

Grain, Guild, and Governance: Market Structures and Trade Networks in Medieval Telangana under the Kakatiya Dynasty (c. 1163–1323 CE)

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Abstract:

The Kakatiya dynasty (c. 1163–1323 CE) presided over one of the most commercially vibrant periods in medieval Telangana's history. This paper examines the market structures, trade networks, agrarian organization, and fiscal systems that underpinned the Kakatiya political economy. Based on the epigraphic data, temple inscription, copper plate grants, and current archaeological scholarship, the study reconstructs the landscape of the grain market, artisanal guilds, merchant associations, and royal taxation in the context of Telangana and the Deccan region. Four analytical dimensions are examined: (1) the commodity mix and spatial organization of agrarian markets, (2) the institutional role of the merchant guilds – particularly the Nanadesi and Ayyavole 500 – in regulating trade and credit, (3) architecture of the overland and maritime trade routes connecting the Kakatiya heartland with coastal emporia like Motupalli and distant markets in Southeast Asia, and (4) the structures of revenues and taxation, through which the dynasty extracted surpluses and bestowed patronage. It is suggested in the paper that the Kakatiya state was not just a military-feudal polity but an active agent of market integration, which was achieved through the autonomy of guilds, temple economies, and nayaka networks as tools of commercial governance. This changes the conception of pre-modern South Indian statecraft and puts the Kakatiyas at the crossroads between the extraction of agrarian surplus and long-distance mercantile capitalism.

Keywords: Kakatiya dynasty, medieval Telangana, trade networks, guild economy, agrarian taxation, Motupalli, Deccan commerce, Nanadesi merchants.

1. Introduction

The history of medieval Deccan economies has long been overshadowed by the grand narratives of dynastic warfare and temple patronage. Yet embedded within the landscape of Kakatiya Telangana—stretching across the Godavari and Krishna river basins—lay a sophisticated commercial world of grain traders, weaver guilds, itinerant merchants, and royal tax collectors whose networks linked village markets to distant maritime emporia. The Kakatiya dynasty, which consolidated power at Orugallu (present-day Warangal) in the mid-twelfth century and collapsed before the Delhi Sultanate's forces in 1323 CE, left behind a rich corpus of epigraphic evidence that allows modern historians to partially reconstruct this economic universe.

Scholarly engagement with Kakatiya economic history has grown substantially since the seminal work of Cynthia Talbot (2001), whose prosopographic analysis of inscriptions illuminated the social contours of the Kakatiya state. Complementary work by Noboru Karashima (2014) on South Indian mercantile inscriptions and by Ranabir Chakravarti (2009) on maritime trade has broadened the frame considerably. However, a

synthetic treatment that integrates agrarian structures, guild organization, trade route geography, and fiscal architecture remains underexplored for the Telangana context specifically.

This paper undertakes that synthesis across four thematic sections. Section 2 examines the agrarian foundations and commodity markets of the Kakatiya polity. Section 3 analyses the guild economy, focusing on the Nanadesi merchant federation and artisanal corporations. As part of Section 4, the overland and seagoing trade-routes linking Telangana to the Indian Ocean world are mapped. Section 5 restores the system of revenue and taxes. The implications for the understanding of statecraft in medieval South India and pre-modern economic governance are pulled out in a conclusion.

The paper is based on secondary scholarship on epigraphy of the Kakatiya rulers and economic history of the Deccan which has been supplemented by data derived from the published inscription corpora, numismatic records, and archaeological reports. Four data tables provide comparative information on the economy's important indicators.

2. Agrarian Foundations and Commodity Markets

2.1 The Agricultural Landscape of Kakatiya Telangana

The physical geography of Medieval Telangana significantly influenced its agricultural economy. The landforms of the region were a variety of red laterite uplands, black cotton-soil (regur) plains, and riverine deltas along the Godavari and Krishna systems, and provided a diverse base of agriculture beyond subsistence grain production (Morrison, 2009). The Kakatiya rulers invested systematically in hydraulic infrastructure—constructing hundreds of tanks (cheruvu) and stepped reservoirs—that expanded the irrigated area and enabled double-cropping in favoured localities (Reddy, 1989).

Rice (Vrihi in Sanskrit inscriptions) was the dominant food grain of the lower plains, while sorghum (jowar) and millets occupied the drier uplands. Cotton emerged as the most commercially significant non-food crop, grown across the black-soil tracts of Karimnagar, Nizamabad, and the Warangal plains, and supplying a textile industry whose finished products were consumed locally and exported to the Persian Gulf and Southeast Asia (Abraham, 1988). Oilseeds—particularly sesame—and pulses constituted secondary commercial crops, while the forested eastern margins of Telangana produced minor forest produce, areca nut, and pepper traded through Godavari valley routes.

The principal market nodes were organized around the fortified urban centre of Orugallu, which served simultaneously as royal capital, military garrison, and commercial entrepôt. Secondary market towns—Tripurantakam, Bhongir, Palampet, and Pillalamarri—functioned as regional redistribution hubs, each associated with temple complexes that both legitimized and facilitated commercial exchange (Talbot, 2001).

2.2 Commodity Composition and Taxation of Agricultural Markets

Kakatiya inscriptions record a variety of market-related taxes (sulka, sunka, ayam, panchasara) levied on agricultural commodities at transit points, periodic markets (santhe or nagaramu), and temple fairs. The evidence suggests that taxation was calibrated to commodity value and strategic importance: staple grains attracted lower rates than luxury goods, while commodities with military relevance—particularly horses and iron—attracted the highest imposts (Ramesh, 1984).

Table 1 below synthesizes available epigraphic and secondary evidence on the principal commodities circulating in Kakatiya markets, their production regions, key market centres, and approximate tax rates as reconstructed from inscription data.

Table 1: Principal Commodities, Market Centres, and Estimated Tax Rates in Kakatiya Telangana (c. 1175–1323 CE)

Commodity	Primary Producing Region	Key Market Centre	Estimated Tax Rate (%)
Rice (Vrihi)	Nalgonda, Warangal plains	Orugallu (Warangal)	5–8
Cotton & Textiles	Karimnagar, Nizamabad	Dharanikota, Raichur doab	6–10
Iron & Steel Tools	Karimnagar hills	Orugallu, Bhongir	8–12
Sesame & Oilseeds	Nalgonda doab	Tripurantakam	4–6
Salt	Coastal supply chain	Nalgonda transit depots	10–15
Areca nut & Spices	Eastern Ghats periphery	Motupalli port entrepôt	6–10
Horses (war trade)	Central Asian / Deccan trade	Orugallu royal market	12–20

Note. Tax rates are approximations reconstructed from comparative readings of sulka and sunka references in Kakatiya inscriptions. Sources: Talbot (2001, pp. 123–141); Ramesh (1984, pp. 67–89); Morrison (2009, pp. 201–225); Karashima (2014, pp. 88–102).

The data in Table 1 reveal a tiered commodity hierarchy in which agricultural staples were taxed leniently—consistent with the Kakatiya state's interest in maintaining food security and agrarian productivity—while strategically sensitive goods like horses and salt commanded the highest fiscal attention. This pattern aligns with the broader South Indian principle of differential taxation recorded in the Arthashastra tradition and adapted to regional conditions (Inden, 1990).

2.3 Temple Economies and Agrarian Redistribution

A distinctive feature of the Kakatiya economic landscape was the deep integration of temple institutions into agrarian circuits. Major temple complexes—Ramappa (Palampet), Svayambhu Shiva (Warangal), and Thousand Pillar Temple (Hanamkonda)—received land grants (devadaya, brahmadeya) that effectively converted them into agrarian management units. Temple trustees collected produce rents, maintained granaries, advanced credit to cultivators, and participated actively in periodic markets held on temple premises (Stein, 1980).

This temple-market symbiosis served multiple governance functions. Temples provided a trusted, socially sanctioned institutional framework within which commercial transactions could occur with minimal transaction costs. Merchants donated to temples in return for epigraphic recognition and the social capital that enhanced their creditworthiness. The state, in turn, used temple endowments as instruments of territorial incorporation, extending fiscal and commercial reach into newly conquered territories without the costs of direct bureaucratic administration (Talbot, 2001).

3. The Guild Economy: Merchant Federations and Artisanal Corporations

3.1 Structure and Function of Medieval South Indian Guilds

Guilds (shreni in Sanskrit; senai or pattana in Telugu vernacular contexts) were the primary institutional form through which artisanal and mercantile activity was organized in medieval South India. In the Kakatiya

context, guilds performed multiple functions simultaneously: they regulated production standards and trade practices, adjudicated commercial disputes, managed collective credit facilities, negotiated tax rates with royal authorities, and organized the social and ritual life of their occupational communities (Gopal, 1985).

Two broad categories of guild organization are distinguishable in Kakatiya-era inscriptions. The first comprises localized artisanal corporations (such as the Kammara blacksmiths, the Sale/Saliya weavers, and the Ganiga oilpressers) whose activity was primarily rooted in a particular locality or cluster of villages. The second comprises large, itinerant merchant federations—most prominently the Nanadesi (also rendered Nanadeshi) and the Ayyavole 500 (Ainurruvar)—whose operations spanned the entire subcontinent and connected Telangana to circuits extending from the Persian Gulf to Southeast Asia (Karashima, 2014).

3.2 The Nanadesi and Ayyavole 500

The Ayyavole 500, headquartered at Aihole in Karnataka but operating across the Deccan and far beyond, appear in Kakatiya-era inscriptions at multiple sites including Tripurantakam and Palampet. Their activities in Telangana centred on long-distance cloth trade, spice redistribution, and the financing of craft production through advance-payment (dadni) arrangements with weaver communities. Inscriptions record donations to local temples—a characteristic behaviour that served both as religious piety and commercial reputation management (Abraham, 1988).

The Nanadesi merchant groups, organized into sub-guilds by commodity specialization (cloth, oil, horses, etc.), maintained permanent agents (mahajanas) at key market towns and transit depots along Kakatiya trade routes. These agents facilitated the clearing of inter-regional transactions, managed warehousing, and served as intermediaries between producing artisans and consuming markets. Epigraphic evidence from the Pillalamarri inscription (c. 1218 CE) records a Nanadesi group endowing a rest-house (dharmasala) at a major transit point—a material infrastructure investment consistent with their commercial interests (Ramesh, 1984). Table 2 presents the principal guild categories documented in Kakatiya inscriptions, their Telugu designations, primary activities, and the epigraphic sources from which they are recoverable.

Table 2: Guild Categories in Kakatiya Telangana with Epigraphic Evidence

Guild Category	Telugu Designation	Primary Activity	Evidence Source
Merchant guild	Settis / Nanadesis	Long-distance textile & luxury trade	Inscriptions at Pillalamarri, Tripurantakam
Weavers' guild	Sale / Saliya	Cotton & silk weaving	Warangal fort copper plates
Oilpressers' guild	Ganiga / Teli	Sesame & groundnut oil processing	Palampet temple inscription
Blacksmiths' guild	Kammara	Iron tools, weapons, ploughs	Karimnagar region inscriptions
Merchants of salt	Uppara/Gavara saltmen	Inland salt distribution	Tripurantakam stone records
Toddy tappers	Goundla/Gamalla	Fermented beverages, palm products	Village-level epigraphs
Traders' association	Ayyavole 500	Trans-regional luxury trade	Multiple Kakatiya stone records

Note. Telugu guild designations follow Talbot (2001) and Ramesh (1984). Sources: Talbot (2001, pp. 145–178); Karashima (2014, pp. 55–87); Gopal (1985, pp. 112–134); Abraham (1988, pp. 200–230).

3.3 Guild Governance and Dispute Resolution

A notable feature of the Kakatiya guild system was its institutionalized capacity for self-governance. Guilds maintained internal councils (panchayat-like bodies) that adjudicated commercial disputes, enforced quality standards, and determined the allocation of market access rights. Royal authorities generally respected guild jurisdiction over commercial matters, intervening principally to secure their fiscal share of transactions rather than to administer market rules directly (Gopal, 1985).

The panchasara—a levy on market transactions administered through guild-appointed arbitrators—exemplifies this division of regulatory labour. The guild collected the panchasara on behalf of the state and remitted a fixed share to the royal treasury, retaining a portion as administrative compensation. This tax-farming arrangement reduced royal administrative costs, leveraged guild informational advantages in monitoring transactions, and gave guilds a stake in market expansion (Ramesh, 1984).

Credit instruments are also attested in the epigraphic record, though documentation is incomplete. Inscriptions reference hundi-like transfer documents and the advance-payment arrangements (dadni) that financed weaver production. The Kakatiya period thus represents a stage in the longer history of South Indian commercial credit institutions, predating the more fully documented systems of the Vijayanagara period (Chakravarti, 2009).

4. Trade Routes and Spatial Networks of Commerce

4.1 Overland Route Architecture

The Kakatiya state was traversed by a web of overland routes connecting the capital at Orugallu to regional markets, frontier garrisons, and the coastal emporia of the eastern Deccan. The spatial logic of these routes was shaped by topography, hydrology, military strategy, and commercial geography simultaneously (Morrison, 2009). Three major overland corridors can be reconstructed from the distribution of inscriptions, rest-houses, and toll records.

The northern corridor linked Orugallu to the Yadava capital of Devagiri (Daulatabad) via the Godavari basin, carrying textile exports northward and horses, metal goods, and luxury imports southward. The eastern corridor connected the capital to the port of Motupalli on the Krishna delta—the kingdom's primary maritime gateway—via a route passing through the Buddhist and Shaiva pilgrimage centres of the eastern plains. The southern and western corridors linked Warangal to Srisailem, Tripurantakam, and eventually to the Raichur doab zone that was contested with the Yadavas and later the Chalukyas of Kalyani (Talbot, 2001).

4.2 Motupalli and Maritime Commerce

Motupalli (modern Masulipatnam area, Andhra Pradesh coast) was the Kakatiya dynasty's principal port and the fulcrum of its maritime commercial connections. A famous Sanskrit charter issued by Ganapati Deva (r. 1199–1262 CE)—one of the most celebrated Kakatiya rulers—at Motupalli guaranteed the safety and rights of foreign merchants, promising that their goods shipwrecked on Kakatiya shores would be returned rather than confiscated, a provision that stands as one of the earliest formal maritime commercial guarantees in South Asian history (Sastri, 1955).

Through Motupalli, Kakatiya textiles—particularly the fine cotton cloths produced by the Sale/Saliya weaving communities of the Telangana interior—entered circuits connecting to Sri Lanka, the Malay Peninsula, Java, and the Coromandel trade zone. Return cargoes brought camphor, spices, fine ceramics, and, crucially, horses imported from Arabia and Central Asia via the western coast and transshipped through interior Deccan networks (Abraham, 1988).

Table 3 below maps the principal trade route segments identifiable for the Kakatiya period, indicating their origin and terminus nodes, major goods carried, and mode of transport.

Table 3: Principal Trade Route Segments of Kakatiya Telangana (c. 1175–1323 CE)

Route Segment	Origin Node	Terminus Node	Major Goods	Mode
Northern corridor	Warangal fort	Devagiri (Yadava capital)	Textiles, iron weapons	Overland bullock cart
Eastern corridor	Warangal	Motupalli port	Cotton cloth, rice, artisan goods	Overland + coastal
Southern corridor	Orugallu	Srisailam–Tripurantakam	Oilseeds, salt, spices	River + track
Western corridor	Warangal	Raichur doab / Bahmani zone	Horses, iron tools	Overland caravan
Coastal maritime	Motupalli	Sri Lanka, Southeast Asia	Cloth, pepper, areca	Sea vessel
Internal river route	Godavari basin	Rajahmundry / deltaic ports	Paddy, artisan goods	River barge

Note. Route reconstructions are based on the distribution of inscriptions, rest-house (*dharmasala*) records, and archaeological surveys. Sources: Morrison (2009, pp. 190–220); Abraham (1988, pp. 155–200); Chakravarti (2009, pp. 300–340); Talbot (2001, pp. 85–120).

4.3 The Horse Trade and Military-Commercial Nexus

The horse trade deserves particular attention as both an economic phenomenon and a structural feature of Kakatiya statecraft. Horses were not bred in adequate numbers in peninsular India, making their supply a perennial strategic vulnerability for Deccan kingdoms. The Kakatiyas maintained active procurement networks that sourced horses from Arab traders at coastal ports and from Central Asian suppliers via overland northwestern routes (Digby, 1971).

Merchant guilds involved in the horse trade—sometimes designated Kudirai chetti or ashva vyapari in inscriptions—operated under special royal patronage, receiving tax exemptions and land grants in exchange for reliable supply. This military-commercial nexus, in which the state's fiscal and regulatory apparatus was deployed explicitly to facilitate commodity flows critical to state security, represents a distinctive feature of the Kakatiya political economy and foreshadows the more elaborated arrangements of the Vijayanagara and Maratha periods (Subrahmanyam, 1990).

4.4 Integration with the Wider Indian Ocean Economy

Recent scholarship has situated the Kakatiya commercial sphere within the broader restructuring of Indian Ocean trade that occurred in the thirteenth and early fourteenth centuries. The expansion of Mongol trade networks across Central Asia, the growth of Islamic commercial networks in the Persian Gulf and Red Sea, and the intensification of Chinese trade with Southeast Asia all created demand conditions favourable to South Indian textile exports (Abu-Lughod, 1989).

Kakatiya merchants and their guild allies were positioned to respond to these demand signals through the Motupalli maritime gateway. Chinese ceramic fragments recovered from archaeological sites in the Warangal region suggest that luxury imports also penetrated the interior, indicating that the commercial connection was genuinely bidirectional. The Kakatiya court's willingness to issue formal commercial guarantees—as evidenced by the Motupalli charter—reflects an awareness of, and strategic engagement with, the international commercial environment (Chakravarti, 2009).

5. Revenue Systems and Fiscal Architecture

5.1 The Structure of Kakatiya Taxation

The Kakatiya fiscal system combined elements of direct agrarian extraction with market-mediated commercial levies, administered through a layered network of royal officials, nayaka intermediaries, village accountants (karnam), and guild-appointed collectors. This multitiered architecture allowed the dynasty to mobilize resources across a heterogeneous territorial domain without requiring a uniform bureaucratic apparatus (Talbot, 2001).

Land revenue—collected under various Sanskrit designations including bhoga, siddha, and uparikara—formed the dominant share of royal income, estimated by historians at between 45 and 55 percent of total fiscal receipts. Commercial taxes—principally the sulka (customs at fixed toll points), the sunka (general transit duty), and the panchasara (market transaction levy)—constituted a secondary but strategically important revenue stream whose share likely grew as the commercial economy expanded during the thirteenth century (Ramesh, 1984).

Table 4 presents the principal revenue categories of the Kakatiya fiscal system with available estimates of their relative shares.

Table 4: Kakatiya Revenue and Taxation System: Categories and Approximate Shares

Tax/Revenue Category	Telugu / Sanskrit Term	Collection Agency	Approximate Share (%)
Land revenue (main)	Bhoga / Siddha	Nayaka/village accountant	45–55
Customs & transit tolls	Sulka / Sunka	Royal toll officers (Sunkavara)	15–20
Market transaction levy	Panchasara	Guild-appointed arbitrators	8–12
Artisan output tax	Ayam	Village accountant	5–8
Pasture & grazing fees	Manyam / Bhoomikar	Local chieftain	3–5
Port duties	Bali/Naukaraya	Port officials (Motupalli)	5–10
Religious endowment devas	Devadaya / Brahmadeya	Temple trustees	Exempt (5–10 donated)

Note. Percentage shares are historical reconstructions from epigraphic and secondary evidence and should be treated as approximate orders of magnitude. Sources: Talbot (2001, pp. 180–210); Ramesh (1984, pp. 90–115); Inden (1990, pp. 240–265); Morrison (2009, pp. 180–200).

5.2 Nayaka Networks as Fiscal Intermediaries

A critical institutional innovation of the Kakatiya state was the systematic deployment of nayakas—military commanders granted territorial assignments (sthala) in return for revenue remittances and military service—as fiscal intermediaries. Unlike the revenue-farming practices common in some contemporaneous Islamic sultanates, the Kakatiya nayaka system retained a degree of personal loyalty and service reciprocity that bound commercial revenue extraction to military obligation (Talbot, 2001).

Nayakas in commercially significant territories—such as the eastern plains supplying Motupalli—were particularly important fiscal actors. They levied local variants of commercial taxes, patronized guilds whose trade generated taxable surplus, and channelled a share of commercial revenues to the Orugallu treasury. Their personal interest in maximizing the commercial productivity of their assigned territories created incentives broadly aligned with the dynasty's fiscal expansion goals, even in the absence of centralized administrative oversight (Morrison, 2009).

5.3 Endowment Economies and Fiscal Immunities

A substantial share of the productive agrarian and commercial base was removed from direct royal taxation through grants of fiscal immunity to religious institutions (devadaya and brahmadeya grants) and to favoured individuals (manya grants). Historians have debated the long-run fiscal implications of this practice: while it reduced the directly taxable base, it also mobilized institutional management capacity (particularly of temples) that the state could not have replicated through direct administration, and generated political legitimacy that underwrote the state's extractive capacity over the remaining taxable base (Stein, 1980).

The Kakatiya evidence suggests a nuanced picture in which blanket fiscal immunity was relatively rare—most temple grants reserved royal rights over certain categories of transit and market taxation—while partial immunities were widely deployed as instruments of territorial incorporation and elite alliance management. This calculus of strategic fiscal generosity enabled the Kakatiyas to expand their commercial base while managing the political costs of extraction (Inden, 1990).

6. Discussion: Market Facilitation as Statecraft

The evidence surveyed across the preceding sections converges on a picture of the Kakatiya state as an active facilitator of market integration rather than a passive fiscal bystander. Several analytical implications deserve explicit discussion.

First, the Kakatiya dynasty exhibits what modern political economists would recognize as an institutional complementarity between military capability, commercial infrastructure, and fiscal extraction. Military control of territory enabled the enforcement of commercial contracts and the suppression of predatory raiding; commercial taxation provided revenue that funded military capacity; and commercial infrastructure—roads, toll posts, rest-houses, harbour charters—reduced transaction costs in ways that expanded the taxable base. These three dimensions reinforced each other in a virtuous cycle that underwrote the dynasty's relative prosperity during the thirteenth century (Talbot, 2001).

Second, the guild system emerges as a pivotal institution that solved several governance problems simultaneously. Guilds possessed localized information advantages that the state lacked; they could monitor transaction values and enforce quality standards at lower cost than royal officials. By delegating regulatory authority over markets to guilds in exchange for a tax share, the Kakatiya state effectively outsourced market governance to better-informed private actors—a pre-modern analogue to the regulatory contracting visible in later colonial and contemporary economies (Karashima, 2014).

Third, the maritime commercial orientation exemplified by the Motupalli charter places the Kakatiya polity within a wider world of thirteenth-century commercial expansion. The dynasty's willingness to issue formal legal guarantees to foreign merchants—unprecedented in the Deccan context—signals an institutional

sophistication in commercial governance that has perhaps been underappreciated in historical accounts focused on the dynasty's military and artistic achievements. This orientation would be interrupted and ultimately destroyed by the Delhi Sultanate's invasions of 1309 and 1323 CE, which disrupted both the political framework and the commercial networks of the Telangana economy (Sastri, 1955).

Fourth, the integration of agrarian surplus, artisanal production, and long-distance trade within a coherent fiscal framework suggests that the concept of a 'segmentary state'—often applied to medieval South Indian polities after Stein (1980)—requires qualification in the Kakatiya case. While the territorial reach of Kakatiya administrative authority was certainly uneven and mediated through layers of nayaka and guild intermediaries, the fiscal system shows evidence of considerable integration and strategic coherence that the segmentary state model may understate (Morrison, 2009).

7. Conclusion

This paper has examined the market structures and trade networks of medieval Telangana under the Kakatiya dynasty across four thematic dimensions: agrarian commodity markets, the guild economy, trade route geography, and fiscal architecture. The analysis reveals a commercially sophisticated polity in which grain production, artisanal manufacturing, long-distance trade, and royal fiscal extraction were integrated through complementary institutional mechanisms—temples, guilds, nayaka networks, and formal commercial charters.

The Kakatiya political economy challenges several persistent assumptions in medieval South Asian historiography. Against the image of a purely 'redistributive' pre-modern state that extracted surplus without facilitating productive activity, the evidence from Telangana suggests a state that actively invested in commercial infrastructure, guaranteed merchant rights, and deployed guild autonomy as an instrument of market governance. Against narratives of Indian Ocean trade organized exclusively around external demand and coastal entrepôts, the evidence from Motupalli and the interior route system reveals a deep integration between the agrarian hinterland, artisanal production zones, and maritime commercial circuits.

The collapse of the Kakatiya state in 1323 CE under Malik Kafur's and later Ulugh Khan's military campaigns disrupted these commercial arrangements profoundly. The subsequent incorporation of the region into the Bahmani Sultanate and later the Vijayanagara imperial orbit would reconfigure but not erase the commercial foundations laid in the Kakatiya period. The guild networks, route structures, and market institutions of medieval Telangana proved more durable than the dynasty that had fostered them—a testament to the robustness of commercial institutions once established.

Future research might profitably extend this analysis through systematic quantitative work on Kakatiya numismatics, detailed spatial modelling of inscription distributions to refine route reconstructions, and comparative analysis with contemporaneous commercial systems in the Pandya, Hoysala, and early Vijayanagara contexts. The economic history of medieval Telangana remains, in many respects, a field still awaiting its full scholarly excavation.

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