

INDIAN NATIONAL MOVEMENT PRE-CONGRESS ASSOCIATIONS

Pre-Congress associations laid the groundwork for organized nationalism in India, emerging in the mid-19th century mainly among educated elites in Bengal, Bombay, and Madras.

Bengal Associations

- Bengal led early political activity with groups like Bangabhasha Prakasika Sabha (1836, by Raja Rammohan Roy's associates) pushing administrative reforms and education.
- The Zamindari Association (1838, Dwarkanath Tagore) represented landlords, evolving into the British Indian Association (1851) that petitioned Parliament on revenue and civil rights issues. Indian Association (1876, Surendranath Banerjee, Ananda Mohan Bose) broadened participation with low fees, demanding civil service reforms and uniting middle classes.

Bombay and Madras Groups

- Bombay Native Association (1852, Jagannath Shankersheth, Dadabhai Naoroji) focused on economic grievances and representation. Madras Mahajana Sabha (1884, M. Viraraghavachari) coordinated southern voices for legislative inclusion.
- Poona Sarvajanik Sabha (1870, M.G. Ranade) bridged the government and people on famine relief and local self-rule.

Overseas Efforts

London-based East India Association (1866, Dadabhai Naoroji) lobbied British MPs on Indian issues like poverty and drain theory. British India Society (1839) highlighted colonial exploitation.

Role and Limitations

These bodies used petitions and meetings for reforms but remained elitist, urban, and loyalist without mass base, inspiring Congress's

1885 formation. Early nationalists like Dadabhai Naoroji bridged pre-Congress efforts to INC.

INDIAN NATIONAL MOVEMENT

FORMATION OF INDIAN NATIONAL CONGRESS

The formation of the Indian National Congress (INC) in 1885 was driven by growing political awareness among educated Indians amid British colonial policies.

Pre-Congress Nationalism

- Regional associations like the Indian Association (1876, Surendranath Banerjee), Bombay Presidency Association (1885), and Madras Mahajana Sabha (1884) highlighted grievances but lacked national scope.
- Economic distress from famines, high taxes, and the "drain of wealth" (articulated by Dadabhai Naoroji) fueled demands for reform.

Role of A.O. Hume

Retired British civil servant Allan Octavian Hume mobilized leaders, organizing the first INC session at Gokuldas Tejpal Sanskrit College, Bombay, on December 28, 1885, with 72 delegates and W.C. Bonnerjee as president. Hume aimed to create a "safety valve" for rising discontent post-1857 Revolt while promoting loyal constitutional agitation.

Key Triggers

Ilbert Bill controversy (1883) exposed racial biases; Vernacular Press Act (1878) curbed press freedom; Lytton's policies strained relations. The rise of Western education fostered unity, press spread nationalism, and global movements inspired autonomy.

Theories of Origin

Safety Valve Theory views INC as British-controlled to vent frustrations; Lightning Conductor Theory sees it channeling grievances to the government. Indian initiative countered regional fragmentation for unified voice. Allan Octavian Hume catalyzed INC's launch amid nationalist stirrings.

MODERATE PHASE (1885-1905)

The Moderate Phase of the Indian National Movement (1885-1905) marked the early, restrained efforts of the Indian National Congress under leaders who sought reforms through peaceful, constitutional means.

Key Characteristics

Moderates believed in British justice and loyalty to the empire while advocating gradual political progress. They relied on the "3P" strategy—prayers, petitions, and protests—using meetings, resolutions, pamphlets, and delegations to voice demands. Their approach emphasized patience, reconciliation, and legal agitation rather than mass mobilization or confrontation.

Leadership Approach

Prominent leaders like Dadabhai Naoroji, Gopal Krishna Gokhale, Surendranath Banerjee, Pherozeshah Mehta, and W.C. Bonnerjee were educated elites influenced by Western liberalism. They critiqued economic exploitation (e.g., Naoroji's "drain theory") but confined activities to urban, English-speaking circles without involving the masses

Objectives and Methods

Main goals included Indian representation in legislative councils, reduced military spending, civil service Indianization, and economic protections like ending the drain of wealth. Methods stayed orderly

and non-violent, aiming for self-governance within British dominion, not full independence.

Strengths and Limitations

- This phase awakened political consciousness and secured minor reforms like the Indian Councils Act. However, its elitism, lack of mass base, and faith in British goodwill limited impact, paving the way for Extremists.
- Dadabhai Naoroji exemplified moderate leadership through his economic critiques and parliamentary advocacy.
- Surendranath Banerjee organized early nationalist efforts via the Indian Association.

PARTITION OF BENGAL AND SWADESHI MOVEMENT

The Partition of Bengal in 1905 and the Swadeshi Movement were pivotal events in India's nationalist struggle against British rule.

Background

Bengal was the largest province in British India, with over 78 million people, making administration challenging. Lord Curzon, Viceroy from 1899-1905, announced the partition on July 20, 1905, citing administrative efficiency, but it divided the province along religious lines—Hindu-majority West Bengal (including Bihar and Orissa) and Muslim-majority East Bengal (with Assam).

Key Events Leading to Partition

The idea emerged in December 1903 amid rising Bengali nationalism, which British officials saw as a threat. Curzon aimed to weaken unity by separating Muslim eastern areas from Hindu western ones, promoting "divide and rule." Despite protests like signature campaigns (over 70,000 submitted), the partition took effect on

October 16, 1905, with Calcutta as West Bengal's capital and Dhaka for the east.

Swadeshi Movement Launch

Opposition began immediately, with a boycott resolution passed at Calcutta Town Hall on August 7, 1905, marking the formal start of Swadeshi. Indians promoted indigenous goods (swadeshi, meaning "of one's own country") and boycotted British products, Manchester cloth, and institutions. The movement spread from Bengal to Maharashtra and Punjab, led by figures like Bal Gangadhar Tilak and Lala Lajpat Rai.

Impacts and Annulment

Protests united Hindus and Muslims initially, sparking mass meetings, bonfires of foreign cloth, and new parties like the Muslim League (1906). It boosted self-reliance and nationalism but turned violent at times. Due to sustained agitation, Lord Hardinge annulled the partition in 1911, reuniting Bengal but shifting the capital to Delhi.

SURAT SPLIT, GOVERNMENT OF INDIA ACT, 1909

The Surat Split, Government of India Act 1909, and World War I marked critical turning points in India's freedom struggle, deepening divisions and accelerating demands for self-rule.

Surat Split

At the Indian National Congress session in Surat on December 26, 1907, the party fractured into Moderates (led by Gopal Krishna Gokhale) and Extremists (led by Bal Gangadhar Tilak, Lala Lajpat Rai, Bipin Chandra Pal). Ideological clashes over methods—constitutional petitions versus boycotts and swadeshi—escalated when Extremists challenged Moderate dominance, leading to a physical brawl over the

presidential election. This split weakened Congress temporarily, with Extremists expelled until 1916.

Government of India Act 1909

Enacted amid Swadeshi agitation, the Morley-Minto Reforms (named after Secretary of State John Morley and Viceroy Lord Minto) expanded legislative councils: Central Council from 16 to 60 members, provincial ones variably. It introduced limited elections, non-official majorities in some councils, and separate electorates for Muslims, sowing communal seeds while Indians gained indirect representation.

World War I Emergence and Impact

World War I erupted in 1914 when Britain declared war on Germany's behalf, dragging India in without consultation; over 1.3 million Indian troops fought, with heavy casualties and economic strain. Indians supported the war hoping for reforms, but unfulfilled promises fueled resentment, boosting nationalism—Gandhi recruited soldiers, Home Rule Leagues formed in 1916, and Punjab became a protest hotspot post-war. This set the stage for mass movements like Non-Cooperation.

LUCKNOW SESSION 1916 & GANDHI ENTRY INTO INDIAN POLITICS

The Lucknow Session of 1916 and Gandhi's entry into Indian politics represented key milestones in unifying nationalist forces and shifting the independence movement toward mass mobilization.

Lucknow Session Overview

Held in December 1916 and presided over by Ambica Charan Mazumdar, this 31st Indian National Congress session marked the reunion of Moderates and Extremists after their 1907 Surat Split. It coincided with the All-India Muslim League session in the same city, fostering Hindu-Muslim unity amid anti-British sentiments fueled by World War I and Britain's war with Turkey.

Lucknow Pact

Congress and the League signed the historic Lucknow Pact on December 29-31, agreeing on joint demands for constitutional reforms: expanded provincial legislatures with one-third Muslim reserved seats, separate Muslim electorates, and 1/3 elected Indian members in the central council. This pact pressured Britain for self-governance while accepting minority safeguards, led by Tilak for Congress and Jinnah for the League.

Gandhi's Entry into Politics

Gandhi returned to India in 1915 after South Africa, initially observing under Gokhale's guidance and founding the Sabarmati Ashram in 1916. His active political debut came in 1917 with the Champaran Satyagraha in Bihar, where he championed indigo farmers against exploitative British planters using non-violent resistance, marking his first major mass campaign and national prominence.

HOME RULE MOVEMENT, AUGUST DECLARATION, GOVERNMENT OF INDIA ACT , 1919.

The Home Rule Movement, August Declaration, and Government of India Act 1919 were interconnected developments that intensified India's push for self-governance amid World War I pressures.

Events Leading to Home Rule Movement

Post-1909 Morley-Minto Reforms disappointed nationalists by offering limited representation, while the 1907 Surat Split and Tilak's 1908-1914 imprisonment stalled Congress activity. World War I (1914) brought economic hardships and unfulfilled British promises of reforms, sparking demands for "Home Rule" like Ireland's. Tilak launched his league in April 1916 from Belgaum upon release, and Annie Besant started hers in September from Madras, using slogans like "Swaraj is my birthright" to mobilize via pamphlets and meetings.

August Declaration 1917

British Secretary Edwin Montagu's statement on August 20, 1917, in Parliament pledged "responsible government" progressively for India to secure wartime support and counter Home Rule agitation. It aimed to pacify nationalists, legitimize self-rule demands, and outline reforms without immediate power transfer. This led directly to the Montagu-Chelmsford Report (1918), promising constitutional changes

Government of India Act 1919

Enacted in December 1919 and implemented by 1921, these Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms introduced provincial dyarchy: "transferred" subjects (education, health, agriculture) to Indian ministers, while "reserved" ones (finance, police) stayed with governors. Central bicameral legislature expanded (144-260 members), with limited electorates and governor veto powers; it also

paved for federalism but retained British dominance, fueling further discontent.

JALLIANWALA BAGH MASSACRE, KHILAFAT MOVEMENT, NON-COOPERATION MOVEMENT

The Jallianwala Bagh Massacre, Khilafat Movement, and Non-Cooperation Movement formed a chain of escalating protests against British rule, turning nationalist sentiment into mass action.

Jallianwala Bagh Massacre

On April 13, 1919, in Amritsar, Punjab, General Reginald Dyer ordered troops to fire without warning on an unarmed crowd of about 20,000 gathered in the enclosed Jallianwala Bagh garden for a peaceful Baisakhi festival and anti-Rowlatt Act protest. Firing lasted 10 minutes, killing 379-1,500 (official to higher estimates) including women and children, with over 1,200 injured; Dyer blocked the single exit to punish defiance.

Khilafat Movement

Launched in 1919 by Ali brothers Muhammad Ali and Shaukat Ali, alongside Abul Kalam Azad, it protested the Treaty of Sèvres (1920) dismantling the Ottoman Caliphate and holy sites post-WWI. Demands included retaining the Khalifa's authority and territories; Gandhi supported it for Hindu-Muslim unity, merging it with Non-Cooperation via boycotts and hartals, though it waned after Atatürk abolished the Caliphate in 1924.

Non-Cooperation Movement

Gandhi launched it on August 1, 1920, post-Khilafat Conference and Rowlatt/Jallianwala outrage, urging non-violent boycott of British goods, schools, courts, titles, and councils while promoting khadi,

national education, and arbitration boards. Phased rollout: urban participation by January 1921 (students quitting, lawyers resigning), rural spread by mid-1921 via Tilak Swaraj Fund; suspended February 1922 after Chauri Chaura violence, yet it mass-mobilized millions toward swaraj.

SWARAJ PARTY FORMATION AND CONSTRUCTIVE PROGRAMME OF INC

The Swaraj Party's formation and Congress's constructive programs marked a strategic shift after the Non-Cooperation Movement's suspension, balancing obstructionism with grassroots nation-building.

Swaraj Party Formation

After Gandhi halted Non-Cooperation following the Chauri Chaura violence on February 5, 1922 (killing 22 policemen), Congress debated future action at the Gaya session in December 1922. Motilal Nehru and C.R. Das, favoring "council entry" to wreck the 1919 Act legislatures from within, clashed with Gandhi's "No-Changers" advocating boycotts. On January 1, 1923, they formed the Congress-Khilafat Swarajya Party (later Swaraj Party), contesting 1923 elections, winning key seats in Central and provincial councils to obstruct budgets and bills.

Constructive Works Post-Non-Cooperation

"No-Changers" like Gandhi, Vallabhbhai Patel, and Rajendra Prasad focused on self-reliance: promoting khadi via spinning wheels (charkha) to boost rural economies and boycott foreign cloth; establishing national schools (e.g., Gujarat Vidyapith, Jamia Millia Islamia); advancing Hindu-Muslim unity, untouchability removal, and temperance campaigns; and forming arbitration courts for dispute resolution. These efforts mobilized masses, raised funds like the Tilak

Swaraj Fund (nearly ₹1 crore), and laid groundwork for future satyagrahas.

SIMON COMMISSION , NEHRU REPORT, LAHORE CONGRESS, 1929

The "Go Back Simon" protests, Nehru Report, and Lahore Congress Session of 1929 escalated India's demand from dominion status to complete independence.

Go Back Simon Protests

In November 1927, Britain appointed an all-white Simon Commission, chaired by Sir John Simon, to review the 1919 Act without any Indian members, sparking nationwide outrage over racial arrogance. On February 3, 1928, upon arrival in Bombay, the commission faced black flags, lathis, and the slogan "Go Back Simon" coined by Yusuf Meherally; Lala Lajpat Rai led protests in Lahore, dying from police lathi blows on October 30, 1928, fueling anti-British fury.

Nehru Report

To counter the Simon Commission, the All Parties Conference formed a committee under Motilal Nehru in May 1928, which released the Nehru Report on August 28. It proposed dominion status, a federal structure, joint electorates with minority seat reservations (rejecting separate Muslim electorates), fundamental rights, and responsible government—accepted briefly by Congress at Calcutta Session (December 1928) but rejected by Jinnah for diluting Muslim demands, deepening communal rifts.

Lahore Congress Session

Presided by Jawaharlal Nehru on December 19, 1929, the Lahore session rejected dominion status amid Simon delays and economic

woes, adopting the Purna Swaraj resolution for full independence. Nehru hoisted the tricolour at midnight on December 31 by the Ravi River; January 26, 1930, was declared Independence Day, paving the way for Gandhi's Civil Disobedience Movement.

CIVIL DISOBEDIENT MOVEMENT, ROUND TABLE CONFERENCES

The Civil Disobedience Movement, Salt Satyagraha, and Round Table Conferences arose from mounting frustrations with British reforms and economic woes, marking a peak in mass non-violent resistance.

Events Leading to Civil Disobedience

The Lahore Congress resolution for Purna Swaraj (1929), rejection of the Nehru Report's dominion status, Simon Commission's all-white composition sparking "Go Back Simon" protests, Lala Lajpat Rai's death from police brutality, Bardoli Satyagraha success (1928), and the Great Depression's economic fallout alienated peasants and businesses. Gandhi sought a unifying issue post-Irwin deadlock, selecting salt tax violation to symbolize defiance against monopolistic laws.

Salt Satyagraha

Gandhi launched it on March 12, 1930, marching 78 followers 390 km from Sabarmati Ashram to Dandi, Gujarat, over 24 days, swelling to thousands en route. On April 6, he picked up seawater salt, breaking the 1882 Salt Act; this triggered nationwide defiance—millions made salt, boycotted liquor/foreign cloth, picketed shops—with women like Sarojini Naidu leading raids. Arrests topped 60,000, paralyzing British administration.

Round Table Conferences

First (Nov 1930-Jan 1931, London): Boycotted by Congress amid CDM; Ramsay MacDonald chaired princely states, Muslims, and others discussing federation, but failed without nationalists. Gandhi-Irwin Pact (March 1931) suspended CDM for Congress participation in Second (Sept-Dec 1931), where Gandhi represented INC alone, clashing over federation and minorities; it too stalled. Third (Nov-Dec 1932) excluded Congress post-Gandhi's re-arrest, yielding no progress beyond communal decisions.

COMMUNAL AWARD AND POONA PACT

The Communal Award and Poona Pact emerged from stalled constitutional talks, highlighting tensions over minority representation during India's freedom struggle.

Events Leading to Communal Award

Post the Second Round Table Conference's failure (1931) on communal issues, British PM Ramsay MacDonald announced the Communal Award on August 16, 1932. It extended separate electorates from the 1909 Act to more groups, granting depressed classes (Dalits) 71 reserved seats in provincial legislatures, alongside allocations for Muslims, Sikhs, Christians, and others—aiming to resolve deadlock but deepening divisions by fragmenting Hindu unity.

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Poona Pact Agreement

Gandhi, jailed in Yerawada since January 1932, began a fast-unto-death on September 20 against separate Dalit electorates, viewing it as British "vivisection" of Hinduism. After negotiations led by Madan Mohan Malaviya, B.R. Ambedkar (representing depressed classes) agreed to joint electorates on September 24, 1932; reserved seats doubled to 148 in provinces (18% of total), with primary elections by depressed classes to choose candidates, while central seats remained at 18.

Aftermath and Impacts

Gandhi ended his fast on September 26; the British amended the Award accordingly. It boosted Dalit political entry without separation, spurred Gandhi's 1932-34 Harijan upliftment campaign (anti-untouchability, education, temple entry), and influenced 1935 Act reservations. Yet, Ambedkar felt it diluted Dalit power, sowing long-term Hindu-Dalit tensions and reinforcing Congress's nationalist dominance over communal fragmentation.

GOVERNMENT OF INDIA ACT, 1935 & 1937- PROVINCIAL ELECTIONS

The Government of India Act 1935, 1937 elections, and their aftermath represented Britain's last major constitutional attempt before independence, testing provincial self-rule amid rising nationalism.

Government of India Act 1935

Enacted August 2, 1935, and effective April 1, 1937, it aimed to federalize India with a weak center: provincial autonomy ended dyarchy, governors advised by ministers responsible to legislatures; federal legislature bicameral (Council of State, Federal Assembly) with princely states' participation (never realized); powers divided into

Federal, Provincial, Concurrent lists; Viceroy retained emergency powers. Borrowed from 1930-32 Round Table Conferences and Joint Select Committee.

1937 Provincial Elections

Elections in February 1937 covered 11 provinces under universal adult franchise for limited seats. Congress won 716/1,585 seats, securing majorities in 6 (Madras, Bombay, Central Provinces, Bihar, Orissa, United Provinces) and largest party in Assam, Bengal, NWFP; formed ministries in 8. Muslim League won only 109/482 Muslim seats, poor in Punjab (Unionists dominated), Sindh, Bengal; independents and regionals took others.

Aftermath and Impacts

Congress ministries implemented reforms: debt moratorium, tenant rights, reduced land revenue/taxes, prohibition, primary education, forest rights, civil liberties restoration (ending bans on Congress). Resigned October 1939 protesting WWII entry without consent. League alleged anti-Muslim bias (e.g., Bande Mataram, Hindi promotion, cow protection), claiming 75% Muslims backed Pakistan demand; Nehru dismissed League as unrepresentative. Boosted Congress prestige, League reorganization under Jinnah, deepening communal divide toward 1947 partition.

**INDIVIDUAL SATHYAGRAHA AND QUIT INDIA
MOVEMENT**

The Individual Satyagraha and Quit India Movement arose amid World War II pressures, as Britain dragged India into the conflict without consent, fueling nationalist outrage.

Events Leading to Individual Satyagraha

Congress ministries resigned in 1939 protesting Viceroy Linlithgow's unilateral WWII declaration on India's behalf. The August Offer (1940)—promising post-war dominion status and a war advisory council—was rejected by Congress as inadequate. Gandhi launched limited Individual Satyagraha on October 17, 1940, to assert free speech against war involvement: Vinoba Bhave first courted arrest in Puri, followed by Nehru (November 1940) and ~25,000 others by 1941, avoiding mass disruption while protesting non-violently.

Escalation to Quit India Movement

Satyagraha wound down by December 1941 amid global war shifts. Cripps Mission (March 1942) offered post-war provinces' secession right and constituent assembly but fell short on immediate power transfer, rejected by Congress, League, and Gandhi. Japanese advances in Southeast Asia (Burma fall), inflation, famine fears, and Britain's weakening exposed vulnerabilities; Gandhi saw a "golden moment" for mass action.

Quit India Launch and Spread

At Bombay's Gowalia Tank Maidan on August 8, 1942, Gandhi's AICC resolution demanded "Quit India" with "Do or Die" urgency. Congress leaders arrested overnight (August 9); underground resistance via socialists (Jayaprakash Narayan) sparked hartals, strikes, sabotage of railways/posts, and parallel governments (e.g., Ballia, Satara). The British suppressed brutally (~1,000 killed, 100,000 jailed), labeling it rebellion since 1857, but it crystallized global anti-colonial support, hastening the endgame.

CABINET MISSION AND INDEPENDENCE

Post-WWII British exhaustion, communal riots, and failed negotiations propelled the Cabinet Mission and culminated in the Government of India Act 1947, partitioning and freeing India.

Events Leading to Cabinet Mission

Quit India (1942) crippled Congress leadership (all jailed till 1945); 1945 Labour Party victory under Attlee signaled endgame. Simla Conference (June-July 1945) failed as interim government; RIN Mutiny (February 1946) and Calcutta/K Bihar riots (thousands dead) showed chaos. Wavell's 14-point parity plan collapsed; Attlee sent Cabinet Mission (Pethick-Lawrence, Cripps, Alexander) on March 24, 1946, for unity talks.

Cabinet Mission Plan

Arriving amid deadlock, it proposed May 16, 1946: three-tier union (Group A Hindu-majority, B Muslim NW, C Muslim Bengal/Assam) for defense/foreign affairs; constituent assembly (elected via provincial reps) with parity for Muslims/non-Muslims; interim government of Indians. Congress accepted June 25 (no grouping compulsion); League conditionally accepted June 6 but rejected July 29 after rejecting parity, withdrawing; Wavell formed in July 1946 with Nehru as VP.

INDIAN INDEPENDENCE ACT, 1947

Direct Action Day (August 16, 1946) riots killed 5,000+; Interim govt strife worsened violence. Attlee's February 20, 1947, deadline: power by June 1948 or partition. Mountbatten Plan (June 3, 1947) accepted by Congress/League/Sikhs: partition into India-Pakistan dominions, princely accession, boundaries by Radcliffe. British Parliament passed Indian Independence Act July 18, 1947 (Royal Assent same day): ended paramountcy August 15, created two sovereign dominions, governors-general, adopted 1935 Act temporarily. Independence at midnight August 14-15, 1947; partition violence killed ~1 million, displaced 15 million.

MAJOR CONGRESS SESSIONS

Major Indian National Congress (INC) sessions shaped India's freedom struggle by setting goals, launching movements, and unifying leaders from 1885 onward.

Early Sessions (1885-1900)

Bombay 1885 (W.C. Bonnerjee): First session with 72 delegates; focused on civil service reforms and constitutional progress under moderates. Calcutta 1886 (Dadabhai Naoroji): Demanded Indianization of services. Madras 1887 (B. Syed Badruddin Tyabji): First Muslim president, emphasized unity.

Swadeshi Era Sessions

Calcutta 1906 (Dadabhai Naoroji): Adopted Swaraj, Boycott, Swadeshi, National Education resolutions—Extremists gained ground post-Bengal Partition. Surat 1907 (Rash Behari Ghosh): Moderates vs. Extremists split; Tilak group expelled.

Reunification and Mass Mobilization

Lucknow 1916 (Ambica Charan Mazumdar): Moderates-Extremists reunited; Lucknow Pact with Muslim League for joint reforms.[from prior] Amritsar 1919 (Motilal Nehru): Condemned Jallianwala Bagh; supported Khilafat. Nagpur 1920 (C. Vijayaraghavachariar): Endorsed Non-Cooperation; linguistic reorganization of Congress.

Independence Push Sessions

Calcutta 1928 (Motilal Nehru): Nehru Report endorsed dominion status. Lahore 1929 (Jawaharlal Nehru): Purna Swaraj resolution; January 26 as Independence Day; Civil Disobedience launched. Karachi 1931 (Vallabhbhai Patel): Fundamental Rights, economic policy; Gandhi-Irwin Pact ratified.

Later Key Sessions

Faizpur 1936 (Jawaharlal Nehru): First rural session; agrarian program. Haripura 1938 (Subhas Chandra Bose): National Planning Committee. Ramgarh 1940 (Abul Kalam Azad): Individual Satyagraha planned. Bombay 1942 (Abul Kalam Azad): Quit India "Do or Die" resolution.[from prior]