques also had to be developed and implemented in India.

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more importantly, stone-based construction presupposes the existence of metal-based tools and implements for cutting and shaping stone.

The discovery of iron thus played an essential role in the development of monumental architecture in India, which may have in turn given a further impetus to the development of metallurgical skills.

As early as the 4th century B.C., Kautilya's (Chanakya) Arthashastra contains a 'chapter' outlining the processes for metal extraction and alloying.

Other Sanskrit texts talk about assessing metal purity and describe techniques for achieving metal purity.

The 5th century Iron Pillar of Delhi is a remarkable example of those standing over 23 feet high it consists of a single piece of iron and has withstood over 1500 monsoons without showing any signs of rust. The pillar is made of wrought iron with an iron content of 99.72 per cent and appears to have been protected from rust by the application of a thin coating of manganese dioxide.

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In the 12th century, construction engineers were using iron girders and a scale unknown in any other part of the world.

The most significant use of iron beams was in the temples of Puri and Konara. The Puri temple contains 239 iron beams and one of the beams in Konara is 100 ft long.

They are 99.64 per cent iron and were produced in a similar manner to the iron pillar.

During the middle ages, India acquired a reputation for producing very high quality steel and was also able to extract zinc from its ore by the 14th century.

Various alloying techniques were in use and Abul Fazl in Aini Akbari mentions the coating of copper vessels with tin.

Spelter (an alloy of copper, lead and tin developed in the Deccan) was extensively used.

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Surprisingly, developments in metallurgy also had their impact on production.

According to A. Rahman (Science in Medieval India), by the 16th century the finest guns in the world were being cast in India and a variety of weapons were being manufactured in the sub-continent.

The Jaigarh cannon factory was one of India's best and before the crucial year 1857, the Jaipur Rajputs laid claim to owning Asia's largest cannon.

Needs and Technological Applications

More often than not, social needs (as arising from geographic, climatic conditions) have been the primary impetus for technological progress in societies.

The long dry months that most regions of India had to deal with, led to numerous innovations in water-management techniques.

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igation canals, wells of different types, storage tanks and a variety of investing techniques were developed throughout the sub continent.

Harappans were not alone in creating water management solutions. Irrigation works of enormous size were undertaken time and time again.

The reservoirs at Girnar in Kathiawar (south Gujarat) (built in the 3rd century BC) had an embankment over 100 feet thick at the base.

The artificial lake at Bhojpur (near Bhopal) commissioned by Raja Bhoj in the 11th century covered 250 sq. miles.

In the South, also in the 11th century, an artificial lake fed by the Kaveri had a 16-mile long embankment with stone sluices and irrigation channels.

Throughout the region, rulers and kings built artificial lakes throughout the desert state of Rajasthan. Irrigation schemes were essential to agricultural prosperity even in Karnataka and the delta regions of the South.

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The need for accurate prediction of the monsoons spurred development in astronomy while the intense heat of the summer led to innovative architecture.

Rajasthan and Gujarat step-wells were built deep into the ground-some extending as much as a hundred feet.

Large-scale observatories were built in Benaras, Mathura and Ujjain to facilitate advances in the astronomical sciences.

Ahmedabad became known for its fine muslins that were light and airy to wear in the hot and humid climate of the state.

Techniques for pickling and preserving fruits, vegetables, fish and meat were developed throughout the country to prevent or delay spoilage.

Manually operated cooling devices were also invented. The Arthashastra mentions the variyantra (probably a revolving water spray for cooling the

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ific Rationalism and Technological Efficacy (success)

technological progress also requires a favorable social milieu (background) foundation of scientific knowledge, rational thinking and experimentation can be essential to the process of making technological discoveries.

It is not to say that Indian society was entirely rational.

In all ancient societies (and even modern ones), superstitions, religious beliefs, reliance on astrology, numerology or the advice of seers', palmists and fortune tellers have impinged on the scientific process and consequently hindered the progress of technology.

In the civilizations of ancient Egypt, Babylon and India-we see numerous instances of scientifically accurate statements and practical truths mixed with religious myths and popular superstitions.

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was especially true in the science of medicine. Genuine cures were often mixed with unscientific practices without clear distinction.

It was the more determined adoption of the scientific approach that enabled modern medicine to make a quantum leap over the older medical systems of antiquity.

Progress in medicine also led to developments in chemistry and chemical technologies.

The manufacture of alkaline substances, medicinal powders, ointments, and acids was systematized, as were chemical processes relating to the manufacture of glass.

Advances in food processing (such as manufacture of sugar, condiments like mustard,..) and edible oils) took place as did the manufacture of petroleum products and beauty aids (such as shampoos, deodorizers, perfumes, and cosmetics).

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al Mores (norms/rules) and Technological Innovation

cultural preferences also impelled technological innovations.

analysis of moods and emotions led to elaborate theories on the color and design in inducing psychological well-being.

Writings on art and architecture emphasized the importance of color. As a result, the use of color in decorating household artifacts, textiles, furniture in public and private dwellings became widely prevalent and a matter of considerable importance.

Discoveries concerning the manufacture and application of natural and artificial dyes quickly followed.

Block printing, tie and dye, and other textile-dyeing techniques became popularized.

The use of mordants (for dyes) in color-fast dyeing of textiles became known.

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knowledge of lacquers that could be applied to wood or leather.

Paints that could be used on different building materials were developed. Elaborate techniques were employed to prevent fading and loss of color even in heavy monsoons.

Paintings in the Ajanta caves have survived almost 1500 years, but what is more noteworthy is how the paint on some of the exterior sections of the temples has survived 1200 years.

The richness of color is well-preserved. Indian miniatures continue to astonish.

It may be noted that for many centuries, color-fast dyes made up an important component of India's exports, and export of these to ancient Rome has been documented in Roman records.

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Support of Technology

Without the support of technologically inclined nobility(kings), without the royal treasuries, many of the technological developments that took place in the field of water-management, construction and metallurgy could not have taken place.

Progress in astronomy also benefited from active state support.

King Bhoja (1018-60 of Dhar, Malwa, Madhya Pradesh) who was himself an engineer and was the architect of Bhojsagar-(one of the largest irrigation lakes of medieval India) was a great patron of engineering projects. Reputed to be a fine scholar, he was well-educated in the sciences and technology. He was responsible for the commissioning of a university (Bhoj Shala) at Dhar. He also patronized several monumental temples in the Malwa region, including one at Bhamburda which has a cast iron Shiva Linga of very impressive proportions.

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viewing town planning as an important aspect of government, he provided a well-planned network of roads connecting villages and towns in his magnum opus (his master piece), Somarangana Sutradhara(book).

The book also included chapters on mechanical engineering, soil treatment, the construction of buildings, the selection of building material, architectural details, and the vertical and horizontal components of buildings.

The book also describes machines and mechanical devices such as compasses and gnomons (putrika nadiprabodhana), and in his Yuktikalpataru, Raja Susruta warned ship-builders about using iron along the bottom of the vessels as it would render them vulnerable to magnetic rocks at sea.

However, state support for technological innovation was not forthcoming and depended considerably on the attitude of individual rulers.

and large, **arms manufacturing and the production of luxury goods received maximum support from the rulers.**

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Mughal rulers like Akbar and Aurangzeb invested heavily in the production of artillery and other weapons as did some of the Rajputs and the Deccan kingdoms. Investments were also made in high quality manufactured goods that were popular in the courts such as fine textiles, carpets, lamps, glassware, marble, stone quarrying, jewelry, decorated metalware, etc.

Specialized manufacturing towns were promoted almost throughout the country.

Conditions of Pre-industrial Manufacturing

Although Indian artisans could produce goods of exceptional quality, **manufacturing (much of the world also) was highly labor intensive.**

There was **insufficient investment** in augmenting and expanding the range of available **labor-saving tools**, manufacturing in medieval India involved considerable specialization of labor.

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India had a very large pool of relatively cheap skilled labor trained in a variety of specialized tasks.

Since most manufactured goods catered largely to the elite, demand was relatively limited and the available labor pool was more than sufficient to meet these needs.

Complacency ruled the day. India's great manufacturing strengths thus became a significant obstacle in transitioning towards the modern industrial era.

Where demand growth was considerable, there were successful attempts at improving manufacturing techniques. The textile industry was one industry where steady improvements in manufacturing technology took place.

Indian textiles commanded a worldwide market and prior to colonialism, India's manually operated textile machines were amongst the best in the world.

the early textile machines produced in newly industrialized Britain were many were modelled on the best of these Indian machines.

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A huge demand for Indian exports also gave a fillip to the ship-building and packaging industry and during the 18th century, the Wadias of Bombay were building ships as good as any in the world.

and the Industrial Revolution

Perhaps the most important **forces that inhibited the growth of science and technology in India was the relative prosperity that India enjoyed vis-à-vis the rest of the world.**

Mild climate meant that the peasantry and **working class could survive relatively cheaply.** And the **huge trade surplus** the country enjoyed enabled the nobility and the middle classes **to live lives of relative luxury and comfort.**

forces of parasitism and conservatism prevailed over more radical forces.

Robert Clive (Officer of the East India Company) described Bengal "The farmer enriched, the artisan encouraged, the merchant enriched and the prince satiated."

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in Europe, virtually all classes had an interest in bringing revolutionary changes that could improve their lives.

g and harsh winters meant that even the peasantry and working needed more items of personal consumption just to survive, let alone comfortably.

e demand for cheap manufactured goods for mass consumption was initially far greater in Europe than in the warmer parts of the globe.

short days in the long and harsh winters created a much more compelling need for breakthrough inventions like the light bulb or electric heater or water and indoor toilets.

centuries, the Catholic Church in Europe had preached the ideal of worldly renunciation and taught its followers to accept their earthly suffering in exchange for a promise of redemption in the next world.

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ional and scientific thinking was routinely condemned as sacrilegious (opposite to orthodox). It was then little wonder that Europe had entered a period of intense stagnation and became inordinately dependent on imports from the more developed nations of Asia.

It was precisely **this backwardness and internal oppression that led to mass radicalization and calls for revolution or reform.**

Protestant movements were the first in a **series of movements calling for greater democracy and radical improvements in social conditions.**

At the same time, the European intelligentsia was no longer willing to wait for redemption after death but wanted to enjoy the good life right here on earth. **Science and philosophy gradually liberated from the strangulating influence of religion.** The knowledge of the East was translated in European languages and its way into university curriculums.

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Scientific research and investigation began to thrive and technological innovations followed. All the ingredients for the industrial revolution were beginning to fall into place.

At first, **Europe still lacked a vital ingredient for industrial revolution** to get off and succeed and **that was 'capital'(Money/wealth)**. For centuries, Europe had to fund its negative trade balance (vis-à-vis Asia) by exporting silver and precious metals.

To make matters worse, exports from India (which made up an important part of European imports) heavily marked up by various intermediaries in the East, and later by the Venetians.

In the **15th century, this burden was becoming almost impossible** for the economies of West Europe to bear. It was **in response to this crisis that voyages to discover a new route to India were funded**, and eventually led to the creation of the East India Companies.

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pillage and plunder of the Americas (and later Africa as well) played a significant role in financing these voyages.

While this made imports from India more affordable, it did not eliminate the trade balance. European banks were initially not in a position to finance the new inventions that were waiting to find industrial sponsors.

Colonization provided the answer(wealth). Europe thus embarked on a complex transition where within its borders it followed a path of progressive social reform, but externally, it raped and pillaged without mercy.

This occurred at a time when the rest of the world was largely ill-equipped to deal with such a wily and complex enemy.

In much of the world, large sections of society were moving in the opposite direction (negative) and particularly so in the Islamic world. Madrasahs resisted numerous attempts at introducing anything resembling scientific education in the curriculum.

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was also true **in India**. In spite of repeated attempts by Akbar to introduce a secular curriculum in the nation's Madrasahs, **the conservative elements successfully resisted all attempts at change.**

Similar processes were at work in **many of the Buddhist monasteries and Hindu Gurukuls who had succumbed to the influence of orthodox Vedantic**

extreme versions of the Vedantic world view the real world was mere illusion, and hence all efforts at changing it or transforming were deemed unimportant.

Even in schools that escaped Vedantic influences, and where science and mathematics remained a part of the curriculum, religious instruction often took precedence.

In addition, **Brahminical notions of purity created a needless divide, creating obstacles to experimentation and transfer of theoretical knowledge to practical applications.** The fixation on astrology and other such superstitions also distracted sections of the intelligentsia from more scientific pursuits.

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Just as Europe was preparing itself to meet the challenges of the industrial revolution, significant sections of society in Africa and Asia were becoming more resistant to studying science.

This made the process of colonization much easier as those who resisted colonization were technologically outmatched and outwitted.

Once colonization had taken hold of a nation's economy, educational opportunities became further limited. Often, the few who were keen to pursue a career in science could only do so under the auspices of their colonial masters.

Western educated individuals played an important role in the economic success either as a manager or engineer in a company that produced chemicals (or industrial goods) for export from the colony to the master nation.

Others acted as a representative of an import agency that imported expensive manufactured goods and machinery into the colony.

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great was this contradiction in some nations that science and technology most came to be associated with treachery (betrayal/ ద్రోహం) and recalcitrantism (deliberately hiding/అస్పష్టత) became synonymous with patriotism.

As a result the masses were often denied the opportunity to deal with industrializing Europe on anything even remotely resembling equality.

Many of the technological developments that have since taken place in India have been geared more towards the export market than bringing about fundamental improvements in the quality of life for the Indian masses.

Only when India is able to harness the power of technology and mold its industry towards improving the quality of life for the vast majority of its people can we say industrial revolution took place.

It will require not only major advances in the Indian education system but **fundamental social changes have yet to take place** in a systematic way.

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ove all, the forces of religious fundamentalism, religious obscurantism and social backwardness will have to be pushed back and defeated.

It is the real lesson of the industrial revolution that has yet to be learned completely in India.

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Indian theories lacked an empirical(verifiable) base, but they were based on qualitative explanations of the physical structure of the world, and in a sense, agreed with the discoveries of modern physics.

-A.L. Basham, Australian Indologist

In all early civilizations, the study of the physical sciences was not formalized nor separated from other branches of knowledge.

In most cases, **technological discoveries** took place without any knowledge of underlying scientific principles, **through hit and trial, and by experience**.

The predominant focus remained on the utilitarian aspects of the technical and practical efficacy(success), as opposed to how and why something worked or didn't work.

In India, the earliest applications of **chemistry** took place in the context of **medicine, metallurgy, construction technology** (such as manufacturing of **cement and paints**) and in textile production and **dyeing**.

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atural phenomena were studied in the context of **tides, rainfall, appearance of the sun, the moon and stellar formations, changes in season, weather patterns and agriculture.**

For instance, Vedic literature mentions the condensation of water vapours in lakes and oceans due to evaporation (caused by the sun's heat) and the subsequent formation of clouds and rain.

These observations naturally led to theories about physical processes and the forces of nature that are today studied as specific topics within the fields of chemistry and physics.

Philosophy and Physical Science

While it is hard to say **which precedes which-theory or practice.**

Clearly there is a dialectical (opposing) relationship between both, and the neglect of either leads to the death of science.

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religious beliefs, particularly **religious taboos**(forbidden) and indoctrination(teaching a set of beliefs) towards mystical or supernatural phenomenon, or adherence to false superstitions can often pose as **obstacles**(**obstruction**) to the advance of science, and play an important role in whether the **why and the how of physical causes** can be safely and fully explored.

Societies that believed that **only the "Gods" knew** the secrets of nature and that it was futile(useless) for humans to attempt to unravel the mysteries of the universe were naturally **incapable of making any substantial progress** in the domain of the **sciences**.

Even in societies where there were no formal religious taboos in understanding the other-world phenomenon in a scientific way, **the power and the influence of religious texts** could serve as **an obstacle to scientific progress**.

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While **ancient India** did not generally suffer from the first affliction (of resistance to science), it did **suffer from** the second (the proliferation of **superstitions**).

The progress of science in India was thus inextricably linked to challenges: the domination of the priests, and resistance to the proliferation of ritual sacrifices.

It is therefore no accident that, by and large, **developments in science and technology came in parallel with the advance of rational philosophy in India**.

In the scientific texts Vaisheshikas (6th century B.C. or earlier), there is a preliminary attempt at recording the physical properties of different types of elements and natural substances. There was also an attempt at summarizing and classifying the observations made about natural phenomenon.

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Primitive formulations and approximate theories about the composition of matter and physical behavior followed.

Thus, the earliest applications of physics and chemistry in India (as in other ancient societies) took place without involving much theoretical knowledge. Right into these branches of science, there were elements of basic scientific investigation and scientific documentation in these early rational treatises. Primitive and tentative as these steps were, they were nevertheless crucial for humanity reaching its present stage of knowledge in the fields of physics, chemistry, botany, biology and other physical sciences.

Modern Physics

Although particle physics is one of the most advanced & complicated branches of modern physics, earliest atomic theories are at least 2500 years old.

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India, virtually every rational school of philosophy (whether Hindu, Buddhist, or Jain) had something to say on the nature of elementary particles, and various schools of thought promoted the idea that **matter was composed of particles that were indivisible and indestructible.**

Other philosophers further elaborated on this notion by positing that particles could not only combine in pairs (dyads) but also in threes (triads)—and the relative disposition (comparison) of dyads and triads determined the distinctive physical properties of substances seen in nature.

Jains also postulated that the combinations of atoms required specific properties in the combining atoms, and also a separate "catalyst" atom.

In this way, the earlier atomic theories became converted into a modern theory of matter.

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While many details of these theories no longer stand the test of scientific rigour, there was much in these formulations that was conceptually advanced and sophisticated for its time.

The development of the Jain molecular theory appears to parallel parallel developments in other fields such as medicine or metallurgy where the role of catalyst had been observed and carefully documented.

Indian medical texts had postulated that proper human digestion and successful absorption of medicinal pills and potions also required the presence of "catalytic" substances.

The requirement of catalytic substances relating to the **manufacture of alkalis** (relevant to medicinal and surgical applications) had also been documented, as had the role of suitable **catalysts in metallurgical processes** in the manufacture of **colorfast dyes**.

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ay, a variety of minerals, vitamins and enzymes have been identified
ying a key role (as catalysts) in a range of essential chemical processes
e place in our bodies, as do catalytic compounds in other physical processes.
mic/molecular theories were also utilized in (albeit speculative) explanations
hemical changes caused by heat.

sastapada(6th century B.C Indian philosopher) proposed that the
at) factor affected molecular groupings, thus causing chemical changes.

Pilupakavada theory, as proposed by the Vaisesikas(Indian school of
osophy) held that the application of heat (through fire, for instance)
uced the molecules of the earthen pot into atoms; and the combination
lication of heat caused the atoms to re-group creating new molecules of
erent color.

Pitharapakavada of Nyayikas (of the Nyaya school) disagreed with the
ory that molecules are breaking up into atoms.

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Parapakavada suggested that the molecular changes transformation occur without a breakdown of the original molecules into basic atoms, and that if that happened, there would also have to be a disintegration of the self, which remained intact, but only changed color.

An intuitive understanding of kinetic energy appears in the teachings of the Sastapada and the Nyaya-Vaisesikas who believed that all atoms were in a state of constant activity.

The concept of parispananda was propounded (presented) to describe molecular/ atomic motion, whether it be whirling, circling, or harmonic.

Light and Sound

The earliest of the Indian rationalists also attempted to provide theories on the nature of light and sound. Like the ancient Greeks, the eye was assumed to be the source of light by the early Indian philosophers, and this error wasn't corrected until the **1st century A.D. by Sushruta.**

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shruta posited (put forward) that it was light arriving from an external source that illuminated the retina that illuminated the world around us. (**Aryabhatta in the 5th century** reiterated this.)

Earlier philosophers were more on the mark, with **Chakrapani** suggesting that **both sound and light traveled in waves**, but that light traveled at a much greater speed.

Philosophers like the **Mimamsakas** imagined light to comprise of minute particles (now understood to be **photons**) in constant motion and spreading through radiation and diffusion from the original source.

The **wave character of sound** was elaborated on by **Prastapada** who hypothesized that sound was borne by air in increasing circles, **similar to the movement of ripples in water**. Sound was understood to have its reflection-**pratidhvani (echo)**.

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musical pitches (**sruti**) were seen as **caused by the magnitude and frequency of vibrations**. A **swara (tone)** was believed to consist of a sruti (fundamental note) and some anuranana (partial tones or harmonics).

In the **6th century Varahamihira** discussed reflection as being caused by particles arriving on an object and then back-scattering.

Varahamihira referred to this phenomenon as **rasmi-paravartana**, and this concept was adapted to explain the occurrence of shadows and the opacity (transperant) of materials.

Refraction was understood to be caused by the ability of light to penetrate spaces of translucent or transparent materials and **Uddyotakara** compared it with fluids moving through porous objects.

Al-Haytham (10th Century A.D.) has been credited with advanced theories of optics using light rays, diagrammatically explaining the concepts of reflection and refraction.

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It appears that **Ibn al-Haytham** was familiar with the writings of **Aryabhat**
Astronomy and Physics

Just as the study of Mathematics in India received an impetus from the study of Astronomy, so did the study of Physics.

Aryabhatta (5th-6th century) made pioneering discoveries in the realm of planetary motion. This led to advances in the definition of space and measuring units.

His work helped in **better comprehension of concepts such as gravitation and velocity.**

For instance, **Yativrasabha's work Tiloyapannatti (6th century)** gives methods for measuring distances and time and also describes a system of time measures.

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More significantly, **Vachaspati Misra (circa A.D. 840)** anticipated solid (three-dimensional) **geometry** eight centuries before Descartes (A.D. 1644).

In his **Nyayasuchi-nibandha**, he states that the **position of a particle in space** could be calculated by assuming it relative to another and **measuring its distance along three (imaginary) axes**.

The **study of astronomy also led to a great interest in quantifying very small units of time and space**.

A **solar day** was considered to be made up of **19,44,000 kshana** (units of time), according to the **Nyaya-Vaisesikas**. Each kshana thus corresponded to **1/4 seconds**.

truti was defined as the smallest unit of time, i.e. 2.9623×10^{-10} seconds. **Paramanusastra** records the **smallest measure of length** as the **paramanusastra**, which is **1/49525 of an inch**.

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s measurement corresponds to the **smallest thickness** of the Nyaya-Va
ool-the trasarenu, which was the size of the smallest mote (tiny
ole on a sunbeam as it shone into a dark room.

ahamihira (circa A.D. 6th century) posited that **86 trasarenu** were eq
e **anguli**, i.e. **three-fourths of an inch**. He also suggested that **64 tra**
re **equal to the thickness of a hair**.

ws of Motion

hough the earliest attempts at classifying different types of motion
de by the **Vaisesikas**.

sastapada took the study of the subject much further in the **7th c**
, and it appears that at least some of the concepts he enunciated mus
erged from a study of planetary motion.

ddition to linear motion, **Prasastapada also described curvilinear m**
mana). **rotary motion (bhramana)** and **vibratory motion**.

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Prasastapada also differentiated motion that was initiated by some external force from that which took place as a result of gravity or fluidity.

He was also aware of motion that resulted from elasticity or momentum and the opposite reaction to an external force.

In the **10th century Sridhara** reiterated what had been observed by **Prasastapada**, and expanded on what he had documented.

Bhaskaracharya (12th century), in his **Siddhanta Siromani and Ganitadhyaya**, took a crucial first step in quantification, and measured average velocity v (where v is the average velocity, s is distance covered, and t is time).

At their time, **Prasastapada's** work, and **Sridhara** and **Bhaskaracharya's** contributions ought to be considered quite significant.

However, one of the weaknesses of later Indian treatises was a failure to continue with further attempts at quantification and conceptual elaboration.

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instance, several types of motion had been earlier assigned to u
ses. There was no subsequent attempts to solve these mysteries, whi
e by **Newton** a few centuries later.

Experimentation versus Intuition

14th century, Merton scholars at Oxford developed the conce
elerated motion (an important precursor to the understanding that f
ss acceleration) and measurement and quantification of heat in a rod.

e of the hallmarks of British (and European) science thereafter w
on of theory and practice, unlike the generally intuitive approach fo
ndian scientists.

nt up to the 16th century, Indian scientists continued to record
ntific observations, but without serious attempts at quantificati
per investigation into the physical and chemical causes of wha
erved.

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magnetism is referred to by Bhoja (10th-11th century) as well as by Sankara later.

Prabhakara (10th-11th century) recognized solar heat as the heat-source for chemical changes, and also that air had weight in a discussion of balloons. Prabhakara also mentioned the phenomenon of rain.

Prabhacharya (13th century) in his Nyaya-lilavati pointed out the resistance offered by water to a sinking object, but did not go on to discuss the principle any further.

Sankara Misra (15th-16th century) noted the phenomenon of electrostatic attraction.

Prabhakara also recorded some awareness of the concept of kinetic energy and momentum. Sankara Misra dwelt on the properties of heat, and tried to relate the process of boiling to evaporation.

In the same treatise, Sankara Misra also gave examples of capillary motion.

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Varaha Misra Cited the ascent of sap(liquid in a plant) from root to stem and the ability of liquids to penetrate porous vessels.

He also wrote about surface tension, and posited sandrata (viscosity) as the cause behind the cohesion of water molecules and the smoothness of water flow.

Social Milieu(background)

unlike **in astronomy, where many Indian scientists got very interested**, and were driven to work towards a **considerable degree of accuracy**. Such compulsions appeared to guide Indian scientists in other fields.

In other fields of scientific investigation, Indian scientists seemed to be content with intuitive and general observations, tolerating a far greater vagueness and imprecision.

The answer to this inconsistency may lie in the social milieu.

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study of astronomy was triggered partly by practical considerations such as the need for accurate monsoon prediction and rainfall mapping, but perhaps even more so, by the growing demand for "good" astrologers.

An obsession with astrological charts-both amongst the royalty and merchant classes led to considerable state patronage of intellectuals who wished to pursue the study of astronomy.

Patronage was also available for alchemists for those attempting to discover the "elixir" (magical or medicinal potion) of life. But support for modern scientific research was generally lacking.

The situation prevalent in 15th-16th century Italy was not significantly different. Leonardo Da Vinci (1452-1519) was particularly frustrated that there was insufficient interest in his many inventions.

Da Vinci was convinced that dedication to scientific truth would eventually prevail.

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Al-Bhoja's Somarangana-sutradhara (circa A.D. 1100) describes many mechanical inventions, and the use of levers and pulleys is described in numerous other Urdu, Persian and Arabic texts in India and the Middle East.

Da Vinci's notes on mechanics, the study of levers of different kinds, cantilevers and gears in combination, varied gadgetry, bridges, and studies of a truly pioneering nature, and exceeded in complexity and breadth any and mechanical engineering treatise that had preceded him.

Even though in his time, Da Vinci's works were not especially appreciated, a century later, the ideas of Da Vinci and Francis Bacon (15-16th century) who stressed the importance of the experimental method in science were able to blossom and flourish.

At the same time in India, several factors posed as hindrances to the development of modern science. India enjoyed a milder climate, and the production of necessities was deemed sufficient to satisfy the population.

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courts-whether Mughal or regional spent a good part of the treasuries on cultivating the fine arts and promoting the manufacture of goods and decorative objects of exquisite beauty.

Science and technology simply attracted little attention (except when it came to improving the tools of war).

The growing influence of religion-whether Quranic or Brahminical also had a negative effect.

While the Quran claimed that all the world's knowledge was already described in it, Brahminical orthodoxy prevented scientists from going beyond preservation and intuition to practical experimentation, active theorizing and scientific confirmation.

Whereas Akbar and Jehangir were not averse to science, and the latter had a genuine interest in books on botany and zoology, it appears that Aurangzeb had a decidedly skeptical attitude towards the sciences.

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Although some patronage was available in the regional courts (and outside courts), alchemy, astrology, study of omens, numerology and other traditional and irrational traditions drew much more attention, and thus distracted from genuine scientific pursuits.

On the other hand, European scientists drew on the best works produced in the East by carefully studying foreign documents with due diligence, often accepting their value-but instead verifying the results with apparatus and scientific measuring tools of their own creation.

Over time (due to both internal and external factors)-India's scientific knowledge eroded. Thus, Europe was not only able to catch up with the knowledge of the East, it was able to rapidly surpass it.

Since independence, Indian scientists have been provided the opportunity to close the gap, and in some fields have done especially well. However, the availability of science education for the masses needs considerable improvement.

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study of the physical sciences in India needs to be accompanied by practical demonstrations and more experimentation, as is common practice in the West.

In many instances, tools and apparatus used to demonstrate and quantify scientific phenomena need to be modernized or improved.

In terms of pedagogy, the standard Western texts are not always as clear as when the teaching of physics and chemistry becomes too esoteric (needs specialized knowledge) for the average student.

There is excessive abstraction in most textbooks, and undue theoretical complexity is thrust upon relatively young students.

In contrast, the Indian approach with its stress on observation of phenomena, and epistemological (justified belief VS opinion) approaches to understanding each field are much easier for beginners and intermediate students.

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ce the student understands the basics, and develops a good intuitive
ceiving scientific phenomenon-the complexities and mathem
tractions can follow.

world of the physical sciences can be opened up to more than just t
o are able to transcend the complexities and difficulties that accompa
dy of these branches of science today.

would be surprising for many Indians today to know that the conce
m (Anu, Parmanu) and relativity (Sapekshavada) were explicitly stated
an philosopher nearly 600 years before the birth of Christ.

se ideas had been developed in India in a very abstract manner, a
onents were not physicians. They were philosophers and their ideas
physical reality were integrated with those of philosophy and the
ture of God).

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Five Basic Physical Elements

From the Vedic times, around 3000 B.C. to 1000 B.C., Indians (Indo-Aryans) classified the material world into four elements, viz. Earth (Prithvi), fire (Agni), air (Vayu) and water (Apa).

To these four elements was added a fifth one, viz. ether or Akasha.

According to some scholars these five elements or Pancha Mahabhoota were identified with the various human senses of perception; earth with smell, air with touch, fire with vision, water with taste and ether with sound.

Buddhist philosophers who came later, rejected ether as an element and replaced it with life, joy and sorrow.

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Ideas about Atomic Physics

From ancient times Indian philosophers believed that except Akash (ether) other elements were physically palpable and hence comprised minuscule particles of matter.

The smallest minuscule particle of matter, which could not be sub-divided, is termed Parmanu. The word Parmanu is a combination of Param, meaning beyond, and anu meaning atom.

Indian philosophers in ancient times had conceived the possibility of splitting the atom, which, as we know today, is the source of atomic energy.

The Indian concept of the atom was developed independently and prior to the development of the idea in the Greco-Roman world.

The first Indian philosopher who formulated ideas about the atom in a systematic manner was Kanada who lived in the 6th century B.C.

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Another Indian philosopher, Pakudha Katyayana who also lived in the 6th century B.C. and was a contemporary of Gautama Buddha, had propounded ideas about the atomic constitution of the material world.

These philosophers considered the atom to be indestructible and hence eternal. Buddhists believed atoms to be minute objects invisible to the naked eye, which come into being and vanish in an instant.

The Vaisheshika School of philosophers believed that an atom was a mere point in space.

Thus, the Indian theories lacked an empirical (verifiable) base, but in the words of A.L. Basham, the veteran Australian Indologist, "They were brilliant imaginative explanations of the physical structure of the world, and in many respects, agreed with the discoveries of modern physics."