Socie-Economic Structure of Early Medieval India

Early Medieval India: Analysis of Socio-Economic Structure (c. 600–1200 CE)

1. Political Landscape

a. Fragmentation and Emergence of Regional Powers:

- **Decline of Large Empires**: The collapse of the Gupta Empire around the mid-6th century CE paved the way for the emergence of several regional powers.
- Rise of Regional Kingdoms: Important dynasties included the Pallavas in South India, the Chalukyas and Rashtrakutas in the Deccan, the Palas in Bengal, and the Pratiharas in Northern India. These regional kingdoms often engaged in warfare and alliances, significantly influencing the political dynamics of the period.
- **Decentralization of Authority**: With the weakening of central powers, local chieftains and landed elites gained substantial autonomy. This decentralization contributed to the fragmentation of political power and the emergence of localized feudal structures.

b. Feudal Polity:

- **Feudal System**: The period saw the rise of a quasi-feudal system, characterized by the **Samantas** (feudal lords) who were granted lands and held administrative and military responsibilities. In return, they provided military support to their overlords.
- Types of Land Grants: Land grants, often tax-free, were given to Brahmins, temples, and military leaders, leading to the development of **Brahmadeya** (land to Brahmins), **Devadana** (land to temples), and **Agrahara** (villages granted to Brahmins).
- **Hierarchy and Control**: The feudal lords, who held control over these lands, enjoyed considerable autonomy in governance and tax collection, leading to a complex hierarchy of overlordship.

2. Social Structure

a. Caste and Jati System:

- Evolution of Caste System: The caste system became more elaborate and stratified during this period. The integration of various tribes and communities into the Hindu social order led to the formation of new jatis (sub-castes), which played a crucial role in social and occupational segregation.
- **Jati-Based Occupations**: Each jati had specific occupations, with guild-like organizations regulating work and trade within the community. This division ensured social stability but also perpetuated a rigid social hierarchy.

b. Role of Brahmins:

• Religious and Social Influence: Brahmins, through their roles as priests, scholars, and administrators, wielded significant influence over both social and political matters. They were instrumental in the codification of laws, administration of villages, and religious rituals.

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• **Brahmadeya Settlements**: Villages granted to Brahmins, known as Brahmadeya, became centers of learning and cultural dissemination. These settlements facilitated the spread of Sanskritic culture and Brahmanical practices.

c. Landed Elites and Peasantry:

- Landed Elites: The landed aristocracy, often comprising local chieftains and Brahmins, controlled vast tracts of land and collected revenue from the peasants. They played a pivotal role in local administration and the economy.
- **Peasantry**: The peasant class, including cultivators and laborers, formed the backbone of the agrarian economy. They worked the lands owned by the elites and were subject to various forms of taxes and labor obligations.

3. Economic Structure

a. Agrarian Economy:

- **Agricultural Expansion**: Agriculture remained the principal economic activity. Innovations such as improved irrigation techniques (e.g., wells, tanks) and the reclamation of forested lands contributed to increased agricultural productivity.
- Crop Diversity: The introduction of new crops and multiple cropping systems helped stabilize and diversify the agrarian economy. Rice, wheat, barley, and various pulses were commonly cultivated.

b. Land Grants and Revenue System:

- Types of Land Grants: Land grants were categorized into Brahmadeya (to Brahmins), Devadana (to temples), and Vellanvagai (to non-Brahmin cultivators). These grants often included exemptions from taxes and other royal dues.
- **Revenue Collection**: The local elites, who received these grants, were responsible for collecting revenue and maintaining law and order in their territories. The state's direct control over land diminished, giving rise to a decentralized revenue system.

c. Trade and Commerce:

- Flourishing Trade Networks: Trade expanded both within and beyond the Indian subcontinent. Internal trade connected various regions, while external trade linked India with Central Asia, Southeast Asia, China, and the Middle East.
- **Ports and Trade Centers**: Major ports such as **Tamralipti** (Bengal), **Sopara** (Western India), and **Kollam** (Southern India) became vital hubs for maritime trade. These ports facilitated the exchange of goods like textiles, spices, gems, and metals.
- Currency and Guilds: The use of currency, including cowries and metal coins, became widespread. Shrenis (guilds) regulated the production and trade of goods, ensuring quality control and fair practices among merchants and artisans.

d. Craft Production:

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- **Urban Craft Centers**: Cities and towns emerged as centers of artisanal production. Craftsmen specialized in textiles, metalwork, pottery, and other goods, catering to both local and international markets.
- **Guilds**: Artisan guilds, often organized by specific crafts or trades, played a crucial role in regulating production standards, prices, and labor practices.

4. Cultural Developments

a. Religious Pluralism and Syncretism:

- **Diverse Religious Practices**: The period witnessed the coexistence and interaction of various religious traditions, including **Hinduism**, **Buddhism**, and **Jainism**.
- **Bhakti and Tantrism**: The **Bhakti** movement emphasized personal devotion to a deity, cutting across caste distinctions. **Tantrism** introduced esoteric practices and rituals, influencing both Hinduism and Buddhism.

b. Literature and Language:

- Sanskrit Literature: Sanskrit remained the dominant literary and administrative language. Significant works included Kalidasa's plays and poetry, and historical accounts like Kalhana's Rajatarangini.
- **Regional Languages**: Regional languages such as Tamil, Kannada, and Telugu developed a rich literary tradition. Works in these languages often reflected local cultural and religious influences.

c. Temple Architecture:

- **Temple Building**: The construction of temples became a significant socio-religious activity. Temples were not only religious centers but also served as administrative, economic, and cultural hubs.
- Architectural Styles: Different regions developed distinct architectural styles, such as the Nagara (North Indian) style, Dravida (South Indian) style, and Vesara (Deccan) style.

5. Key Regional Variations

a. Northern India:

- **Rajput States**: Dominated by Rajput clans, Northern India saw the rise of powerful states that developed a strong warrior culture. They played a significant role in resisting foreign invasions and maintaining regional stability.
- **Urban Decline**: There was a decline in urban centers and a shift towards rural settlements focused on agriculture and local administration.

b. Southern India:

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- Chola and Pallava Dynasties: These dynasties promoted extensive temple construction and maritime trade. The Cholas, in particular, established a powerful navy and engaged in trade and diplomacy with Southeast Asia.
- Local Governance: Local assemblies such as the Nadu (rural councils) and the Sabha (assembly of Brahmins) played a crucial role in rural administration and decision-making.

c. Eastern India:

- Pala and Sena Dynasties: Prominent in Bengal and Bihar, these dynasties supported Buddhist and Brahmanical learning centers such as Nalanda and Vikramashila. They facilitated cultural and educational exchanges across the region.
- **Agrarian Expansion**: The reclamation of forests and wetlands led to the expansion of the agrarian base, boosting agricultural productivity and settlement patterns.

Feudalism and Land Grants in Early Medieval India

During the early medieval period in India (c. 600–1200 CE), a quasi-feudal system emerged, primarily driven by the practice of land grants. These land grants played a pivotal role in shaping the socio-economic and political landscape of the time. Below is an in-depth analysis of feudalism and the system of land grants during this period.

1. Feudalism in Early Medieval India

a. Emergence and Nature of Feudalism:

- **Fragmented Political Landscape**: With the decline of large centralized empires like the Guptas, political power became decentralized, leading to the rise of regional kingdoms and local chieftains. This fragmentation laid the groundwork for a feudalistic structure.
- **Feudal Relationships**: The early medieval Indian polity was characterized by a system of relationships between a king or overlord and his vassals (samantas). These vassals were granted land (often tax-free) in return for military service, loyalty, and administrative support.

b. Key Features of Feudalism:

- Samantas and Vassalage: The samantas were local chieftains or military leaders who were granted land by the king. In return, they provided military assistance and governance of their territories. They often had considerable autonomy within their domains.
- **Hierarchy and Loyalty**: Feudal relationships were hierarchical, with the king at the top, followed by high-ranking feudal lords, and then local chieftains and landholders. Loyalty and service to one's superior were crucial aspects of these relationships.
- **Decentralized Authority**: The central authority of the king was limited, with local administration and revenue collection being handled by the feudal lords. This

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decentralization often led to the rise of powerful regional elites who controlled vast territories and resources.

c. Impact on Society:

- **Rise of Local Elites**: The feudal system facilitated the rise of powerful local elites who controlled land and resources. These elites, often of warrior or Brahmin origin, played significant roles in regional governance and economy.
- **Military Obligations**: Feudal lords were responsible for raising and maintaining troops, which they provided to the king during times of war. This system of military obligation strengthened the king's military capabilities without centralized control.
- **Peasant Obligations**: Peasants were bound to the land controlled by feudal lords. They paid taxes and provided labor services to their lords, who, in turn, offered protection and governance.

2. Land Grants (Danapatra)

a. Types of Land Grants:

- **Brahmadeya**: Grants given to Brahmins, often in the form of entire villages. These lands were exempt from taxes and administrative control, allowing Brahmins to enjoy significant economic and social privileges.
- **Devadana**: Lands donated to temples and religious institutions. These grants supported the maintenance and activities of temples, contributing to the economic prosperity of religious centers.
- **Agrahara**: Lands granted to groups of Brahmins or scholarly communities. These grants supported educational and cultural activities and helped in the propagation of Vedic and religious learning.
- **Vellanvagai**: Lands given to non-Brahmin cultivators or local communities. These were typically smaller grants aimed at promoting agricultural development and settlement.

b. Reasons for Land Grants:

- **Reward and Incentive**: Land grants were used as rewards for military and administrative services. Kings and overlords granted land to loyal samantas and officials as incentives for their service and loyalty.
- **Religious Merit**: Grants to Brahmins and temples were often made for religious merit and the support of religious activities. These grants were believed to bring spiritual benefits to the donor and ensure the continuity of religious practices.
- Administration and Control: By granting land to local elites, rulers could delegate administrative responsibilities, reduce direct governance costs, and maintain control over distant or difficult-to-govern regions.

c. Administrative and Fiscal Implications:

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- **Decentralization of Revenue**: Land grants often included tax exemptions, which reduced the state's direct revenue from these lands. Local lords or religious institutions controlled the revenue, leading to a decentralized fiscal structure.
- Local Governance: Grantees were responsible for local administration, including law enforcement, tax collection, and dispute resolution. This system allowed for localized governance but also reduced central oversight.
- **Economic Autonomy**: Grantees, especially Brahmins and temples, had considerable economic autonomy. They could cultivate the land, collect revenue, and use it for religious, educational, or administrative purposes.

d. Documentation and Inscriptions:

- Copper Plate Inscriptions: Land grants were often recorded on copper plates, known as **Danapatra**. These inscriptions detailed the terms of the grant, the rights and privileges of the grantee, and the boundaries of the granted land.
- **Prashastis**: Many grants were accompanied by **Prashastis** (eulogies) that praised the donor and described the merits and virtues of the grant. These inscriptions served as legal documents and historical records.

3. Socio-Economic Impact of Feudalism and Land Grants

a. Redistribution of Land and Wealth:

- Concentration of Land: The practice of land grants led to the concentration of land and wealth in the hands of local elites, Brahmins, and religious institutions. This concentration influenced the social and economic hierarchy of the period.
- Economic Control: The recipients of land grants controlled significant economic resources, including agricultural produce and local revenue. This control allowed them to exert considerable influence over local economies and communities.

b. Cultural and Religious Influence:

- Support for Religious Institutions: Land grants to temples and Brahmins facilitated the construction and maintenance of religious centers, which became hubs of cultural and religious activities.
- **Propagation of Brahmanical Culture**: Grants to Brahmins supported the spread of Brahmanical culture, education, and religious practices. Brahmadeya villages often became centers of learning and cultural propagation.

c. Agrarian Expansion and Development:

• **Reclamation and Cultivation**: The granting of land encouraged the reclamation of forested and uncultivated areas. This expansion increased agricultural productivity and settlement in new regions.

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• **Infrastructure Development**: Many grantees invested in infrastructure such as irrigation systems, tanks, and wells, which improved agricultural productivity and supported rural communities.

d. Challenges and Conflicts:

- Local Autonomy vs. Central Authority: The autonomy of local lords often led to conflicts with central authority. Rulers had to balance granting autonomy with maintaining control over their territories.
- **Peasant Exploitation**: The feudal system sometimes led to the exploitation of peasants, who were subject to heavy taxes, labor obligations, and limited rights under their feudal lords.

Agricultural Practices and Economy in Early Medieval India (c. 600–1200 CE)

Agriculture was the backbone of the early medieval Indian economy, driving economic stability and growth. This period saw significant advancements in agricultural practices, diversification of crops, and the development of rural infrastructure, which together played a crucial role in the socio-economic structure of the time.

1. Agricultural Practices

a. Crops and Crop Patterns:

- **Primary Crops**: Major staple crops included rice, wheat, barley, millets, and pulses. Rice cultivation was predominant in the fertile river valleys and coastal regions, while wheat and barley were more common in the northern plains.
- Cash Crops: The period also saw the cultivation of cash crops such as sugarcane, cotton, and indigo, which contributed to local and regional trade.
- Crop Rotation and Multiple Cropping: Farmers practiced crop rotation and multiple cropping to enhance soil fertility and increase yields. For example, a combination of cereals and legumes helped maintain soil health and improve productivity.

b. Irrigation Techniques:

- Canals and Reservoirs: Irrigation infrastructure, such as canals, reservoirs, and tanks, was developed and maintained to support agriculture. These structures were crucial for regions with erratic rainfall.
- Wells and Stepwells: The use of wells and stepwells (baolis) for irrigation was widespread, especially in arid and semi-arid regions. These water management systems helped farmers cope with water scarcity.
- Tank Irrigation: Particularly in South India, tank irrigation became a significant method for water storage and distribution. Tanks collected rainwater and provided a reliable water source for agriculture during dry seasons.

c. Land Reclamation and Settlement:

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- Forest Clearance: Significant efforts were made to clear forests and reclaim land for agriculture. This process led to the expansion of cultivable land and the establishment of new villages and settlements.
- Wetland Drainage: In regions like Bengal and the Deccan, wetlands were drained and converted into arable land, contributing to agricultural expansion and population growth.

d. Agricultural Tools and Techniques:

- **Ploughs and Implements**: Improved ploughs with iron tips, along with traditional wooden ploughs, were commonly used. These tools increased efficiency in soil tilling and preparation.
- **Manure and Fertilizers**: The use of organic manure, such as cow dung and green manure, was prevalent to enhance soil fertility and crop yields.

2. Economy and Trade

a. Agrarian Economy:

- **Agrarian Base**: The economy was predominantly agrarian, with the majority of the population engaged in farming. Agriculture provided the main source of livelihood and sustenance.
- **Revenue System**: Land revenue was a critical source of income for the state. Taxes were typically collected in kind, with a portion of the agricultural produce being given to the ruling authority or local feudal lord.
- Local Markets: Local markets and periodic fairs facilitated the exchange of agricultural produce and goods, connecting rural producers with regional trade networks.

b. Trade and Commerce:

- **Internal Trade**: Agricultural surplus supported local and regional trade. Villages exchanged agricultural products, livestock, and artisanal goods, contributing to the local economy.
- External Trade: India's agricultural products were also part of long-distance trade networks, connecting the subcontinent with Central Asia, the Middle East, Southeast Asia, and China. Goods such as spices, textiles, and agricultural produce were traded via overland routes and maritime trade.
- **Port Cities**: Major port cities like **Tamralipti**, **Sopara**, and **Kollam** facilitated the export of agricultural and artisanal products. These ports were critical hubs in the Indian Ocean trade network.

c. Currency and Economic Transactions:

• Use of Currency: Various forms of currency, including cowries, metal coins, and barter, were used in economic transactions. The use of cowries as currency was particularly common in local trade.

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• **Guilds and Regulation**: Guilds or **shrenis** regulated trade practices, ensuring standardization and fair practices. They played a significant role in the economic life of towns and cities.

3. Rural Infrastructure and Settlement Patterns

a. Village Settlements:

- **Structure of Villages**: Villages were the primary units of settlement, with clusters of houses surrounded by agricultural fields. Villages typically included communal facilities such as wells, temples, and granaries.
- Communal Activities: Villagers engaged in communal activities like maintaining irrigation systems, festivals, and local governance, fostering a strong sense of community.

b. Irrigation Infrastructure:

- Tank Systems: Particularly in southern regions, tank systems collected and stored rainwater, providing a stable water supply for agriculture. These tanks were often maintained by local communities or religious institutions.
- Canals and Channels: Canal systems diverted river water to agricultural fields, enabling irrigation during dry periods. These systems were essential for regions dependent on seasonal rainfall.

c. Land Management and Administration:

- Land Tenure Systems: Various land tenure systems existed, including raiyati (peasantowned), zamindari (landlord-controlled), and inamdari (granted lands). These systems determined land ownership, usage rights, and tax obligations.
- Role of Local Elites: Local elites, including landlords and Brahmins, often controlled land and managed agricultural production. They were responsible for collecting taxes, maintaining infrastructure, and administering justice.

4. Impact on Society and Culture

a. Social Stratification:

- Role of Landowners: Landowners, including feudal lords and Brahmins, held significant social and economic power. They played a central role in rural governance and local economy.
- **Peasant Class**: Peasants, who constituted the majority of the population, worked the land and provided the primary source of agricultural labor. They were often subject to various obligations, including taxes and labor services.

b. Cultural and Religious Influence:

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- Temples and Religious Institutions: Agricultural surplus often supported the construction and maintenance of temples and religious institutions. Temples acted as centers of social and economic activity, facilitating local trade and community gatherings.
- **Festivals and Rituals**: Agricultural festivals and rituals were integral to rural life, celebrating seasonal cycles and ensuring community participation in religious activities.

c. Technological and Environmental Adaptation:

- **Technological Innovations**: The adoption of new agricultural techniques and tools improved productivity and efficiency. Innovations in irrigation and land management adapted to local environmental conditions.
- Environmental Management: Communities developed methods for managing natural resources, such as water and soil, ensuring sustainable agricultural practices.

Urbanization and Trade in Early Medieval India (c. 600–1200 CE)

The early medieval period in India witnessed significant changes in urbanization and trade, contributing to the dynamic socio-economic landscape of the time. The growth of towns and cities, coupled with extensive trade networks, played a crucial role in shaping the cultural and economic developments of the period.

1. Urbanization

a. Emergence and Growth of Towns and Cities:

- **Decline and Revival**: The decline of large empires such as the Guptas led to the contraction of many classical cities. However, the early medieval period saw the revival and growth of new urban centers due to regional stability, trade, and local governance.
- Regional Capitals: Many new towns and cities emerged as regional capitals and administrative centers for local dynasties. Examples include Kannauj, Thanjavur, and Kanchipuram.
- Religious and Commercial Centers: Cities often developed around religious and commercial activities. Major temples, monasteries, and pilgrimage sites attracted settlements, leading to urban growth. Cities like Varanasi and Mathura flourished as religious hubs.

b. Characteristics of Urban Centers:

- Infrastructure and Layout: Urban centers featured structured layouts with defined residential, commercial, and administrative areas. Infrastructure such as streets, markets, wells, and granaries supported urban living.
- Forts and Palaces: Many cities were fortified with walls and gates for protection. Royal palaces and administrative buildings were central features of urban centers, reflecting the political significance of these towns.

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c. Economic Activities in Urban Centers:

- Trade and Commerce: Cities were hubs of trade and commerce, connecting local production with regional and long-distance trade networks. Markets and bazaars were central to urban life, facilitating the exchange of goods and services.
- Craft Production: Urban centers were known for specialized craft production, including textiles, metalwork, pottery, and jewelry. Cities like Ujjain and Patliputra became famous for their artisans and craftsmen.
- Banking and Finance: Urban trade necessitated banking and financial services. Moneylenders and merchant guilds provided credit and managed financial transactions, supporting the economic activities of traders and artisans.

2. Trade and Commerce

a. Internal Trade:

- Local and Regional Trade: Internal trade connected villages, towns, and cities. Local markets facilitated the exchange of agricultural products, craft goods, and everyday items. Regional trade routes linked urban centers, promoting economic integration.
- Guilds and Merchant Associations: Guilds (shrenis) and merchant associations regulated trade practices, set quality standards, and resolved disputes. They played a vital role in organizing trade and ensuring the smooth functioning of markets.

b. Long-Distance Trade:

- Overland Routes: Overland trade routes connected India with Central Asia, China, and the Middle East. These routes facilitated the exchange of luxury goods such as silk, spices, and precious stones.
- Maritime Trade: The Indian Ocean trade network was crucial for long-distance commerce. Indian ports, including Tamralipti, Sopara, Kollam, and Calicut, served as gateways for maritime trade with Southeast Asia, the Arabian Peninsula, and East Africa.
- Caravan Trade: Caravans transported goods across land routes, linking major urban centers with remote regions. Caravanserais provided lodging and support for traders along these routes.

c. Major Trade Goods:

- **Textiles**: Indian textiles, including cotton, silk, and woolen fabrics, were highly sought after in domestic and international markets. Regions like Gujarat and Bengal were renowned for their textile production.
- **Spices and Aromatics**: Spices such as pepper, cardamom, and cloves were major export commodities. Indian spices were in high demand in the Middle East and Europe, driving a significant portion of India's maritime trade.
- **Metals and Precious Stones**: India exported precious stones, pearls, and metals such as gold, silver, and copper. These goods were integral to both domestic ornamentation and international trade.

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d. Trade Networks and Infrastructure:

- **Ports and Harbors**: Coastal cities developed as major ports with facilities for docking, loading, and storing goods. These ports facilitated the exchange of goods and supported maritime trade networks.
- Trade Routes: Key overland trade routes included the Silk Road and the Dakshinapatha, connecting India to Central Asia and the southern regions. Maritime routes linked India to the Red Sea, the Persian Gulf, and Southeast Asia.
- **Inland Transport**: Pack animals, carts, and riverboats were used for inland transportation of goods. River systems such as the Ganges and the Indus played a significant role in facilitating trade within the subcontinent.

3. Social and Cultural Impact of Urbanization and Trade

a. Urban Society:

- **Diverse Population**: Urban centers attracted a diverse population, including merchants, artisans, scholars, and religious practitioners. This diversity contributed to the cosmopolitan nature of cities and the exchange of cultural ideas.
- Social Mobility: Trade and commerce offered opportunities for social mobility.
 Successful merchants and traders could attain wealth and status, often becoming influential members of urban society.
- **Guilds and Community Life**: Guilds played a crucial role in organizing urban life. They provided social support, regulated trade practices, and facilitated community activities, contributing to the cohesiveness of urban communities.

b. Cultural Exchange:

- Art and Architecture: Urban centers became centers of cultural patronage, leading to the development of art and architecture. Temples, palaces, and public buildings reflected the artistic and architectural achievements of the period.
- Literature and Education: Cities supported educational institutions such as Gurukulas and Madrasas. Urban centers also facilitated the exchange of literary and scholarly ideas, contributing to the rich intellectual life of the period.
- **Religious Influence**: The presence of diverse religious communities in urban centers led to the exchange of religious ideas and practices. Cities often hosted religious festivals, debates, and cultural events.

c. Economic Prosperity:

- Wealth Accumulation: Urban centers facilitated the accumulation of wealth through trade and commerce. This wealth supported the development of infrastructure, cultural activities, and social institutions.
- **Investment in Public Works**: Prosperous merchants and local elites often invested in public works, including the construction of temples, markets, and roads, enhancing the urban environment and supporting economic activities.

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d. Challenges and Adaptations:

- **Urban Management**: The growth of urban centers posed challenges in terms of governance, sanitation, and public order. Local administrations and merchant guilds often played a role in managing these challenges.
- **Trade Competition**: Competition between different urban centers and trade guilds sometimes led to conflicts and economic rivalries. Trade regulations and agreements were established to manage these conflicts and ensure fair practices.

