Antiquities of Chamba State

PARTI

INSCRIPTIONS OF THE PRE-MUHAMMADAN PERIOD



J. Ph. VOGEL, Ph.D.

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BY

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PART I

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TO HIS HIGHNESS RAJA SIR BHURI SINGH, K.C.S.L., C.I.E. CHIEF OF CHAMBA.

THIS EDITION OF THE EARLY RECORDS

OF HIS HOUSE AND STATE

IS RESPECTFULLY INSCRIBED

AS A TOKEN OF FRIENDSHIP AND GRATITUDE

BY THE AUTHOR

PREFACE.

WHEN in the spring of 1902 my friend Mr. T. W. Arnold, then Professor of the Government College at Lahore, first drew my attention to Chambā as a possible field of antiquarian research, I little foresaw what a wealth of epigraphical records this petty Hill State would prove to contain. Sir A. Cunningham had visited Chambā in 1839 and devoted to it a few pages in two of his well-known volumes. In these he discussed the inscribed images of Meru-varman and the chief temples of the capital, gave a list of the Rājās and mentioned the existence at Chambā town of four inscriptions, three on copper-plates and one on a stone slab. Here, as elsewhere, the great pioneer of Indian archæology only demarcated the field, leaving to others its further exploration.

During the years 1902-1908 I have been able to devote part of the summer months to this pleasant task, and in the course of my tours have succeeded in recovering one hundred and thirty inscriptions. This result I attribute mainly to the vigorous support which from the outset my researches received from His Highness, Sir Bhuri Singh, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., Raja of Chambā, to whom, with the consent of the Government of India, this work is dedicated. The discovery of many an unknown inscription is due to the information supplied by the officials acting under his orders; and I may mention here, that His Highness has further shown his interest in the antiquities and past records of his State by founding a local Museum, which was opened on the 14th September, 1908, and has been rightly named after him.

The importance of these inscriptions for local history, it is hardly necessary to emphasize. They do not, it is true, help us to solve any of the great problems of Indian history, but they enable us to write a more detailed and more coherent story of Chambā than of any of the other Himalayan States, excluding Kaśmīr and Nepāl.

These records, moreover, throw side-lights on the history of neighbouring territories where ancient documents are less numerous and every scrap of information is of value. Even in places where historical documents do exist, their contents can often be supplemented from the Chambā inscriptions. This is particularly the case in Kaśmīr—the only country in India of which we possess a written history of the Hindu period. The famous Rājataraṅgiṇī is replete with information about the 11th and 12th centuries, the same epoch to which the bulk of the Chambā inscriptions belongs. Thus it happens that Kalhaṇa's chronicle imparts life to the stone slabs and metal plates of Chambā, whilst these contemporary documents, in their turn, confirm the trustworthiness of the great chronicler of Kaśmīr. Indeed, the excellent annotated edition of the Rājataraṅginī, both in Sanskrit and English, by Dr. M. A Stein, C.I.E., has been one of my chief guides in the course of my researches, and it has been no small satisfaction to me to continue in Chambā the work so splendidly inaugurated in Kaśmīr by that distinguished scholar.

There is one circumstance which lends to the antiquities of Chambā an interest far exceeding the narrow limits of local history. It is that the past to which they belong, is connected with the present by a tissue of unbroken threads. Whereas in

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other and more exposed parts of India one dynasty was quickly ousted by another, new creeds and customs came to supplant the old ones, and successive waves of foreign invasion swept away all remembrance of the past, Chambā, engirdled by her snow-clad mountain-barriers, has, century after century, retained ancient traditions and institutions, which are only now gradually giving way to the irresistible onslaught of Western civilization.

The antiquarian can hardly refrain from deploring this change which, though beneficial in many respects, so often tends to destroy that what is sanctified by the ages. But instead of lamenting the unavoidable changes of time, he will do well in retaining at least a record of the vanishing past.

Chambā is still ruled by a descendant of the noble house whose scions fought in the civil wars of Kaśmīr side by side with Harsa and Sussala. He still resides in the same "glorious Champā" whence his ancestors issued their copper charters, and where his subjects still hail him with the classical greeting "Jai Deo!" Up to the present day the people of Chambā worship in the temples founded by Sāhillavarman in the 10th century, and at Brahmor, the ancient capital Brahmapura, the silent brazen idols are still enshrined in their wonderful wood-carved fanes in which Meru-varman piously placed them twelve centuries ago. The Rāṇās—those "barons of the Hills," whose former importance was first revealed by the eulogies of Baijnāth, are still met with in Chambā, often, it is true, reduced to the state of poor peasants, but still clinging to their ancient title and to the ruins of their ancestral castles. The traveller too in the valleys of Chambā is still received after his day's march by an official whose title and presumably whose duties also have remained unchanged through the lapse of ages, though they have passed into oblivion in every other part of India.

There are among our inscriptions some which are distinguished by no small degree of literary ability such as the eulogies of Sarāhan, Dēvī-rī-kōthī and Mūl-Kihār. But it must be admitted that the great majority do not attain a high standard of scholarship, and we shall not be far wrong in assuming that, whatever erudition they display, was borrowed from the neighbouring seat of Sanskrit learning in Kaśmīr. The skilful poet of the Eaijnāth eulogy calls himself the son of a judge (pramātar) from that country, and it was perhaps the civil wars of Kalhana's days which compelled many a pandit to seek refuge with the rulers of the adjoining Hill States.

Though inferior in literary interest, the Chambā inscriptions are highly important from a palæographical point of view; for they form an uninterrupted series of Śāradā records ranging from the time when this script was evolved out of the Western Gupta alphabet down to the Muhammadan period, when it developed into Gurmukhī, Tākarī, and other modern writings. In the course of the present work I shall endeavour to show that Śāradā was once extensively used both in the Plains and the Hills of the Panjāb, and that, though this character was remarkably conservative, its forms were by no means so immutable as the best authorities on Indian palæography have supposed. The Chambā records display a slow, but distinct development, and I feel confident that they will supply a reliable base for establishing the approximate date for any document written in this script.

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It is true that the chronology of the Chamba epigraphs is attended with very great difficulty owing to the almost exclusive use of the Lokakala era. I have discussed the various thorny questions bearing on this subject in a special chapter of my introduction, but offer my conclusions with great diffidence, except where they could be checked by so good an authority as the late Professor F. Kielhorn. His assistance—welcome always both for its own sake as for the kindness with which it was offered—I wish here gratefully to acknowledge.

Although in several cases I have not succeeded in fixing the precise date of the inscriptions here edited, it has nearly always been possible to arrive at approximate dates and to establish the order in which they succeed each other. In this I have derived great benefit from the Chambā Vainsāvalī or Genealogical Roll which His Highness has allowed me to edit in the present volume. This roll furnishes us with a fairly complete list of the rulers of Chambā from about A.D. 700 and its historical accuracy can be checked by the aid of the inscriptions. There is, therefore, much reason to assume that the ruling family of Chambā has indeed held sway in the Rāvī valley for more than twelve centuries and may boast of an antiquity equalled by few reigning houses in India and none in Eu pe.1

A few words must be added on the subject of transliteration. Each system has its defects and the use of discritical marks gives transcribed texts per se an unpleasant look of artificiality and clumsiness. Whereas the advocates of one system reproach their opponents with the use of such "monstra" as Krena, the latter may as rightly object to ungainly forms like Lichchhavi. I have, therefore, chosen to reproduce the texts in Nāgarī, which is preferred to transcripts in Roman by most European and all Indian Sanskritists. These texts, thus made accessible to indigenous scholars, will, it is hoped, stimulate their interest in the history of their own country.

In the introductory portions, where transliteration was unavoidable, I have followed the international system adopted by the Oriental Congress and by most Oriental Societies. At the time when the present work was written, this system was still followed in publications of the Archæological Survey, though recently it has been replaced by the Anglo-Indian system. Only in the name Chambā I have retained the usual spelling; in all other Indian words the c represents the non-aspirated hard palatal and the ch the aspirata.

In conclusion, I wish to give expression to my sincere gratitude for the manifold assistance received both in the discovery and in the study of the inscriptions of Chambā. The names of those to whom my thanks are due will be found mentioned in their proper places. Here I wish first of all to give expression to my gratitude for the cordial support which this publication has received throughout from Mr. J. H. Marshall, C.I.E., Director General of Archæology in India. Particularly, I am indebted to Dr. J. Hutchison of the Church of Scotland Mission, who himself a resident of Chambā for the last thirty years, has ever been ready to supplement the evidence of the ancient records by his extensive knowledge of local customs, traditions

The oldest reigning houses of Germany can trace their ancestry to the beginning of the 10th century of our era, such as that of Wittelsbach in Bavaria, that of Brabant in Hesse, and that of Wettin in Saxony. This does not, however, mean that from that date they have been the ruling dynasties of these countries.

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and history. He has, moreover, rendered me a great service in reading through both the manuscript and the proofs of the present work. For the Tibetan inscriptions included in this work I was able to depend on so good an authority as the Rev. A. H. Francke of the Moravian Mission.

I have much pleasure also in recording the great help which has been rendered to me by Pandit Thakur Das of Chambā whose services His Highness has kindly placed at my disposal whenever I visited his State. The Pandit's local knowledge, modesty and love for his native hills made him an ever-interesting and pleasant companion on my tours. He is one of the very few representatives of traditional Sanskrit learning in Chambā; yet the study of the śāstras has by no means closed his eye to the interests of "the World of the living." To the Pandits Daya Ram Sahni and Hirananda of the Archæological Department I owe some clever conjectures and useful references. Pandit Daya Ram has also assisted me in the tedious task of correcting the Vamśāvalī and in revising the proofs.

Nor must I omit to mention the name of my photographer, Munshi Ghulam Nabi, who has accompanied me on many a hard march along the mountain roads of Chambā. He has taken all the photographs used to illustrate the present volume and prepared the estampages of the inscriptions here reproduced. The illustrations will testify to the quality of his work. The reproduction was entrusted to Messrs. W. Griggs & Sons, Peckham, London, and carried out with the care for which their establishment is rightly renowned.

The labour, both physical and mental, bestowed on collecting and deciphering these epigraphs, has been great. But "the labour we delight in physics pain." And truly delightful has been the task of revealing the antiquarian treasures hidden in that glorious mountain region which a popular adage so rightly describes as Chambā achambā "Chambā the Charming."

J. PH. VOGEL.

Lahore;
The 1st April 1910.

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ABBREVIATIONS.

A. S. R				Archæological Survey Report.
A. R. A. S.				Annual Report, Archæological Survey.
Br. S.				Brhad-samhita.
Ep. Ind.	•			Epigraphia Indica.
Ind. Ant				Indian Antiquary.
J. A. S. B		•		Journal, Asiatic Society of Bengal.
J. I. A				Journal of Indian Art and Industry.
J. R. A. S				Journal, Royal Asiatic Society.
Mark. P.				Mārkandeya-purāna.
Mrcch				Mrcchakatikā (See Śūdraka).
N. P. W.				Böhtlingk (O.), Sanskrit Wörterbuch in kürzerer Fassung.
				St. Petersburg, 1879-89.
P. W				Böhtlingk (O.) und Roth (R.), Sanskrit Wörterbuch. St.
				Petersburg, 1855-75.
Z. D. M. G.				Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft.



Fig. t. Secu Nala.

INTRODUCTION.

CHAPTER I.—ANCIENT GEOGRAPHY. (PLATES I AND V.)

ONLY three quarters of a century ago Chambā State was a terra incognita. The traveller, George Forster, who, on his journey through the Panjāb Hills by way of Nūrpur, Basōhlī and Jammū in 1783, almost skirted the western boundary of Chambā, refers to it as "the Chambay country a mountainous territory of large extent." This seems to be the first mention of the State by a European. William Moorcroft, in describing the course of the Rāvī, is more detailed. But he only reproduces native accounts which had reached him on his march through Kāṅgṛā in July 1820. Hence his information is confused and inaccurate. He notes that the Rāvī in its upper course is called Raiva. It is curious that he takes the river of Maṇimahēs and Haṛṣar—i.e., the Buḍhaļ—as the principal source. What is now considered the main river, he calls "the Siang from Bhaunso" (i.e. Bārā Bhaṇṣō). He states correctly that the two branches meet at Ulāns; but reverses the relative position of this place and Chambā. For the rest, the situation of Chambā at the junction of the Rāvī and the Sāvā or Sāl is correctly described.

¹ Journey, Vol. I, p. 234; 2nd ed., p 370.

² Travels, Vol. I, p. 196.

He then makes the Tavi a tributary of the Ravi, and the Uj a tributary of the Tavi, whereas in reality the Tavi (on which Jammu is situated) flows into the Cinab and the Uj into the Ravi. The confusion is probably due to the fact that the Tavi and the Uj take their rise from the same mountain not far from Kund Kaplas. Koth Belota, mentioned by Moorcroft as the place from which the Uj takes its origin, is probably the village Belota on the left bank of the upper Uj.

We have reason to regret that the distinguished traveller did not accept the invitation of the Rānī of Chambā¹ who was indisposed and wanted his medical advice. He was apparently deterred_by the reports² about the difficulty of the road thither, "it being necessary in many places to drag men and baggage by ropes up the scarps of the rock." Had Moorcroft personally visited Chambā, his account would no doubt have been far more accurate and detailed.

The first European who visited Chambā was Vigne.³ His itinerary, though entertaining and full of interest, does not possess the scholarly thoroughness of Moorcroft. He is less accurate in the rendering of proper names and indulges in phantastical etymologies. Vigne visited Chambā in February 1839, in the reign of Rājā Carhat Singh He came from Basōhlī and left again for Nūrpur by the Cuārī Pass. He gives a good account of the capital, but did not visit the interior of the State.

It was only after the annexation of the Panjab that Chamba became better known to Europeans, especially as the abundance of game attracted many sportsmen. The antiquarian remains of Chamba were first brought to notice by Sir Alexander Cunningham, who visited Chamba for the first time in A.D. 1839. He extended his tour to the Upper Rāvī Valley and was the first to describe the ancient capital, Brahmor, and its temples.

Chambā State' is situated in the Western Himālaya between north latitude Mountain System.

32° 11′ 30″ and 33° 13′ 6″ and east longitude 75° 49′ and 77° 3′. The superficial area of the State is 3,216 square miles. This is somewhat more than that of the Grand-duchy of Hesse (2,908) and somewhat less than that of the Principality of Montenegro (c. 3,639). But whereas the population of these two countries amounts to 1,209,175, and c. 230,000 (or 4074 and 63·3 per square mile) respectively, that of Chambā is only 127,834 or 40·9 to the square mile. The mountainous nature of the country accounts for the scantiness of the population.

Chambā is traversed by three well-defined snowy ranges which run from south-east to north-west, nearly parallel to one another and at a distance of thirty to forty miles. The outer range is the Dhaulā Dhār (Skr. * Dhavala-dhārā, "the white Crest") which for 36 miles forms the southern boundary of Chambā territory. Within the State its peaks rise to a height of 15,000 to 18,000'. Its geological

¹ The Rani in question must have been Rani Sarda, the queen-mother and regent during the minority of Raja Carbat Singh (1808-1844).

^{*} Travels, Vol. I., p. 152.

³ Travels, Vol. I., p. 150.

⁴ Conningham, A. S. R., XIV, p. 120 and Ladak, p. 77. He descended the Ravi Valley after having been engaged in a survey of Lahul and in marking the boundaries between Chambs and Kuļū.

The following sketch of the geography of Chambs I have followed the Chamba Gazetteer, pp. 1-14.

He then makes the Tavī a tributary of the Ravī, and the Uj a tributary of the Tavī, whereas in reality the Tavī (on which Jammū is situated) flows into the Cīnāb and the Uj into the Rāvī. The confusion is probably due to the fact that the Tavī and the Uj take their rise from the same mountain not far from Kund Kaplās. Koth Belota, mentioned by Moorcroft as the place from which the Uj takes its origin, is probably the village Belota on the left bank of the upper Uj.

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continuation across the Rāvī is the Chattar Dhār, in Jammū territory. The second range is the Pīr Pantsāl Range which runs through Chambā territory for more than 60 miles and divides the State into two sections of unequal size. Its mean elevation cannot be less than 17,000', and the passes range from 14.328' to 18,000', which is about double the height of the Great St. Bernard Pass (8,110'). The Dāganī Dhār, a branch of this range, runs westwards along the northern boundary of the State. It is connected with the Chattar Dhār by a short cross range in which are the Chattar Dhār and Padrī Passes. The third range, called the Zangskar Range—a section of the Western Himālaya—closes in the Chambā State along its northern border. Its mean altitude reaches 18,000', and some of its peaks rise to 20,000' which is more than double the height of Monte Corno, the highest peak of the Apennines (9,543').

These three mountain-barriers enclose two regions of a widely different character. That between the Dhaulā Dhār and the Pīr Pantsāl constitutes the drainage area of the Rāvī; that between the Pīr Pantsāl and the Zangskar Range comprises the valley of the Candrabhāgā or Cīnāb. Besides, the State includes a hill-tract situated between the Dhaulā Dhār and a low range which runs parallel with it to the south, known as the Hāthī Dhār or Elephant Range. This area is watered by the Cakkī and the Dēhl (map Dairh), tributaries of the Biās, and therefore belongs to the drainage area of that river.

The political division of Chamba is entirely determined by the mountainsystem. The State is divided into five provinces or Political Division; Wazārats. wazārats, of which three belong to the Ravi valley and one to that of the Candrabhaga; while the fifth is the outlying territory draining into the Bias. The nucleus of the State is the Brahmor wazārat—also called Gaderan or the country of the Gaddis-comprising the valleys of the upper Ravi and its tributaries, the Budhal and the Tundehn. It is named after the ancient capital of Brahmor situated on the left bank of the Budhal. The lower portion of the Ravi valley, which was the first province added to the original Brahmor State (presumably in the first half of the 10th century), comprises the present capital and may, therefore, conveniently be called the Chamba wazarat. The Brahmor and Chamba wazarats are separated by the Tundah Range; the Chamba and Curāh wazārats by the Sāho Range, which comes to an end in the fork at the junction of the Ravi and Syuhl (Siul). The basin of the Syuhl and its tributaries forms the north-western province, known as Curah. This name occurs as Caturaha in a copper-plate grant of Raja Bhota-varman, who ruled in the first half of the 15th century.1

An intermediate form which is still occasionally used is Caurah. The name is commonly explained as a compound of Sanskrit catur and Persian rah. It may, however, be doubted whether, in the appellation of a remote valley in the inner Himalaya, we are to assume the occurrence of a Persian word which is strange to the local dialect. It is, moreover, far from clear which four

roads may be taken as being at the root of the supposed derivation. It seems more probable that the ancient name was pure Sanskrit. The parallel, Bhadravāh from Bhadrāvakāśa, perhaps justifies us in assuming an original form, *Caturāśā.'

So much is certain that Curāh must have become included in Chambā State at an earlier date than the more remote Pāṅgī, i.e., before the 12th century. It may be inferred from some of our inscriptions that, in the 11th and 12th centuries, Curāh was alternately ruled by the Rājās of Chambā and by those of the neighbouring hill-state of Balor (Skr. Vallāpura). Possibly it belonged to the latter State previous to the foundation of Chambā town.

The wazārat of the Candrabhāgā valley comprises Pāngī and Lahul are about equal in size and are separated by a lofty spur from the Zangskar Range, called the Ghor Dhar (map Gurdhar), which runs in a south-westerly direction between the Secu and Maiyar nalas. Pangi, the lower portion of the valley, is mentioned in two inscriptions under the name of Pangati. Epigraphical evidence shows that it belonged to Chamba in the 12th century; but the designation of local officials in a record of the same period seems to indicate that at an earlier date it was ruled by some Tibetan power. The wazārat of Lahul has not yielded a single inscription in which a Rājā of Chambā is mentioned as overlord of the province.3 The earliest proof of Chamba suzerainty over part of Lahul is supplied by the name Udaipur by which Mirkulā is indicated and which is ascribed to Rājā Udai Singh of Chamba (A.D. 1690-1720). There is reason to assume that at an earlier period it belonged to the Gyalpos of Ladakh who at one time extended their dominion over British Lahul and Kuļu. Moorcroft notes that four villages, Barkalanak (?) and three others, which he passed on his way from Sisu to Tandi, paid rent to the State of Ladak, though acknowledging military fealty to the Raj of Kulū.3

The name Lahul has been explained as a derivation of Lho-yul, meaning "South-land." But Mr. Francke informs me that this etymology is improbable, because in Tibetan sources Lahul is always indicated by the name of dGar-za. Chambā-Lahul is locally known as Suāl, but in the Gār⁴ dialect it is called Re-'phags. The whole tract along the Candrabhāgā from Tandi to Tindi is called Manchad.

The area between the Dhaulā Dhār and Hāthi Dhār, including a small portion of the Rāvī valley, forms the Bhatti wazārat. Geographically, nearly the whole of this territory belongs to the Kāngrā valley. Under what circumstances it became attached to Chambā State it is impossible to say. So much is certain that it formed part of Chambā in the days of Rājā Samgrāma-varman who granted land in the Hubār (map Ubaur) parganā to his purohita in the Śāstra year 22 (A.D. 1446), four years after the death of his father, Bhota-varman.

¹ The word corāh occurs as a generic name with the meaning "cross-way, place where four roads meet" in a copper-plate grant (No. XIV) of Ānunda-varman, dated Śaka 1403, Śāstra 57, Kārttika fu. ti. 12 (3rd November A.D. 1481).

² Mr. Francke has found traditions which point to an earlier occupation of part of Manchad (left bank) by the Chamba Rajas, but they have not yet been confirmed by any epigraphical record. The Ranas of Gus near the junction of the Candra and Bhaga are said to have been in possession of a copper-plate granted by a Raja of Chamba.

³ Chamba Gazetteer, p. 94. Harcourt, Kooloo, pp. 123 ff. Moorcroft, Travels, Vol. 1, p. 198.

^{&#}x27; Gar is the Bhags valley from Tandi to Kolong, comprising three Kothis.

⁵ The form Bhattivat with Persian plural ending has lately been introduced in official documents.

Samgrāma's grandson, Gaņeśa-varman, also granted lands in the Hubār pargaṇā in samvat 34 (A.D. 1558) and built in its south-eastern corner a fortlet named after him Gaṇēs Gaṛh (marked "Fort" on survey map). The Bhaṭṭi wazārat is probably named after the Bhaṭṭi caste. It is noted as the recruiting ground for the Chambā army.

The wazārats of Chambā State are subdivided into parganās, which vary considerably in extent. It is reputed that their original number amounted to eighty-four, but at the present time there are only fifty-two. This is partly due to loss of territory once included in Chambā State, and partly to the amalgamation of different parganās since A. D. 1863. It appears that in the pre-Muhammadan period the State was divided into districts, called mandala (circle) in the Sanskrit title-deeds of the 10th and 11th centuries. The names of some of these mandalas have been preserved in the present parganās, and as the latter are mostly defined by natural boundaries, we may assume that their area also agrees with that of the ancient districts. In describing the course of the main rivers of Chambā, I shall note the parganās and the places of archæological interest which they contain.

The Ravi, the central one of the five rivers of the Panjab, is essentially the main stream of Chamba. Its ancient name, Iravatī, River System. The Ravi. ("refreshing") is found in Sanskrit literature.1 The Ravi became known to Alexander's historians under the name of Hydraotes, evidently derived from Sanskrit Iravati under the influence of the Greek hudor. The Rhouadis of Ptolemy presupposes a later Indian form *Raudi, intermediate between Iravati, and the modern Ravi. Biruni speaks of the Irava. He says that "the river Irava is joined by the river Kaj which rises in Nagarkot in the mountains of Bhātul." In his table of Indian rivers he calls it Iravatī. By "the river Kaj" he probably means the Gaj which, however, is in reality a tributary of the Bias. In Chamba the Ravi is known by three different names. In the upper valley it is called Rau'i, in the central portion Ravvā, and in the lower part it is known by the name Raci which it bears in the plains. Thus we meet with the intermediate stages through which the original name has become changed to its modern form. In the Vamśavali the river is regularly referred to by its Sanskrit name Irāvatī. In some of the later copper-plates it is called Rayva, but usually it is simply indicated as nei (Skr. nadi) "the river."

The main source of the Rāvī lies outside Chambā territory in the mountain tract known as Barā Bhangāl, which once formed part of the principality, Bhangāl, and is now included in the Kāngrā district. After entering Chambā, the river flows in a narrow gorge (plate III) through the parganās of Bārā Bhansō (map Bara Banso), Trēhṭā (map Traita) and Canhotā (map Chanota). It is said that

¹ In the Raveda (VII, 18; VIII, 63, 15; X, 75) the Ravi is mentioned under the name of Paruani. Cf. Thomas, The rivers of the Vedas. J. R. A. S. Vol. XV, N. S. p. 73. I do not know whether there is any good reason for identifying the Paruani with the Ravi. If we may be allowed to regard the Marudordhā as the Ravi, the second member of that name might be found in Budhal.

² M'Crindle, Ancient India, pp. 23, 27 and 92. Strabo has the form Hyarotis.

³ India, Vol. I., pp. 206, 259 and 260.

Copper-plates of Ganesa-varman dated samvat 97 (A.D. 1531) l. 8; No. XXVIII of Pratap Singh dated Sastra 55, Vikrama 1636 (A.D. 1579) l. 19 and No. XXXVI of Palabhadra dated Sastra 68, Vikrama 1649 (A.D. 1592) l. 9.

Dyōl (map Deole) used to form a fourth district between Bārā Bhaṇsō and Trēhṭā. The village of that name was until lately in possession of a State kōṭhī such as is found at the head-quarters of each paryaṇā. It was ruined in the earthquake of 4th April 1905. Over its entrance there was an inscription of Rajā Udai Singh (A.D. 1690-1720) which has now been placed in the State Museum (Cat. No. A. 30). Dyōl is mentioned in the Vaṃśāvalī (śl. 49) as the birth-place of Mūṣana-varman under the form Devalā, perhaps Sanskrit devālaya meaning "temple." Near the village a cave is shown, where the happy event is said to have taken place.

The name $Treht\bar{a}$ is derived from Sanskrit Trighattaka, by which name the district is referred to in a copper-plate inscription of Soma-varman of the 10th century. The name points to the existence of three passes (Skr. ghatta, Hindī ghāt). There are in reality three roads leading from this part of the Rāvī valley across the Dhaulā Dhār into Kāngrā. Their names are Alāke-dā-ghāt, Surai-dā-ghāt and Sarālī-dā-ghāt. The one first mentioned leads to Bhāgsu-Dharmsalā, the other two to Pālampur. It will be noticed that they are still indicated by the name ghāt. The village of Kulait (map Kolait) situated in the Trehtā parganā, $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles below Dyōl, occurs in the same inscription under the name of Kulika-goṣtha. This name indicates that it was a settlement or station (Skr. goṣtha) of Kulikas, a tribe mentioned in the copper-plate grants (ogether with the Khaśas. In Chambā the word gōth, derived from Sanskrit goṣtha, is particularly applied to a settlement of shepherds.

A third inscription in the upper Rāvī valley is found on a small partly ruined Sivālaya (fig. 28) at Ghumsāļ near Sutkar, the ancient head-quarters of the Trēhtā parganā. The present head-quarters of the district is Tiārī on the right bank of the Rāvī. The kōthīs both of Sutkar and Tiārī were ruined in the great earthquake.

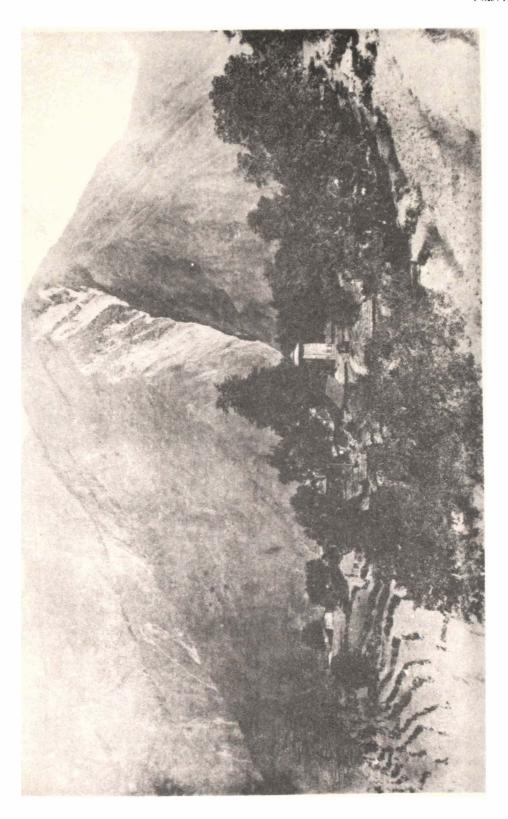
Near Ulânsa (map Hulans) the Rāvī is joined by two fair-sized tributaries, the Budhal (Budhil) and the Tundhēn (Tundāhen). The Budhal takes its rise near the Kukti Pass and flows past Brahmor, the ancient capital, which is situated on its left bank. The Tundāh takes its rise from the Kālī-chō Pass' and, after flowing through the Tundāh valley, joins the Rāvī at a point a little lower down than the Budhal. The confluence of the Rāvī and the Budhal, known by the name of Kharā-mukh (Skr. Ṣaḍ-mukha?) is held sacred as a tīrtha. It is described in the Vamśā-valī (verse 42) as the scene of the asceticism of the father of Meru-varman, the famous ruler of Brahmor. Whether the word Budha in the same passage really represents the ancient designation of the Budhal, seems doubtful, as it does not account for the l at the end of the modern name.

The valleys of the Budhal and Tundehn constitute the Brahmor parganā which far exceeds the average size of such divisions. It was once ruled by an official called amīn, and is sub-divided into drubiālīs, each placed under its own drubiāl or revenue-officer. It is noteworthy that this arrangement exists only in the Brahmor district which points to its having formed a distinct unit.

¹ The Pehoa inscription of the horse-dealers of the Harsa-samvat 276 (A.D. 862) Il. 6 and 11 makes mention of a locality of the name of Träighātaka, but this must be a different place. Trāiṭā would indeed be a most unsuitable field of business for a horse-dealer, as there is not a single road practicable for horses. The Pehoa inscription is preserved in the Lahore Museum (No. 22). Cf. Ep. Ind. Vol. I. pp. 184 ff.

¹ Kangra Settlement Report, p. VI (App.).

¹ Kali-cho means "Waterfull of Kali."



Brahmor is mentioned under the name Brahmapura in two inscriptions of the 10th century. From this name, which means either "Town of Brahma" or "Town of the Brahmaps," it is evident that originally it was applied to the ancient capital and in the second place to the principality. Varahamihira mentions Brahmapura among the countries of the north-eastern region along with Kīra, Kāśmīra, Abhisāra, Darada, Kulūta, Dārva, Dāmara and others. It is very likely that here the ancient principality on the Upper Rāvī is meant. In the Mārkande yazpurāna also the Brahmapurakas are mentioned in the same connection.

Kalhana, in his account of Sussala's campaign against the chiefs of the Cīnāb and Rāvī valleys, who had supported the pretender Bhikṣācara, praises the king, because he "piously preserved in the enemy's land Brahmapurī and its temples and thus earned the original merit of these foundations." "It seems possible that here also there is a reference to Brahmor, the ancient capital on the Rāvī, as Jāsaṭa of Chambā was one of the princes who had espoused Bhikṣācara's cause. But the passage is too vague to allow us to speak with certainty.

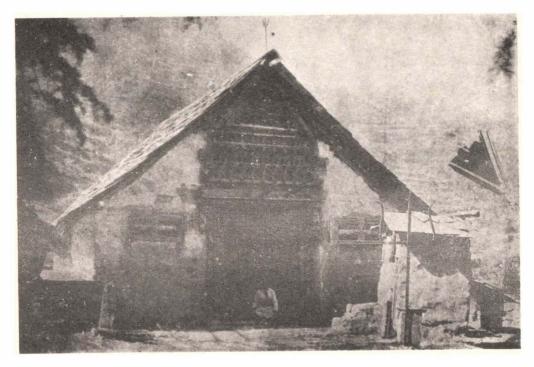


Fig. 2. Temple of Lal sant Devi.

At present Brahmor is only a village (plate II), but its pristine glory is still attested by four brass idols, three of which bear inscriptions recording their erection by Meru-varman who must have lived about A.D. 700 (plates VII-IX). That of Lakṣaṇā Devī is enshrined in a temple adorned with profuse wood-carvings which are presumably contemporaneous with the image. The two stone temples of

¹ Br. S. XIV, 29-30 quoted by Beruni, India, Vol. I, p. 303, Mark. P. 55, 48-53.

² Rājat. VIII, 628; transl. Stein Vol. II, p. 50. The word brahmapuri is used elsewhere (VIII, 2421 and 23) as a generic name denoting some pious foundation.

Manimahēs and Narsingh (figs. 16 and 17) are probably of a later date. The former must have replaced an older shrine, which is referred to in the inscription on the brazen bull of Meru-varman placed in front of the building. The somewhat smaller sikhara temple of Narsingh contains the brass image of that deity, erected by a queen, Tribhubana rekhā, and endowed by Yugākara-varman, the son of Sāhilla-varman, presumably in the 10th century. This temple was seriously damaged in the earth-quake of 4th April 1905. Most of the small linga shrines, scattered among the three main temples, collapsed on the same occasion. The State kōthī ascribed to Rājā Pṛthvī Singh (A.D. 1641-1664) was partly ruíned, but most of the woodcarvings have been placed in the Chambā Museum. (Cat. Nos. F, 1—6).

A copper-plate grant (No. LXI, 1.15) of Rājā Balabhadra, dated Vikrama 1691, Šāstra 10 (A.D. 1634), contains the name *Brahmor*, but the context does not bear out which locality is indicated.¹

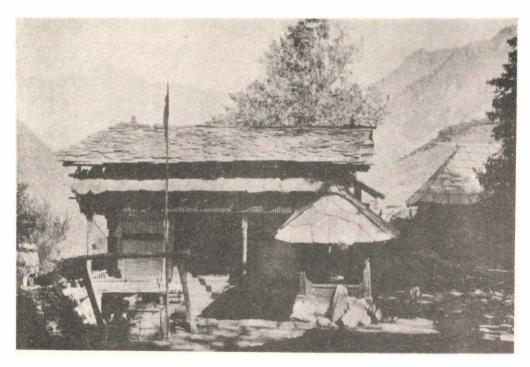


Fig. 3. Temple of Sakti Devi.

The ancient Brahmor State, represented by the wazārat of that name, included, besides the districts already mentioned, the following parganās situated on both sides of the river below its junction with the Budhal:—Ranhūm-kōṭhī (map Koti), Pyuhrā (map Piura) on the left bank,² and Belj (map Bailj), Guṁ (map Guh) and Lilh (map Lil) on the right bank. The latter three parganās now form one district. The village of Chatrāṛhī of the Pyuhrā parganā possesses a famous Dēvī temple, founded by Meru-varman about A.D. 700. At Guṁ on the opposite bank an

The passage reads: Brahmor di ghāli (?) pice brt Sri-Rāje [dittā].

The two villages Lec(a)-Jhikli and Lec(a)-Uparli (i.e. Lower and Upper Lec), though situated on the right sank, belong to the Pyuhra pargana.

inscription is found of a feudatory of the same prince. It mentions Sicapuca, the ancient name of the place.

Travelling along the course of the river as far as Chamba Town, we meet with the following pargayas:—On the right bank Kalandra (map Kalander) Sambara (map Samra) and Panjila; on the left bank Basu, Bakan, Mehla (map Maila), Bharimha (map Baraia), and Karer (map Karair). The village of Tur in the Basu pargaya has yielded no less than four ancient inscriptions. In the 10th century it was the seat of a Rana who owed allegiance to the Raja of Chamba. From one of the inscriptions (No. 17) it appears that the ancient name of the place was Makuta which perhaps is the same as the Makata-kōta mentioned in the Vamśāvatī (verse 78).

Panjila occurs in a title-deed of the 11th century (No. 25) as the Panthila mandala and will be referred to subsequently.



Fig. 4. Chamba Toxn from Mabgla.

Chamba Town is picturesquely situated on a plateau above the junction of the Rāvī and the Sāl or Sāhō. It is built round a rectangular green which here, as elsewhere in the Panjāb Hills, is indicated by the name caugān. In 1839 Vigne

The Persian word cangan (حركاء) is the name by which the game of polo was known not only in Persia itself but also in Muhammadan India. It was derived from Pehlevi cohgan and its proper meaning is a polo-stick, the pologround being indicated in Persia by the well-known word maidian. We may, however, assume that in the Panjab Hills the word cangan was also applied to the green on which the game was played, which would account for the use of the word in the present instance. The word polo originates from Baltistan and means a ball. It is very curious that the game has become known in Europe not by its Indo-Persian, but by its Balti name. I may add that previously, at the time of the Crusades, the game was introduced in Languedov, under the rame of chicane which is evidently derived from Persian cangan through the Middle-Greek 750x2010.

estimated the number of inhabitants at 4,000 to 5,000. At present it is 6,000. The most conspicuous building is the palace, the oldest portion of which dates back only to the middle of the 18th century.

Immediately north of the palace there is a group of six stone temples, arranged in a row from north to south. Three of these temples are dedicated to Visau and three to Siva. Northernmost is that of Laksmi-Nārāyan or Laksmi-nāth, the principal temple of Chambā. It contains an image of white marble, adorned with golden ornaments which were presented by various Rājās of the 17th and 18th centuries. The temple is said to have been founded by Sāhilla-varman shortly after the foundation of the town, and the marble of the image is believed to have been brought from the Vindhya by his son Yugākara.

Of the other five temples of this group I wish only to note those of Candragupt and Trimukh, both *linga* shrines ascribed to Sāhilla-varman, and that of Gaurī-Sankar with a brass image attributed to Yugākara.

Near the Caugan Gate we find another Visnu temple known by the name of Hari Rāī. It is in possession of a copper-plate granted by Rājā Soma-varman, but issued in the first year of his successor, Āsata. From this inscription it appears that this temple was erected in the second half of the 11th century by one Laksmanavarman, who was probably a scion of the ruling house.

Between the palace and the cangān there is a stone temple dedicated to the goddess Campāvatī. Tradition holds that the town was named after her, but another explanation is that it owed its name to the abundance of champak trees (Michelia champaka). It seems very likely that the name of the goddess is derived from that of the tree, so that this in any case would be the origin of the name of the town

There is no reason to doubt the tradition that Chambā was founded by Sāhillavarman, as two copper-plate grants, issued by his son and grandson, are dated from Chambā as the seat of government. In these inscriptions the name of the town is spelt Canpakā. In the $R\bar{a}jatarangin\bar{i}$ it is called Campā, from which the modern name is derived.

The foundation of Campa must have taken place in the first half of the 10th century. There is, therefore, no authority for the statement made by Professor Rhys Davids² that Campā, the capital of Anga, was named after the town on the Rāvī. Campā in Anga was one of the oldest cities of Madhyadeśa and is frequently referred to in Sanskrit literature. In the Book of the Great Decease it is included among the eight great towns of India. Campā on the Rāvī is not mentioned before the 10th century and was probably founded about that time. Its earliest mention in literature occurs in the Rājataranginī (VII, 218) in connection with the expeditions of Ananta-deva of Kaśmīr (A.D. 1028-1063). It is clear that Campā on the

¹ Cf. Vigne, Travels, Vol. I, pp. 155 f. A. S. R. Vol. XIV, pp. 113 f., and Chamba Gazetteer, p. 75.

² Buddhist India, p. 35 "The Indian colonists in Cochin China named one of their settlements ofter this famous old town (i.e. Campā in Anga). And the Campō in Anga was again, in its turn, named after the still count Campā in Kaēmīr."

Ravi was founded at a time when Campa in Anga had ceased to exist, or, at least, had lost its importance.

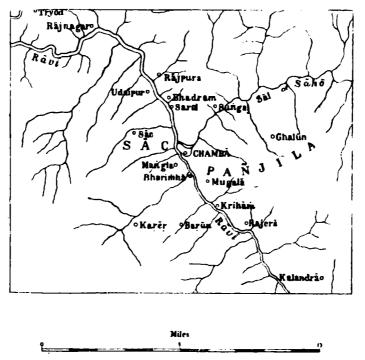


Fig. 5. Sarroundings of Chambs Town.

The copper-plate grant of Soma-varman and Asata is of special interest for the topography of the districts surrounding the capital. The following are the mandalas mentioned in that document:—

1° Pānthila (No. 25, ll. 16 and 31), the modern parganā of Paūjilā, is situated immediately above Chambā city between the right bank of the Rāvī and the left bank of the Sāl. It contained the villages of Kulotī (unidentified); Mungala, the modern Mugalā, 2 miles south-east of Chambā; Vātā, now Bāt, 4 miles south-east of Chambā; and Ghalahaṇa, now Ghalūn (map Galone), in a valley opening on the left bank of the Sāl, 3 miles east of Chambā. The first mentioned village was, at the time of the grant, held in jāgīr by the Queen-mother, Rarḍhā.

2° Tāvasaka (No. 25, l. 17; also No. 15, l. 5) lies below Chambā Town, between the right bank of the Rāvī and the right bank of the Sāl. The name is probably preserved in that of the village of Tausā. The localities belonging to this mandala are Sumangala (No. 15, l. 6, also No. 16, l. 10) the present village of Sungal, (map

¹ In a title-deed (No. X II, l. 11) of Sacingrama-varman, dated Sastra 22, mention is made of a locality named Kolodi.

Sungul) 2 miles above Chambā Town on the right bank of the Sāl; Bhadravarma, now Bhadram, 2½ miles below Chambā; and Sarāhula, now Sarol (map Saroli) 2 miles below Chambā. The two latter villages, situated on the right bank of the Rāvī, belong now to the Rājnagar parganā. The other localities of the Tāvasaka mandala, Phālyaka, Lartuka and Yaudhaka, I am unable to identify. They would seem to indicate cultivated fields rather than villages.

3° Pārakamata (No. 25, ll. 18, 21 and 29), as the name indicates, is the district situated on the other side (Skr. pāra) of the Rāvī opposite Chambā town, and is now known as the Sāc pargaṇā.¹ The ancient designation seems to be lost. The village of Mangalā (map Mungla), still known by its original name, is situated on the road to Nūrpur by the Cuārī Pass. Dhaullika, another locality in this mandala, is evidently the name of a piece of land, now known as Dhōlī, near Mangalā, between the village and the steep bank of the Rāvī.

We have seen that near Chamba the Rāvī receives the Sāl or Sāhō, which is mentioned in the Vamśāvalī (śl. 70) under the name of Śālikō. The Sāl is formed by two streams, the Malund Nālā (to the right) and the Purolī Nālā (to the left). These two streams unite near the village of Sāhō, situated in one of the largest portions of plain country found in the State. It is the head-quarters of a pargaṇā of the same name. One of the most important inscriptions of Chambā (No. 13) has come to light in the hamlet of Sarāhaō, on the left bank of the Sāl opposite Sāhō. It records the foundation of a Sīvā temple by a local chief, probably an independent Rāṇā, of the name of Sātyakī. The temple referred to is perhaps the Sīvālaya of Sāhō known by the name of Candrasēkh. (Cf. fig. 24).

From Sāhō down to its junction with the Bāvī, the Sāl winds for some 8 miles along luxuriant rice and maize fields. About half-way along its course it is joined on the right by the Hol stream which waters the valley of the same name. It was formerly a separate parganā, but has now been amalgamated with that of Gudyāļ. It seems probable that the Hol-Gudyāļ parganā corresponds with the Bhaṭṭāra maṇḍala mentioned in a copper-plate of Āsata (No. 26). It is said that fifteen villages in that pargaṇā are still indicated by the ancient name. The local goddess is known as Bhaṭṭār Dēvī Sītalā, and the pilgrimage to her shrine is called Bhaṭṭār jāṭrā. I am told that the inhabitants of these villages combine against other villages in the game of chakrī (the same as caumpaṛ), thus preserving the tradition of their former unity as residents of the same district.

The parganas of the Chamba or Sadar wazārat below Chamba Town are Rājnagar on the right bank and Udaipur on the left bank of the Rāvī and Dhundh (or Dhundhī), Kharōt and Tryōd in the valley of the Syūhl. The Rājnagar parganā, as mentioned above, corresponds, partly at least, with the ancient Tāvasaka manadala. The village of Rājnagar, which is the head-quarters of the parganā, was named after Rājā Rāj Singh (A.D. 1764-1794). Before his time it was called

¹ Can kamata, the second member of the compound, be connected with Pukhto kamar, " a cliff "?

Nadā. Udaipur on the opposite bank received its name from Rājā Udai Singh, in whose memory a small stone temple was erected after his murder on this spot in A.D. 1720.

About 14 miles below Chamba town the Ravi is joined by its largest tributary, the Syuhl (vulgo Seol), which brings down the entire The Syull. drainage of the Curah province. This river comes from two fountain-heads. The western or main branch which drains Western Curāh rises from the Padri Pass and flows through the districts of Bhandal (map Baundal), Kihār, Piclā-Dyuhr (map Duire) and Himgar or Himgiri (map Himgir). The last-mentioned district is referred to by the name of Kiskindha in two of our inscriptions (Nos. 12 and 13). Before the foundation of Chamba it was the seat of an independent Rāṇā. At Mūl-Kihār, the ancient head-quarters of the Kihār pargaṇā (now transferred to Digi), there are the remains of the stronghold of another Rānā. This Rānā, as appears from an inscription of c. A.D. 1200 (No. 34), owed allegiance to the Rājās of Chambā. The eastern branch of the Syuhl rises from the Sac Pass and flows almost due south receiving the waters of the Sai and Parhnota Nalas on the right, and of the Berā (map Baira), Tīsā (map Tissa) and Cāñju (map Chanju) Nālas on the left. The Sai, Bera and Tisa valleys constitute three parganas of the same names. The Barhnota valley contains the Barhnota and Bagor (map Pagora) parganās; the Cānju valley the Jasor (map Jasaor) and Loh-Tikrī districts. The latter comprises the original pargunas of Loh-Tikri, Baghai (or Bhagai) and Cañju. ern Curâh has yielded a remarkable number of fountain-inscriptions, especially the Lôh-Tikrī pargaņā. The lower portion of the Syuhl valley, below the junction of the two branches, contains the parganas of Munjir (map Manjere), Jundh (map Juind) and Bhalai (map Balai). The last-mentioned district was in the 17th century a subject of dispute between Prthvi Singh and Chattar Singh of Chamba and Samgram Pal of Basohli.1

From its junction with the Syūhl, the Rāvī flows westwards till it reaches Jammū territory, where the Siōvā, forming the boundary, falls into it from the north. Here it trends to the south-west and forms for a short distance the boundary between Chambā and the ancient State of Basohlī, now a district of Jammū-Kaśmīr. Its former capital of the same name lies almost opposite the point where the Rāvī leaves Chambā territory.

The wazārat of Bhatti is often indicated by the name Bāra Bhattiān which points to its having once consisted of twelve parganās. The present number of districts of this wazārat is ten. They are the following:—Bāthri or Rāmpur, Shērpur (map Sairpur), Nagāļ and Cūnh (map Chune) on the left bank of the Rāvī; Hubār (map Ubaur), Cvārī or Cuārī (map Chaohāri) and Raipur or Rēpar (map Rapir) in the Cakkī valley; and Tūṇḍī, Syūhtā (map Sihunta) and Bhattī-Tikrī (map Tikiria) on the Dēhļ.

On the south side of the Dhaulā Dhār, Chambā State once possessed the Rihlu 'dāqa in which Dharmsālā is situated, and that of Pālam mentioned in the Baijnāth

¹ This dispute was decided in favour of Prthvi Singh by a sanad, dated A. H. 1058 (A. D. 1648) which is now preserved in the State Museum (Cat. No. C. 1).

praśasti under the name of Pralamba. It appears that at one time Chambā territory included the ancient fort of Pathyār, in proximity to which the oldest rock-inscription of the Kāṅgṣā valley is found. Kaṇhiārā, the site of another somewhat later rock-inscription, belongs to the Rihlu 'ilāqa. It is said that originally Rihlu and Pālam formed part of Chambā State, but were included in the imperial demesne created by Tōdar Mall after the submission of the Panjāb Hill States to Akbar. When the Mughal power collapsed, Umēd Siṅgh (A.D. 1748-1764) of Chambā reoccupied the lost territory. In the reign of his son kāj Siṅgh the great Saṃsār Cand of Kāṅgṣā claimed Rihlu as an integral part of his dominions. Rāj Siṅgh crossed the Dhaulā Dhār, but was surprised by the Kāṅgṣā troops and slain at Nērtī (map Neirtee) near Shāhpur in A.D. 1794. A temple was erected on the spot, where an annual mēlā takes place on the 7th Hāṛ, the date of his death. The bravery of Rāj Siṅgh is still sung in popular ballads on both sides of the Dhaulā Dhār. In A.D. 1821 Rihlu was occupied by Raṇjīt Siṅgh and thus finally lost to Chambā.

The other great river of Chambā is the Cīnāb. In the Rgveda it is mentioned under the name of Asiknī³ which underlies the Greek Akesines (with "Anlehnung" to the verb akeomai). Ptolemy calls it Sandobal derived from Candrabhāgā, the name by which the Cīnāb is known in Sanskrit literature and in inscriptions. This name the river has preserved in the Hills. Biruni calls it Candrahā, but gives also the Sanskrit name Candrabhāgā. In the Shāhpur district it is known as Canhām, a name evidently derived from the Sanskrit. The form Cīnāb cannot be explained as an ordinary derivative of Candrabhāgā, but is evidently due to a popular etymology. Moorcroft is undoubtedly correct in assuming that the name Cin-āb ("Water of Cīn") is based on the belief that the river took its origin in China.

In reality the Candrabhāgā takes its rise from the Baralacha Pass in British Lahul by two heads, the Candrā and the Bhāgā. Moorcroft was told that the real names were Candrabhāgā and Sūryabhāgā. The two rivers unite at Tandi and form one river of considerable size which enters Chambā-Lahul at Thirōt (map Tirot). Here are the ruins of two forts on both sides of the Chokhma Nālā. The first village in Chambā territory, called Sindvārī or Brāhmaṇ-kōthī, is said to have been founded by Brāhmaṇs from Kurukṣetra. Here we meet with the first fountain-stone, carved with three conventional lotus-flowers. Some five miles below Thirōt the river flows past Trilōknāth, famous for its Buddhist temple and widely renowned as a place of pilgrimage. On his march through Lahul Moorcroft "fell in with two half-starved Hindū fakirs, one of whom had come from Chapra and

¹ The parganā of Pathyār was bestowed in jāgīr on Rājā Dalēl Singh by a sanad issued under the seal of Zakariyyā Khān, Governor of Lahore, in A. H. 1158 (A.D. 1745). It was confirmed to Rājā Umēd Singh by a sanad issued under the seal of Ahmad Shāh (Durānī) in A. H. 1175 (A.D. 1762). Both these documents are preserved in the State Museum (Nos. C, 6 and 15).

² Chamba Gazetteer, pp. 85, 97, 101 and 104.

³ Cf. E. Thomus, The rivers of the Veda, p. 5. Biruni, India, Vol. 1. pp. 200 and 259. Moorcroft, Travels, Vol. I, pp. 195 ff.; Drew, Jummoo, p. 112; Cunningham, Ladak, p. 117.

⁴ Moorcroft, Travels, Vol. I. pp. 193 f.; cf. my note Triloknath in J. A. S. B. Vol. LXX, Part I. p. 1.

the other from Ujjain." Both were going on a pilgrimage to Triloknath. A marble image of the Bodhisattva Avalokiteśvara is worshipped here both by Buddhists and Hindus under the name of Triloknath (Skr. Trilokanatha, "Lord of the three worlds"). This has now become the common appellation of the village, its real name being Tunde. It is the seat of a Rana who holds the greater part of Chamba-Lahul in jāgīr. In 1863 nearly the whole village was swept over the precipice by an avalanche and sixty of the inhabitants lost their lives. The temple remained standing.

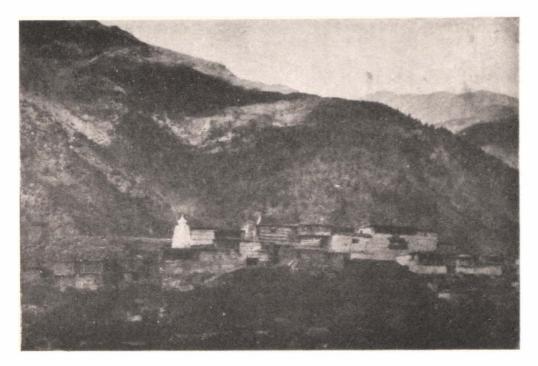


Fig. 6. Trildknath.

At Udaipur (map Odapur), three miles below Trilöknäth, the Candrabhāgā is augmented by the Maiyār (map Miyar) which takes its rise from the Zaṅgskar Range. The village possesses a shrine remarkable for its profuse and elaborate wood-carvings. It is dedicated to Kālī, locally known as Markulā Dēvī or the Goddess of Markulā. This is the Lahuli name of the village, which was renamed Udaipur by Rājā Udai Siṅgh of Chambā (A.D. 1690-1720). The State Kōṭhī, founded here by the same Rājā, is the only monument of Chambā rule-in Lahul.

Pelow Udaipur the villages are few and far between; and the tract between Tindi, the last place of Lahul, and Saur, the first village in Pāṅgī—a distance of 17 miles—is a desolate region, entirely without inhabitants. At Pōrthī (map Purti) are two fountains of which one was constructed in the reign of Rājā Ugar Sirgh in Śāstra-saṃvat 1 (A.D. 1725). There is also a temple of Mulāsan Fēvī with quaint wood-carvings. It bears an inscription of Rājā Pṛthvī Singh dated Śāstra-saṃvat

¹ The rame is pronounced either Markula or Mirkula. In Tibetan it is spelled Mar-sgul.

27 (A.D. 1651). At Sāc (map Sauch) the Candrabhāgā receives the waters of the Sēcu (map Saichu) Nālā, and after flowing through a fairly open valley past Kilār and Dharvās (map Darvas), enters Pādar three miles below the hamlet of Luj. The villages of Sāc, Kilār and Dharvās are the chief places of the three parganās of the same names which constitute the Pāngī 'ilāqa. The State Kōthī at Sāc has an inscription in Ṭākarī recording the foundation of the building by Rājā Ugar Singh of Chambā in samvat 1 (A.D. 1725). The only shrine of note in the division is the temple of Cāmuṇḍā at Mindhal (map Mindal) opposite Sāc. It is in possession of a copper-plate issued by Rājā Pṛthvī Singh in Vikrama 1698, Śāstra 17 (A.D. 1641).

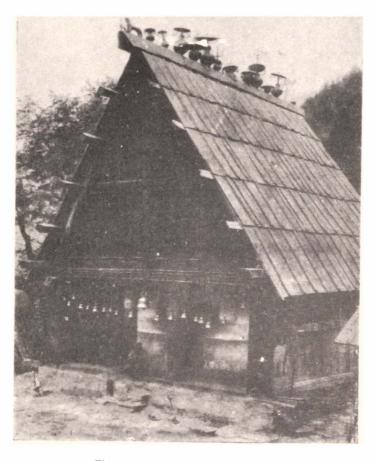


Fig. 7. Temple of Camunda at Mindhal.

Round Kilâr carved formain-stones are exceedingly numerous, but only a few of them bear inscriptions. An inscribed fountain-slab (No. 28) of the first year of Rājā Jāsaṭa (A.D. 1105-6) is found at Luj near the Pāḍar border. At Sālhī in the Secu Nālā (fig. 1) there is another stone (No. 33) of large size carved with numerous figures of deities, and provided with an inscription dated in the 27th year of Rājā

Lalitavarman (A.D. 1170). It is evident from this inscription that Salhi was then the seat of a Raṇa. His descendants still live on the spot. (Cf. fig. 21.)

In Lahul and Pangi we often meet with upright, plain slabs erected in memory of the dead. They are called *dhajā* (Skr. *dhvaja*, "banner, emblem") or *pun* (Skr. *punya*, "religious merit") and may be seen on plate IV

Though the main roads now in use are of recent origin, we may assume that the lines of communication, determined by the oro-Roads and passes. graphical system and particularly by the position of the passes, have been the same ever since Chamba became inhabited. It is possible that certain roads and passes were at one time more frequented than they are at the present day, and that others have now come into greater prominence; but the documents at our disposal supply but little information on this point the nature of the country, there can be little doubt that no trade route of any importance ever ran through Chamba territory. Trade between India and Central Asia naturally chose the more open valleys of the Jehlam and the Bias. More especially the trade-route through the Kāngrā and Kuļū valleys, Lahul and Ladak, followed by Moorcroft, must have been in use from very remote times. indirect proof of the existence of this route in the 7th century A.D. is afforded by Hiuen-Tsiang. After describing Jalandhara, he gives an account of Kiu-lu-to (Kulūta or Kuļū), Lo-u-lo (Lahul) and Mo-lo-so (Marpo or Ladak), though apparently he did not visit these countries personally. He had evidently received his information during his stay at Jalandhara from traders who had travelled to Central Asia by this route. It is possible that occasionally, owing to political influences, part of the Central Asian trade deviated from its ordinary course and followed the less accessible valleys of the Ravi and the Cinab, but under ordinary circumstances it must always have returned to its natural channels.

The roads in Chambā territory, even those through the main river valleys, were indeed up to very recent times of the most primitive description. (Cf. fig. 8). In one of our epigraphs (No. 35) the construction of a road is stated to be the means for acquiring infinite merit. But the ancient rulers of the State have not shown great eagerness thus to provide for their bliss in the next world. They, no doubt, had to consider first of all the exigencies of the present, and at a time when every neighbour was an enemy, the difficulty of the roads constituted the best safeguard for the security of the State.

Of the roads connecting Chambā Town with the plains that by Dalhousie, now in most common use, dates only from the founding of that Sanitarium in A.D. 1851. The Sundhārā and Cvārī or Cuārī roads, on the contrary, are no doubt ancient. The former follows the left bank of the Rāvī by Bāthrī, Sundhārā and Phangōhtā as far down as Shāhpur, from where it crosses the lower hills to Pathān-kōt, the total distance from Chambā being about 55 miles. This road provides at the same time a direct communication between Chambā and Basōhlī, once the capital of the former State of that name. Vigne² speaks of a second road from Chambā to Basōhlī along the right bank of the Rāvī. From there Jammū can be reached in six marches. The stages are the following:—Mahānpur (12 miles), Bhadu (map Pudooa; 6 miles),

¹ Stanislas Julien, Mémoires de Hiouen-Thrang, Vol. I. pp. 203 f. and Beal, Si-yu-ki, Vol. I. pp. 177 f.

² Vigne, Travels, Vol. 1. p. 150.

Sumurta (map Sambarta; 6 miles), Rāmkōṭ (formerly Mankōṭ; 8 miles), Mānsar (12 miles), and Jammū (18 miles).

This road is only a portion of the trade-route from Delhi to Kaśmir through the lower hills. Forster, who travelled by this road in April 1783, remarks:—

"Previously to Nadir Shah's invasion of India, the common road from Dehli to Kashmire, lay through Sirhend, Lahore, and Heerpour, the pass of which is fully described by Mr. Bernier, under the name of Bember. Since the inroad of the Persians, Afghans, and the Mahrattas, but especially since the period of the Sicque conquests, that track has been rendered unsafe to merchants, and is now disused. This obstruction diverted the Kashmirian trade into the channel of Jumbo, which being shut up from the Punjab by a strong chain of mountains, difficult of access to cavalry, it has been preferred to the Lahore road, though the journey is tedious, and the expenses of merchandise increased."

The stages where Forster halted were Plassee, i.e., Palāsī, (10 kōs), Buddoo, i.e., Bhaḍu (10 kōs), Mancote, i.e., Maṇkōṭ, (8 kōs), Mansir, i.e., Mānsar (8 kōs), and Jumbo, i.e., Jammū. Basōhļī, Bhaḍu and Maṇkōṭ were then petty principalities dependent on Jammū.

Sumurta, half-way between Bhadu and Mankot, is the name of a tract of country comprising twelve villages. In the 10th century it appears to have been a hill-state, the inhabitants of which are referred to in two of our copper-plates (Nos. 24 and 25) under the name of Saumatika. This word appears to be derived from *Sumata, which in the modern form, Sumar, is preserved in Sumurta.

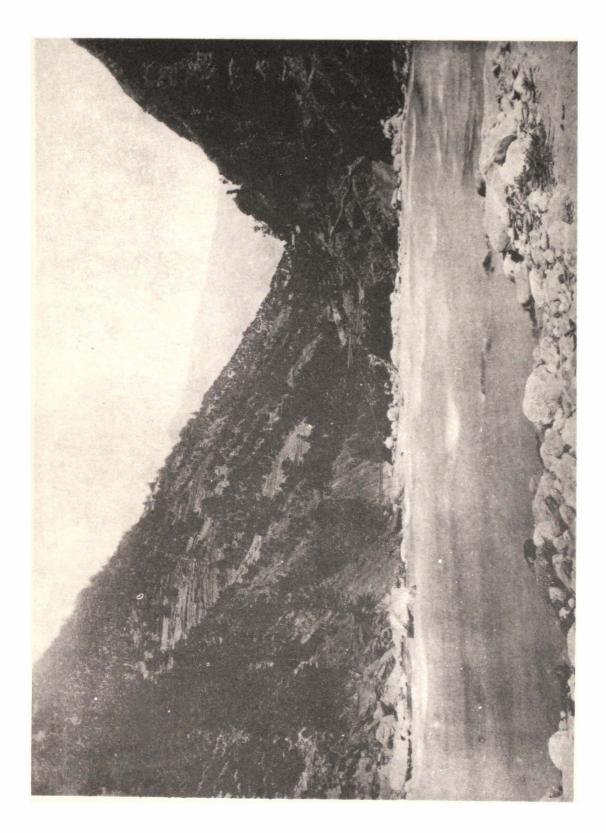
Balor (Skr. Vallāpura), the ancient capital of the Basehlī State, lies five miles north-west of Bhadu and is situated on the left bank of the Nāj Nālā, at a little distance above its junction with the Bhīnī (map Pine) river which is a tributary of the Uj. It is interesting that Biruni² mentions Ballāvar, the modern Balor, on the route from Kanauj to Kaśmīr. We may conclude that in his time also, when the same conditions of insecurity prevailed in the plains as in the days of Forster, the route through the lower hills was largely resorted to for purposes of trade.

The Cuārī road is one of the main lines of communication between Chambā and the Kāngrā valley—the ancient Trigarta. The road ascends the plateau opposite the town, which, as we have seen, was known in the 11th century as the district of Pārakamaṭa, and passes the village of Manglā (Skr. Mangala) after which it is now commonly named. Winding up the right bank of the Sarōrī Nālā, it crosses the Dhaulā Dhār by the Cuārī Pass (height c. 8,000') and enters the Bhaṭṭi wazārat. At the village of Cuārī (map Chaohari), situated some nine miles beyond the pass, the road bifurcates. The left branch runs south-east, and, passing Syūhtā (map Sihunta) and the old fort of Gaṇēs-gaṛh, reaches Rihlu in Kāngṛā. On the way the Cakkī, the Dēhļ and the Brāhl are crossed. The passage of these rivers, when in flood, is attended with great difficulty. The distance from Chambā to Kāngṛā-kōt by this road is about 54 miles.

The main road from Cuārī continues in a south-western direction, following for 4 miles the bed of the Cakkī stream which has to be crossed and recrossed a dozen times. Near Jājrī the road passes by the ruins of Tārā-garh, a famous stronghold founded by Jagat Singh, the Paṭhāniā chief of Nūrpur, and defended by him against the army of Shāh Jahān in A.D. 1641-42. On one of the towers is a stone

Journey, Vol. I. pp. 245 f.; 2nd ed. p. 283. Cf. also Vigne, Travels, Vol. I. pp. 171 ff. Heerpour is Hürspör, the ancient Sürspura, on the Pir Pant-al (or Bhimbhar) road. Cf. Röjat. (transl. Stein) Vol. II. p. 394.

² India, Vol. I. p. 205.



tablet with a Tākarī inscription dated in the reign of Rājā Rāj Singh and in the year 63 (A.D. 1787). Half a mile beyond, the road leaves Chambā territory to enter the Nūrpur taḥṣīl, formerly the principality of that name. At Nūrpur it joins the main road to Pathān-kōt, the total distance from Chambā to this place being not more than 50 miles. The Cuārī road is much used and must have been so from early times. The crossing of the Cakkī is often perilous after heavy rain. The pass is usually under snow in January and February, and sometimes also in March; but even then the road is seldom closed for more than a day or two at a time.

The main road from Chamba to Brahmor follows the Rāvī valley for about 20 miles as far as Pyuhrā. This part of the road, however, Roads to Brahmor. dates only from 1879. The old road crossed the river immediately above Chamba Town, near the low plain known as Nalhora which was formerly a Muhammadan graveyard and at the present time is used as a parade ground. The bridge, which must have been of the cantilever type commonly found in the hills, is still remembered under the name of Duku- or Dugu-rā-sēu (Camb. sēu, Skr. setu). Tradition holds that it was built by Dāī Baṭlō, the wetnurse of Rājā Pṛthvī Singh, and named after her husband Duku. The existence of a copper-plate dated Vikrama 17[0]2, Sastra 21, (A.D. 1745), and recording a grant of land by Dhātrī Baṭulā Devī on the occasion of the consecration of a bridge (setu-pratisthā-samaye) confirms the popular tradition. It is probable, however, that long before the days of Dai Batlo there existed a bridge on this spot. Lower down, a temporary bridge connected in former times the two banks of the Rāvī. It was replaced by a permanent bridge in the reign of Carhat Singh in A.D. 1808. This having collapsed, the present iron suspension bridge was constructed here in A.D. 1895.

From the Duku-rā-sēu the road ascended the plateau of Bharimha (map Baraia) and, following the hill slope along the left bank of the Ravi, passed the villages of Mehlā (map Maila), Bakāņ, Basu and Pyuhrā, each the head-quarters of a parganā of the same name.2 From these places the Dhaulā Dhār can be crossed by several passes which it is unnecessary to describe. The most important is the Balenī Pass (height c. 12,000') which leads from Basu to Shahpur by way of Tur, mentioned above as the seat of a Rana and the find-place of several inscriptions. Another road, which starts from Basu, crosses the Dhaula Dhar by the Kankot Pass (map Bowar Pass, height 11,602), and reaches Rihlu in the Kangra District. The place where this road surmounts the range is a narrow gorge known as Proli-ra-gala ("Gate-neck"). Here an ancient rock-inscription is found which indicates that this road was used about the 9th century of our era. The word galā as well as its diminutives gali and galu denote a narrow passage leading over a spur or mountainridge. Its original meaning is "throat, neck" (Skr. gala). We may compare French-Swiss col, and Cape-Dutch nek. The term used in the Panjab Hills to designate a mountain pass is jot, the original meaning of which seems to be "yoke" (Skr. root yuj-). It is interesting to compare the German-Swiss joch and the Italian giogo in the meaning of which we note the same transition.

From Pyuhra the new road through the valley reverts to the old line which ascends the slope to reach Chatrarhi. The antiquity of this place is attested by the

¹ According to others, the bridge was named Bailo ra seu after the lady herself.

² From Mehla onwards the road is still in existence and has lately been repaired by the Forest Department.

Dêvî temple of Meru-varman, referred to above. From Chatrārhī the road drops into the Circindā Nālā¹ and ascends the opposite slope to Kōthī which was once the seat of a Rāṇā and is, therefore, known as Raṇhum Kōthī; the word raṇhum designating a barony ruled by a Rāṇā. From here a branch road crosses the Girjhār Pass (height c. 10,000′) to Caṇhotā and runs up the Rāvī valley through Trēhtā and Bārā Bhaṇṣō to Baṇā Bhaṇṣāl. The Dhaulā Dhār is crossed from Raṇhum Kōṭhī by the Ghaj-kā-jōt (height 13,225′)² by which Bhāgsu-Dharmsālā can be reached in two or three days. The road is a difficult footpath, which follows the Ghaṭhōrā Nālā.

The main road rises from Ranhum-Kōthī to cross the Sāḍali-rā-gaļā (height c. 9,000') and descends again by Ulānsā (map Hulans). Ulānsā, as well as the adjoining villages of Gurōļā and Svāī on the left bank of the Rāvī, are the seats of three Rāṇās, feudatories of the Rājā of Chambā. (Cf. fig. 20). Beyond Ulānsā the Rāvī is crossed by a wooden bridge. Ascending the opposite slope, it reaches Khaṇī (map Kani) situated at a height of 6,446' on the end of the spur which forms the watershed between the Rāvī and the Buḍhaļ. In the oldest copper-plate grant found in Chambā State (No. 14) mention is made of the Khaṇī hospice (Skr. maṭha), which not only proves the existence of the village as far back as the 10th century, but also shows that even then it was a place on the main road and was visited by travellers. From Khaṇī a branch road passes up the right bank of the Rāvī valley by Grima—a village mentioned under the same name in the title-deed just referred to—and joins the road on the left bank not far from Kulait, the ancient Kulikagoṣtha, in Trēhṭā. Another branch crosses the Budhal river and, following the Tundāh Nālā, crosses the Kālī-chō Pass (height 16,402') to Trilōknāth in Chambā-Lahul.

The main road proceeds along the left bank of the Budhal to Brahmor, the ancient capital. About a mile before reaching this place a rock-inscription in the Tibetan character will be noticed on the road-side. Carved on the same stone are three figures of Ganeśa, Śiva, and Dēvī. (Cf. figs. 29 and 30). At the village of Ghosan, on the left bank of the Budhal beneath Brahmor, some Tibetan rock-inscriptions are found, but these consist only of mystic formulas.

The Budhal valley is connected with Lahul by two roads. From Brahmor one road crosses the Cōbiā Pass (height 16,720'), which perhaps owes its name to its crevasses $(c\bar{o}b\bar{a})$ and reaches the Candrabhāgā valley above Trilōknāth. The other and more frequented road follows the left bank of the Budhal to Harsar (map Harser, height 6,650'), which possesses a small Śiva temple with an inscribed image which perhaps accounts for the name of the place (Hara=Śiva). Here a short branch road runs up to the sacred lake of Manimahēs, regarded by popular belief as the main source of the Rāvī. The main road crosses the Budhal and proceeds up its right bank to Kukti village, and thence over the Kukti Pass (height 17,001') to Yob-rang (map Jobrung) in British Lahul, where the Candrabhāgā is crossed by means of a jhūlā or rope bridge. Another branch road leaves the main road at Kukti village to cross the Manimahēs Range into Barā Bhangāl.

Chamba is connected with Brahmor by a second ancient road which runs through the mountains to the north of the Rāvī. After ascending the Sāhō valley for 4 miles, it crosses the stream and surmounts the Jamvar ridge. It then descends and passes

¹ This nala forms the boundary between the Pyuhra and Runhum-Kothi pargonas

² Also called Bag and Ishim-ki-gasütri.

³ For a description of the jhūlā cf. Chamba Gazetteer, p. 14. See also plate III

the villages of Lilh, Gum and Belj and, after crossing the Tundāh Dhār and the Tundāh Nālā, follows the mountain slope on the right bank of the Budhal to Brahmor. The only place of antiquarian interest on this road is Gum. It was in the days of Meru-varman (c. A.D. 700) the seat of a chieftain who owed allegiance to the ruler of Brahmor. From an inscription on a linga stand found here it appears that the ancient name of the place was Sivapura. The large number of stone lingas may account for this name. On the river bank beneath Gum there is still a sanctuary of Siva, known as Tilocan Mahādēv (Skr. Tritocana-mahādeva "the three-eyed great god"), where an annual mēlā takes place on the Durgāṣṭamī in the month of Bhādōn. In the Panali Nālā, not far from Gum, are some rock-inscriptions (Nos. 1-4), the oldest epigraphs hitherto discovered in Chambā State. It is curious that one of them consists of an invocation to Siva.

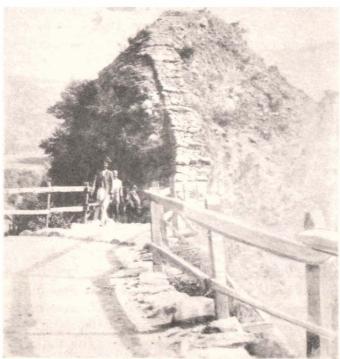


Fig. 8. Svarg-dvari.

Another important road, which connects Chambā with Bhadravāh and Pāngī, starts from the northern end of the town and, after crossing the Sālā stream, descends to the right bank of the Rāvī. This road is also greatly modernized, but the old path may still be seen, which, roughly paved, zigzags down the steep hill slope.\(^1\) At the point where it

¹ Figure 8 shows the modern road along with the ancient path which leads to the burning ghāṭ (Skr. śmaśina) situated at the junction of the Rāvi and Sāhō rivers and which is suphemistically named Scarg-dvārī "the Gate of Heaven"

descends from the northern end of the plateau on which the town stands, there is a stone platform $(c\bar{a}b\bar{u}tr\bar{a})$ with an inscription which records that Sundaradasa, the son of Vīra-dāsa, the son of Bhāgīratha-dāsa, for the love of Laksmī-Nārāyaṇa, planted a $p\bar{r}pal$ tree (Skr. aśvattha, Ficus religiosa) here, and had a platform made so that all creatures might take a rest in its shade. The date of the inscription is Vikrama 1717, Śaka 1582, Śāstra 36, Vaiśākha va. di. 13, Wednesday, at the Vernal Equinox, i.e., the 20th March 1660. When Cunningham visited Chambā, the $p\bar{r}pal$ had been replaced by a very large tun tree (Cedrela toona) which, in its turn, has now disappeared. Only recently a new $p\bar{r}pal$ tree has been planted which, it is hoped, will afford shelter against the heat of the sun to many a traveller. The old road, notwithstanding its steepness, is still preferred by the hill-people to the new one, and Sundar Dās' cabūtrā must be a welcome resting-place to weary way-farers.

At a distance of 2 miles from the town the road passes through the ancient garden of Sarol (map Saroli). This village, as we have seen, is mentioned under the name Sarāhula in a title-deed of the 11th century. The garden with its pond is referred to in a charter issued by Raja Balabhadra in favour of his purchita Isvara or Isuru, and dated Sastra 75, Vikrama 1656 (A.D. 1599). The tank has lately been renewed. A mile farther on the village of Bhadram is passed. Its ancient name was Bhadravarma, as appears from the same title-deed in which Sarāhula is mentioned. In the 11th century both villages belonged to the Tāvasaka district, which evidently consisted of the tract between the right bank of the Ravi and the right bank of the Sala, as it included also the village of Sungal, then called Sumangala, on the right bank of the Sala, 2 miles from Chamba. At present Bhadram and Sarol belong to the Rajnagar pargana; but it is possible that the ancient name of the district is preserved in that of the village Tausa (map Tosa). situated on the spur between the Ravi and the Sala valleys. It would seem, however, that at the time of the inscription Bhadravarma was the head-quarters of the district, as it contained the State granary (kosthāgāra) in which the revenue in kind was collected and from which 1 khāri of grain was granted annually to a Visnu temple, founded by a certain Pasata.

Before reaching Räjnagar, the head-quarters of the modern district of the same name, the road leaves the main valley and ascends a side valley to Pukhrī (map Puker), perched on the watershed between the Rāvī and the Syūhl. At this point the roads to Bhadravāh and Pāṅgi bifurcate. The Bhadravāh branch descends through a narrow ravine to the Syūhl which it crosses.² It then runs up its right bank to Mañjīr (map Manjere). Subsequently it rapidly rises to cross the ridge between the upper and lower reaches of the Syūhl and, regaining the right bank of the river, follows it for a short distance. After having crossed again to the left bank, the road pursues its course to Bhāṇḍaī (map Bhaundal, height 5,675') and Laṅgērā (height 6,978'). At a distance of $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles south of the former place, on the ridge which here forms the boundary between Chambā and Basōhļī, we notice the ruins of the old fort of Pṛthvī-jōṛ (jōṛ from Persian zōr "force") founded by Rājā Pṛthvī Siṅgh after whom it is named. From Laṅgērā the road crosses the Padrī Pass, (height c. 10,000')

¹ Cf. Cunningham, A. S. R. Vol. XXI, p. 136; Kielhorn, Ind. Ant. Vol. XX (1891), p. 152; and Chamba Gazetteer, p. 57.

A recently made road runs from the Köthi bridge over the Syuhl to Salūni on the ridge above Manjir and descending crosses the Syuhl at Pala bridge and runs on to Bhandal.

and enters Bhadravah territory. The distance between the towns of Chamba and Bhadravah is 64 miles. From Bhadravah, Islamabad (the ancient Anantanaga) in the Kasmir valley can be reached by way of Kastavar, the ancient Kasthavata.

The Pāngī road which we left at Pukhrī ascends from there to Musrund and then continues due north through the main valley of Eastern Curāh, passing the villages of Kalhēl, Tīsā, Berā and Alvās. From Alvās it crosses the Sāc Pass (height 14,325') to Kilār in Pāngī. Two branch roads run up the side valleys to reach the Candrabhāgā valley by less frequented passes. One follows the right bank of the Cānju Nālā, and passes Lōh Tikrī and Baghai, from where Tindi in Lahul can be reached either by the Drātī Pass (height c. 15,000') or by the Maroa or Cararā Pass (map Chara Pass; height 14,320'). Both these passes are difficult and very precipitous on the Curāh side. The Drātī ("the Sickle") especially is dreaded on account of its stone avalanches. There is a direct road between Chambā and Cānju through the Hol valley.



Fig. 9. Devi-ri-kothi.

The second side-road runs up the Berā Nālā to Hail and passes Dēvī-rī-kōthī, once the seat of a Rāṇā, the ruins of whose castle are still extant. (Cf. fig. 18). One of the finest Sanskrit inscriptions in Chambā was found here. From Hail the road crosses the Cēnī (map Chaia) Pass (height 14,299') to Mindhal opposite Sāc. It is said that this pass was crossed by Pṛthvī Singh on his return from Kuļū. It appears to have been more frequented at one time than it is at present. This perhaps explains why the pass leading to Kilār is inappropriately called the Sāc Pass.

A third branch leaves the main road a little beyond Tisā and runs by Sai, Bagor and Barhnotā to the Dāganī Dhār which it crosses by the Makan or Barāri Pass (height circa 12,100') to Balēs, a hill-tract included in Bhadravāh. Sai possesses an important fountain inscription (No. 35).

The main road in Lahul and Pangi follows the Candrabhaga valley throughout and must have done so from the time that a road has existed. Though improved in parts, it is still, taken as a whole, of the most primitive description. In places it is carried from ledge to ledge by means of narrow wooden bridges of a very insecure character, locally known by the name of trangari.

After entering Chambā territory at Thirōt (map Tirot), it follows the right bank of the river. As far down as the Udaipur plain the valley is fairly open and the road therefore comparatively easy. From Margram (map Margram; height 8,755) to Salgrām (map Salgram) it runs for the most part along the face of the cliffs. It crosses over to the left bank at Salgrām and continues on this side as far down as Sāc (map Sauch) in Pāngī. The old road, however, crosses to Saur (map Saor) on the right bank (some 10 miles above Sāc), where a rope-bridge or jhūlā connects the two river banks. From Pōrthī (map Purti, 4 miles below Saur, this road ascends to Rēh (rēh=mountain-ridge) and from there drops down to the Sēcu Nālā which it crosses to Sāc (height 7,886').



Fig. 10. Kilār in Pāngi.

Below Sắc the valley is more open and the road fairly level. For a distance of $\frac{1}{8}$ mile between Sắc and Kilár it is carried along the face of the precipice on crowbars fixed horizontally into the rock. This work was carried out by the Forest Department about A.D. 1870. The old road which is still extant used to lead over the shoulder of the cliff by almost perpendicular wooden steps. A little farther down near the village of Phindru (map Phinru) the path has been partly hewn out of the solid rock. This was probably done in the reign of Rājā Pṛthvī Singh, as appears from a rock-inscription containing the name of that chief and dated Šāstra 18 corresponding to A.D. 1642-3. From Kilár the road continues along the right bank at a fairly high level to Dharvās and Luj and at the Sansārī Nālā it leaves Chambā territory to enter Pāḍar.

¹ In the Lahuli dialect these villages are called Maun and Saga.

Another ancient route connecting Lahul and Pāṅgī leads up the Maiyār Nālā from Markulā (Udaipur) and, after crossing the Ghōr Dhār (map Gurdhar) Pass, descends by the Sēcu Nālā (fig. 1) to the Candrabhāgā valley which it rejoins at Sāc. This road, notwithstanding the height of the pass, is said to be shorter and easier than that which follows the Candrabhāgā. It is practicable for hill-ponies, a circumstance which perhaps accounts for the name of the pass. Starting from Markulā, the stages are Cimrat. Maiyār (map Miyar; height 10,215'), Singhmarh, Baṭor (map Baṭaor; height 11,638'), Sēcu (map Saichu; height 8,412'), and Sāc (map Sauch; height 7 886'). An inscribed fountain-stone found at Sālhī (map Sauli) 3 miles below Sēcu has been noticed above. From Sāc, Kilār and Dharvās roads lead into Zaṅgskar.



Fig. 11. Tepa Fountain Stone.

CHAPTER II.—THE INSCRIPTIONS.

The number of the inscriptions found in Chamba State is not less remarkable than their variety. Whereas in Kaśmīr, Kāngrā and Number and classification. Kulū, states of much greater antiquity and historical importance, only a very limited number of epigraphical records has been found, Chambā has yielded no less than 130 inscriptions, excluding those of the last two This wealth of inscriptions within an area of only 3.216 and a half centuries. square miles, of which the greater part is uninhabitable, is entirely due to its secluded position, and may convey some idea of the amount of historical material which has been lost in other more accessible districts, both in the Hills and the We know that in the 12th century there existed in Kaśmir extensive inscriptions on stone and title-deeds on copper, which were consulted by Kalhana while composing his famous Chronicle. "By examining the inscriptions" says that author "recording the consecration of temples (pratistha-kasana) and grants (vastuśāsana) by former kings, at the laudatory inscriptions (praśasti-patta) and at written

works, the trouble arising from many errors has been overcome." There existed, moreover, numerous images of stone and metal, many of which, no doubt, bore dedicatory inscriptions. Kalhana¹ relates how, in the reign of the great Lalitāditya, two images were discovered "which (as the letters engraved on the bases showed) had been made by Rama and Laksmana." This record, though legendary, shows that inscribed images were not unknown in Kalhana's days.

In Kaśmir not a single copper-plate has been discovered, and of stone inscriptions only a few insignificant fragments. "Of the first class of documents (pratisthāśāsanas)," Dr. Stein's remarks, "only a small number of specimens has been found in Kaśmir, and none of them, except a fragmentary inscription of the time of Queen Diddā, now in the Lahore Museum, can be ascribed with certainty to a period earlier than Kalhaṇa. No inscription of the kind described under II and III (vastuśāsana and praśastipaṭṭa) has come to my knowledge in Kaśmīr." At Babor the ancient Babbāpura, the capital of a hill state dependent on Kaśmīr, I noticed in 1906 an extensive Śāradā inscription inside a ruined temple. It is probably a praśasti, but it is too much defaced to be deciphered.

Kāṅgṛā and Kulū, both situated on the ancient trade route between India and Central Asia, have been scarcely more fortunate. It is true that Kāṅgṛā, the ancient Trigarta, has yielded two very ancient rock inscriptions and the important praśastis of Baijnāth, but considering that Chambā possesses no less than fifty epigraphs of the pre-Muhammadan period, those of its powerful neighbour are extremely scanty. On the borders of Kulū, one of the most ancient of the Panjāb Hill States, an inscription of the Gupta period has come to light. It is the rock inscription of Ṣalāṇu in Maṇḍi territory. The other inscriptions found in that district do not date further back than the middle of the 16th century A.D. The oldest copperplate is that issued by Bahādur Siṅgh which is preserved in Chambā and is dated [Śāṣtra-]saṃvat 35 corresponding to A.D. 1559. It is not at all improbable that continued research and excavation of ancient sites will bring to light additional material, but we can hardly expect as rich a harvest as, even without resorting to excavation, the Hill State of Chambā has yielded in a few summers' exploration.

The total number of inscriptions collected in Chambā amounts to one hundred and thirty, of which fifty are of the pre-Muhammadan period, and eighty of the Muhammadan period.

From the objects on which they are incised these records may be divided into rock inscriptions, slab inscriptions, image inscriptions and copper-plate inscriptions. Another classification, according to their contents, is that quoted from Kalhana:

¹ Rajat. IV, 272-276; transl. Stein, Vol. I. p. 148.

² Note at Rajat. I, 15.

³ Cf. A. B. A. S., 1903-04, pp. 261-259. On p. 286 the date is erroneously stated to be 1659; the spelling Kulling is to be abandoned.

viz., records of consecration (Skr. pratisthā-śāsana), title-deeds (Skr. vastu-śāsana)¹ and eulogies (Skr. praśasti-paṭṭa). Among these the title-deeds are usually engraved on copper-plates, and the eulogies are mostly cut on stone slabs. Stone is used for inscriptions of the first kind also, except when the consecrated object is an image of metal.

Rock inscriptions are not as numerous in Chambā as the abundance of the material would lead one to expect. But some of the most ancient epigraphs in the State belong to this class; namely, those of Panali Nālā (Nos. 1-4), Tur (No. 10) and Prolī-rā-gaļā (No. 11). It may be noted that the Kaṇhiārā and Paṭhyār rock-inscriptions—the two oldest records of the Kāṇgrā district—were once situated in Chambā territory. But as they date back to a time far anterior to the founding of the Chambā State, I have not thought it necessary to include them in the present volume. The rock inscriptions found within the present boundaries of the State are mostly brief records out on the rock in bold but badly shaped letters, and consequently not always easy to decipher. To this class belong a few Tibetan records found in the neighbourhood of Brahmor and to be noted more fully hereafter (No. 50).

Among the image inscriptions the most important are those of Meru-varman (c. A.D. 700) incised on brass statues at Brahmor and Image inscriptions. Chatrarhi. Large-sized metal images of so early a date are extremely rare in India, as such objects were the first to attract the destructive zeal of iconoclasts and the cupidity of unscrupulous kings. The numerous idols of gold, silver and other metals set up by the magnificent Lalitaditya were destroyed more than two centuries before the Moslims established their rule in the Kaśmir valley. It was king Harsa "that Turuska," as Kalbana calls him, who, partly from greed and partly from perverseness, caused those relics of his great predecessor to be overthrown and desecrated, and for this purpose appointed a special official called "prefect for the destruction of gods" (Skr. devotpātananāyaka).3 Only two Brahmanical images escaped—that of Ranasvamin at Śrinagar and that of Mārtānda the Sun-god-and two colossal Buddhas, one of which stood at Parihasa-pura. contemporaneous images of Meru-varman convey to us an idea of the style of those famous statues of Lalitaditya on which Kalhapa bestows so much praise.4 Cunningham, who visited Brahmor in 1839, remarks that these images had never been seen by Muhammadans until his servants arrived there. It will, however, be noticed in the course of a more detailed discussion of the inscriptions that two of the Brahmor images have suffered damage at the hands of some foreign, probably non-Muhammadan, invader.

Inscribed metal statuettes of a much later date are those of Siva at Harsar and of Markulā Dēvī in Chambā-Lahul. In each case the inscription records the conse-

¹ A title-dead recording a grant to a god or to a Brahman is called agrahāra-šāsana. See beneath inser. No. 15, l. 21.

² Cf. Ep. Ind., Vol. VII, pp. 116-119.

^a Rājat. VII, 1091-1098; trauel. Stein, vol. I, pp. 352 f.

⁴ Rā,at. IV, 181-217; transl. Stein, Vol. I, pp. 139-144.

cration of the image, and sometimes also of the temple in which it was placed; and therefore belongs to Kalhana's first class of pratisthā-kāsanas.

We possess but few specimens of inscribed stone images. The oldest is probably the image of Dêvî erected by Rānā Bhogata of Kiskindha, the modern Himgiri (No. 12). Next in date come the Dêvî image of Tur with an almost obliterated inscription (No. 19) and the Visnu statuette of Sāhō of which the epigraph is also partly destroyed (No. 47). The Nārāyaṇa image of Dēvī-rī-kōthī, though itself much defaced, bears a well-preserved inscription. It is the only one of which the date can be approximately fixed. In this class are also to be reckoned the other two Tur inscriptions (Nos. 17 and 18) cut on stone stands which evidently once belonged to idols, and the Gum inscription (No. 9) cut on a squared stone which must have supported a linga.

Inscriptions on stone slabs are either records of consecration or eulogies. Very often the two are combined, as in the Sarahan prafasti Slab inscriptions. (No. 13) which was primarily intended to record the erection of a Siva temple, but the greater part of which is devoted to the praise of the founder's spouse, Somaprabha. It may rightly be called a love-poem carved in stone. Likewise the Dēvī-rī-kothī and Mul-Kihār fountain-inscriptions (Nos. 32 and 34) are at the same time prasastis, as they contain a flattering account of the pious donors and their relatives. The poet of the former seems actually to designate his composition by that name. These laudatory inscriptions, apart from their historical value, are documents of literary interest, as they are composed throughout in elegant Sanskrit poetry. Among the praéastis found in Chamba only that of Sarāhaņ is complete. Outside Chambā, I may mention the two prasastis of Baijnāth and that of Bhavan in Kangra, besides the Triloknath one in Mandi Town. These all record the foundation of temples in which they are still preserved. A record of consecration of a peculiar kind is the platform (cabūtrā) inscription of Chamba City, which states that a pipal tree (Skr. aśvattha) was planted and a platform built by a certain Brahman, on Wednesday, the 28th March A.D. 1669.1

A very important sub-division of this class are the large carved fountain-slabs, very numerous in certain parts of Chambā, and apparently peculiar to that State. The only place outside Chambā where I have met with stones of this kind is Sisu on the Candrā river in British Lahul. These were first noticed by the traveller Moorcroft on his ill-fated journey to Bukhārā. "Between the first and second village of Sisu," that author relates, "we crossed the Sisu river, a narrow torrent rushing down with a force which must wear away the most compact rock. Growing near it was the variety of currant which I had observed at Niti. On the summit of the ascent from the water a flat stone, sculptured with figures and flowers, was set up on the right of the path." Mr. A. H. Francke informs me that in other villages of British Lahui also

¹ Cf. above, p. 32.

² Moorcroft Travels. Vol. I, p. 194.

similar slabs are found, but no inscribed specimen has hitherto come to light outside



Fig. 12. Brahmay-kothi Fountain-stone.

Chambā. On entering Chambā from British Lahul, a specimen may be seen at Brāhmaṇ-kōṭhī (map Bamankoti, local name Sindvārī), the first village in State territory. At Trilōknāth, the famous Buddhist place of pilgrimage in Chambā-Lahul, there are several of these slabs, but none of them bears an inscription. The best example is found at Oñar, ¼ mile east of the caugān. They are very trequently met with in wazārat Pāngī, especially round Kilār, and are sometimes collected in considerable numbers on one spot (plate IV). Two inscribed stones of particular interest are found in this province, one at Sālhī in the Sēcū valley and the other at Luj. The latter place is situated close to the Pādar border. In Pāḍar itself, however, carved fountain-slabs of this type do not occur; nor, as far as I know, in any other tracts lower down the Candrabhāgā river. In the valleys of the Jēhlam, Biās and Satluj such slabs seem to be wholly unknown.

In Curāh, the north-western province of Chambā, watered by the Syūhl river, such stones are exceedingly numerous. Of particular interest are those of Sai, Naghai and Þaḍvār, all of which are inscribed. The Lōh-Ṭikrī pargaṇā is richest of all in fountain inscriptions, but unfortunately hardly any of them are complete.

In the Rāvī valley proper, fountain stones are found at many places from Branmor down to Keri (map Kairi), but they are of much smaller size than those of Curāh and Pāngī, and do not bear inscriptions. One often finds several erected at one spring, for instance at Chatrārhī and at Brehi in the Basu pargaṇā. At the latter place there are four slabs, placed side by side, which are locally believed to have

Fountain Stones near Kilār (Pāngī).

been made for the use of four different castes, the Rāṇās, the Rāṭhīs, the potters and the carpenters. At Tāgī and other villages in the same pargaṇā isolated stones may be seen (fig. 13). At Luḍu, 4 miles from the town on the road to Jamvār, no less than nine slabs of various sizes were found at one spring; they have all been placed in the State Museum (Cat. Nos. A. 19-27). In the city itself a broken fountain stone was unearthed in the summer of 1906 and has likewise been deposited in the Museum (Cat. No. A. 18).

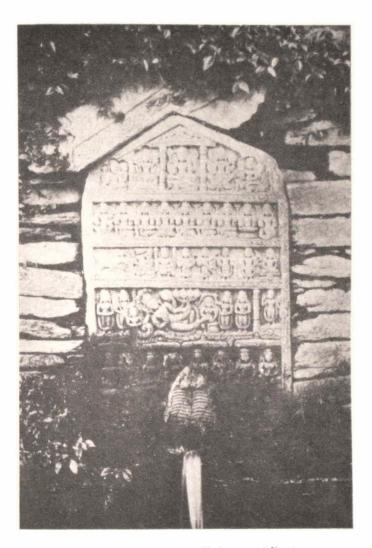


Fig. 13. Fountainestone at Tagi : pargani Basu).

The fountain-slabs of the Rāvī valley are usually carved with numerous rows of figures. Among these we find Viṣṇu sleeping on the serpent Śeṣa, Lakṣmī holding his feet, and the four-faced Brahmā seated on a lotus rising from Viṣṇu's navel. As the sleep of the Sun-god takes place in the rainy season, the scene is very appropriately chosen. Other common subjects are the nine *Grahas* (also frequently carved over the entrance of temples) and the ten avatāras or incarnations of Viṣṇu.

The figures in the lower rows, which are shown in the act of worshipping the linga, probably represent the donors of the sculptures.

On the large slabs of Pangi and Curah also we find commonly the upper portion occupied by rows of figures both of deities and mortals. Among the former Varuna, the god of the waters, in whose honour the stone was erected, takes a prominent place. On the Salhī stone (plate XXXI) we find Siva in the centre of the upper row, between Varuna, Indra, Ganesa and Kārttikeya, each seated on his particular vāhana and marked with an inscription. In the middle of the slab is a representation of Viṣṇu's sleep—a subject which, as just noted, regularly occurs on the fountain stones of the Rāvī valley. The rest of the Salhī stone is occupied by eight female figures personifying the great rivers of Northern India. The name of each river is inscribed on the water-vessel which the figure holds in one hand.

At Sai also (plate XXXIV) each of the figures is named, but here only the upper row consists of divinities, the lower portion being reserved for human beings. Among the latter we find the person portrayed, for the sake of whose bliss the stone was set up. On the Naghai slab deities are apparently mixed with mortals, but here the figures are not marked with their names. It is possible that one of the figures represents the Rāṇī Mekhalā who is mentioned in the inscription. On the stones, which, judging from their inférior workmanship, belong to a later date, we find Varuṇa, still occupying his place of honour; but for the rest such stones are carved with clumsy figures of armed horsemen, archers, swordsmen and female water-carriers. Examples of this kind are the Baṭrūṇḍī and Nāļ stones in the Chambā Museum (Cat. Nos. A. 12 and 17), both of which bear fragmentary inscriptions.

On most fountain slabs we find, besides figures, a fair amount of ornamental carvings. Among these the eight-petalled lotus-rosette is most prominent. On each side of the square hole intended to receive the water-spout there is often a dwarf-pilaster of very curious design. The rows of figures are frequently separated by bands of ornamental scrollwork and the whole of the carvings are usually enclosed within leaf and rope borders.

Among the fountain sculptures of Chamba State, there are several which do not contain any figures but are purely decorative. Usually the surface is divided into square panels each provided with a conventional lotus. I am inclined to think that slabs of this type are the earliest in date, but the inscriptions do not as yet enable us to class them chronologically. Among the three dated in the reign of Trailokyadeva, which belong to the first half of the 11th century, that of Bhakund is a plain slab with no carvings at all, and that of Padvar has no other figure than Varuna, the rest of the carvings being decorative. The third one is that of Naghai, where the greater part of the carving is also decorative, though here we find a row of five figures, Varuna occupying the centre. The fountain slab of Sīyā, erected in the year of Asata's accession (c. A.D. 1070) is carved with decorative bands, and does not bear any figures except the effigy of Varuna and a pair of interlaced birds. On the Lui stone of the first year of Jasata (A.D. 1106), we find a wellnigh equal division of figures and decorative devices. Among the former we notice the horseman who regularly appears on the fountain slabs of a more decadent and presumably later type. That of Löh-Tikri, also of Jasata's reign, has only a lotus-rosette and decorative

borders. On the two specimens of the reign of Lalita-varman—those of Sälhi and Sai, described above, which belong to the second half of the 12th century—the figures are decidedly more prominent. On that of Sälhi even the ornamental borders are absent. It would, therefore, seem that there has been a gradual development from plain stones with simple conventional lotus-flowers to the elaborate slabs crowded with figures. We must, however, assume that the nature of the carvings was largely dependent on the individual taste of the donor and the sculptor, as well as on the former's means and on the latter's ability.

It is noteworthy that in general the purely decorative carvings are executed with considerably greater skill than the figures, which are conspicuous chiefly for their clumsy appearance, rigid attitude and want of proportion. For this reason the specimens which bear exclusively decorative carvings are, from an artistic point of view, the most satisfactory.

When the slabs bear inscriptions, these are either incised on the raised rim running horizontally between the rows of figures and decorative bands, or cut on one or two plain rectangular panels placed in the centre or at the two ends of the slab. The latter is mostly the case with those found in the neighbourhood of Loh-Tikri in the Cānju valley.

The slabs here described are commonly set up against the steep hill slope, at places where water flows down or gushes forth from the rock. A stone spout, sometimes ornamentally carved, is fixed in a square opening in the centre of the stone, to allow the water to flow through. In some instances we find in front of the large slab a cistern built with three smaller stones, likewise adorned with carvings. This must have been the case at Luj, Salhī and Naghai where the enclosing stones are still extant and partly in situ.

As to the purpose of these fountain slabs, the inscriptions leave no doubt that their erection was looked upon less as a work of general Purpose and origin of fountain utility than as a meritorious act, designed to secure future bliss to the founder and his relatives. The person for whose sake the stone was set up, either a deceased wife or husband, is often mentioned by name in the inscription. Thus the Naghai stone was erected for the sake of the bliss in the next world of Rāṇi Mekhalā, that of Sai for the sake of Rāṇautrā Phāhi. In other fountain inscriptions of the Curah wazarat the donor states that he erected the stone "fearing with the fear of mundane existence" (Skr. samsāra-bhaya-bhītena). The slab itself is invariably designated as a Varuna-deva, i.e., "a god Varuna" for the obvious reason that Varuna, the patron of the waters, is usually carved on it. name is no longer remembered. In Lahul stones of this kind are known as naur (probably the same as Pahari naun), in Pangi they are indicated by the name of naun. In the Ravi valley they do not seem to have any special appellation, except that of panhiyar, a name commonly applied to all fountains, whether they are provided with carved slabs or not.

¹ The date of the Sai inscription is uncertain.

Nor does there seem to exist any certain tradition regarding their origin, date and purpose. Sometimes they are connected with the Nāgas. At Kuās above Kilār there are two fine springs known as Barsār Nāg and Nāganī. At both, fountain stones have been erected, some of which show traces of inscriptions. Those at Trilōknāth in Lahul are locally asserted to have been set up in honour of the Nāga. In epigraphs, however, no mention whatever is made of these demi-gods, so prominent in the popular religion of the Hills. Sometimes these huge stones with their quaint figures and mysterious characters—unintelligible even to the learned Paṇḍit—are looked upon with superstitious dread, and the villagers are often reluctant to give information regarding their whereabouts, for fear that some evil may spring from it.



Fig. 14. Fountain-stone at Kuas above Kilar.

It is, therefore, the more gratifying that the stones themselves readily yield us their forgotten history. Most of them belong to a time when Curāh and Pāngī were inhabited by numerous petty chieftains or Rāṇās dependent on the Rājā of Chambā. It was they who erected these slabs, on which their names and those of their father and grandfather are usually recorded, together with that of the Rājā to whom they owed allegiance. We may, therefore, assume that at most places where fountain-slabs occur, there once stood the stronghold of a Rāṇā. I must add that our inscriptions show a few instances of such stones having been erected by Brāhmaṇs; but those are as a rule of a less elaborate type. One, that of Bhakuṇḍ, bears merely an inscription without any carvings.

The fountain inscriptions are of great importance for local history, as in most cases they are fully dated, both according to the era then in use and in the regnal year of the ruler of the time. Thus the Luj and Sālhī stones have rendered it

possible to fix the year of accession of two Chamba Rajas of the 12th century. There are, however, two circumstances which considerably detract from their historical value. The inscriptions are, as a rule, composed in very ungrammatical Sanskrit, sometimes intermixed with vernacular terms, which often renders their detailed interpretation doubtful. In some instances (e.g., the Salha inscription) the particulars of the date appear to be incorrectly noted.

What makes matters worse, is their frequently fragmentary condition. Placed against the hill slope without any shelter or support, these slabs were often thrown down by avalanches, or upset by the pressure of the earth behind them, and subsequently buried under the deposits of the rivulets. The spout-stone fixed in the earth behind caused the slab to break in its fall and in this manner many a stone may have become completely lost. Sometimes it has happened that, owing to long exposure, the inscriptions became defaced or wholly obliterated; and in a few cases such slabs are said to have been wilfully smashed for utilitarian purposes. Fragments have been found in walls or steps belonging to dwelling-houses. Mostly, however, it was merely their position which was the cause of their ruin. Thus among the numerous inscribed stones of this kind hardly any specimen has come to light, of which the inscription and carving have remained entirely uninjured.



Fig. 15. Copper-plate of Yugākara.

I have treated the Chambā fountain-inscriptions at some length, on account of

Copper-plate inscriptions.

their peculiar character. Inscriptions on copper-plates, the last class to be discussed, are known to occur in most parts of India, and indeed must at one time have been in use all over the Indian Continent. The custom of engraving title-deeds of pious donations on copper is referred to by the Chinese pilgrim Fa Hien and must therefore have existed in the 5th century of our era. Nor was this the only use such plates were put to. It is

recorded that after the third Buddhist council the sacred scriptures were engraved on copper-plates and deposited in a stūpa by order of king Kaniska. This tradition derives some credit from the fact that in some of the stūpas of ancient Takṣaśilā—the Taxila of the Greeks—inscribed plates of copper, silver and gold have been discovered.

With the exception of those from Taksasila, that of Sue Vihar (Bahawalpur) and the Nirmand title-deed, the Panjab has yielded no ancient copper-plate inscriptions; though at one time they must have been not less numerous here than in other parts of India. This may be inferred from the large number of such inscriptions found in Chamba State. I have been able in the course of my researches to collect no less than eighty-two copper-plate inscriptions, of which five belong to the pre-Muhammadan and seventy-seven² to the Muhammadan period. I have excluded those posterior to the reign of Raja Prthvi Singh (A.D. 1641-64). Among the seventy-seven plates of the later period there are forty-two issued by Raja Balabhadra, who still lives in local tradition as the paragon of pious munificence. As the custom of issuing such documents was kept up till the end of the last century, and several specimens of each of the later Rajas are known to exist, the total number of copper-plates in Chamba State may be safely estimated at nearly a hundred and fifty. But imposing as this number may appear, the preponderance of plates of the later period only shows, how few in number the earlier plates that have come down to us are, as compared with those which have been lost.

The copper-plate inscriptions which will be edited in the course of this work are all but one, title-deeds recording donations of land. The only exception is a plate, issued by Rājā Balabhadra and dated Śāstra 75, Vikrama 1656 (A.D. 1599), which records the appointment of the Brāhman Iśvara as his family-priest. It is in the possession of his descendant, the present purchit. I may note parenthetically that among the documents of later date there is a copper-plate containing a treaty between Rājā Rāj Singh of Chambā and Rājā Samsār Cand Katōc, the famous ruler of Kāngrā. It is dated from the latter's camp at Nadaun in the Vikrama year 1845, Jeth, pra 25. This plate is kept in the State Museum and numbered B 36. It is possible that, at an earlier period also, political documents of this kind were engraved on metal, but no other specimens have hitherto been recovered.

As to the common type of copper-plate inscriptions, i.e., those recording donations of land—the donor is usually the ruler of the time or one of his relatives. It is well-known that, according to Hindū law, the king is regarded as the exclusive owner of land. It is curious that among the plates of Pṛthvī Siṅgh's reign there are two issued by his nurse whose name, Dāi Baṭlō, is still remembered in Chambā. In the title-deeds she is called "Dhātrī Baṭulā Dēvī" and "Śrī-Dhātrī Baṭulā." Presumably she granted the land out of the Jāgīr which is usually bestowed on the Rājā's dāī. The donees are either Brāhmans or temples. Among the Chambā copper-plate grants there are

¹ Cf. A. S. R. Vol. II. p. 125.

^{*} Three of these plates were discovered outside Chambā territory. One belongs to the purchit of the Raja of Nurpur, the other two to Hakim Braj Lal of Jyalamukhi in the Kangra District.

³ The two plates in question are both dated in the Vikrama year 1702, Sastra 21 (A.D. 1645), one in Aşadha pārvaimā and the other in Magha su. ti. 7.

only three which are bestowed on gods, one—the oldest of all—on Narsingh at Brahmor, the second on three temples in Chamba City, and the third on Cāmuṇḍā Dēvī at Mindhal in Pāngī. It should be noted that the title-deed is actually issued in favour of the deity, whose image the temple contains and that, in case the idol is removed to another building, it retains its grant of land. It goes without saying that most of the benefit falls to the share of the Brāhman priests attached to the shrine.

The merit of bestowing gifts on the twice-born has from ancient days been emphasized both in sacred and secular literature; but land was occasionally presented to non-Brahmans who had rendered service to the ruler of the State. There exists a copper-plate at Dantuhi (map Dante) at the foot of the Drati Pass which was issued by Rājā Balabhadra to four brothers of the Kakar¹ caste, viz., non-Brāhmans. It is dated Sastra 94, Vikrama 1675 (A.D. 1618). Sir Lepel Griffin² also quotes the instance of a copper-plate grant issued in Samuat 1584 (A.D. 1527) by Rājā Ajbar Sēn of Maṇdi to a Khatrī, Madhusūdan by name, whose three brothers had been slain in a battle fought against the Ranas. We also read in one of our earliest Chambā copper-plate inscriptions (No. 25) of land being enjoyed by Queen Rardhā, the wife of Rājā Sālavāhana. But gifts of this kind were only granted for a period depending on the donor's pleasure and not exceeding the lifetime of the donee. There was consequently no need of recording such gifts on durable metal. The donations to Brahmans, on the contrary, were made in perpetuity, "to be enjoyed by son and son's son for as long as the moon and the sun shall endure." Heavenly joy was to be the reward of the pious donor, but terrible punishment awaited him who should confiscate the land thus given. "Who takes the property of a Brahman, given either by himself or by others, for sixty thousands of years will be be born as a worm in the dirt." "He who confiscates what he himself has given will be a blind man for twelve existences, a hog for ten existence; and a leper for twelve existences." "Mounted on a divine chariot drawn by geese, the giver of land goes to the world of the gods; in a pot full of boiling oil the robber thereof sees the messenger of Death."

Stanzas of this kind are invariably found at the end of each title-deed. They have, in Chambā at least, had the result -gratifying to the antiquarian—that the donations have been preserved, as well as the copper-plates on which they are recorded. I doubt whether in any other part of India an instance could be quoted of lands, granted nearly a thousand years ago, being still enjoyed by the descendants of the original donee. This is the case with the copper-plate grant of Vidagdha, the grandson of Sāhilla the founder of Chambā, who lived in the 10th century of our era; and I refer to it not merely as a curiosity, but as a matter of special interest for the study of ancient topography. There can, of course, be no doubt whatever that the village of Sumangala, mentioned in that plate, is represented by the modern Sungal, in the vicinity of which the land is situated.

Grants of land to Brāhmaṇs or temples were, as we have seen, considered meritorious under all circumstances. But the coincidence of certain astronomical phenomena was supposed to enhance

[!] As a generic name the word kakar means "barking deer."

² The Rajas of the Punjab, 2nd edition, London 1873, p. 573. Cf. Cunningham, A. S. R. Vol. XIV, p. 121.

the merit of the gift. Thus we find some of our copper-plate grants dated on the occasion of a solar eclipse or of the hibernal solstice (Skr. Makara-samkrānti). We find an instance of each in two of the copper-plate grants published in the present volume. Such data are often important in calculating the date of the inscription, at least in case the date is that of the donation and not that at which the plate was issued. There are, however, two instances among the plates published here in which the date of the plate was evidently not that of the donation. In that of Soma-varman (No. 24) we read that the gift was made on the occasion of a solar eclipse. The date however is not Amāvāsyā (New Moon) but śu. ti. 3. In the grant of Soma-varman and Āsaṭa (No. 25, l. 27) it is definitely stated that the date of the inscription is that on which the charter was furnished (paṭṭakam idam sampāditam). The procedure followed in Chambā until recently was as follows:—A paper sanad was issued at once at the time of the donation, and on the copper-plate, prepared subsequently, the original date was retained.

Grants of land were also made on solemn occasions such as the consecration of a temple or other building, or when some happy event had occurred calculated to stimulate the ruler's generosity. Thus Janārdana, the sou of Rājā Balabhadra and his co-regent for several years, made a donation at the birth of his son Pṛthvī Siṅgh, which is dated Vikrama 1676, Śāstra 95 (A.D. 1619-20). It is said that grants used to be made by the Rājās of Chambā at their accession, but our documents do not point to the existence of such a custom. We find, however, that the family priest was sometimes rewarded with a gift of land, after having taken the bones of the deceased Rājā to the Ganges and performed the Śrāddha. An instance of this is afforded by a copper-plate of Rājā Samgrāma-varman dated Śāstra 22 (A.D. 1446).

From the plates existing in Chambā it is evident that the following three dignitaries were the first to benefit by the Rājā's munificence—his spiritual preceptor (rājaguru), his family priest (purōhit) and the Court astrologer (jyōtiṣī). Their offices were of course hereditary, so that the present incumbents are in possession of a respectable number of copper-plates. It was the Rājaguru who used to be charged with the duty of drawing up the grant and whose name is commonly found at the end. This, at least, was the custom during the Muhammadan period. Thus we find the name of Paṇḍit Surānand on some of the plates of Gaṇeśa-varman, that of his son Ramāpati on those of Pratāp Singh, and that of Ramāpati's son Lakṣmīkānt on most of the plates of Balabhadra.

Among the numerous copper-plate grants of Rājā Balabhadra (A.D. 1589-1641) there is one issued in favour of Byās, the guru of the Rājā of Nūrpur, for certain services rendered or to be rendered, which are not clearly set forth, but may have had some bearing on the difficulties which at that time existed between Chambā and Nūrpur. It is dated Vaišākha pra. 13, Šāstra 94 (A.D. 1618). It is curious that this is exactly the year when Sūraj Mall of Nūrpur, the eldest son and successor of Rājā Basu, rebelled against Jahāngīr and was obliged to take refuge in Chambā where he died.

¹ The passage in question runs: Bare Rãe Bhot-varme de ast Baru Leghe Ganga i prabāh-kari dyā, hor catur barkhe trādh bare Rãe de hoya, Śrī Rãe Samgrām-varme tika leā, ini prakār kari Śri-Rãe Samgrām-varme Barue Leghe ki tāsan dite.

The astrologer of the Rājā of Chambā is in possession of a copper-plate grant issued to one of his ancestors by Amrt Pāl, the chief of the neighbouring State of Basōhļī in A.D. 1774. It appears that at that time the Basōhļī Rājā had invaded Chambā. Another instance of a grant made to the guru of a neighbouring chief is afforded by the copper-plate inscription of Bahādur Singh of Kuļū, mentioned above, which records a grant of land to Paṇḍit Ramāpati, the guru of the Chambā Rājā. The donation was made on the occasion of the marriage of Bahādur Singh's three daughters, presumably with the heir-apparent of Chambā.

We have remarked above that the copper-plates of the pre-Muhammadan period are few in number. We possess one of Yugā-kara-varman, the son of Sāhilla, and one of Yugākara's son Vidagdha. These two presumably belong to the 10th century of our era. The remaining three plates of the pre-Muhammadan period date from the second half of the 11th century. One was issued by Soma-varman, the second by Soma-varman and Asata combined, and the third by Asata alone. These five plates are being edited in the present volume, together with a spurious plate which, though ascribed to Vidagdha, is evidently a forgery of much later date. It would seem, however, that, partly at least, it was copied from a genuine document which has since disappeared.

Of the 12th and 13th centuries not a single copper-plate inscription has come to light, though there is no reason to assume that the rulers of that period were less generous than their predecessors and successors. Of Rājā Vijaya-varman, who must have ruled about A.D. 1200, the Vanisāvalī (śl. 87) distinctly states that he made grants of villages to Brahmans. From the beginning of the 14th century there begins a fresh series of copper-plate charters which is continued without interruption down to the present day. There exists a very obvious difference between the pre-Muhammadan copper-plate inscriptions and those of the Muhammadan period. The former are neatly engraved on good-sized copper-plates and are composed throughout in Sanskrit. The plates of the 14th and 15th centuries are very poor documents, both as regards scholarship and technical execution. In the 16th century we notice a marked improvement, perhaps due to the revival of Hindū civilization under the benign rule of Akbar. The charters of this period exhibit greater knowledge on the part of the writer and greater skill on that of the artisan. Nearly all plates of the Muhammadan period, however, are partly in the vernacular; which circumstance, though adding to their linguistic interest, at the same time points to a decline of Sanskrit learning. The vernacular portion, introduced by the formula atha bhāsā. is that part of the document in which the boundaries of the granted land are described. It was, of course, essential that such passages should be intelligible to local officials who did not possess any knowledge of Sanskrit. Besides, the difficulty of finding Sanskrit equivalents to render local topographical terms is manifest from some of the pre-Muhammadan plates, in which the frequent use of sanskritized vernacular words in these passages often renders their interpretation extremely difficult.

In one respect the charters of the later period are superior to the earlier ones. Nearly all of them are very fully dated both in the local and in some other era, and

thus enable us to fix the approximate dates of all the Chamba Rajas from the 14th century onwards. The pre-Muhammadan plates are dated in the regnal year of the ruling chief, so that their date can only be approximately fixed with the aid of other epigraphical or literary documents. This point will be more fully discussed in a subsequent chapter.

As to the geographical distribution of the copper-plates, it deserves notice that they have been found almost exclusively in the Rāvī valley. In Lahul not a single specimen has come to light; in Pāngī only one is known to exist—that granted by Rājā Pṛthvī Singh to Cāmuṇḍā Devī of Mindhal. In the Curāh division comparatively few copper-plates are found, all belonging to the Muhammadan period. In the Rāvī valley proper, on the contrary, such documents are exceedingly numerous. The pre-Muhammadan plates all belong to this region.

It will be seen that the number of copper-plates in the various parts of Chambā stands in inverse proportion to that of the fountain inscriptions described above. The latter, as we have pointed out, are the records of feudatory chiefs called Rāṇās or Thākurs. It is obvious that the Rājā could only grant lands which were under his direct control. Thus the distribution of fountain inscriptions and of copper-plate grants points to the same conclusion. The Rāvī valley was from a very remote period—almost from the foundation of the present State—under the direct rule of the Rājā, whereas Curāh, Pāṇgī and Lahul remained for a long time in the hands of the Bāṇās. The greater part of Lahul is indeed held by a Thākur up to the present day.

The above will suffice to show the great variety of the Chamba inscriptions. All these documents, however, have one main feature Religious character. in common. They have, almost without exception, a religious purport which is definitely stated in the inscription itself. As to those recording the consecration of temples or images, this is obvious. In the inscription on the brazen bull of Brahmor it is specially stated that the founder, Meru-varman, meant to increase the spiritual fruit of his parents and himself by building a Siva temple and placing an image of the vehicle of that deity in front. The erection of the statue of Śakti Devī at Chatrārhī by the same ruler seems to have been in fulfilment of a pious vow; for we read in the inscription, incised on its pedestal, that it was founded after Meru-varman had conquered his foes in their invincible castles, no doubt with the powerful help of the goddess. A parallel instance of more recent date of such a votive offering may be quoted from the neighbouring hill tract of Kulū. The temple of Hidimbā Devī at Dhungri near Manālī, with its quaint wood carvings, was built by Raja Bahadur Singh in the year A.D. 1553 after his conquest of the valley, in fulfilment of a solemn promise made previously to her—the patron-goddess of Kuļu. At the end of the Sarāhan praśasti it is naively related that the chief Satyaki dedicated a fane to the moon-crowned Siva in order to establish a firm friendship between his wife, the beauteous Somaprabhā, and Śiva's spouse, the Mountain-daughter Durgā.

The fountain of Devi-ri-kothi was built by Balha, the widow of the local Rāṇā, for the benefit of her deceased lord. That of Mūl-Kihār seems to have been

constructed by the husband and children of the noble Sūramati to allay the grief caused by her death. The carved fountain-slabs so numerous in Curāh and Pāngī, as we learn from some of their inscriptions, served a similar purpose. Both the Sālhī and Naghai stones were erected by the local baron for the sake of the future bliss of his wife. That of Sai was set up for the sake of the Rāṇā's son (? rāṇautrā), Phāhi, whose effigy is carved on the slab.

The donations of land to Brahmans and temples, recorded on copper-plates, had likewise, as already stated, the character of pious acts calculated to increase the religious merit of the donor. We read in Vidagdha's copper-plate inscription, that he granted the land "for the sake of spiritual merit and for the increase of the glory of his parents and himself, for the sake of the bliss of the next world and in order to cross the ocean of existence."

The sacred associations attaching to all our inscriptions have in a large degree contributed to preserve them. Where inscriptions have become destroyed, this has been mostly due to the forces of nature. I have met with only a few cases in which inscribed stones had been wantonly destroyed or appropriated for building purposes. The destruction of the Mül-Kihār and Batrūndī inscriptions is said to have happened at the time of the invasion of Amrt Pāl of Basōhlī.

On the other hand, the essentially religious nature of the epigraphs shows at once their limitations as historical records. Practically none of the inscriptions recovered in Chambā—except perhaps the Prolī-rā-galā rock-inscription—are intended to perpetuate the remembrance of a historical event. In some of the copper-plates, it is true, mention is made of the wars waged by Sāhilla, but this is only incidental. It is merely an episode in the eulogy devoted to the great ancestor of the generous donor of the grant. The historically important points—the names of Sāhilla's allies and adversaries, the time and place of the battles fought by him—are omitted. Instead, we have long strings of words which do credit to the author's knowledge of Indian rhetoric, but fail to contribute to our knowledge of Indian history.

CHAPTER III.—THE CHARACTER.

There can be little doubt that in the centuries immediately preceding and following the beginning of the Christian era, the inha-Brahmi and Kharosthi. bitants of the Ravi valley employed both the Brahmi The use of these two scripts in the neighbouring Bias and Kharosthi characters. valley during that period is proved by the Pathyar and Kanhiara rock-inscriptions1 found in the north-east corner of the Kāngrā district not far from the Chambā border. Both are foundation inscriptions of the most primitive kind, consisting of a noun indicating the object founded—in one case a tank (.pukarini), in the other either a convent or a garden (ārāma)—and the name of the founder in the genitive case. These two words are given both in Brahmi and in Kharosthi, but in each case a third word, apparently a caste-name, is added to one of the two legends—at Pathyar to the Kharosthi and at Kanhiara to the Brahmi. Both these rock inscriptions were at one time situated within Chamba territory. The Pathyar inscription I discovered in 1901 near the fort of the same name, which during part of the 18th century was garrisoned by Chambā troops. That of Kanhiara is found in the Rihlu 'ilāqa which formed part of Chamba territory until A.D. 1821, when it was seized by Raujīt Singh. As, however, both these inscriptions date back to a period far anterior to the foundation of the State, I have thought it unnecessary to include them in the present volume.

Within the present limits of the Chambā State, the earliest epigraphs hitherto discovered are the Panali Nālā rock inscriptions (Nos. 1-4). Next in date are the four image inscriptions of Meru-varman (Nos. 5-8) and the slab inscription of his feudatory, Sāmanta Aṣāḍha, (No. 9) which are written in the ornamental nail-head type which succeeded the Gupta character and was used all over Northern India. It is the same script which we find on the base of the Vajra-varāhī image of Carī (map Chari) in the Kāṅgṣā district, and in those of Piñjaur. Numerous instances could be quoted from other par of India. Cunningham assigns the Carī image inscription to the 7th or 8th centur, but the use of the tripartite ya makes me think that it is earlier.

1. ... nck-inscriptions (No. 10) are in the same character. The Proli-rā-gaļā rock inscription of Rājā Mṛtyuńjaya (No. 11), and the Swāim image inscription of Rājānaka Bhogaṭa (No. 12), form a transition from the acute-angled type to the Sāradā.

All remaining epigrapns (Nos. 13-50) edited in the present volume, except

No. 50, are written in the Śāra. . character. The term

"Śāradā."—I may at once note—is now-a-days unknown in Chambā and the character itself is no longer used. Notwithstanding
frequent inquiries, I have not succeeded in tracing a single ancient Śāradā

¹ Cf. Ep. Ind. Vol. VII. No. 16, pp. 116 ff. I may note here that Pathyar is situated six miles south-east (not nine miles south) of Kanhiara. Instead of "lotus-pond" read "tank."

² A. S. R. Vol. V, p. 177, plate XLII and Vol. XIV, p. 72, plate XXII. The inscribed pedestal of the Vajravarahi image of Cari has disappeared.

manuscript in Chambā. The paṇḍits read and write Nāgarī, whilst the popular alphabet is the Hill Ṭākarī or Tākri which will be discussed in the course of this chapter. Among the Chambā paṇḍits I have met only one who can read the later Śāradā (or Devāśeṣa, as he himself calls it) used, in the title-deeds of the Muhammadan period.

"The name Sāradākṣarāni," Bühler' remarks, "means either letters sacred to Śāradā, i.e. Sarasvatī, or it may be taken as the letters which are Sarasvatī, i.e. (visible) speech. Śāradā is considered one of the tutelary deities of the country (Kaśmir) which is frequently named after her Śāradā-deśa or Śāradā-mandala. In India, too, writing in general is called Sarasvatī or Sarasvatī-mukha, "the face of the goddess of speech." It would seem, therefore, that the term Śāradā used by the paṇḍits of Kaśmir, originated in that country. It is not improbable that there the script denoted by that name was also first elaborated.

Bühler³ observes that the Sarada script appears from about A.D. 800 in Kaśmir and in the north-eastern Panjab (Kāngrā and Geographical extension. Chamba). "The oldest known Sarada inscriptions," he says, "are the two Baijnath Prasastis from Kiragrama (Kangra) dated A.D. 804. Not much later are the coins of the Varma dynasty of Kaśmir, where the Śarada forms are likewise fully developed. And it is not improbable that the Bakhshali Manuscript, found in the Yūsufzai district, belongs to the same or even a somewhat earlier period." I may point out that the true date of the Baijnath praéastis is not Śaka 726 (A.D. 804), as Bühler, at the instance of Cunningham, assumed, but Śaka 1126 (A.D. 1204). Regarding the date of this inscription the late Professor Kielhorn' remarked: "In my opinion, the most important question to be answered in connection with that date is, whether the first figure of the Saka year in the date of the second prasasti is 7 or not. Sir A. Cunningham and Professor Bühler say that it is; and if they are right, the laukika year 80 of the date of the first praśasti should, according to what we know at present of the Saptarsi era, no doubt, correspond to Saka 726 expired. But the first of the bright half of Jyaistha did not fall on a Sunday, the day of the week given in the date, in Saka 726 expired, nor in fact in any of the eight years from Saka 722 to 729 expired. If, on the other hand, we were not restricted by the date of the second prasasti to any particular century of the Saka era, I would say that the laukika year 80 of the first praśasti must correspond to Śaka 1126 expired, because, of all the expired 26th years of the centuries of the Saka era, from Saka 626 to Saka 1426, only the year 1126 yields the desired Sunday (the 2nd May, A.D. 1204). And I should not be prevented by anything in the contents of the inscription and the language of the author, or in the alphabet employed, from assigning the inscription to so late a period." I may add that, independently of Professor Kielhorn's researches, a close examination of the inscription has led me to the conclusion that the date noted

¹ Kasmīr Report, p. 31. Cf. also Stein, Rājat. Vol. II, p. 286.

I should prefer to render it as "the mouth of Sarasvati," viz., that through which Sarasvati reveals herself. Compare the expression gurmukhi, i.c., the script through which the guru speaks.

³ Ind. Pal. p. 56 (English p. 57).

⁴ Ind. Ant. Vol. XX (1891), p. 154. Cf. also A. R. A. S. for 1905-06, p. 19 ff.

in the second *praéasti* is not 726 but 112[6], the last figure being effaced. The Baijnath inscriptions, therefore, far from being the earliest Śarada records, belong to a comparatively late period, as will be fully borne out in the subsequent discussion of their palæographical characteristics.

which can be dated with certainty, except the eulogy of the goddess Jvālāmukhī in the famous temple of Vajrešvarī or Mātā Devī at Bhavan, the suburb of Kāngrā town. It is dated in the reign of Rājā Samsāra-Candra I of Kāngrā and of his overlord Muḥammad Sayyid, Emperor of Delhi (A.D. 1433-46). It should be noted that only the first two lines and part of the third line, containing the mangala and the first stanza, are in Śāradā, whereas the rest of the inscription is written in Nāgarī. This shows that in the 15th century both characters were used side by side in the Kāngrā District. The same is proved, for the end of the 13th century, by a Nāgarī inscription on a stone pedestal which must have belonged to a stone statuette of the Jina Mahāvīra, and is now placed in the back niche of the temple of Baijnāth. It is dated [Vikrama-] Samvat 1296, Phālguna ba. ti. 5, Sunday, which corresponds to the 15th January, A.D. 1240.

It is very curious to find the Śarada and Nāgarī alphabets used simultaneously in Kāṅgrā, just as at a much earlier period was the case with Brāhmī and Kharoṣṭhī.

In the Kuļū subdivision we have found no inscriptions anterior to the reign of Bahādur Singh who lived in the middle of the 16th century. In the neighbouring Hill State of Maṇḍi there is a Śāradā inscription dated Śāka-samvat 1442, Kaliyuga 4622 (A.D. 1520) in the temple of Śiva Triloknāth in Purānī Maṇḍi. Still later are the Maṇḍi Satī pillars, the oldest of samvat 13 (A.D. 1637), which have been described by Cunningham. These inscriptions, though of a comparatively late date, prove that the Śāradā character was once used in the whole Biās valley.

In the Satluj valley no Śāradā inscriptions have come to my notice, but considering the close connection of Kuļū and Maṇḍi with Sukhēt and Kalūhr, it is very probable that at one time Śāradā was used there also. It is of interest to note that a fragmentary praśasti, discovered in 1903 in the Sirmor State and now preserved in the Lahore Museum, is written not in Śāradā, but in an early type of Nāgarī. We may, therefore, assume that the Śāradā character is not found east of the Satluj valley.

There can be little doubt that in the Rāvī valley Śāradā was exclusively used.

But it is curious that in the Chambā copper-plate grants of the Muhammadan period the Rājā's seal is engraved in Nāgarī, whereas the charter itself is invariably written in the late form of Śāradā, locally called Devāśeṣa. The earliest document, written throughout in

¹ Cf. Bühler, Ep. Ind. Vol. I., pp. 190 ff. The temple was completely destroyed in the earthquake of 4th April 1905, but the inscription escaped, vide A. R. A. S. for 1905-06, pp. 16 f.

² Cf. A. S. R. Vol. V. p. 183, and Ep. Ind. Vol. I, pp. 118 f. At present a stone image of Sürya is placed on the Jains pedestal.

³ A. S. R. Vol. XIV, p. 123, pl. XXIX and XXX.

⁺ Cf. my Annual Progress Report for 1903-04, pp. 59 f.

Nagari, which I have seen in Chambā is a copper-plate grant of Rājā Rāj Singh dated Śāstra 52, Vikrama 1833, Śaka 1698, Śrāvaṇa śu. ti. 8, Tuesday, corresponding to A.D. 1776. The contemporaneous charters of the Basohļī Rājās Amṛt Pāl (Vikrama 1831, Śaka 1696 = A.D. 1774) and Bijai Pāl (Vikrama 1846, Śaka 1711 = A.D. 1789) are also written in Nāgarī.

In the Cīnāb valley a few Śāradā inscriptions have come to light. One I noticed in a ruined temple on the ancient site of Babor, the ancient Babbāpura, 17 miles east of Jammū, and another on a stone linga at Kaṣṭavāṛ, the ancient Kāṣṭhavāṭa. Unfortunately both these inscriptions are almost completely defaced.

The oldest Śāradā inscriptions in Kaśmīr, as Bühler remarks, are the legends on the coins of the Varman dynasty. Stone inscriptions are rare. The earliest specimen is the fragment of the reign of Queen Diddā (A.D. 980-1003), dated in the 68th year of the Saptarsi era corresponding to A.D. 992-3. It was recovered by Dr. Leitner from the wall of a house at Śrīnagar and presented to the Lahore Museum (Cat. No. I, 10). All other Śāradā inscriptions in Kaśmīr which can be dated, belong to the Muhammadan period. A few have been found in Ladak also.

Thus we see that the Sarada character was once extensively, and probably exclusively, used in the hill area watered by the five Indus valley. great rivers of the Panjab. But further west also Sarada inscriptions have come to light. The Bakhshalai manuscript quoted by Bühler would not perhaps in itself afford conclusive proof of its use in the Peshāwar district. But the neighbouring district of Hazārā, the ancient Uraśa, and the adjoining hill tracts of Swat and Buner, the ancient Udyana, have yielded Sarada inscriptions which are now preserved in the Lahore Museum. One inscription in that Museum (No. 153) is said to originate from Jalalabad in Afghanistan. Peshāwar Museum also contains two Śaradā inscriptions of which the exact find-spot is unknown, but which in all probability belong to the Peshawar or one of the neighbouring districts. There can, therefore, be little doubt that the Śāradā character was used in the ancient Gandhara during the reign of the Shahi dynasty and in the period immediately preceding the Muhammadan conquest. An inscription from Ghagai north-east of Badwan in Swat, now preserved in the Lahore Museum (No. I, 94), is dated samuat 9 in the reign of Hammira. By this name, in reality the sanskritized form of Arabic amīr, Mahmud of Ghaznī is usually designated, but it is also used to denote his successors. In the present case it seems to indicate his son Mas'ūd, as the year A.D. 1033, to which Sastra-samvat 9 would correspond, would fall in his reign (A.D. 1031-1041).

There are indications that at one time Sarada was used in the plains of the Panjab also. A few years ago a fragmentary inscription in that character was discovered in Sabz Pind. It is now deposited in the Lahore Museum. A fact of much interest which only

¹ Cf. Cunningham, Ladak, p. 381, pl. XXX and Francke, History of Western Tibet (London, 1907), p. 52.
² Seventh Oriental Congress: Aryan Section, p. 133 and Ind. Ant. Vol. XVII (1889), pp. 33 ft. and 275 ff.; with facsimiles.

lately has been recognised is that the Pālam well inscription, in the Delhi Museum of Archæology (Cat. No. B 3) is partly written in Śāradā. The concluding portion (part of line 21 and the whole of line 22) are in the vernacular—ancient Bāgrī, as Dr. Grierson is inclined to assume—and for this passage Śāradā is used, whereas all the rest of the inscription which is composed in Sanskrit is written in Nāgarī. The vernacular portion was evidently added for the benefit of the common folk unacquainted with Sanskrit. This circumstance seems to indicate that at the time when this inscription was carved, Śāradā was the popular script used in and around Delhi, whereas Nāgarī was used by the learned. The Pālam inscription is dated in the reign of Balban, Vikrama-samvat 1337, Śrāvana ba. ti. 13, Wednesday, which, according to Professor Kielhorn, corresponds either to 26th June 1280 or 13th August 1281.

It will be noticed that, considering the extent of the area over which Śāradā was once used, the epigraphical records in that character are by no means abundant. Moreover, a large percentage of these Śāradā inscriptions are more or less fragmentary or obliterated. Up to the year 1904 not a single specimen had been reproduced in facsimile, not even the Baijnāth praśastis which have been known since 1875. Besides, there existed, as I have pointed out above, a misconception with regard to the date of these important inscriptions which has only recently been removed. Owing to these circumstances, it has been impossible up to the present to give a detailed history of the Śāradā script, though valuable suggestions have been made by Bühler, Hoernle, and other epigraphists.

The splendid series of epigraphical records, which of late years have come to light in Chambā, will enable us to trace the history of the Śāradā and its derivatives with greater confidence than the scanty material hitherto available would allow. With regard to its origin, we follow Bühler and Hoernle who describe it as a descendant of the western Gupta alphabet. We are now in a position to add that the Śāradā is not a direct descendant of the Gupta, but that an intermediate form is found in the earlier Chambā inscriptions Nos. 5-12 of the present volume. The character of these epigraphs does not essentially differ from that of Madhyadeśa which intervened between the Gupta and Nāgarī. On account of its curls, it used to be designated by the name of kutila for which term Bühler proposes to substitute that of "acute-angled" (spitzwinkelig).

It follows from the above that we cannot accept Hoernle's thesis² that "the elaboration of the so-called Śāradā alphabet may be placed about 500 A.D." Bühler³ rightly points out that the Śāradā as an epigraphical script dates from the end of the 5th or the beginning of the 9th century, though as a literary alphabet it may be considerably older. The earliest dateable documents in which the Śāradā appears are the coins of the Utpala (or Varman) dynasty of Kaśmīr which start from the middle of the 9th century. In the inscriptions of Meru-varman which probably date from the beginning of the 8th century we find the acute-angled type then in use all over Northern India.

Recently a Sarada inscription from Arigom in Kasmir has been published with a facsimile by Dr. Sten Konow, Ep. Ind. Vol. 1X. pp. 300 ff. It belongs to the reign of Ramadeva of Kasmir and is dated Laukika samvat 73, corresponding to A.D. 1197.

² J. A. S. B. Vol. LX (1891), p. 90.

³ Kasmir Report, p. 31.

It must have taken not less than a century before this script developed into the Sāradā from which it differs so materially. The earliest Šāradā inscription of Chambā I consider to be the Sarāhaṇ praśasti (No. 13) which exhibits some singularly archaic forms. Unfortunately it is not dated, but I feel inclined to assign it to the 9th century. The earliest Śāradā inscriptions of Chambā, which can be approximately dated, are the copper-plate grants of Yugākara and Vidagdha, the immediate successors of Sāhilla, who may be safely placed in the 10th century. For the 11th and 12th centuries we possess a series of fully dated records in which we can follow the development of the Sāradā up to the beginning of the 13th century, the date of the Baijnāth praśastis.

With these the history of the Śāradā proper comes practically to an end. It is

true that Bühler applies the term Śāradā also to the script used in the mangala and first verse of the Jvālāmukhī eulogy of Kāngrā-city, which, as noticed above, dates from about A.D. 1440. The script, however, of this and similar later records differs so considerably from that of the pre-Muhammadan documents that it seems desirable to denote it by a special name. In Chambā I found it designated as devāśesa, and, though the term does not seem to be known elsewhere, I have adopted it in the present work for the sake of convenience. By this name then I propose to indicate the script which was used in Chambā and the neighbouring Hill tracts from c. A.D. 1300 till c. A.D. 1700. The 13th century forms a blank which separates the two palæographical periods.

We have seen that in the course of the 18th century the Nagari was adopted in Chamba for epigraphical records. In Kasmir the Tākarī. common use of Devanagari cannot be traced back beyond the second quarter of the 19th century. In the Kangra district we find it already introduced several centuries before. The Sarada, however, or rather its descendant, the Devásesa, continues as the popular script of the Panjāb Hills under the name of Tākarī or Tākrī. Bühler refers to it as "a modern cursive variety of the Śaradā, the so-called Takkarī or Takarī of the Dogras in Jammū and the neighbourhood, which of late has been imported also into Kaśmir." In reality, the Takari is used all over the Panjab Hills, except perhaps in the Simla district. There are a great number of varieties, each Hill State or tract having its own peculiar Tākarī. That of Jammu is called Dogri. The Takari is in general very difficult to read and, if occasionally used for inscriptions, almost undecipherable. It will, no doubt, be the despair of future epigraphists. It is a curious circumstance that in general the oldest inscriptions are the easiest to decipher.

As regards the origin of the term Tākarī or Tākrī, two etymologies may be suggested. It may be connected with tankā which would point to its having been in the first instance a commercial alphabet. A parallel is furnished by the word

¹ Stein, Rajat. Vol. I, p. 51.

² Ind. Pal. p. 57 (English p. 57). Cf. also Kasmīr Report, p. 32. Cunningham, Anc. Geogr. p. 153 and J. K. A. S. for 1891, p. 362 on the Dogrī of Jammā; cf. Drew, Jummoo, pp. 471 f. A table showing the Takarī now used in Chambā has been published by Oldham, J. E. A. S. for 1891, p. 360.

Mahājanī (from mahājan, "a banker"). Another possibility is to connect it with thakur (Sanskrit thakkura) in which case it may originally have been the character used by the Raiput landholders. The latter derivation would, however, presuppose the disaspiration of the initial consonant. Disaspiration, as Dr. Grierson informs me, is very frequent in the dialects further west towards the Indus hills and also in Rajasthani which is closely connected with Pahari. But it does not seem to occur in the case of the aspirated hard cerebral. In this connection, I wish to note that the name Takari also denotes the commercial short-hand used by the banyas of certain districts of the Panjab. I am not prepared to say what its relationship is to the Takari of the Hills, and whether it is derived from Sarada. little doubt that Gurmukhī—the alphabet in which the vernacular of the Panjāb is now-a-days written—is a descendant of the ancient Śarada. Some aksaras like ka. ja, na, na, ya, la, va, and ha show a peculiar development, but on the whole the ancient forms have been well preserved. The sign for the cerebral sibilant is used to denote the aspirated hard guttural. The remaining gutturals (except ka), the cerebrals (except na), the dentals (except na), and the labials (except ba) are very similar to the corresponding Sarada letters. This confirms the conclusion arrived at above that the Śāradā character was once used not only in the Hills, but also in the Plains of the Panjab.1

Previous writers have laid great stress on the extremely conservative character of the Śāradā alphabet. Cunningham² refers to it as "Gupta character" which, he asserts, has been always in use in the hills between the Jamnā and the Indus. "In fact," he continues, "the Baniyās of the hills still keep their accounts in Gupta character, and when I placed a copy of the Allahabad pillar inscription of Samudra-gupta before a Baniya, he read off at once Mahārājādhirāja-Śrī-Candragupta."

Professor Kielhorn, in editing the copper-plate grant of Soma-varman and Āsata (No. 25 of the present volume), remarked "that it would have been impossible to determine the age of that inscription even approximately from the characters in which it is written." Dr. Hoernle also formulated the thesis that "the Śāradā characters are no guide as to age" and declared that "any undated manuscript or inscription written in the Śāradā alphabet must be placed after 500 A.D., but may be placed almost at any time after that epoch."

Notwithstanding their great authority in palæographical matters, I cannot concur with the opinion of the writers just quoted. It is, I believe, based on insufficient evidence owing to the scantiness of the material. Regarding the conservative nature of the Śaradā, there can be no difference of opinion, but it cannot be maintained that in the course of many centuries, it has not undergone any modifications. It is possible that the Śarada used in manuscripts by the Kaśmir pandits has remained unchanged, from the time it ceased to be a popular alphabet. But the series of inscriptions found in Chambā shows a slow but distinct development in

¹ Cf. G. A. Grierson, On the Modern Indo-Aryan Alphabets of North-Western India, J. R. A. S. for 1904, pp. 67 ff. with plates showing Gurankhi, Lands, Țākri, and Śāradā alphabets.

¹ A. S. R. Vol. XIV, p. 121.

^{*} Ind. Ant. Vol. XVII, p. 7, n. 2.

the shapes of certain mātṛkās and ligatures and in the expression of the medial vowels. This I wish to demonstrate in detail in the following pages. The difference between the Śāradā proper and the Devāseṣa of the Muhammadan period is so marked, that it will be noticed at a glance. But I believe that a close examination of the character will also enable us to fix the approximate date of any undated Śāradā record of the pre-Muhammadan period, provided it is extensive enough to lend itself to a detailed study.

"A general characteristic," Bühler' says, "of the Sarada of all periods is found in the stiff, thick strokes, which give the characters an General appearance. uncouth appearance and a certain resemblance to those of the Kusana period." This remark holds good of the later Sarada inscriptions as exemplified by the Paijnath pracestis which formed the main basis for Buhler's observations, but does not in the same degree apply to the earlier inscriptions. The Sarada, it is true, is far less ornamental than the acute-angled script of Meruvarman's inscriptions, which preceded it. But the character of the Sarahan praśasti (No. 13) and that of Vidagdha's copper-plate grant (No. 15) cannot be said to be any more uncouth than that of an ordinary Gupta or Nagari inscription. Much depends on the ability of the engraver, and in general it may be stated that the earlier documents are better executed than the later ones. This observation may be of some help in determining the age of an inscription, but does not, of course, in itself afford a sufficient criterion. We have only to compare the Salhī fountain inscription (No. 34), with its squat, thick-set letters, and that of Devi-riköthi (No. 32) in which the Śarada attains a remarkable degree of elegance. Yet these two inscriptions belong to the reign of the same Raja and are separated by a period of only ten years. The probable explanation is that Rāṇā Nāg Pāl of Dēvī Kothi had the means to employ an abler artisan than his neighbour Rana Ludar Pál of Sálhi.

The graceful appearance of the Devi-ri-kothi inscription is largely due to the use of slim strokes with distinct nailheads or wedges at the top. Such nailheads, it will be seen, occur in other Sarada inscriptions also, especially in connection with the aksaras ka, ta, da, na, la, ra.

We find them in the Baijnath prasestis and in general in all carefully executed stone inscriptions, such as that of Mul Kihar (No. 35). But in the Sarahan prasastis the nailheads are replaced by small horizontal strokes and the same is the case with the copper-plate grants. Here it is evidently due to the nature of the material. This may be inferred from Yugakara's grant (No. 14), in which we notice a very unusual fashion of finishing the vertical strokes at the top by means of two short lines forming a right angle turned upwards. It looks as if the engraver had attempted to imitate the wedges of the stone inscriptions. In the inscriptions of the Muhammadan period nailheads are not found; this constitutes at once a point of difference between the earlier and the later character.

I now proceed to discuss the development of the Śāradā characters in detail, taking successively, at the instance of Bühler, the radical signs or mātṛkās, the medial vowels, and the ligatures.

A. The radical signs or matrkas.

The initial a and \bar{a} retain throughout in Sarada the shape which they have in the acute-angled alphabet. The head of these letters remains open. The lower portion of the left half consists of a curve open towards the left which already occurs in the inscriptions of the Kusana period. This curve is also preserved in the Devanagari of the Bombay Presidency, whereas elsewhere it has become replaced by two slanting strokes.\(^1\) At the foot of the vertical to the left there is a wedge which on the copper-plates assumes the appearance of a serif (Cf. No. 14, ll. 1, 14 and 18.)

The long \bar{a} is invariably differentiated from the short one by the addition of a second curve, open to the left, which is attached to the foot of the vertical (Cf. No. 13, l. 19). This curve is already regularly found in the acute-angled script. In the inscriptions of Meru-varman we twice find the curve (Nos. 6 and 8) and twice a downward stroke to the right of the top (No. 5), such as has become current in Devanāgarī. In the Gaņeśa and Śakti inscriptions (Nos. 5 and 8) the a has a somewhat uncommon shape. In Devāseṣa initial a and \bar{a} preserve essentially the same shape as in Śaradā, but the top is closed by means of a top-stroke as in Devanāgarī, and the wedge at the foot of the vertical sometimes becomes a triangular loop. (Cf. No. 16, ll. 6 and 8 and $Kul\bar{u}$ grant, ll. 7 and 13).

The initial i has preserved in Sarada the shape peculiar to the acute-angled script, which is derived from the ancient Brāhmi by substituting a curve for the lowermost of the three dots. According to Bühler, it is first found in the Indore copper-plate of Skandagupta of A.D. 465.² In the Saradā inscriptions it has remained unchanged and is still found in exactly the same form on the Chambā copper-plates of the Muhammadan period. Instances will be found in No. 13, ll. 3 and 7; No. 28, ll. 3 and 4; No. 29, l. 11; No. 30, l. 2; No. 33, l. 3.

Of initial $\bar{\imath}$ only very few instances occur in our inscriptions. In the Sarāhan praśasti (No. 13, l. 1) it has exactly the same appearance as in the Bower MS. (Ind. Pal. pl. VI, 4, I) namely, the upper and lower dots of the ancient sign, which consisted of four dots, have been converted into a vertical stroke with a wedge on each end. This shape, however, does not seem to have been preserved in Śaradā. In the Baijnāth inscriptions (II, l. 7, Ind. Pal. pl. V, 4, I) we find the vertical stroke considerably shortened and the two dots placed over it. At what time this form became introduced, it is impossible to say, as I do not know of any instance of this letter in the intervening period.

Initial u retains in Saradā its shape of the Gupta period. For instances I refer to No. 13, 1.17; No. 14, 1.10; No. 15, 11.13 (twice), 15 and 26; No. 24, 11.16 (twice) and 20. In the Bakhshalai MS, we find the upward stroke lengthened up to the level of the top-stroke, and this is also sometimes the case in the Chambā inscriptions. Initial u retains the same shape in the inscriptions of the Muhammadan period (cf. No. 16, 1.11). The upward stroke differentiates the u from t. In the later inscriptions the two aksaras are often hard to distinguish.

¹ Cf. Bühler, Ind. Pal. p. 53 (3).

² Gupta Inser., pp. 68 ff; plate IX-B.

Initial \bar{u} has the same appearance as u but is provided with a downward curve attached to the middle of the letter on the right side. It occurs in No. 13, l. 17 and No. 24, l. 23.

Initial e appears in its ancient triangular shape, but a wedge attached to the left end of the top stroke constitutes an innovation. We notice two varieties: 1st, the triangle is equicrural (almost equilateral), its base forming the top-stroke, 2nd, the triangle is rectangular, the rectangle being formed by the top-stroke and the vertical. The equicrural or equilateral form which is the more archaic is generally found in the older Chambā inscriptions [No. 13, Il. 1 and 15; No. 15, Il. 15 and 24; No. 24, Il. 20 and 21; No. 25, I. 20 (twice)]. The other later form occurs in No. 14, I. 7; No. 15, I. 8; No. 26, I. 17, and in Baijnāth (I, 16, 18, II 5, but cf. I, 7). An uncommon squarish variety is that found in No. 26, I. 12.

No instance of initial ai is known from Sarada inscriptions. In manuscripts it presents the appearance of initial e with superscribed e stroke (Ind. Pal. pl. VI, 12, VII).

Initial o occurs exclusively in the sacred syllable om which, however, is mostly expressed by a symbol, derived from an earlier form of that letter (cf. Ind. Pal. pl. IV, 6, XVIII). This symbol is regularly found in Meru-varman's inscriptions (Nos. 5—8) and also in that of Sāmanta Aṣādha (No. 9), where it is provided with a long tail. For other instances see No. 13, l. 1; No. 15, l. 1; No. 25, l. 1; No. 26, l. 1; No. 28, l. 1; No. 29, l. 1. It will be seen that the original akṣara is often partly or wholly inverted. The syllable om is rendered by initial o with anusvāra in No. 14, l. 1; No. 24, l. 1; No. 33, l. 1. The akṣara has the appearance of initial u with a wedge or serif in front. It would seem that in the Baijnāth inscriptions initial o is expressed by the sign for initial u with a curve attached to the right, very similar to that found in initial \bar{u} (cf. Ind. Pal. pl. V, 9, I). I suspect, however, that this additional curve is in reality a separate stroke used as a sign of punctuation. It will be noticed that in the Śāradā of the Kaśmīr MSS. initial o has no such curve. Here we find the pṛṣṭhamātrā developed into a vertical which closes the sign u in front (Ind. Pal. pl. VI, 13, IX; cf. also Kulū grant, l. 1).

Initial au is expressed in the same manner, but a wedge is added to the right of the top of the letter. (*Ibidem* 14, IX). It does not occur in inscriptions.

The ka (except in ku, kr and as upper or central member of ligatures) retains the shape which it has assumed in the acute-angled script where the left end of the cross-bar is connected with the foot of the vertical. The loop thus formed is in general more rounded in the older inscriptions (also in the Bakhshalai MS. See Ind. Pal. VI, 15, VIII) and more angular in the later ones. In the inscriptions of the Muhammadan period the curve on the right side is sometimes connected with the vertical, thus forming a second loop (of. Kulū grant, passim). This development gives the letter an appearance similar to that of cha from which it is often difficult to distinguish. The double looped ka is also found in the Śaradā MSS. of Kaśmir (Ind. Pal. pl. VI, 15, I). It has led to a further modification in the modern Tākarī, where the ka resembles the cursive capital W of the Roman alphabet. The Gurmukhī ka seems to be derived direct from the Śaradā form with single loop.

The kha may be best described as an ancient dha with a vertical to the left attached to it by means of a top-stroke (No. 13, ll. 14, 18, 19). Here also the later form is in general more angular than the older one. In inscriptions of the 12th century (Nos. 31 and 35) we find, moreover, a peculiar development of the above noted vertical which follows, as it were, the outline of the supposed dha and becomes crooked. This, however, is only an ephemeral form, as it is not found in the contemporaneous Sālhī inscription (No. 33, l. 3 likhitam) nor in the Baijnāth praśastis. In the Devāsesa also the vertical is straight (No. 16, likhitam in top margin and Kuļū grant, l. 20).

In the grant of Vidagdha (No. 14) the letter ga is occasionally distinguished by a serif at the top of the vertical and a wedge at the foot of the second stroke. But for the rest, ga retains the same shape all through the series of Sāradā inscriptions. It is identical with the Nāgarī letter.

The letter gha also remains unchanged. Cf. No. 31, 1. 23; No. 35 Ghaghuka.

The aksara na is only found in combination with other gutturals. It has retained its shape of the Gupta period, but is characterised by a wedge at the right end of the top-stroke. Such a protuberance is also found in the alphabet immediately preceding the Nagari. Bühler sees in it the origin of the dot of the Nagari na.

Bühler mentions "the quadrangular ca" as one of the characteristic letters of the Śāradā. It should, however, be noticed that in the earlier inscriptions, such as the Sarāhan praśasti (No. 13) and the Chambā copper-plates, the shape of this letter is still rounded with a pointed projection to the left, exactly as in the inscriptions of the Gupta period. This form is also found in the Bakhshalai MS. In the epigraphs of the 12th century (e.g., Nos. 31 and 35) it assumes a more angular form and is very similar to the ra except for a knob which has replaced the projection of the older type. The quadrangular ca, peculiar to the Kaśmīr MSS., is not found in our inscriptions. In Devāśeṣa and Ṭākarī we find ca provided with a cursive loop.

The cha appears in its ancient shape of the Gupta period which it keeps both in Sāradā and in Nāgarī. In later inscriptions, as noted above, it is often difficult to distinguish this letter from the ka with double loop.

The ja, which in Nagari has undergone such considerable modifications, appears in the Śaradā in exactly the same form as in the acute-angled alphabet, which differs but slightly from that found in the earliest Brāhmī. In no other letter perhaps is the conservative nature of the Śaradā better illustrated. The Śaradā ja differs from that of the Gupta period in its more cursive appearance and in a wedge attached to the right end of the top-stroke. This wedge, which may easily be confused with the \bar{a} mark, disappears in the inscriptions of the Muhammadan period. The peculiar forms of $j\bar{a}$ will be discussed beneath.

The aksara jha is very rare. In our inscriptions it is only met with in the ligature jjhi (No. 13, l. 11 rasojjhitena), which agrees closely with the aksara jjha in the Bower MS. (Ind. Pal. pl. VI, 23, II).

The palatal nasal also occurs only in combination with other letters. I may

¹ I may note that single na occurs in a grant of Prthvi Singh (l. 6 Pāni for Pāngi) to the temple of Camunda Devi at Mindhal.

note $\hat{n}ca$ (No. 30, ll. 13, 15), $\tilde{n}ce$ (No. 13, l. 20), $\tilde{n}cha$ (No. 32, l. 20), $\tilde{n}ja$ (No. 13, ll. 6, 7, 8, 20), and for the Muhammadan period $\tilde{n}ja$ (No. 16, l. 8). It still betrays its descent from the ancient Brāhmi $\tilde{n}a$, but has developed a top-stroke with a wedge similar to that of ja, but attached to the other (left) end. Its shape is exactly the same as that found in the Bower MS. In the later Kaśmir MS3, the wedge has become a vertical stroke just as in the case of initial o noted above.

The appearance of the two hard cerebrals in Sarada does not present anything remarkable. Both letters have practically preserved the ancient forms of the Brāhmī, except that la has developed a top-stroke. This top-stroke—it should be noted—is not yet found in the earlier Sarada inscriptions of Chambā (Cf. No. 13, l. 2, Bhogato; No. 15, l. 9, cāta-bhata). But it appears in the copper-plates of the 11th century (No. 24, l. 2; No. 25, l. 3). It will be seen that here too, as in the case of ja, a wedge is attached to the right end of the top-stroke. This wedge occurs already in the carliest Sarada inscriptions. It is also found in the Saradā of Kaśmīr.

Among the Śāradā letters which exhibit a peculiar development, Bühler mentions the da "which shows in the middle a loop instead of an acute angle, and a wedge at the end." The loop, however, is not apparent in the examples to which he refers. Possibly it occurs in the Śāradā of Kaśmīr. We find a looped da in the Nandi inscription of Meru-varman (No. 7, maṇḍapa), but I have not met it in the Śāradā inscriptions of Chambā (Cf. No. 14, 1. 6, maṇḍala; No. 15, l. 9, daṇḍika-daṇḍavāsika; No. 24, l. 16, maṇḍalasya; No. 31, l. 13, akāṇḍa, daṇḍa-caṇḍa; No. 33, l. 3, krīḍā). It will be seen that in Vidagdha's grant (No. 15) the wedge at the foot of the letter presents the appearance of a miniature quadrangle.

The akṣara dha has in Śāradā practically the same shape as in the Kuṣaṇa and Gupta inscriptions (Cf. No. 24, l. 14, praudha). The ligature rdha occurs in the proper name, Rardhā, found in the three copper-plate grants of the 12th century (No. 24, l. 19; No. 25, ll. 12, 16; No. 26, l. 5). The akṣaras dha and pha are very similar in appearance and are sometimes difficult to distinguish (Cf. Phāhi in No. 35).

The cerebral nasal of the Sarada shows a very peculiar development.¹ Bühler remarks that in the acute-angled script the suppression of the original base stroke occurs in ligatures from the 7th century and in the uncombined sign from the 8th century. This is well illustrated by the inscriptions of Meru-varman (Cf. nda in mandapa No. 7 with single n in puttrena, varmmanā, Guggena No. 5), and confirms my conclusion with regard to the approximate date of these epigraphs. The transition between the two forms of n will be clearly seen by comparing the nya of punya in No. 5 with that in No. 8. In the earlier Śaradā inscriptions we still find the single na occasionally provided with a remnant of a base-stroke (No. 13 passim, but note guno, l. 3; No. 21, Varuna, l. 1, but Phālgunī, l. 2). Already in the early copper-plates we find the peculiar Śaradā n, which resembles a tashdād with a small upward stroke to the right. This is also the type found in the Bakhshalai MS. (Ind. Pal. pl. VI, 29, VIII). In defaced inscriptions the trace left by na is

¹ Mitra, when editing the Pālam well inscription (J. A. S. B. Vol. XLIII, pp. 104 ff.) was curiously led satray by the Sāradā na.

always easily recognisable. In the later Śāradā inscriptions the aksara undergoes a further development. It is provided with a long tail attached to the left side and slanting down to the right. This tailed n is not yet found on the copper-plates of Soma-varman and Āsaṭa, but appears first in the Löh-Tikrī inscription of Jāsaṭa's reign (No. 29). The epigraphs of the time of Lalita-varman (Nos. 30-33) have the older form, but the tailed n is regularly used in the Mūl-Kibār inscription (No. 34) and also in the Baijnāth praśastis (Cf. Ind. Pal. pl. V, 24, I). We may infer that the tail has developed in the course of the 12th century. In the Devāseṣa we find the forms with and without the tail used promiscuously (No. 16 passim).

The dental ta, according to Bühler, being derived from a looped form, has lost its left half, while the right has been converted into a curve. Looped forms are occasionally met in the Chambā inscriptions (No. 13, l. 1, satatā and No. 21); they may easily be confused with bha in badly carved inscriptions. The ordinary form without the loop remains unchanged all through the Sāradā and has been preserved in the modern alphabets.

The tha appears in the Śaradā inscriptions in two distinct forms. The older one, which is very similar to that of the Gupta period has the shape of a crescent, the convex side turned to the left (No. 13; less pronounced in No. 15). The later form, which is lozenge-shaped, occurs in inscriptions of the 12th century (No. 31, l. 16) and in the Baijnath praśastis (Ind. Pal. pl. V, 26, I). In Śaradā, as in the older script, the tha is similar to sa except for its top-stroke.

The Śaradā da has the same form as in the Gupta character. In the inscriptions of the Muhammadan period it develops a loop (No. 16) which is already noticeable in the Bhakund fountain inscription (No. 21 deva). This loop is very pronounced in the modern Tākarī of Chambā.

The aksara dha shows the same two varieties as tha from which it is only distinguished by the absence of a cross-bar. In the earlier Saradā inscriptions it is still crescent-shaped. In the Sarāhaṇ praśasti for instance, single dha has precisely the same appearance as in the Aśoka inscriptions. In dhā, however, it develops a top-stroke. This crescent-shaped dha is also found in the grant of Vidagdha (No. 15). Gradually the top-stroke is adopted for the single letter also which then becomes almost identical with va. This form is found in the inscriptions of the 11th century. In the 12th century the letter is flattened below also, so that it assumes the aspect of a Devanāgarī pa (Cf. No. 31, l. 2 and Ind. Pal. pl. V, 28, I). The extreme of this process has been reached in the Sai fountain inscription (No. 35), where the original crescent has become a square. This form, however, is not found anywhere else. The later alphabets have preserved the type of the 11th century with its flat top and rounded base.

The dental nasal appears in a very extraordinary form in the Nandi inscription of Meru-varman (No. 7), the loop being attached to the top-strokes so that the letter is hardly to be distinguished from ma. This form, as far as I know, is not found anywhere else. A looped na is still used in the Bhakund inscription (No. 21), but in the ordinary Śāradā the loop has been replaced by a slightly slanting stroke to the proper right of the vertical. In the later inscriptions (No. 34 and Baijnāth) the letter slants to the right.

In the older Śaradā inscriptions pa has the same shape as in the Gupta period.

Later it becomes more angular, but on the whole it preserves its ancient form. It is distinguished from sa by the absence of a cross-bar, from ma by the absence of a loop, and from ca by the absence of a top-stroke and loop. In Tākarī and Gurmukhī pa has preserved the same shape which it has in Śāradā.

The akrara pha differs from its Maurya ancestor only in that it has a top-stroke, and its curve is sometimes developed into a loop. It may easily be confused with dha which is slightly more angular. Instances of pha will be found in No. 7 (phalā); No. 13, l. 8 (dvirepha); No. 15 (phalam); No. 21 (Phalgunī); No. 35 (Phāhi); No. 34, l. 3 (phala), l. 6 (raiphalya). In Gurmukhī and Ṭākarī the letter differs but little from the Šāradā, its shape being similar to that of Devanāgarī dha.

Bühler remarks that, as va was very generally pronounced ba, the ancient sign for ba was lost in Northern India. It was replaced by va in the inscriptions of the 7th and later centuries. The Devanāgarī has developed a new character for ba, but in Śaradā only one sign is used for both. The only inscription in which, as far as I can see, a distinction is made between ba and va, is the Dēvī-rī-kōthī praśasti (No. 31). There we find that ba (l. 6, $b\bar{a}lab$) and bu (l. 16) have a rounded shape, whereas va (passim) is angular. But I must add that ba in bahu (l. 18) is decidedly angular. It will be seen subsequently that in some inscriptions we notice a difference between ba and va in ligatures. In my transcripts I have throughout employed the letter required by the case.

The aksara bha appears in Śarada in two forms, either with an inverted wedge or with an open triangle. The wedged form which is the older of the two is, in general, used in the stone inscriptions, and that with the triangle in copper-plates. In both cases the letter differs but slightly from ta with which it may be easily confused. As in less carefully executed inscriptions the triangle becomes more open and less defined, the bha becomes very similar to ha (Cf. No. 28). In the Devāsesa and the modern alphabets the triangle has become a triangular loop, but for the rest the letter has remained the same.

In the inscriptions of Meru-varman ma has the cursive loop which is also found in the Nāgarī letter and, according to Bühler, appears from the 8th century. In the Śāradā such a loop is only met with in exceptional cases (No. 21, $n\bar{a}ma$). Usually it has either a slight projection of the horizontal to the left (Nos. 13, 15, 24, 25, 26, also Ind. Pal. pl. V, 34, I) or a knob (No. 31). It will be seen that in the latter case the horizontal slants downward and is attached to the foot of the vertical. Here the ma has become identical with ca except for the absence of a top-stroke. It is curious that in the Devāšeṣa ma appears again with a loop (No. 16). This loop is rounded like that of ca, whereas sa and \acute{sa} have triangular loops. As the shape of the loop and the top-stroke are the only means of distinguishing those letters, there is ample room for confusion. In Tākarī the ma has undergone a considerable modification, as here the horizontal has become connected with the top of the vertical, so that the letter has assumed the appearance of Roman n. The same

¹ Kielhorn (Ind. Ant. Vol. XVII, p. 8) notes that in the copper-plate grant of Soma-varman and Asata (No. 25) ba is everywhere noted by the sign for va.

change has taken place in δa (used for δa) which is similar to ma, but has retained its top-stroke.

In Śaradā the bipartite ya is used exclusively. It differs from the corresponding

Nāgarī letter by the absence of a top-stroke. The curve
is also more pronounced, especially in the more ornamental inscriptions (Nos. 31, 34). At Baijnāth it resembles pa. In the Muhammadan
period the letter develops a top-stroke (No. 16), which is preserved in Gurmukhī
and Tākarī.

In the inscriptions of Meru-varman we find the tailed ra which is still used in modern Nāgarī. The Śāradā has retained the older wedged type of the Gupta period. On the copper-plates, except that of Vidagdha, we usually find, instead of a wedge, a slight upward stroke to the left which gives the aksara an appearance very similar to na. In Vidagdha's copper-plate grant (No. 15) the wedge is occasionally replaced by a small triangle. This triangle is more pronounced in some of the fountain são inscriptions and is regularly found in the epigraphs of the Muhammadan period. It has assumed the shape of a rounded loop in the modern alphabets derived from the Śāradā — I may note here that a looped r is used in the word Narasimhasya in the grant of Yugākara (No. 14, l. 12), from which I infer that this word has been engraved at a time much posterior to the issuing of the plate. The other aksaras also differ from those used in the inscription.

In the older Śāradā inscriptions la appears sometimes in a very archaic form (No. 15, l. 19, lo). In general we can distinguish two types. In the earlier Śāradā inscriptions la has a curve attached to the vertical by means of a small horizontal line, which represents the original base-stroke. This type was still prevalent in the beginning of the 12th century (Cf. No. 28). In the inscriptions of the reign of Lalita varman we find the horizontal line replaced by a second curve (Nos. 31 and 34). In the Sai fountain inscription (No. 35) we find both forms used. The Baijnāth praśastis have throughout the later form with double curve. In the modern scripts of the Panjāb this letter has undergone a peculiar modification, in that the vertical has become suppressed and the double curve is attached direct to the top stroke. A transitional form may be seen in the spurious grant of Vidagdha (No. 16).

The aksara ra, as noted above, is used in Sāradā to denote ba also. It has retained its shape of the later Gupta epoch and remained unchanged till the Muhammadan period. In the Dēvī-rī-kōṭhī and Sai inscriptions it appears in an angular form which, however, is only ephemeral. In the two inscriptions just mentioned the ra resembles both ca and pa, but in the other Sāradā inscriptions, where it occurs in its more common form, it bears a close resemblance to dha. In Devāsesa it is similar to the va of Nāgarī (Cf. No. 16), but in the modern alphabets, owing to the loss of the vertical, it appears in an altogether different aspect.

The Śāradā akṣara śa differs essentially from the corresponding letter in the acute-angled script, as exemplified in the ornamental inscriptions of Meru-varman. It is, however, interesting to note that in the Śakti image inscription (No. 8) a much simpler type of śa is found, consisting of a looped square attached to a vertical. This is the shape in

which the \$\frac{\epsilon}{a}\$ appears in the Saradā, a form similar to that of the Gupta period. In the stone inscriptions the loop is usually replaced by a wedge, but in case the inscription is carved in bold letters, we find a distinct triangular loop (No. 21). In the copper-plate grant of Vidagdha (No. 15) also such a loop will be noticed. In the other copper-plates the two lines cross each other, but the triangle is left open on one side. This explains how the \$\frac{\epsilon}{a}\$ is occasionally interchanged with \$\frac{\epsilon}{a}\$ in copper-plate inscriptions. In the epigraphs of the Muhammadan period the \$\frac{\epsilon}{a}\$ is regularly provided with the triangular loop. In Takari the \$\frac{\epsilon}{a}\$ has undergone the same change as \$ma\$ described above. It is distinguished from the latter by a top-stroke. It should be noted that in the modern alphabets the sign with the top-stroke, which in Saradā denotes the palatal sibilant, is used as the symbol for the dental sibilant, the palatal having become amalgamated with the dental in pronunciation.

Both in the image inscriptions of Meru-varman and in the later Śarada records, sa has retained the shape of the western Gupta character. A variety occurs in the Gum stone inscription (No. 9) (and, less pronounced, in the Sarahan prafasti), where the upper portion of the vertical above the cross-bar has been suppressed. This peculiarity leads to an exceptional shape of the ligature ksa also. It has already been noticed that the Śaradā sa is similar to tha, except for the absence of a top-stroke. From pa it is distinguished by its cross-bar. In the Gurmukhi and Ṭākari alphabets the aksara has preserved its ancient shape, but it is used to denote the aspirated hard guttural, into which the Sanskrit cerebral sibilant has become changed. This explains why we sometimes find the aksara kha replaced by the aksara sa in the inscriptions of the Muhammadan period. It is very curious that in the present case of a phonetic change (lautwandel), as well as in those of va < ba and \$a < sa mentioned above, the aksara denoting the sound which has become changed, has survived, whereas that expressing the sound into which it became merged, has been lost.

The dental sibilant occurs in Meru-varman's inscriptions both with a triangular loop and with an open triangular wedge similar to that of bha. The wedged form is also found in the copper-plate grant of Vidagdha (No. 15), but in the other copper-plates we have the same cross shape as we have noticed in the aksara sa. In the Deväsesa it has a triangular loop and is distinguished from the sa by the absence of a top-stroke. In the modern scripts, as just noted, it has been replaced by the symbol for sa.

The aksara ha preserves in Śāradā its shape of the later Gupta period.

During the Muhammadan period the lower curve is lengthened and turned farther backward. This leads to the modern forms of the Panjāb alphabets in which the upper curve has been straightened out and the lower one turned to the left.

The visarga and anusvāra do not present any particular features in Sāradā. The only point worth noticing is that, in several Chambā inscriptions composed in

Thus we find the name Qutbu-d-din rendered as पुष्पदीन in the Palam well inscription (v. 4). Cf. Delhi Museum Cat., p. 23, and the personal name Khetala as पेसल in the Sarban well inscription (v. 13); ibidem p. 35. Hence also the kh in Oupnekhat (Upanisad) of Anquetil du Perron.

corrupt Sanskrit, the real meaning of the *visarga* is misunderstood and it is regularly used as a sign of punctuation to separate words and sentences (*Cf.* Nos. 28 and 33).

It is one of the most notable characteristics of the Śāradā that we find the jihvāmūlīya and upadhmānīya used with great regularity (Cf. however No. 24, l. 18). I may note that in the Chambā inscriptions of the Muhammadan period those two characters are no longer used. The jihvāmūlīya occurs in the Lakṣaṇā image inscription of Meru-varman (No. 5) in a shape very similar to that of the va of Nāgarī. It has the same rounded form in the Chambā inscriptions (No. 13, l. 6; No. 14, ll. 6, 14; No. 15, l. 5; No. 24, l. 20; No. 25, l. 13; No. 26, l. 7). This form occurs also in the Bakhshalai MS. (Ind. Ant. XVII, p. 277) and is identical with the jihvāmūlīya of the Pehoa praśasti of c. A.D. 900 (Ind. Pal. pl. V, 47, III.) In the Baijnāth praśastis, on the contrary, we find a distinctly angular form, very similar to the va as found in those same inscriptions (Ind. Pal. pl. V, 47, I; but cf. Baijnāth I, 4). We have already had occasion to notice the preference given to angular forms in the praśastis of Baijnāth.

The upadhmānīya has in the older Śāradā inscriptions the shape of the figure 8 taid sideways. (No. 13, l. 2; No. 15, l. 28). It closely resembles the corresponding symbol of early Gupta inscriptions (Ind. Pal. pl. IV, 46, III), and occurs in exactly the same form in the Pehoa praśasti (Ind. Pal. pl. V, 48, III). But in the Chambā epigraphs of the 11th and 12th centuries we find a very different type, which can be best described as a Śāradā na with a horizontal line beneath. (No. 25, l. 2; No. 26, l. 1; No. 31, ll. 2, 17; No. 34, l. 16). It is also found in the Baijnāth praśastis (Ind. Pal. pl. V, 48, I). It is interesting that both these later forms of jihvāmūlīya and upadhmānīya show a close relationship with the corresponding signs found in the Lakkhamandal inscription of c. A.D. 600 (Ind. Pal. pl. IV, 46, XV and XVI). In the spurious plate of Vidagdha (No. 16) which was apparently copied from a genuine record the upadhmānīya has been replaced by sa.

Bühler observes, that the virāma first appears in Gupta inscriptions of the 5th century as a horizontal stroke above the small final Virāma. (Ind. Pal. pl. IV, 43, VII). In the earlier acute-angled epigraphs the virāma is still frequently placed over the vowelless consonant, and receives a tail which is drawn downwards to the right of the mātrkā. But more commonly it stands beneath the consonant. The Sarada has preserved the more ancient tailed form. It is found in the Bakhshalai MS. (Ind. Pal. pl. VI, 51, VIII) as a long-drawn slanting stroke run through the right end of the top-stroke. In the Chamba inscriptions it has the same appearance, but is considerably shorter. It should be noticed that in the earlier inscriptions the aksaras, with which the virama is combined, often appear in a modified form. The t becomes a mere curve (No. 13, ll. 6, 13, 18; No. 24, l. 24; No. 26, ll. 11, 17, 20) sometimes doubled (No. 13, 1.8). The m is expressed by a dot, either open or closed, to which the virama is attached (No. 13, ll. 2, 5, 12, 15, 16, 20; No. 15, ll. 11, 21, 22, 24, 26; No. 24, l. 24; No. 26, ll. 10, 20, but in l. 21 the full letter is used). In No. 26, l. 12, there is an instance of t with virama. It resembles the Sarada numeral "six." In the Bakhshalai MS. final t is expressed by the full aksara with the long-drawn virāma just noticed In the Dēvī-ri-kōthī praśasti (No. 31) we find the complete akṣara, e.g., m ll. 8, 12, 13, 14, 15 also No. 34, l. 6 (Cf. bh, No. 35, l. 4). We find the virāma still used in the same manner in documents of the Muhammadan period (Cf. Kuļū grant, l. 10, dattam, dramgāmtarāt also l. 13).

B. The medial vowels.

Medial \bar{a} is, as in the earlier acute-angled inscriptions, expressed in Săradă by a wedge or, in the case of documents on metal, by a serif attached to the top of the consonant on the right side. In the earlier inscriptions we have to note a peculiar manner of attaching this vowel-sign to certain consonants distinguished by a double top. In the Sarāhan praśasti (No. 13) we find that the \bar{a} sign in $p\bar{a}$, $y\bar{a}$, $z\bar{a}$ and $z\bar{a}$ (not $m\bar{a}$), either single or combined with a subscribed consonant, is attached by means of a horizontal top-stroke not to the top of the vertical, but to the other left-hand top-end. The vertical is slightly shortened above, so as to remain free from this top-stroke. The same applies to the combination of those four consonants with a and au; in the case of a, of course, not if the superscribed sign is used.

In the oldest copper-plate (No. 14) this peculiarity does not occur. In Vidagdha's copper-plate (No. 15), on the contrary, the long top-stroke is found in $p\bar{a}$, $y\bar{a}$, $s\bar{a}$ and $s\bar{a}$ (also in ligatures and if combined with o and au), but occasionally we find in $p\bar{a}$ (ll. 7, 10, 21 and 24) and in $s\bar{a}$ (ll. 25 and 26) the vowel-sign attached direct to the top of the vertical. In the Tur inscription of Vidagdha's first year (No. 17) we notice the same vacillation in sa, but pa has throughout the long topstroke. The akṣaras yā and ṣā do not occur in this inscription. In the later documents the wedge or serif indicating \ddot{a} is invariably attached to the top of the vertical. This is already the case in the fragmentary inscription of Queen Didda. We may, therefore, assume that the practice just noted dropped out of use about A.D. 1000. It seems indeed to have been an ephemeral and perhaps local peculiarity, of which, as far as I know, no instances are found either in earlier or later inscriptions. In the inscriptions of Meru-varman, in any case, the \bar{a} sign is always attached to the top of the vertical. The only exception is sā in Asāḍha (Guṁ inscription No. 9, 1. 3), but here it is evidently due to the peculiar modification of the mātṛkā which has lost the upper portion of its main vertical.

Special notice may be drawn to the aksaras $n\bar{a}$, $t\bar{a}$, and $n\bar{a}$ in which the long \bar{a} is expressed by a small hook or semi-circle with its concave side turned downwards. It is curious that in the Gupta inscriptions we find the vowel-sign of $t\bar{a}$ represented by a mark similar in shape but turned the opposite way. The $n\bar{a}$, notwithstanding the considerable modifications of the $m\bar{a}trk\bar{a}$ itself, retains its hook-shaped \bar{a} all through the Sarada. It is only in the Muhammadan period that the hook develops into a tail continued beneath the consonant. This will be seen on the spurious plate of Vidagdha (No. 16) edited in this volume. In the Baijnath praéasti (II, 10) we find the \bar{a} in $nk\bar{a}$ expressed by a loop.

The Săradā $j\bar{a}$ has preserved a very archaic type, as the vowel-mark consists of a prolongation of the central stroke, as found in the oldest Brāhmī. It is turned upwards so as to form nearly a straight angle with the stroke to which it is attached, in the same manner as in the Gupta and acute-angled alphabets. The form with \bar{a}

differs, moreover, from the single consonant, in that it drops the top-stroke and wedge peculiar to the $m\bar{a}trk\bar{a}$. From about A.D. 1200 a change takes place, first noticeable in the Baijnath prasastis, where the \bar{a} of $j\bar{a}$ is represented by a hook sometimes similar to that found in $n\bar{a}$, $t\bar{a}$ and $n\bar{a}$, but more commonly prolonged downward so as to touch the central. In one case (II, 12) again we find the vowel-mark represented by a little triangle hanging down from the top-stroke. In the Muhammadan period the equalizing tendency leads to the $j\bar{a}$ being rendered by the $m\bar{a}t_{\bar{i}}k\bar{a}$ provided with the ordinary vowel-mark. On the copper-plates of this period this has assumed the shape of a little semi-circular stroke, turned upwards and attached to the top-stroke or to the top of the vertical. Instances will be seen on the spurious plate of Vidagdha (No. 16). The $n\bar{a}$, as already noted, forms an exception, as here the \bar{a} is expressed by a tail attached to the right of the $m\bar{a}t_{\bar{i}}k\bar{a}$ and continued below.

In general medial i and \bar{i} are rendered by a curve drawn down respectively to the left and right of the $m\bar{a}trka$. In some documents, however, the vowel-mark is occasionally placed over the consonant in the ancient fashion of the Kusana and Gupta periods. Examples are found in the Sarāhan praśasti (No. 13, l. 1, $śar\bar{i}rah$, etc.), in the Bānōtā fountain inscription of the reign of Soma-varman (No. 23), and in the copper-plate inscriptions of the 10th and 11th centuries, in which medial i and \bar{i} are often hardly distinguishable from medial e. (No. 26, l. 16, $pratip\bar{a}dita$ and l. 21, likhitam.) We may assume that about A.D. 1200 the superscribed medial i and \bar{i} dropped out of use. In the Luj inscription of A.D. 1105-6 the superscribed i is still found in $th\bar{a}pitam$ (No. 28, ll. 2, 3 and 4). The latest example is afforded by the Sai fountain inscription (No. 35).

Medial u is expressed in two ways—1st, by a wedge which on copper-plates assumes the shape of a short stroke or hook, attached to the lower end of the vertical stroke on the left side, or, in the case of nu, du, phu, yu (only in ligatures), and hu, connected with the bottom of the consonant by means of a short vertical line; 2nd, by a curve which is in reality the sign for initial u. In the older inscriptions the former practice is by far the more common. It is regularly found in cu (No. 25, 1. 23), chu (No. 25, 1. 12), tu (No. 15, 1. 10; No. 31, 1. 2), nu (in nu No. 13, 1. 3), thu (No. 13, 1. 3, in tthu; No. 25, 1. 21), du, dhu (No. 13, 1. 17), nu (No. 13, 1. 9), pu, phu (No. 34, 1. 13, in sphu; No. 13, 1. 5; No. 24, 1. 9), bu (No. 13, 1. 11), mu (No. 13, 1. 5), yu (No. 13, 1. 9, in ryu; No. 13, 1. 2), lu (No. 24, 1. 5), vu (?), su (in ksu No. 13, 1. 14) su (No. 13, 1. 6) and hu (No. 13, 1. 9). The curved u is peculiar to the aksaras ku, gu, du (in ndu No. 13, 1. 10), tu, bhu and su. It should be noticed that in the older inscriptions either of the two methods is applied to a certain set of consonants.

Already in the epigraphs of the 11th and 12th centuries the curved u is now and then substituted for the wedged one, e.g., in nu (No. 33, l. 2), snu (No. 33, l. 3) and thu (No. 24, l. 26).

This tendency becomes still more apparent in the Mül-Kihār inscription (No. 34) where the curve is used in ju (l. 10), mu (l. 13), lu (l. 12) and hu (l. 9). But side by side with those forms we find mu (ll. 12 and 16) and lu (l. 19, also in plu l. 18) with the wedged vowel-sign. In the Baijnath praéastis the use of the

curved medial u has become further extended. It is very often found in dhu (1, 1, 27, but of. I, 1, 30), du (I, 1, 21, but of. II, 11, 10, 12 and ndu II, 1, 10), nu (I, 11, 19, 31; but of. II, 1, 5), pu (I, 11, 11, 13, 24, 25, but of. I, 1, 15; II, 1, 4), bu (I, 1, 22, but of. II, 1, 12), mu (I, 11, 5, 6, 15, 25, 31, but of. I, 1, 6; II, 11, 5, 6), yu (I, 11, 6, 7, 10, also in ryu I, 1, 19 and nyu I, 1, 23; II, 11, 24 and 29; but of. II, 11, 4, 8, 9, bhyu II, 1, 5 and nyu II, 1, 9), su (I, 11, 7, 27, 30, also in ssu I, 1, 24; but of. I, 27; II, 12 and ssu II, 6), and throughout in hu. Besides, the curved u is, as in the older Śaradā inscriptions, exclusively used in ku, gu, tu, bhu and su. It occurs also in dhu (I, I, 31) which is wanting in the older inscriptions and in nu (I, 8) for which, as we saw, in Chambā also the curved sign is occasionally used.

The history of medial \bar{u} in Sarada runs parallel to that of medial u, but as the long vowel sign is less frequent than the short one, the development cannot be traced so clearly. The Sarada has two methods of rendering medial \tilde{u} —1st, a curved or wavy. flag-like line, sometimes slightly slanting, attached to the lower end of the vertical on the left, or connected with the letter by means of a short vertical stroke; 2nd by the subscribed sign for initial \bar{u} . In the older inscriptions the wavy line is by far the more common. It is found in $ch\bar{u}$ (No. 25, l. 15), $d\bar{u}$ (No. 14, l. 19; No. 15, l. 7), $dh\bar{u}$ (No. 31, l. 19), $p\bar{u}$ (No. 13, l. 4; No. 14, l. 7; No. 15, l. 12), $m\bar{u}$ (No. 13, l. 2; No. 14, l. 3), yū (No. 15, l. 16), lū (No. 24, l. 5), śū (No. 24, l. 9), sū (No. 13, l. 4, and in tsū No. 14, l. 17) and hū (No. 24, l. 5). The curved ū, on the contrary, appears only in kū (No. 24, l. 7) and bhū (No. 13, l. 13; No. 14, l. 2, also in bhrū, No. 13, l. 9). In the Múl-Kihār inscription (No. 34), however, we find it used in śū (ll. 4, 11) and sū (l. 10) and in the Baijnath praśastis it occurs in dhū (I, l. 5. but cf. II, l. 12), $p\bar{u}$ (II, ll. 9, 24; II, 5, 26), $bh\bar{u}$ (II, ll. 5, 26), $m\bar{u}$ (I, ll. 5, 25, 32; but cf. rmū II, l. 4) and sū (I, l. 29). It is the same tendency to substitute the younger form for the older one, which we observe both in medial u and \bar{u} .

The groups ru and $r\bar{u}$ deserve special notice. In the Sarahan inscription (No. 13, ll. 6, 8, 13, 15) we find them rendered by the matrka with the subscribed initial vowel-mark. It is very curious that we find exactly the same sign for ru in the early Gupta inscriptions of Allahabad and Kahaum which-it should be notedboth exhibit the eastern variety of the Gupta alphabet, and also in that of Amsuvarman of A.D. 635 which proves its occurrence in Nepal. In the Sarada, however, the aksara ru becomes very soon modified. Already in the earliest Chamba conperplates we find it expressed by the matrka with a flag attached to the right, about the middle of the vertical. This is the common form found in all Sarada inscriptions. (Cf. No. 16, l. 9; No. 24, l. 12; No. 26, ll. 3, 16; No. 32, l. 20). In Vidagdha's grant (No. 15, 11, 2, 3, 4) we find the flag attached to the top-stroke. In the Devasesa the flag becomes more prominent (Cf. No. 16, L.9 and Kulū grant, l. 10 Puruka). Here the ru resembles the Sarada ka. The akeara ru, on the contrary, retains the form which we find in the Sarāhan inscription, though the vertical becomes considerably shortened, so that it is hardly to be distinguished from initial a. We find it in the Bakhshalai MS. as well as in the Mul-Kihar inscription (No. 34, ll. 10, 14) and in the Baijnath prasasti (I, l. 21).

The vowel is rendered by a slanting stroke to the proper left (as in ru) in the following ligatures which are found in the Baijnath prakastis: éru (I, 1. 15), dru

(I, l. 24), ddhu (II, l. 12), tru (II, l. 13), and ndhu. The Mūl-Kihār inscription (No. 34) has analogous forms in seru (l. 17) and éru (l. 20). Of the group bhrū we find an instance in the Sarāhaṇ praéasti (l. 9); and bhru is found in No. 24, l. 2 and No. 25, l. 3.

I may observe in this connection that in ku and kr—as well as in ligatures (except as lower member)—the ka has preserved its ancient type without a loop. (Cf. ku No. 13, passim; $\hbar ku$ No. 13, l. 11; kr No. 32, ll. 8, 16, 17; $\hbar kr$ No. 13, ll. 5, 9; $\hbar kr$ No. 13, l. 15). This peculiarity, which is common to the acute-angled script and to the Śāradā, is still found in the inscriptions of the Muhammadan period (Cf. No. 16 and $Kul\bar{u}$ grant).

As regards medial r, Bühler mentions its angular shape as one of the peculiar developments of the Śāradā. I must, however, point out that this shape is only found in the later inscriptions. In the Sarahan prasasti we find sometimes (sr 1, 6). a curve very similar to that indicating medial r in the Gupta and Nagari alphabets. The only difference is that it is more closed. In other cases $(h=kr \cdot 1.15 \text{ and } pr \cdot 1.20)$ it is slightly more angular. In the grant of Yugākara (No. 14) we find a pronounced angular form in v_r (l. 2), but in all other instances the r is either rounded (kr l. 9, bhr l. 16) or squarish (kr ll. 11, 16, 17 and 18). In the charter of Vidagdha (No. 15) r occurs no less than 14 times, but in each case it is expressed by a curved loop very similar to subscribed ya. In the copper-plates of the 11th century r still retains its rounded shape, but it is more open (Cf. No. 24, ll. 2, 12 and 17 kr., and 1. 13 spr; No. 26, l. 3 and 10 kr, and l. 14 gr and or). Only in No. 26, l. 3 do we find a slightly angular form. In the 12th century a distinct angular r occurs all through the Dēvī-rī-kōthī praśasti (No. 31, ll. 8, 16, 17 kr, l. 10 vr). It is very curious that in the inscriptions of the Muhammadan period we find the rounded r again. The angular form, therefore, far from being a characteristic of the Sarada, is only an ephemeral phenomenon, apparently limited to the 12th century.

Medial e is expressed either by a prsthamātrā, i.e., a wedge attached to the top of the consonant on the left, or by a stroke over it. In the older inscriptions this stroke closely resembles the Devanāgarī sign for medial e, but later it becomes straight and horizontal.

In the Sarahan prasasti the presthamatra is the more common. It is combined with the matrkus ka, ca, ta, da, dha, na, ma, ra, va, and sa (in sye) and also in ligatures in which these consonants take the first place. The superscribed vowel-mark is found in ge (and gme), $\tilde{n}e$ (in $\tilde{n}ce$), ye, and le, whilst in je and $\acute{s}e$ either of the two occurs. Of the 54 cases in which medial e occurs in this inscription the presthamatra is used 38 and the superscribed sign 16 times, the proportion being nearly 70% to 30%.

In the copper-plates of Yugakara and Vidagdha (Nos. 14 and 15), on the contrary, the wedged e is of much less frequent occurrence than the superscribed one. In the former plate the proportion is about 26% to 74%, in the latter 22% to 78%. The two marks are used indiscriminately in combination with the same consonants. The superscribed e is either horizontal or slanting.

¹ Ind. Pal. p. 57 (English p. 57).

It is very curious that in the copper-plates of the 12th century the balance changes again in favour of the ancient prethamātrā. In that of Somavarman (No. 24) this sign is still in the minority, the proportion being 39% to 61%, but in those of Somavarman-Āsaṭa (No. 25) and Āsaṭa (No. 26) it has gained the predominance over its rival. The proportion is 57% and 43% in the one, and 77% and 23% in the other inscription. This revival of the prethamātrā may have been due merely to an archaic inclination on the part of the authors of those grants. In the inscriptions of the 12th century the prethamātrā drops almost entirely out of use. In the Sai inscription it is not used, in the Dēvī-rī-kōthī inscriptions only once (No. 32 -deva). In the Mūl-Kihār inscription (No. 34) the superscribed vowel-mark is used exclusively. This is also the case with all inscriptions of the Muhammadan period. It should, however, be noticed that the two marks are still used side by side in the Baijnāth praéastis, but, as Bühler remarks, the ancient prethamātrā is used only occasionally, whereas the medial e is mostly represented by a thick horizontal or slightly slanting stroke.

Apparently the prethamatra was still in use in Kasmir in the first half of the 15th century, at least in legal documents. This is expressly stated in the chronicle of Jonaraja, who lived in the reign of Sultan Zainu-l-'abidin and died A.D. 1459. The chronicler relates that his grandfather Laularaja in the year of his death sold one prastha of land. After his death the purchasers "doctored" the deed of sale (Skr. oikraya-pattraka), so as to make it appear that not one but ten prasthas had been sold to them. The words bhūprastham=ekam vikrītam they made into bhūprastha-dasakam vikrītam. "In order to express the e following a consonant," the author explains, "the clerks used formerly to write a stroke behind the consonants. But as in the course of time the script (lipi) became changed, the writers of to-day write the stroke expressing e over the consonant." The impostors could, therefore, easily change the ancient vowel sign of me into da. The ma they converted into sa (not sa). The wise sultan, however, discovered the fraud by immersing the birch bark document in water, by which the fresh additions disappeared. In this manner, the chronicler concludes—

"The king got glory, I the land,²
The forger punishment severe,
The subjects of the king delight,
And roundabout the wicked fear."

This episode is of great interest not only as an instance of Zainu-l-'ābidīn's sagacity, but also as a proof that up to the 15th century the vowel-mark e was indicated in Kaśmīr practically in the same manner as in the days of Aśoka.

In the older Śāradā inscriptions—the Sarāhaņ praśasti and the copper-plates of the 10th and 11th centuries—the medial ai is throughout rendered by a combination of the two signs used to express medial e, in other words by a przihamātrā combined with a superscribed stroke. This is also found in the inscription of Queen Diddā

¹ Laukika 35 according to Śrivars (l. 6).

² Jonarāja's Rājatarangini (Bombny Sanskrit Series No. LIV, 1896), vv. 1025-37. J. C. Dutt in his translation Kings of Kashmira, Vol. III, p. 80, has entirely misunderstood this passage.

(1. 6 tai), where the superscribed stroke is slightly shifted backward owing to want of room. It should be noted that in the earliest inscriptions, as in the case of medial e, the superscribed stroke is slanting and often rests with its right end on the top of the consonant. In the copper-plates of the 11th century the line has become horizontal.

In the added portion of the grant of Soma-varman and Asata (No. 25, 1. 29 trai) we find the first instance of the double superscribed stroke, which gradually becomes the only way of expressing medial ai. We may assume the change to have occurred about A.D. 1100. Both in the Devi-ri-kothi and Mul-Kihar inscriptions the double stroke is used exclusively. In the Baijnath prasastis we find again both methods, but the two horizontal lines are the more common. It seems indeed that the prsthamatra is only used if there is not sufficient room above the consonant for a double stroke. In the inscriptions of the Muhammadan period the medial ai is invariably expressed by the two horizontal lines.

In the Sarahan praéasti medial o is expressed in not less than three different ways. First of all we find the ancient method of two wedges attached to both sides of the top of the letter. In one case $(lo\ l.\ 7)$ we find the left-hand wedge attached not to the top-stroke but to the curve of the letter proper. The second method consists of a wedge to the proper left combined with a superscribed e stroke. Lastly we meet with that peculiar superscribed flourish which is first found in the Kusana inscriptions. Of these three methods the one first-mentioned is the most common in the Sarahan inscription. Out of the 33 cases in which medial o occurs in this record it is 19 times expressed in the first, 4 times in the second and 10 times in the third manner. The proportion is therefore 58%, 12%, and 30%.

In the early copper-plates the proportion suddenly changes in favour of the second method. It is universally used in Yugākara's grant (No. 14), except in two doubtful cases (vyo l. 1 and mo l. 15) in which, respectively, the two wedges and the flourish seem to occur. In Vidagdha's plate (No. 15), on the contrary, the superscribed o sign is used in 42 out of the 53 cases, whilst the combination of the \bar{a} wedge and the superscribed e stroke is found 10 times and the two wedges only once (to l. 29).

On the copper-plates of the 11th century we find medial o still expressed in the three ways mentioned above. In that of Soma-varman (No. 24) the figures are 4, 13 and 7 out of a total of 24 or 17%, 54% and 29%. In the grant of Soma-varman and Asata (No. 25) we have 2, 4 and 14 or 10%, 20% and 70% and in that of Asata (No. 26) 6, 13 and 22 or 14%, 32% and 54%. Notwithstanding frequent vacillations it will be seen that gradually the superscribed flourish becomes the typical expression of medial o, whereas the double wedge is but exceptionally used.

The inscriptions of the 12th century exhibit clearly the progress of this equalizing process. In the Dēvī-rī-kōthī prasasti (No. 31) medial o is expressed throughout by the superscribed mark, except only once (sto 1. 7) where we find the second method used, evidently because the aksara sérī immediately above did not

¹ In the plate of Soma-varman (No. 24, l. 10) we find a va with apparently two strokes over it, but presumably one is meant for an anusvara and we have to read it vem and not vai.

leave sufficient room for the other sign. This is of interest as showing that the older methods, or at least one of them, were still known to the writer. He deliberately prefers the superscribed flourish, which is both more distinct and more ornamental than the older signs. It will also be noticed that the flourish has considerably changed in shape. It bears a close resemblance to the *mad* used in Arabic and Persian to indicate long *alif*. Bühler compares it to the Greek circumflex.

In the Mül-Kihār inscription (No. 34) we find the superscribed flourish used throughout; it has here the same shape as in the Dēvī-rī-kōṭhī praśasti. We may, therefore, assume that in the second half of the 13th century this sign became universally adopted. It is curious, however, that in the Baijnāth praśastis a few cases still occur where medial o is expressed by e, either superscribed or pṛṣṭhamātrā, plus ā. But in the great majority of cases we find the flourish of the Dēvī-rī-kōṭhī and Mūl-Kihār inscriptions. This remains the typical mark for medial o in the inscriptions of the Muhammadan period (see No. 16 passim and Kuļū grant), in the literary Śāradā of Kaśmīr, and in the modern Ṭākarī.

In the Sarahan prasasti we find medial au expressed three times (kṣau l. 11, gau l. 17, and tau l. 17) by the double wedge and the superscribed slanting e stroke. In the same inscription medial au is rendered ten times by the superscribed o plus the a stroke. Once (sau l. 7) the wedge has been erroneously placed on the left side of the consonant. Both methods are applied to the same letters (Cf. gau, ll. 1 and 17).

We may assume that the first-mentioned method dropped out of use at a very early date, perhaps about the middle of the 10th century, as it is not met with in any other Sāradā inscription. Thus with the one exception noted, medial au is expressed throughout by a combination of the superscribed flourish and the ā mark. It remains only to be noted that the flourish undergoes here the same modification as has been pointed out in the case of medial o.

C. Ligatures.

Regarding the ligatures in Sāradā it may be observed that in general the constituent elements can still be easily recognised, and have preserved their original forms better than in the corresponding Nāgarī characters. In this respect also the Sāradā shows itself more conservative. The second consonant is always placed below the first one. Here I wish to draw attention only to those ligatures which are remarkable for their peculiar development.

The aksara ka preserves, as the upper or central member of ligatures (as in ku and kr), its ancient form without a loop (Cf. kkra No. 13, l. 3; kya No. 13, l. 6; ksa No. 13, ll. 7-8, 9, 16; krā No. 13, l. 10; kta No. 13, l. 14; cf. also Ind. Pal. pl. VI, 49, VIII and IX). This is still the case in the inscriptions of the Muhammadan period. (Cf. ksi in No. 16, l. 9; kra and ksa in Kuļū grant l. 1.) In Nāgarī we find the unlooped ka only in the ligatures kta (ktra) and ksa, in the latter in a considerably modified form. As the lower member of a ligature ka appears in its looped shape, e. g. in tha (No. 13, l. 6); nka (No. 13, ll. 10 and 19); rka (No. 13, l. 7) and ska (No. 15, l. 15).

Subscribed $\tilde{n}a$ appears in Sarada in the same form as in the acute-angled alphabet. It differs considerably from the $m\tilde{a}trk\bar{a}$ and resembles most closely the

Šāradā lingual n (Cf. No. 15, ll. 11, 22; No. 32, l. 9, samjāā, also Ind. Pal. pl. V, 50, IX). For the Devāsesa cf. Kuļū grant l. 11 rājāā.

The aksara ta as the second letter of ligatures retains its normal form in the Sarāhan prašasti (No. 13, l. 5 nta, ll. 5, 17 sti). But in all later inscriptions it assumes a shape closely resembling that of the medial \tilde{u} of Nāgarī. This subscribed ta consists of a curve nearly semi-circular and open to the right (evidently the original matrka), and a tail attached to the foot of the upper consonant and slanting down to the right. On copper plates these two elements can usually still be distinguished (Cf. No. 15, l. 7 stra; No. 15, l. 21, stam; No. 15, ll. 1, 10, 15, 18 sta). The ligature tta forms an exception, as here the second ta is usually expressed by a single curve (No. 16, l. 5; No. 24, ll. 18, 20, 23; No. 26, ll. 4, 5, 6, 11). It is curious that in Vidagdha's grant the second ta in tta is rendered in the same manner as in other ligatures (No. 15, ll. 1, 5). The same peculiarity is found in the Kulū grant (ll. 3, 9 and 11), though separated from the other by nearly six centuries. In the last quoted instance (hatta) we have a looped form which elsewhere in this inscription is used for subscribed tha (l. 11, srestha).

Subscribed tha appears in the older Sarada inscriptions in a shape closely resembling the va (Cf. No. 15, l. 10 $sth\bar{a}$), but usually a tail is added to the right of the foot of the vertical (Cf. No. 15, l. 10 $sth\bar{a}$, l. 24 sthe; No. 17, l. 6; No. 19, l. 3 sthi). In the copper-plate grants of the 11th century we find a form practically identical with that of subscribed ta mentioned above. The only difference is that the tail is somewhat shorter (Cf. No. 24, l. 8 sthi and l. 20 $sth\bar{a}$). In the Kuļū grant, as just noted, we find a looped form (l. 11 $sth\bar{a}$, l. 14 $sth\bar{a}$).

Of special interest are in Sarada those ligatures of which that is the second letter. In the earlier inscriptions we find tha expressed by a spiral or inward curve drawn from left to right. (Cf. No. 13, l. 16 tstha, l. 7 ttha; No. 15, l. 6 sthā, ll. 13, 18 sthi, l. 17 nthyā; No. 18 sthā.) We find this form still used in the copper-plate grants of the 11th century (No. 25, l. 13 sthā, l. 16 nthi; No. 26, l. 16 sthi, l. 17 nthyam, 1. 18 ntha, N.B. sthā No. 26, 1. 8.) But, side by side with this form, we find another in which the curve is turned outward to the left, so that the subscribed tha assumes the appearance of a capital Roman S. (Cf. No. 24, l. 13 stha; No. 26. 1. 7 sthā, l. 11 sthi). In the 12th century we find only the latter form, but as an innovation a stroke is attached to the foct of the mātṛkā and sloping down to the (Cf. No. 31, l. 16 rtham, l. 18 rthi, l. 22 sthi, l. 24 sthā). It will be seen that here the subscribed that has the appearance of medial u in the older inscriptions. This type is preserved during the Muhammadan period (No. 16, l. 8 sthi; Kuļū grant Il. 9, 10 prastha). Here I wish to draw special attention to the peculiar form of rtha (No. 13, ll. 8, 9, 16; No. 15, ll. 19, 27, 28; No. 28, l. 3 rthe; No. 31, l. 16 rtham, l. 18 rthi; Kulū grant l. 13 rtham). It will be seen that in the later examples the ra has been reduced to a wedge from which the subscribed tha hangs It is remarkable that this form of rtha occurs already in the Bakhshalai MS. (Ind. Pal. pl. VI, 50, VIII), where the tail is considerably lengthened and the aksara closely resembles $r\bar{u}$.

In the inscriptions of the Muhammadan period we meet with a curious cursive form of dha as second member of ligatures. It is rendered by a loop with a

horizontal stroke to the right attached at the foot of the mātṛkā (Cf. No. 16, l. 5 gdha and Kuļū grant l. 11 ndha and l. 13 ndho). It is hardly distinguishable from subscribed that as found in the same inscriptions (Kuļū grant l. 11 sthā). For the old form of ndha cf. No. 13, l. 15.

Bühler remarks that in the acute-angled alphabet the subscript ya is made ornamental and drawn far to the left. Since the 7th century the right hand upstroke of ya is lengthened as far as the upper line of the whole sign (Ind. Pal. The peculiarity described is well illustrated in the inscriptions of Meruvarman (Nos. 5-7) where the subscribed ya, like medial i, is made rectangular. In vyā (No. 5, 1.2) we find the serif indicating ā attached to the end of the upstroke. The Gum inscription (No. 9) shows a transition to the Sarada, in which subscribed ya is expressed by a curve extended to the left, but with hardly any upstroke. (No. 14, l. 3 nya; No. 15, l. 2 nyo). This, of course, is not a secondary development from the acute-angled type, but is in reality the old form of the later Kusana and Gunta periods. The subscript ya with long upstroke was apparently only the result of a temporary fashion and was in all probability exclusively used in highly ornamental inscriptions. It deserves notice that in the Sakti image inscription (No. 8) the simpler form is used. In the Baijnath prakastis the subscribed va is more open and less elongated than in the earlier inscriptions, so that its shape approaches that of a semi-circle open to the right. But in the later inscriptions the type differs but little from that found in the Sarada.

It is one of the peculiar features of the Sāradā to which Būhler has drawn attention that the ra, as a first part of ligatures, is inserted into the left side of the second letter, just as in the Apshad inscription and on Harsa's copper-plates. It is usually slightly shortened (Cf. No. 13, ll. 7, 8 rka; rti passim; rtu l. 9; rdha ll. 1, 3; rpa l. 14; rbha ll. 8, 10, 17; rbhra l. 17; rva ll. 4, 16; No. 15, l. 14 rdha, l. 16 rdham; No. 24, l. 23 rdha; No. 26, l. 6 rdhi). It will be noticed that in the Sarāhan inscription rta differs but little from kta and that rdha is very similar to rva, which has a slight horizontal stroke over the lower letter. In Vidagdha's grant (No. 15) the form of rva deserves special notice. In the Deväsesa inscriptions also we find such ligatures expressed in exactly the same manner, though here the ra has a distinct triangle at its foot (Cf. No. 16, l. 4 rtti, l. 5 rma, l. 8 rva).

The ligatures rna, rtha, rdha and rya deserve special notice, as here the ra has not preserved its distinctive shape quite as well as in combination with other consonants. The ligature rna changes with the single na (Cf. No. 13, l. 5; No. 15, ll. 19, 26; No. 24, ll. 8, 13; No. 26, l. 15 and No. 31, l. 18). In the Dēvi-ri-kōthī praśasti (No. 31) all that remains of ra is a wedge from which the na (without its upstroke) is suspended. This is also the case in the Baijnāth praśastis (Cf. Ind. Pal. pl. V. 45, I). It is remarkable that in the spurious plate of Vidagdha (No. 16, l. 4 rnā) the two elements of the ligature are again much more distinct. The ligatures rtha and rdha have already been referred to above

Regarding the ligature rya in the acute-angled alphabet Bühler observes that until the 9th century it is often expressed by a full ra with a subscribed ya. In the Sarada we find a slightly different type—a short vertical to which the curve of the ya is attached in one continuous stroke. In the Baijnātii prafastis

this subscribed ya assumes the same semi-circular shape as the single $m\bar{a}trk\bar{a}$, and the vertical disappears almost entirely (Cf. $Baijn\bar{a}th$ I. 8 $v\bar{i}rya$ also Ind. Pal. pl. V, 46, I). During the Muhammadan period this form of rya develops a tail to the right which gives it an appearance closely resembling that of the Nāgarī da (Cf. No. 16, ll. 8, 9 and $Kul\bar{u}$ grant l. 12 $s\bar{u}rya$).

In ligatures in which ra is the second or third member we find that letter expressed in Sarada in exactly the same manner as in the acute-angled script, 1 namely, by an upstroke attached to the foot of the mātrkā on the left side. No. 13, l. 1 pra, l. 2 śrī; l. 16 dra, etc.). This subscribed ra is sometimes difficult to distinguish from medial \bar{u} (Cf. No. 13, l. 4 $p\bar{u}$). This is perhaps the reason why afterwards the rendering of it was changed. In inscriptions of the Muhammadan period we usually find post-consonantic ra expressed not by a stroke drawn up to the left, but by one sloping down to the right. Often it is attached to the foot of the mātrkā by means of a cursive loop (Cf. No. 16, ll. 2, 3, 7 ndra; ll. 2, 7 bra; l. 4 dra, śra; l. 6 grā, tra; l. 7 pra). It is interesting to note that in Srī (No. 16. 1. 3) the ancient method is followed, evidently because the form of that word had become fixed by usage. In the Kulū grant of Bahādur Singh the upstroke is used except in tri (ll. 4, 6, 7, 8), trā (ll. 6, 14), and dra (l. 17). The ligatures bhrū (No. 13, l. 9) and bhru (No. 24, l. 2 and No. 25, l. 3) have already been noticed. The ligature dhru occurs in the Kuļū grant of A.D. 1559 (l. 12 Dhruva) in a form which does not essentially differ from that found in the Allahabad pillar inscription of Samudra-gupta (Ind. Pal. pl. IV, 43, II).

It has been remarked above that in Śāradā one akṣara is used indiscriminately to denote ba and va. It should, however, be remarked, that in the Dēvī-rī-kōthī praśasti (No. 31) we find a distinction made between ba and va in ligatures, the former being rounded and the latter angular in shape. Cf. mba (ll. 5, 8), mbi (l. 9), mbu (ll. 13, 17), mbe (l. 16) with tva (ll. 6, 13, 14), dva (ll. 12, 13), dvi (ll. 8, 15), dhva, (l. 16), nvi (l. 11), rva (l. 16), sva (ll. 13, 16.) But in mba (l. 16) the ba has a decidedly angular shape.

Finally I wish to draw attention to the following ligatures: kṣmī (No. 13, l. 7), gnya (No. 24, l. 8), gbhā (No. 15, l. 12), gme (No. 13, l. 18), nśo (No. 15, l. 4), cchā (No. 14, ll. 2, 8), cchrī (No. 24, l. 9), jjva (No. 13, l. 12; No. 16, l. 1), jjhi (No. 13, l. 11), tvā (No. 15, l. 24), nna (No. 17, l. 3), npa (No. 14, l. 3; No. 15, l. 1; No. 24, l. 2; No. 25, l. 3; No. 26, l. 2), trya (No. 14, l. 2), tstha (No. 13, l. 16), dbhū (No. 13, l. 4), nthya (No. 26, l. 17), nthyā (No. 15, l. 17), ndra (No. 13; l. 3, No. 15, l. 10; No. 16, ll. 2, 3), psu (No. 13, l. 9), bja (No. 13, l. 18), mpū (No. 13, l. 5), mpra (No. 13, ll. 4, 2), lga (No. 24, l. 14), śmi (No. 13, l. 19), ska (No. 15, l. 15), sṭra (No. 15, l. 7), sṇu (No. 13, l. 3; No. 16, l. 3; No. 33, l. 3), stri (No. 13, l. 4), spṛ (No. 24, l. 13), sphā (No. 24, l. 9; No. 25, l. 9), sphu (No. 13, l. 5; No. 24, l. 9; No. 25, l. 9), sstā (No. 18, l. 19), ssva (No. 26, l. 20), hme (No. 26, l. 2).

¹ In the inscriptions of Meru-varman the post-consonantic ra appears often as a highly ornomental flourish in the ligature frt. Cf. No. 9, !. 2.

CHAPTER IV.—CHRONOLOGY.

The most difficult problem connected with the Chambā epigraphs is that of fixing their chronology. The earliest inscriptions (Nos. 1-13) do not bear any date and we have to rely entirely on palæographical evidence. The first dated inscription is the Brahmor copper-plate grant of Yugākara-varman (No. 14) of samvat 10 Vaišākha va. ti. 10. But the year is evidently reckoned from the Rājā's accession, the exact time of which we have no means of ascertaining. The same is the case with the other four copper-plates of the pre-Muhammadan period. From the wording of Vidagdha's grant (No. 15) it is evident that the year refers to the period of his reign. It runs pravardhamāna(na)-kalyāna-vijaya-rājya-samvatsare caturthe samvat 4 Māgha śu. ti. pratipada(t). We read further on in the inscription that the grant was made on the occasion of the hibernal solstice (Uttarāyana-sankrāntyām). One of the Tur inscriptions (No. 17) is dated in the first year of Vidagdha's reign Māgha śu. ti. dvādaśyām Bhaumavāre.

to a recognized era. This era is the Lokakāla or "Popular era," also called Saptarṣi-kāla' or "Era of the seven Seers" which is used by Kalhaṇa in the Rājataraṅgiṇī. In the Chambā inscriptions the years of this era are usually designated as Śāstra or Śāstrīya samvatsara. Sometimes we find simply Śrī-samvat or samvat. The term Śāstra-samvat would seem to convey a meaning opposed to that of Loka-kāla, namely, the year according to the Śāstras or, in other words, that used by the learned. Up to the present day, however, this era is the popular reckoning used all through the Panjāb Hills, and for this reason it is now-a-days called the Pahārī sambat. Another modern name is Kaccā sambat which evidently refers to the practice of omitting the figure or figures which indicate the century. This circumstance renders this era highly unsatisfactory for chronological purposes, as will be amply borne out by the inscriptions of Chambā State.

The Saptarsi reckoning is based on the assumption that the constellation of the Seven Seers (Ursa major) moves through one lunar mansion (Skr. naksatra) in 100 years, and makes one revolution in 2700 years.³ The cycle preceding the one which is now current is reckoned to begin with Caitra śu. ti. 1 of Kali 27 current. Cunningham asserts that the Saptarsi era must have been known to the astronomer Vrddhagarga who, according to Kern, lived in the first century B.C., and that probably it was used in the days of Alexander.⁴ From Biruni it appears that in his time the Loka-kāla was also used in Multān, and Dr. Fleet concludes that its use in that part of the country commenced only with Saka-samvat 848 expired, or A.D. 926.7 current.⁵

¹ Cunningham, Book of Indian Eras, p. 12, gives also the modern equivalents Sat rikhi kāl and ifaf. Rikhe-shar, the latter being a Persianised form of the name.

² Cf. Bühler, Ep. Ind. Vol. II, p. 119, u. 6.

³ Sewell-Dikshit, The Indian Calendar, p. 41. Ci. Indian Thought, Vol. I., pp. 191 and 201.

^{*}Cunningham, Book of Indian Eras, p. 15.

Ind. Ant. Vol. XVII, pp. 213 f.

It has been surmised that a series of dates, mostly found on Mathura sculptures, and belonging to the reigns of the Kusana kings, Kaniska, Huviska and Vasudeva, refer to the Saptarsi era, as in nearly all of them the figure of the year remains below 100. But most authorities agree that more probably they refer to an era founded by Kaniska, the starting point of which is still a matter of dispute

In his note on the Saptarsi era Professor Kielhorn' points out that, disregarding the hundreds, we must add 25 to the year of a date in that era to find the corresponding expired year within one of the centuries of the Kaliyuga; 46, to find similarly the corresponding expired Saka year; 81, to find the corresponding expired northern Vikrama year; and 24-5, to find the corresponding year of one of the centuries of our own era.

This is well illustrated by the cahūtrā inscription in Chambā town which is dated Vikrama-samvat 1717, Šaka-samvat 1582, Šāstra-samvat 36, Vaišākha va. di. 13, Wednesday, Meṣa-samkrānti, corresponding to the 28th March A.D. 1660.

From an examination of various dates, mostly found in MSS., Professor Kielhorn has arrived at the conclusion that since Saptarsi 4300 (A.D. 1224) the Saptarsi year has always, like the Saka year, commenced with the month Caitra, and that within about the last four hundred years the scheme of the lunar months has been invariably the pūrnimānta system. The earliest date, however, which Professor Kielhorn examined, and which falls in A.D. 1224, worked out properly only with the amānta scheme.

It is much to be regretted that in the Chambā inscriptions of the pre-Muhammadan period, we never find the Vikrama or Saka era used side by side with that of the Seven Seers, so that they form no firm basis for further conclusions regarding the peculiarities of that era before A.D. 1200. Only in one instance (No. 35) do we find the date expressed both in the Sastra year and in the Kali-yuga, but unfortunately the two do not agree and we must assume that one of them is wrongly noted.

As regards those inscriptions which are dated in the Sastra era alone, there is, of course, first of all the uncertainty as to the century to which they refer. As stated above, the practice is to omit the hundreds and, as soon as the reckoning reaches 100, to start a fresh hundred from 1.2 In some of the inscriptions we find, in addition to the Sastra date, the regnal year of the ruling chief. In such cases the century can usually be established with the aid of the external evidence afforded by the Rajatarangini, and by the Chambā Vamsāvali to be discussed in the next chapter. The former mentions a few of the Chambā Rajās and the latter document is fairly reliable for the period A.D 1000-1200. Both supply only approximate dates, but suffice in most cases to establish the century in which a certain Rajā ruled. If, therefore, a document is dated both in the Sastra era and in a regnal year, it is possible to fix its date, provided the date is correctly noted. Five of the inscriptions in the present volume are dated in the reign of Rajās who apparently belonged to the neighbouring Hill State of Balor, the Vallāpura of the Rajata-

¹ Ind. Ant. Vol. XX, pp. 149 ff.

² Among the copper-plate grants of Rējā Balabhadra of Chambā there is one dated Vikrama 1686, Sāstra 105. It is a unique instance of the Sāstra reckoning being carried beyond 100.

rangini. Here we have to resort to the Vamásvali of the Balauria Rājās which is, unfortunately, even more corrupt and confused than that of Chambā. The document in question will be fully discussed in an Appendix to this volume.

The problem becomes more intricate if the inscription contains only one date. In some cases it is not clear whether the year is a regnal one or refers to the Sastra era. A regnal year supplies in most cases only an approximate date, as the year of accession of only a few of the Chamba rulers can be fixed. If the day of the week is mentioned, an attempt can be made to fix the exact date or alternative dates within a certain period.

In case the inscription is only dated according to the Sastra era, we have to rely entirely on internal evidence. It will often be possible to find the century in instances in which the day of the week is mentioned. But I need hardly say that the results thus obtained are doubtful, considering that so little is yet known regarding the exact use of the Sastra era in the pre-Muhammadan period. Another question is, how far the documents themselves can be trusted. The fountain inscriptions which supply our chief chronological data are almost invariably so full of orthographical and grammatical errors that there is much reason to doubt their accuracy in astronomical matters. In fact, in two cases—the Salhī and Sai inscriptions—it can be proved that the dates are wrongly noted. It is singularly unfortunate that in inscriptions like the prasastis of Dēvī-rī-kōthī (No. 32) and Mūl Kihār (No. 34), where more reliable information might be expected, the portions containing the date are damaged or destroyed.

I now proceed to discuss in detail the conclusions, more or less certain, which can be deduced from the chronological data of our documents.

Three fountain-inscriptions, at Dadvār (No. 20), Bhakūṇḍ (No. 21) and Naghai (No. 22), all of them villages belonging to the Curah wazārat, are dated in the reign of a Rājā Trailokyadeva.

His name is not found in the Chambā Vamšāvalī but occurs twice in that of the Balauriā Rājās.¹ In one place he stands as the immediate predecessor of Kalaśa-pāla and in the other he is separated from the latter by two reigns. We may assume that he reigned a short time before Kalaśa-pāla who can be identified with Kalaśa of Vallāpura, a contemporary of Ananta (A.D. 1028-63) and Kalaśa (A.D. 1063-89) of Kaśmīr.² The date of Trailokya would, therefore, fall in the first half of the 11th century. In two of the three inscriptions mentioned above the date is partly lost. In the third—that of Dadvār—the last portion of the Rājā's name is missing; but from the remaining part (Śrīmat-Trailo-) it can be restored with certainty. It was in all probability followed by the year of his reign. The preceding samvat 17 must therefore refer to the Śastra era. In the second line we find the full date samva[t] 17 Jyestha va. ti. 12 Brhaspati-vāre Revatī-naksatre. The Śastra year 17 must correspond to the year 41 of some century of the Christian era. On the strength of palæographical evidence we may safely assume that the Dadvār

¹ In the copy which I obtained at Basohli the name is spelt in one place वैलीराय (i.e. वलांक राय) and in another

Rājat. VII, 220, 588; transl. Stein, Vol. I, pp. 287 and 315.

inscription is not earlier than A.D. 941 and not later than A.D. 1241. We are, therefore, limited to the four years A.D. 941, 1041, 1141 and 1241. Supposing the month to be pūrnimānta, we should obtain the following equivalent dates for Jyestha va. ti. 12: Monday, 26th April 941, Thursday, 30th April 1041, Monday, 5th May 1141, and Thursday, 9th May 1241. In case the month were amānta, the dates would be the following: Tuesday, 25th May 941, Friday, 29th May 1041, Tuesday, 3rd June 1141, and Friday, 7th June 1241.

It will be seen that in two cases the day of the week is Thursday, as required by the inscription; but only Thursday, 30th April 1041, fully agrees, as on that date the *nakṣatra* was Revatī, whereas on Thursday, 9th May 1241, it was Aśvinī. This conclusion is confirmed by palæographical evidence and tallies with the data supplied by the Vamśāvalī and the Rājataranginī.

The Bhakund inscription (No. 21) is dated in the Sastra year 4 and in the reign of Trailokya-deva, but the regnal year as well as month and *tithi* are lost. This epigraph can, therefore, not be used to check the conclusions drawn from the previous one. All we can say is that the year corresponding to Sastra 4 must be A.D. 1028-9. It follows that Trailokya's reign falls in the second quarter of the 11th century.

This result will enable us to fix the approximate date of Ananta's campaign against Balor. It is stated in the Rājataranginī that on the occasion of this expedition Ananta was successfully opposed by Tukka's son, Kalaśa the lord of Vallāpura. It is clear that Ananta's campaign cannot have taken place before A.D. 1041, as at that time Trailokya still ruled in Vallāpura. In case Kalaśa succeeded his father Tukka—whom apparently the Vamśāvalī mentions under the name of Tunga as Kalaśa's successor—we should still have to account for the latter's reign, and we may, therefore, assume that Kalaśa's accession probably did not take place before A.D. 1050. We know from the Rājataranginī that he was still alive in the winter of 1087-8. As Ananta abdicated in A.D. 1063, it follows that his expedition against Vallāpura happened in the concluding period of his reign, probably between A.D. 1050 and 1060. The approximate date of that event may, therefore, be taken to be A.D. 1055.

Immediately before, the chronicle mentions that Ananta "uprooted" Sāla, the ruler of Campā, and placed a new ruler on the throne. We may perhaps assume that Ananta's campaign against Vallāpura and that against Campā were in reality one and the same; and that on his return from the latter place by way of Balor his worn-out troops were attacked by the ruler of this Hill-State. In any case, it is probable that the dethronement of Sāla, or Sālavāhana, as he is called in our inscriptions, took place about the same time.

Sālavāhana was succeeded by his son, Soma-varman, of whom we possess three

Date of Soma-varman of Chambā.

The fountain inscription of Bāhnotā (No. 23) would have enabled us to fix the date of his accession, had it been entire. For it is, or rather was, dated both in the Śāstra era and in Soma-varman's reign.

Unfortunately both the years are destroyed, and all that remains of the date is A-śu. ti. 15 Saurādine Aśvinī-nakṣatre.

The Kulait copper-plate grant of Soma-varman (No. 24) is dated in the 7th year of his reign. The donation was made on the occasion of a solar eclipse (l. 23

sūrya-grahaņa-nimitte), but this cannot have been on the date of the inscription which is not Amāvāsyā, but Bhā[drapada] su. ti. 3.

The other copper-plate grant of Soma-varman (No. 25) was evidently made towards the end of his reign, as the charter is dated in the first year of Asata, his brother and successor. The full date of the inscription is: rājye śrīmad-Asaṭa-deviye samvatsare prathame Vaiśākha-sita-tri (tṛ)tīyāyām Śukravāreṇa. An addition to the original charter is dated Samvat 11 Bhādrapada śu. ti. 12. The day of the week is lost with a corner of the plate, but the initial sa is partly preserved. It has no superscribed vowelmark, but may have had the sign for medial ū, as the lower portion of the atsare is missing. The day of the week is, therefore, most probably Sūryadine "Sunday."

We have seen above that Soma-varman succeeded his father about A.D. 1055. He reigned at least seven years, as is proved by the Kulait copper-plate. It is, therefore, improbable that the year of Asata's accession should lie farther back than A.D. 1060. Within the period from A.D. 1060 to 1088 (the year in which Asata visited Śrinagar as Rājā of Chambā) Vaišākha św. śi. 3 fell three times on Friday. The corresponding dates are the following: 31st March 1066, 16th April 1070, and 28th March 1080. Unfortunately the second date of the inscription, assuming the day to be Sunday, does not tally with any of the three dates just-mentioned.

The title-deed issued by Asata in the fifth year of his reign is of no use for chronological purposes, as the day of the week is omitted. But we possess another inscription dated in the year of Asata's accession, in which full particulars are given. It is the Sīyā fountain inscription (No. 27), dated as follows: Srī-Aeata-deva-rājye samvat 1 Māgha śu. ti. 13 Candradine Ārdr[ā]-nakṣatre. It may be considered as certain that the year mentioned in this date does not refer to the Sastra era, but is a regnal year, as Asata cannot have reigned either in A.D. 1025 or in A.D. 1125. The year of his accession, as stated above, probably lies between A.D. 1060 and 1088. Within this period Māgha śu. ti. 13 fell three times on Monday. The equivalent Christian dates are, 13th January 1074, 10th January 1077, and 26th January 1081. On the two first-mentioned dates the nakeatra was Ardra, so that either of the two could be the date of the Siya inscription. Unfortunately the result thus obtained disagrees with that derived from the copper-plate grant previously discussed. In one of the two inscriptions the date appears to have been wrongly noted. All we can say at present is that Asata probably succeeded his brother Soma-varman between A.D. 1070 and 1080.

A discussion of the date of Asata's successor Jāsata leads to more satisfactory

Date of Jāsata of Chambā.

results. Here the data are contained in two fountain inscriptions: that of Luj (No. 28) and that of Löh-Tikrī (No. 29). The Luj inscription is dated sam. 81 Śrī-mahārājā-Jāsatha-prathama-varsa (read Śrī-mahārāja-Jāsata-prathama-varsa). The Śāstra year 81 corresponds to the year 5-6 of some century of the Christian era. It is clear that this century can only have been the 12th and that the full Śāstra date is consequently 4181 corresponding to A.D. 1105-6. The month, as stated in the inscription (l. 4), was Pośa (read Pausa), but the number of the tithi is omitted.

In the year given the first day of Pauṣa, according to the Pūrnimānta system, would correspond to Wednesday, 14th November 1105. According to the Amānta system it would be Wednesday, 28th November 1105. The date of the Luj inscription lies therefore within the months November and December 1105; and Jāsaṭa's accession must have taken place between November 1104 and December 1105.

Within that period Jyestha va. ti. 12, if Pūrnimānta, may correspond either to Wednesday, 14th May A.D. 1113, or to Sunday, 3rd May 1114. In case the Amānta system is followed, the alternative equivalent dates will be Thursday, 12th June A.D. 1113, and Tuesday, 2nd June A.D. 1114. It will be seen that the day of the week only agrees for Sunday, 3rd May 1114, on which date, moreover, the naksatra was Revatī, as required by the inscription. Professor Kielhorn, who concurred in my conclusions, informed me that "the 12th tithi of the dark half of the pūrnimānta Jyestha ended on that day about 22 hours, and the naksatra was Revatī for 15 hours 46 minutes after mean sunrise."

As the 3rd May 1106 as well as November-December 1105 fell within Jasata's first regnal year, it follows that his accession must have taken place between 4th May and the end of December A.D. 1105)

The next ruler of Chambā, of whom epigraphical records exist, is Lalita-varDate of Lalita-varman of Chambā.

The Dēvī-rī-kothī praśasti (No. 32) is dated in the 17th year of his reign, but the Śāstra date is lost. The Sālhī fountain inscription (No. 33) is dated as follows: śrīmal-Lalitavarma-deva-vijaya-rājye samvat 27 Šāstrīya-samvat 46 Šrā[vana*-]śu. ti. 13 Ravidine Mūla-nakṣatre. It is evident from the Vamśāvalī that Lalita-varman must have ruled in the 12th century. The data supplied by the Sālhī inscription ought, therefore, to enable us to fix the year of his accession. Unfortunately there is reason to doubt the correctness of the notation.

The following is a note by the late Professor Kielhorn, in which this date has been fully discussed:—

"In my opinion the Sāstrīya-samvat probably is 46. But as the second figure is doubtful, I have examined the date for each of the ten Śāstrīya years from 40 to 49 in the 11th, 12th, 13th and 14th centuries A.D., i.e. for the years A.D. 1004-73, 1164-73 and 1264-73 and 1364-73. In none of these forty years is there a Sunday, on which the 13th tithi of the bright half of Śrāvana ended, and on which the nakṣatra at the same time was Mūla. The tithi ended on a Sunday:

Sunday, the 6th August A.D. 1066; nakṣatra Śrāvaṇa.

Sunday, the 2nd August A.D. 1164; " Uttarāsādha.

Sunday, the 8th August A.D. 1367; " Uttarasadha.

There cannot, therefore, he the slightest doubt that the date, if it does fall between A.D. 1000 and 1400, is incorrect."

"If the tithi were the 12th of the bright half of Śravana, the date, for Śastriya-samvat 46, would correspond to Sunday, the 26th July A.D. 1170, but even on this day the naktatra was Pūrvāṣādha, not Mūla."

"If the month of the date were Aşadha, not Bravana, the date for the year 46 would regularly correspond to Sunday, the 28th June A.D. 1170, when the 18th tithi of the bright half ended 1 h. 17 m.; while the naksatra was Müla, by the equal space system for 18 h. 8 m., and according to Garga for 0 h. 39 m. after mean sunrise."

"That the Sunday and the Mula-naksatra have been correctly quoted seems to me pretty certain, because the combination of the two is a very auspicious occurrence, being called amplayoga."

It follows from the above that Lalita-varman's accession probably took place in A.D. 1143 or 1144 and that the date of the Devi-ri-kothi praéasti of his 17th year must be A.D. 1159, 1160 or 1161.

The Devi-ri-kothi fountain bears another inscription (No. 31) which consists only of the following date: Srimad-Ranapāla-deva-vi-jaya-rājye vartamāne(ne) samvat 2 Āśva. va. ti. 8 Budhadine(ne). It is not evident whether the date refers to the reign of Rana-pāla or to the Sāstra era. In the latter case the corresponding Christian year would be A.D. 1226-7. As the inscription cannot be earlier than the fountain enclosure, the date cannot be A.D. 1126-7. Nor is it likely for palæographical reasons that it would be as late as A.D. 1326-7. If, therefore, the year is a Sāstra year, the corresponding date would be either, Tuesday, 15th September, or Thursday, 15th October A.D. 1226, according to the amānta and pūrnimānta system respectively. But in neither of the two cases do we obtain the required day of the week.

Assuming the year to be a regnal one, there exists the likelihood of the inscription being contemporaneous with the fountain enclosure which was built in A.D. 1159, 1160 or 1161. For these three years we get the following dates corresponding to Aśvina va. ti. 8: Monday, 7th September (pūrnimānta) and Tuesday, 6th October (amānta) A.D. 1159; Friday, 27th August (pūrnimānta) and Sunday, 26th September (amānta) A.D. 1160; and Thursday, 14th September (pūrnimānta) and Saturday, 14th October (amānta) A.D. 1161. It will be seen that none of these six dates falls on Wednesday, the day mentioned in the inscription. If, however, we disregard the intercalary month Āṣāḍha in the last-mentioned year, in other words, if we take Bhādrapada va. ti. 8 (pūrnimānta), we should obtain Wednesday, the 16th August 1161.

Another question to be noted in this connection is: Who was Rana-pāla in whose reign the inscription is dated? He bears the titles assigned to a ruling chief, but his name does not occur in the Vamśāvalī of the Chambā Rājās. The cognomen pāla raises the presumption that he was a ruler of the neighbouring State of Balor. In the genealogical list of the Balauriā rājās we find the names Rana-malla, Rājā Ranūl and Aruna-malla which I believe to be all corruptions of Rana-pāla. It still remains to explain how the name of this Rana-pāla can occur on a fountain built by a feudatory of Lalita-varman of Chambā and, as stated in the praśasti, in the latter's reign.

The most plausible explanation seems to me that the Balauria Rājā conquered Curāh and had his name carved on the fountain of Dēvī-rī-kōthī, in token of his victory over his Chambā rival. If so, it must have happened after Å.D. 1170, as Lalitavarman was in that year still the acknowledged ruler of Pāngī. Our chronological

data are unfortunately too vague to allow us to arrive at more certain conclusions.

Another chronological puzzle is furnished by the Sai fountain inscription

(No. 35). The date runs thus: \$\lambda \alpha \start \text{tye} \sam \pi \alpha \tilde 1 \)

Caitrā va. ti. da\(\frac{\pi}{a}\alpha \pi \alpha \alpha \tilde \text{till} \text{gatam var} \(\frac{\pi}{a} \alpha \alpha \tilde \text{till} \text{da} \(\frac{\pi}{a} \alpha \text{till} \text{da} \(\frac{\pi}{a} \alpha \text{till} \text{da} \(\frac{\pi}{a} \alpha \text{till} \text{gatam var} \(\frac{\pi}{a} \alpha \text{da} \text{var} \)

khasitam (?) 427[7*]30 ubhau Kali-pramānam 432000 \(\frac{\pi}{a} \text{var} \alpha \alpha \text{da} \text{var} \)

pālar deva-rājye samvat . . .

The date is expressed in three different ways; in the Sastra era, in the Kaliyuga and in the regnal year of Ajaya-pāla. The use of the Kaliyuga is of special interest, as it is hardly ever resorted to in epigraphical records. Not only is the actual year (i.e. the number of years elapsed) given as 4270, but also the number of the remaining years of the period, namely, 427,730 (the second 7 has been left out by mistake in the inscription, or may we assume that the mark above is a kind of tashdid?), the two figures together yielding 432,000 as the total number of years of which the "Era of Sin" consists. Kali 4270 corresponds to A.D. 1168-69, or in the case of expired years A.D. 1169-70. The expression Kalir-gatam varšānām 4270 probably stands for Kaler-gata-varsāni 4270; in any case the use of the word gata indicates that expired years are meant. It is interesting, that the same method of noting the remaining years of the Kali-yuga is still followed in calendars used in Kaśmīr.

The date Caitra va. ti. 10 of Kali 4270, the year being expired, would correspond to A.D. 1170, March 14, Saturday. There is, however, reason to doubt the correctness of the date. The Sastra year corresponding to the Kali year 4270 would be 4245 (current) but—strange to say—the inscription shows only traces of one figure which can hardly be anything but the numeral 1.3 This discrepancy is difficult to explain. The way in which the Kali date is noted, shows that there can have been no mistake on the part of the stone-mason, though he certainly left out a figure in the second number indicating the remaining years of the Kali yuga. May we assume that the author of the inscription, who evidently was not a man of great culture, noted a wrong year of the Kali-yuga, or are we to believe that he did not even know the year of the popular Sastra era? The former alternative seems the more plausible.

Assuming then that the Sastra year 1 is correct, we should have to choose between 4201 (corresponding to Kali 4227) and 4301 (corresponding to Kali 4327). On account of the character I do not think it possible that the inscription belongs either to the 11th or to the 14th century. It will be noticed that both the numbers 4227 and 4327 have three figures in common with 4270, the Kali year mentioned in the inscription. It is, therefore, by no means impossible that the latter has been erroneously substituted for one or other of the two former. The corresponding Christian

¹ Fleet, Gupta Inser. Introd. p. 69 footnote. To the instances quoted by Dr. Fleet I may add the stone inscription in the temple of Triloknath (Siva) at Mandi, the capital of the Hill State of the same name, dated Saka 1442, Kali-yuga 4622 (A.D. 1520) and the Khunmoh (Kaśmir) stone inscription dated Kali 4530, Śāstra samvat 4 (A.D. 1428) in the reign of Sultan Zainu-l-'abidin.

² Cf. Ind. Ant. Vol. XX, pp. 149 f.

³ Unfortunately the Sastra year is also doubtful. It will be noticed that after the partly destroyed symbol which I read "one" there is an open space, perhaps meant for a second figure.

dates would be Tuesday, 31st March 1125, or Friday, 4th April 1225 On account of the script, I consider the latter date the more probable of the two.

In the second line we find a third date, expressed in the regnal year of a ruler of the name of Ajaya-pāla. But after the word sames there is a blank, the figure of the year having been omitted. Ajaya-pāla bears the full titles of a ruling chief, but his name does not occur in the genealogical roll of the Rājās of Chambā. The surname -pāla of itself indicates that he did not belong to the house of Mūsuņa. We know, however, that the chiefs of the neighbouring Hill State of Balor (Skr. Vallāpura) were distinguished by that surname. Their influence over Curāh has already been proved by the inscriptions of Trailokya-deva. It is therefore not unreasonable to hope that in the present case also their Vamšāvali will help us to solve the problem.

The genealogical list of the Balaurias contains the name Ajaya-pala as fifth descendant of Kalasa-pala and as son and successor of Aruna-malla. In another place in the Vamśāvali we find the same name in the Hindi form Aje Pāl, as son of Raja Ranul. I have pointed out above that Aruna-malla and Raja Ranul are both probably corruptions of Rana-pāla, so that in all probability Ajaya-pāla was the son and successor of Rana-pala whose name occurs in one of the Devi-ri-kothi inscriptions (No. 31). If this conclusion is correct, it would afford fresh proof that at the end of the 12th and in the beginning of the 13th century the Balauria Rājās held temporary sway over Curāh. I may add that the omission of the figure of the regnal year to a certain extent supports my conjecture. The man who composed the inscription would have had no difficulty in ascertaining the year of accession of a local ruler. But the circumstance that the exact duration of Ajayapala's reign was evidently unknown to the people of Sai, points to the fact that he was an alien prince, whose capital was situated at a considerable distance. The author of the inscription evidently failed to obtain the desired information and the year of Ajaya-pala's accession has remained a blank up to the present day.

If then we may assume that the Ajaya-pāla of the Sai inscription was a Rājā of Balor, we have proof of the Kali date being wrongly noted. For in the years A.D. 1160 and 1170 we find Lalita-varman of Chambā as acknowledged liege-lord of two Rāṇās in Curāh and in Pāṇgī. It is, therefore, highly improbable that in A.D. 1170 a Rāṇā of Sai should have been the vassal of the ruler of Balor.

It is to be hoped that fresh epigraphical discoveries in Chamba will add to our chronological material. At present the conclusions arrived at are to a large degree uncertain. Before leaving the subject, I wish to note one point. In the Dadvar and Löh-Tikrī inscriptions, which have yielded more satisfactory results than any of the other epigraphs discussed, the dates work out well according to the purnimanta system. This renders it probable that this system was followed in connection with the Sastra era, not only in the Muhammadan period but also in the 11th and 12th centuries.

CHAPTER V.—THE CHAMBĀ VAMŚĀVALI.

From aucient times it has been the custom among the royal and noble families of India to keep a careful record of their pedigree. Use of Vameavalis. Kalhana mentions several "Lists of Kings" which he had consulted when composing his Rajatarangini. "Eleven works of former scholars," he says,1 "containing the chronicles of the kings, I have inspected." Kalhana's book itself is, as the name "River of Kings" indicates, in reality an amplified Vamśāvalī of the rulers of Kaśmir. Inserted in laudatory inscriptions are often found the pedigrees of donors which, no doubt, had been taken from authentic genealogies. This is definitely stated in the Palam well inscription of the reign of Balban preserved in the Delhi Museum of Archæology (Catalogue No. B. 3). After the poet has enumerated both the paternal and maternal pedigrees of the founder of the well, a Thakur of the name of Udhar, he proceeds to say (verse 19): "In the composition known as 'the Genealogy' (Vamśāvalī) both pedigrees have already been fully described, here in this Eulogy (Prasasti) the names have only been reproduced to call them to memory." Among the Chamba epigraphs we have an instance of a Vamsavali in the Mul-Kihar fountain inscription (No. 34).

William Moorcroft² was the first to draw the attention of students of Indian history to the existence of such documents in the Panjāb Hills. While staying with the famous Katōc Rājā Samsār Cand of Kāngrā, he notes the following: "Sansar Chand deduces his descent from Mahadeo, and has a pedigree in which his ancestors are traced to their celestial progenitor, through many thousand years. I requested to have a copy of this document, and some Kashmir Pundits were ordered to transcribe it against my return. The pedigree is written in verse, and contains in general little more than the birth and death of each male individual of the family." It is a well-known fact that Moorcroft never returned to take possession of his copy of the Katōc Vamśāvalī which his noble host had ordered to be prepared for him.

Cunningham fully recognised the historical importance of the Vamśāvalīs. In speaking of that of the Katōces, he remarks: "Their genealogy from the time of the founder Susarma Chandra appears to me to have a much stronger claim to our belief than any one of the long strings of names shown by the more powerful families of Rajputana." The correctness of this remark with regard to other Vamśāvalīs also is borne out by the fact that they contain names known from epigraphical or literary sources. In his account of the Panjāb Hill States he published lists of the Rājās of Kāṅgṇā, Nūrpur, Maṇḍi, Chambā and Rājaurī. A list of the Rājās of Kuļū, evidently drawn from a Vamśāvalī, had been previously edited by Captain Harcourt.

¹ Rājat. I, 14; transl. Stein, Vol. 1. p. 3.

² Travels, Vol. I, p. 145.

³ Cunningham, A. R. S. Vol. V. p. 152 (Kāngṣā). Vol. XII, p. 108 (Rājaurī), pp. 114 f. (Chambā), p. 118 (Nūrpur), p. 122 (Mandī) and Ancient Geography, p. 135 (Basūhlī and Bhadu). For Kāngṣā cf. also Duff, Chronology, p. 306 f. Harcourt. Kooloo, Appendix. A genealogy of Bhadarvāh has been published in my Annual Progress Report for 1903-4, p. 63.

The Chamba Vamśāvalī contains, besides the names of the Rājās already published by Cunningham, an account of the more prominent among them. Its value as a historical document has been fully proved by the study of the inscriptions, which, on the one hand, has confirmed its credibility and, on the other, derived from it much support in deciding chronological questions. I have, therefore, thought it fit to edit here, with the permission of His Highness the Rājā of Chambā, the Vamśāvalī both in original and in English translation. In my subsequent historical notes, I shall often have occasion to refer to this document which, together with the inscriptions and the Kaśmīr Chronicle, forms our chief source of information for Chambā history.

The present edition of the Vamsavali is based on only one manuscript of recent Notwithstanding repeated enquiries, I have date. Manuscripte. not succeeded in recovering any other copy in Sanskrit. There existed - so I am told -- an authentic copy which was preserved by the Rajaguru, but was accidentally destroyed by fire. An Urdu version of this document is still extant, and forms the basis of the history of Chamba published in the State Gazetteer by Dr. J. Hutchison. From a comparison of the two it appears that the lost State Vamśāvalī cannot have materially differed from the copy here edited, though perhaps it was somewhat fuller in detail and composed in less corrupt That it was a document of any literary pretensions may rightly be doubted. Besides the Sanskrit manuscript, there exist a certain number of "bansaulis" in the vernacular. Though these are clearly translations from the Sanskrit, they may sometimes be consulted with advantage as a help in elucidating obscure passages. They are, however, to be used with due caution; as their compilers themselves have often failed to understand the original.

The Sanskrit Vamśāvalī is metrical throughout and consists of 120 stanzas in the Anustubh (Śloka) metre commonly used in epic compositions. It may be divided into a mythical and a historical portion, but it should be understood that the former presumably contains historical and the latter certainly legendary elements. The mythical portion which is comprised in the first 34 stanzas is based on the Purāṇas. It contains 112 names of kings which agree very closely with those found in the Bhāgavatapurāṇa (Skandha 9, Adhyāya 1-12). Often there is verbal agreement, so that we may assume that this book formed the source for the Puranīc portion of the Vamśāvalī. It is nothing but a string of names; only sparingly, a few details are inserted regarding the most prominent personages in the list.

The progenitor of the Solar Pace is Nārāyaṇa who is followed by Brahmā, Marīci, Kasyaṇa, Vivasvant, Manu, and so on. The thirty-fourth of the list is Campa, the mythical founder of the town of Campa, namely, that on the Ganges; and the forty-fourth Bhagīratha the hero of the well-known myth of the descent of that river from heaven. In verse 20 we find Rāma the heros eponymos of the

¹ A Chronicle of Chamba was published by Mr. W. Buchanan in Punjab Notes and Queries, Vol. III, p. 208, and Indian Notes and Queries, Vol. IV, pp. 12, 31, 54, 72, 93, 114 and 133. It was "compiled from vernacular scraps prepared by Thakur Dás of the Scotch Mission, in the Chambá State, and from a kind of native chronicle of that Punjab Himálayan State." It is very incorrect as regards proper names.

Rāmāyaṇa, and in the next verse king Nala, the husband of the faithful Damayantī. The eighty-first of the list is Maru the reviver of the Solar Race, who is said to have settled in the village of Kalāṇa. In the Śākya, Śuddhoda and Lāṅgala, mentioned in verse 33, we recognise Śākyamuni the Buddha, his father (here his son!) Śuddhodana and his son (here his grandson) Rāhula. With Sumitra, the 112th from Nārāyaṇa the Solar Race is said to have become extinct.

Here, from verse 35, begins the second part which relates to the history of Chambā. The compiler has not shown much skill in connecting the Puranic portion with his own composition. He has simply gone back to Maru mentioned twenty-six generations before as the reviver of the Solar Race and promotes him to the rank of progenitor of the Chambā Rājās. We shall not follow his narrative here, but only consider its value as a historical document.

The Vamáavali, in its present shape, is undoubtedly a modern composition. It

Composition and historical value.

breaks off abruptly in the midst of the Nürpur war and can, therefore, not have been compiled before A.D.

1642. Possibly it belongs to a still later date, as the concluding portion seems to be missing. It was evidently written at a time when the knowledge of Sanskrit was very scanty. The 11th or 12th century would have produced something better.

On the other hand, it cannot be doubted that the compiler used documents of a much earlier date. Otherwise it would be inexplicable that the names of Rajas, who lived many centuries before, are placed in the right order of succession. these names could not have been preserved by merely verbal tradition. There is, however, no evidence of any portions of older records having been embodied in the Vamáavali. The language is throughout ungrammatical and the mode of expression clumsy. Already in verse 86 we find mention made of the Mughals (Sanskritized as Mudgala!) in the reign of Vijaya-varman, who cannot have ruled later than the 13th century. It seems, therefore, that the biographical particulars contained in the Vamsavali are mainly derived from oral tradition. This explains why the Narasimha temple at Brahmor is wrongly ascribed to Meru-varman (verse 45), and why we are told that the inscription on the brazen bull of Siva contains an edict (Skr. sasana) of that ruler (verse 47). The compiler merely repeats traditions which are still current at Brahmor. Yet most of such traditions are undoubtedly based on history and sometimes receive corroboration from authentic records. The account of the restoration of the Chamba shrines by Pratap Singh (verses 98-103)—leaving aside the personal interference of Viṣṇu—is fully confirmed by a copper-plate issued by that prince on the occasion of the consecration of the Laksmi-Narayana temple.

Of the great majority of Rājās the Vamsāvalī mentions nothing but their names; of a few a comparatively long account is given in which often trifling details are treated at a length out of proportion to the limited size of the chronicle. It can hardly be a matter of doubt that the anonymous writer was a Brāhman. His history is largely a historia sacra and he dwells with evident delight on miraculous events and pious acts, such as the foundation of sanctuaries and donations to the twice-born. The efficacy of asceticism (tapas) is also duly exemplified.

We may further surmise that the author was a native of Chambā, and perhaps held some distinguished position at the Rājā's court. This explains his partiality to his native land and its rulers. We know from contemporaneous Muhammadan historians that the part taken by Pṛthvī Singh of Chambā in the reduction of Jagat Singh, the warlike Rājā of Nūrpur, was humbler than the Chambā chronicler would fain make us believe. We are, therefore, all the more justified in not too readily accepting his statement of the great victories won by Vijaya-varman over the Kīras and Kaśmīras—not to speak of the "Mudgalas"—of which the Kaśmīr chronicles know nothing. May we ascribe to the same propensity—either of the compiler or more probably of some earlier annalist—that we miss in his list the name of Salavāhana, who, as we know from Kalhana, was "uprooted" by Anantadeva of Kaśmīr?

Whatever the shortcomings of the composer of our Vamsavali may be, it would be unfair not to recognise that, thanks to his efforts, a considerable number of ancient legends and traditions, partly based on history, have been preserved which otherwise might have become lost. The chief value, however, of the document for the present work lies in its core—the list of Chamba Rājās. In connection with what has been said above regarding the unsatisfactory methods of dating the inscriptions, it will be evident that a reliable list of the rulers mentioned therein must be of real help in deciding chronological questions. The trustworthiness of the list can, on the other hand, be tested by the epigraphical records, and this has been done with the following results.

Among the eighteen Rājās from Maru to Sāhilla, who are said to have ruled at Brahmor, only Meru-varman is definitely proved by his inscriptions to be a historical person. Ādi-varman, Deva-varman and Mūṣaṇa-varman are also historical, at least if we may identify them with the Āditya-varman, Divākara- (or Deva-) varman and Mūṣūṇa of the inscriptions. But in any case, these eighteen names, if historical, are not placed in the right order, for we do not find the names of Meru-varman's father, grandfather and great-grandfather in the same succession in which they occur in two of his inscriptions. The name of Maru, as we have seen, has been arbitrarily taken from the Purāṇa. He is, therefore, as little entitled to the rank of founder of the Cambyāl clan as Kalūpa-grāma (wherever-that place may be) is to be regarded as their ancestral home. In Meru-varman's inscriptions the historical progenitor of his race is mentioned under the name of Mūṣūṇa.

From Sähilla onwards the names can in general be proved to be historical and are, moreover, placed in the correct order, but occasionally names appear to have been left out, transposed or interpolated. We may, therefore, assume that from the time that the town of Chambā became the seat of government a genealogical roll was kept which, though not without undergoing some modifications, has been preserved in the present Vamśāvalī. From A.D. 1330 onwards the correctness of the list is attested by an uninterrupted series of epigraphical records.

From what has been remarked above, it will be clear that the Vamśāvalī cannot possess any real value for the ancient geography of Chambā. We find indeed place-names—either written in their modern form, such as $P\bar{a}ng\bar{i}$ (spelled $P\bar{a}n\bar{i}$ v. 58), Hol(a) (v. 102),

Bhalehī (v. 119), Sukhet(a) (v. 56), and Kalanor(a) (v. 120); or wrongly sans-kritised, e.g. Kola (vv. 114 and 115) instead of Kulūta and Gurjjarātra (v. 91) for Curjara rāṣṭra (Gujrāt). The only names given in their correct Sanskrit form are Campā (v. 69, etc.), Irāvatī (v. 70, etc.) and Kaśmīra. For Kāṅgrā we find once the correct ancient name Trigarta (v. 93), but elsewhere the Rājā of that district is indicated as Nāgarakoṭika (v. 104), an adjective derived from the name Nagar-kōṭ. It need hardly be demonstrated that the form Varmapura, adopted by Cunningham as the ancient name of Brahmor, apparently on no other authority than the Vamśāvalī, is purely imaginary. The document itself affords convincing proof to that effect, for it asserts (verse 37) that "Varmapura" (alleged to have been named after the Varman dynasty) was founded by Maru, although it is not till four generations after him (verse 39) that the first Varman, named Adi-varman, appears on the scene! But all discussion on this point is superfluous, as we now possess two early inscriptions which prove the ancient name of Brahmor to have been Brahmapura.

There is hardly more reason for accepting the forms $Budha \cdot sarit \ (v. 4)$, $Devalā \cdot Sālikā \ (v. 50)$ and $Catī \ (v. 105)$ as the genuine ancient names of the Budhal v. v., the village Dvol, the Sālā stream and the village of Carī in Kāngrā. It is currous to meet with a place-name Mukuta-kota (v. 78) which occurs also in an inscription (No. 17) under the form Makuta, but there is no proof that in both cases the same place is meant.

TEXT.

यों श्रीगुरवे नमः

विश्वं सृष्टा पालयित्संहृतं कल्पान्ते मायाया गुणैर्यः प्रशम्य । तं लाभायेष्टस्य नारायणं संवीता कण्डे सूर्यवंशावलीयम्॥ १॥

First Part.

स्वयंभूर्नाभिकमलादासीत्रारायणस्य तु ।

मरीचिमेनसस्तस्य तसाज्ञातस्तु कश्यपः॥२॥

प्रजापतिरतोऽदित्यां विवस्नामानुरात्मजः।

विवस्ततः श्राहदैवः चुवतो घ्राणतो मनोः ॥ ३॥

पुत्र इच्चाकुरभवदिकुचिस्तस्य चात्मजः।

विकुचेरभवत्पुत्रः पुरंजय इति श्रुतः ॥ ४॥

इन्द्रवाह्मकुत्खाभ्यां पर्यायाभ्यामपीरितः।

तस्मादनेनास्तत्पुत्रः पृष्ठुः पुत्रः पृथोरपि ॥ ५ ॥

विश्वगन्धिस्ततसन्द्रो युवनाम्बस्त चन्द्रजः।

शाबस्तरस्तरस्तरस्य हः टक्षः य कीर्तितः ॥ ६ ॥

भुत्धुसारितिपर्याय: पुत्र: कुञ्चथःश्वजः ः

दढायस्तस्य इर्थेयो निकुमोऽस्य सुतो मतः ॥ ७॥

[ः] MS. शावसस्य सुतस्य इष्टमशो स्य कोर्त्तितः

वर्षिणायो निकुभस्य स्थायो रेख च धनजित । युवनाश्वीऽस्व तनयो मान्धाता कुचिमेदनात्॥ ८॥ जातः समाद्रसद्यु पर्यायस्य वाननः। प्रकुलस्तस्य पुचससम्स्रितोऽभथत् ॥ ८ ॥ चनरव्यस्तरस्तोऽभूषर्यत्रस्ववनस्ततः। निबन्धन'स्ततस्तस्य सत्यवतस्त्रिपञ्चकः'॥ १०॥ त्रेमस्वो सरियन्द्रस्तकादव्यवज्ञः। जाती रोडितभूपाली इरितस्तस्य चालजः ॥ ११ ॥ चम्पस्तस्थात्मजबन्यापुरी वेन विनिर्मिता। सुदेवस्तरसुतस्तस्य विजयस्तस्य चाळजः॥ १२॥ भक्क ब्लत्सुतः प्रोत्तो हकस्तस्यापि वाचुकः। सगरस्तस्तुत्रबक्तवर्खासीदसमञ्जसः॥ १३॥ सागरीऽत्यांशमानस्य दिसीपोऽस्य भगीरयः। भगीरवाक्त्रतस्त्रस्य नाभः सिन्धुद्दीपस्ततः ॥ १४॥ तस्वायुतायुरस्यापि ऋतुपर्चे।ऽस्य कीर्तितः । सर्वकामः सुदासीऽस्य स च सर्वसङ्ख्या ॥ १५ ॥ कस्ताषपादपर्यायः सीदासस्यास्मकः¹⁰स्तृतः। तस्तो मूलको नाम नारीभिः"परिरचितः॥ १६॥ नारीकवच इत्युक्ती मूलकः चत्रवंशकत्। चासीइग्रयो मृलकस्य¹² पुत्रस्तदाश्मके: ॥ १७ ॥ तस्रादेडविड¹³ स्तस्राष्ट्रातो विश्वसङ्स्तत:। खट्राक्स्यक्रवर्ती यो सुक्तेनात्मतां गतः॥ १८॥ खट्टाङ्गाहीर्धबाहुस्तु तस्माद्रघ् रघोरजः। तस्माइग्ररथो राजा यतः प्राइरभूहरिः ॥ १८॥ रामचन्द्रादिक्षपेण चतुर्श्यशावतारवान्। तस्यात्मजः कुत्रस्तस्यातिथिनिषध पातिथिः ॥ २० ॥ नैषधस्तृ" नली राजा पुण्डरीकस्तदास्मजः। चेमधन्वा तस्य सुनुर्देवानीकस्ततः पुनः । २१ । पारियात्री बलस्तस्ताइलात्स्यल इतीरितः । चन्नादकांग्रसमातो¹⁶ वचनाभी महोपति:॥ २२॥ स्तगुणोऽसाच विधतिस्तसाद्राजिषमसः। हिरखनाभ: शिष्यो यो जैमिनेरभवत्युरा ॥ २३॥

⁵ MS. सत्यवत एव विश्वेतकः

े MS. कुमाबी-

[ं] MS. वर्ष्णाची-

[·] MS, विवंधन

⁷ MS. सागरस्यांश्वनानस्य

[ं] MS, तस्यायुतायु: स्यादस्य ऋतुपर्धप्रकीर्त्तत:

[•] MS. खालकारामीब्रारौभ: ,

[ा] MS. नेपटका.

¹² MS. खा**वकम्य**-

७ MS. उत्तीरित∙

^{&#}x27; MS. सबाटसदस्य.

[•] MS. বৰক.

¹⁰ MS. सीदाञ्खामक:

[»] MB. तथादेवविड∙.

¹⁴ MS चचादकीन्द्रभतोः

योमाचार्यो यतो याच्चवरुक्योऽगालीमसो सुनि:। भेदकं द्वदयचन्त्रेज्ञीनमध्यात्मसंजितम् ॥ २४ ॥ मद्यां योगोदयकरं यस्त्रासीत्यसंजितः। पुचीऽसाद्भवसम्धर्यसाम्बदर्षः सतो ऋषः॥२५॥ ग्रीम्रक्तस्माद् महर्योगसिको राजाभवलुरा। नष्टस्य सूर्यवंशस्य पुनर्भावयिता कलौ ॥ २६ ॥ कलापयाममात्रित्य तस्य प्रसुत्रुतः स्तः। सन्धिसास्वामर्वणोऽस्व सहस्वाध्सासुतो मतः॥ २०॥ विश्वसाद्ध स्तस्य सुतो यस्य पुत्रो वृद्धसः। इतोऽभिमन्युना युष्ठे भारते च बुष्ठद्रये।। २८॥ सुतस्त्रक्तिय'स्तस्य वत्यष्टचीऽस्य' सत्सुतः। प्रतिव्योम'स्ततो भानुदिवाको वाष्ट्रिनीपति:॥ २८॥ सहदेवस्ततो वीरो बृहदश्रीऽय भानुमान्। प्रतोकाश्वो भानुमतः स्वप्रतीकच तस्तृतः॥ ३०॥ तसाच महदेवोऽस्य सुनचनोऽस्य पुष्करः। चन्तरिचस्ततो राजा स्तपास्तदमिचजित्॥ ३१॥ वृष्टद्वानुस्तस्य तस्राद्यचिस्तस्य कृतस्त्रयः। रणज्ञयस्तस्य स्तः सज्जयस्तस्य चात्मजः॥ ३२॥ तसाच्छाकोऽस्य ग्रहोदो लाङ्गल स्तत्तुतो मत:। ततः प्रसेनकस्तसाख्युद्रको रणको अस्य तु॥ ३३॥ तस्य स्तुस्त् सुरयः सुमित्रस्य चालाजः। सुमित्रस्वनपत्थोऽत्र नष्टप्रायेऽन्वये रवेः ॥ ३४॥

Second Part.

गतेषु बच्चवर्षेषु योगसिषो मक्द्रपः। राजकन्यां विवाद्यास्यां जनयामास सत्सुतान्॥ १५॥ तेषामेकं कलापे स्थाप्यापराभ्यां स्वहचये। निष्कुम्य दम्पतिभ्यां तर्नेषां संस्थाप्य रोधसि¹¹ ॥ ३६ ॥ श्विमाद्रेर्ज्येष्ठपुत्रेण यः काश्मीरमवाप्य सः। तत्र वर्मपुरं नाम कत्वा पुत्रस्य इषंये॥ ३७॥ जयस्तभस्य तं तत्राभिषिच्य स्वयमास्यितः। तपस्यभिरतो योगाचार्यः संगम(?)एव द्वि ॥ ३८॥ जयस्तभावास्वामीकातस्तभोऽस्य चावानः। महास्त्रभोऽसादिवमी देववमी च तत्त्तः॥ ३८॥

[ਾ] MS. ਚੰਬਿ

⁴ MS. विश्वसाह.

⁷ MS. प्रतिस्योर्भः

¹⁰ MS, शिष्ठी प्रासे व्ययो रवे

[»] M8 योगाचाम स्मृत म एव दिः

^{*} MS. मया.

⁶ MS. स्तन्दक्य.

⁸ MS. ला**ज्**ख.

¹¹ MS. ਚੇਖਚਿ.

³ MS खामइस्खां

⁶ MS. कासवर्क्त

[•] MS. 등록되}.

¹² M8. 44.

मन्दारकासृतकास्य कान्तारीऽस्य प्रमुख्यतः। प्रगत्मकात्मकस्वाञ्चवर्मा वर्मपुर वदा ॥ ४०॥ तदा गतः स योनाचार्यः क्रत्वा दष्करं तपः। दरावतीव्यसरिक्षक्रम मिवमीतय ॥ ४१ ॥ तदा लिङ्गान्यसंस्थानि प्रादुरासन्वसे ससे। राजापि समुतं राजगुनै: सर्वेरसङ्गतम ॥ ४२ ॥ इष्टा धुरुखरं तिकान्धीगाचार्यमते स्वित:। चभिविच्य सुतं मेस्वर्मायं राज्यसिषये ॥ ४० ॥ योगमास्वाय तचैव चेचे जास्किवसनिधी। मेरवर्मा जयस्त्रभाष्ट्रयमोऽभित्स्वतः प्रशि ॥ ॥॥॥ योगाचार्यस्य स्वतां(?)समेरोरिव चादधात' । देवदेवस्य स्थितये मूर्ति नरइरेरपि ॥ ४५॥ प्रतिष्ठाप्य खगुरुण काम्बीरेच महासना । स्टींगं चालना भद्रकालीं तच गचाधिपम् ॥ ४६ ॥ संस्थाप्य द्वमस्थाधस्य सिखद्राज्यासनम्। सुवर्षवर्मा तत्सुनुर्क्षकीवर्मा तदावानः॥ ४७ । तस्य राज्ये निपतिता मारी लोका बजा इता:। तटैव कीरैरागत्व राजा रचमखे इत: ॥ ४८ ॥ राच्चो गर्भवती नीता मन्त्रिभिः सपुरोक्तिः। देवसायां बहिर्भुमी गच्छनी सुवृवे सुतम् ॥ ४८ ॥ कन्दरायां तु तं त्यक्का गन्तुमेव समुद्यता। पुरोधसोक्ता दृष्टा तां कथं पुचि त्वमीद्यी॥ ५० ॥ प्रस्तासि कदासावं खामी कुत्र निवेधित:। तिष्ठत्यन्तर्गतीऽ सावेवं श्रुत्वेव पुरोहित: ॥ ५१ ॥ यहीता दर्भयामास मन्त्रिषं तं न संसदि। ततस्तां परभोगैकदेशे नीत्वा स्थिता बद्धन् ॥ ५२ ॥ वसरांस्तद्गरोगेंडे सवाला कण्डनाय दि। धान्यानां सा गता घूखां सङ्गती चरणी गुइ: ॥ ५३ ॥ बालस्य दष्टा चिक्रस्तां पप्रच्छ नुपतेर्गुरः। के भवन्तः कुतः प्राप्ताः किमर्थमिति पृच्छते ॥ ५४॥ नीवाच राची पुरुषान्ष्ट्वा चात्वा च तत्क्बम्। राजनचणसंयुक्तं बालं बुद्दा भहात्मन: ।। ५५।। नीत्वा सुखेतनगरं स्वराच्चे तं निवेद्य तु । राज्ञीं तपस्तिनीं जात्वा यथायोगं तु सत्क्रियाम् ॥ ५६ ॥

स्वानेन मानदानाभ्यां चकाराद्त्य प्रत्यहम्।

राजा मूषणवर्मासी यदा यीवनमास्त्रितः ॥ ५०॥

¹ MS. पांच perbaps पांच.

[·] Perhapa चादरात्.

[•] MS. सखवे.

MS. ger.

ANTIQUITIES OF CHAMBA STATE.

तदा प्रभोगराजासी तसी दिशतरं निजाम । दशा विधिवदसी पाष्ट्रीतियामं महत्रनम् ॥ ५८ ॥ सेनां च महतों माधं नुपेल नुपतिर्दरी। नामा मूष्णवर्मासावागत्वैवाश कोरकान्॥ ५८ ॥ इता समस्तांको राज्ये निवसाद महीपतिः। माताम्याकारिता राजा ततस्तेनापि प्रेषिता ॥ ६० ॥ सस्वा भूमिपालेन शस्त्रदानादिसत्कता । पक्या प्रसादितस्थासीत्वा मूचणवर्मणः ॥ ६१ ॥ सस्ततः सारवर्मा ततः सेनाभिधो मतः। सैन्यवर्भसुतो राजा सुजन'स्तस्य चात्मजः॥ ६२॥ राजा सिंद्वलवर्मासावये तपसि संस्थित:। पढ़यैव धर्मचारिख्योक्षद्वे डिमगिरे: कती ॥ ६३॥ दिचिणे योगसिद्धोऽभूतिस्वास्तत्र समागताः। चतरशीतिसंख्यास्ते वरदानार्धमस्य हि ॥ ६४ ॥ ने कारपतिस्तन निर्विससी बदीरितम । राजीं मनोषितं प्रागिवाभवेय: सता सम ॥ ६५ ॥ बहदः सेवको राज्ञो स्वैव की त्यो तस्य चाज्या। प्रजार्धमभविष्यंस्तहत्तास्माभिः सता दय⁵॥ ६६ ॥ युष्माभिर्व स्थातव्यं ममावागमनाविध । राच्चीदितमिदं त्रुत्वैवैवमस्विति ते पुनः ॥ ६७॥ प्रत्यमुखन् नृपेणैव योगी चर्पटिरागतः। युगाकारप्रभृतिभिर्दश्रभिः सत्सुतैर्नृषः ॥ ६८ ॥ विजित्य जनियान्यहे पुरी चम्पां चकार ह। पुरैव चम्पकेनालक्कतां देव्याभिरिक्तताम् ॥ ६८ ॥ चम्पावत्यैव सिंह्यादीकृत्वेरावतीत्रहे। लिक्सीदा स्वहाप्यासन् प्रालिकासङ्ग तथा ॥ ७० ॥ क्रनालसङ्ग्रे चात्र सरस्रत्या च प्रालिका-सङ्गमे तान्समानीय चर्पटे: समती स्थित:॥ ७१॥ गुप्तचन्द्रेयरी⁹ कूर्मेयरचेत्वादि नामभिः। स्थापयामास नुपति: महिलाख्यो जितेन्द्रिय:॥ ७२ ॥ चर्पटस्थानमप्यन्ते भ कारियत्वः सतावव। प्रेषयामास विस्थादानीयतां महती शिला ।। ७३। गलः तैर्भन्नती ग्रभ्या शिलानीतासनैव र्षेष्ठ ।

गृरुणोक्षं प्राला नेयं लच्छीनारायणोचिता ॥ ७४ ॥

^{ं 88.} पर्कोति वार्यः

^{&#}x27; MS. **৸বিঅ**ল.

[?] MS. विक्रीभंदा—

¹⁰ M Bस्थानसप्यनः

² MS. सजन.

^{*} This verse is evidently corrupt.

º MS. सम्तीः

[ा] MS सहतीक्रिर्लाः

³ MS. বাস্থা.

⁴MS. प्रतिकृत्य.

[°] MS, गृप्तयन्देवरी.

¹² MS. नीतानेव.

पखा उदर एकोऽस्ति मेको' राष्ट्रा निरीचले । कृते जाते तथान्यास्त् प्रतिमाः शहरस्य च ॥ ७५ ॥ देखा गरूपतेबाप्येकत्र देवालये तुता:। स्वापिता: स्वस्ता राजा पुनरेव तु प्रेविता: ॥ ७६ ॥ भावित्वादेवमेवार्यस्थानीयान्यां प्रीतां पथि। स्वितास्तदा रखे भ्योभितार्श्वदस्यभि: सुता: ॥ ७७ ॥ त्रुत्वा नृपेष ताक्रम्तं युगाकारो धनुर्धरः। प्रेषितोऽसी मुकुटकोटादारभ्याञ्चनद्रिपृन् ॥ ७८ ॥ यावडिमगिरे: पचातां न देशोस्ततः परम् । सदल्**का** विरम्यागाच्छिलामादाय सत्वर:॥ ७८॥ कारियत्वा कृतिं सद्यीपतेः संस्थाप्यं चादरात्। संस्थाप्य च युगाकारं चम्पापुर्यां नृपोऽप्यगात ॥ ८० ॥ सइ चर्पटिना राजा तथैवं तपसि स्थित:। चतुर्भिरिधकाचासन शीति: सिन्नमूर्तयः ॥ ८१ ॥ सरस्वखद्रवाऽ घापि राजापि श्रममाप्तवान्। युगाकारात्मजो दोग्धो विदम्धस्तस्य चात्मजः॥ ८२॥ विचित्रवर्मा तस्वासोहैर्यवर्मा च तस्तुत:। **चसटस्तस्य पुर्वोऽस्य पुर्वो जसटढासिको**°॥ ८३ ॥ जसटस्थानपत्यत्वानास्वरमी नृपोऽभवत्। चित्रस्तस्य सुनुः स्थादस्य दैत्यारिरात्मनः ॥ ८४ ॥ एष्वीवर्मा त् दैत्वारेष्ट्यः सुनुरस्य तु । तस्यासी क्षालित: पुत्री यस्यासी द्विजयो ऋप: ॥ ८५ ॥ धावित्वा दिचणवठो वास्मीरकीरमुझ्ला:। इता यहोतो देशो येनानुनोताः सक्तव्यनाः¹² ॥ ८६ ॥ दत्तास्त ब्राह्मचेभ्यो यामाः क्रता राज्यासनम्। राखवाटादयो वोजभरणाद्याः स्वराप्तये ॥ ८७॥ ब्रह्मणो टानवीरोऽभूत्कास्मीरांसानयदशे 15। राजवर्मा विजयवर्मणः पुत्रस्ततस्वमूत् ॥ ८८ ॥ सारवर्मा तस्त्र सुनुः कीर्तिवर्माप्यभुवृपः। चित्रतों सदनबेति ही सुती कीर्तिवर्मणः ॥ ८८ ॥ चित्रवानपर्खीऽभुनादनो¹⁶ तृपसत्तमः। मुद्रा मदनवर्माभिधाना यस्यास्ति दिश्वणे ॥ ८० ॥ नारोकच्चरमाद्वांगुर्ज्जरात्रे द्यापि या लिपि। नागरी सुनुरयांशास्त्रो चीमृतस्त तस्ततः ॥ ८१॥

ः MS. म्बस्तो.

⁷ MS. राज्ञा तथेव.

5 This passage I am unable to restore.

¹ MS. (भकी.

[•] MS. मी.

[·] Perhaps अर्च त्यक्ता is to be read.

MS. उाखिकी.

^{ाः} स्वका जना: would be a better reading.

и MS. बीजमस्टाद्याः

[&]quot; This verse is obscure. Perhaps जीमृतक सत्मत.

ю सी omitted in MS.

MB. कश्मीर योऽनयदचे

[·] Mr. मीदान्या.

⁸ These words are unintelligible.

¹¹ Perhaps दिचिएं वार is to be read.

¹³ Perhaps भाववाटाइयो is to be read.

¹⁶ MS. चित्रतेयनपत्नी भदकानी-

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वैरिवर्मा सतस्तस्य माचिकासास्य चालजः।

भोटवर्मा तस्य चुनुः सङ्गामास्यस्तदात्मजः॥ ८२॥

भानन्दवर्मा राजासीचिगर्ताधिपतेः सुताम्।

विवाद्म पाक्रमालायां भोक्तनाय समात्रिते ॥ ८३ ॥

तिखांस्त कौतुकार्थं तदान्नोपकरणैः समम्।

चषकादीन्यत्र इस्ताप्राच्चास्थासादितानि हि ॥ ८४ ॥ तप तत्र प्रसार्थेव करमानन्दवर्मणा ।

स्पवोष्टेन (?) भुक्का पानीयपाचे महत्वपि ॥ ८५ ॥ इरकोऽपि प्रसायेव बाहुं पीते जले नसीः।

जासाभ्यां (१) नि:सृती सर्पीं वेलिहानी विसोकिती ॥ ८६ ॥

राज्ञा जनै: समं पादावभिवन्धं महीपते:।

गचेत्रवर्मा तसूनुस्तस्य पुत्रः प्रतापवान् ॥ ८७ ॥

प्रतापसिं इवर्मासी बुधि छिरसमः कली।

सङ्गीनारायणादीनां प्रासादारस्थकर्मणः॥ ८८ ॥

तस्बार्षिन्ता तीव्रासीत्वयं मे निर्वहेदिति ।

मन्त्रयत्वात्मसचिवार्षः । प्रजापीडनं विना ॥ ८८ ॥

श्यानस्थास्य श्यने रात्री स्त्रप्ते त्रियः पति:।

साचादिव समागम्य सोऽवनोध्याइ पार्थिवम् ॥ १००॥ राजंबिन्ता न ते जात् सर्वे सम्पादितं मया।

श्रुत्वोत्यायाच्च राजासी दण्डवत्यतितो भुवि ॥ १०१ ॥ क्यं न सभवेदिश्वभरस्यार्तार्तिकृत्तनम् ।

हितीयेऽहिन होसास्ययामादागत्य क्षेकाः ॥ (•२॥ तामस्रकानि सदसि न्यस्योतुः खनिसभावम् ।

देवालया इमे सर्वे तेन सम्पादितास्तदा॥ १०३॥ राज्यवृत्तिरभूद्युक्ते जितो नागरकोटिकः।

चन्द्रेति नामा राजासी प्रपत्तायनतत्प्रः"॥ १०४॥ चटोदेशादन्यमानवली यावत्तु गोपुरम्।

इतं धनं गनाश्वादि सर्वं भूमिस भूयसी ॥ १०५॥ सामनात्रपतीनां तेनाइतस्तस्य सोदरः।

जयितं ह इति खातोऽसूहुणैर्रुपसंसतः ॥ १०६॥

प्रतापसिंहपुत्रीऽ भूदोरभानुर्महीपतिः।

बिलभद्रस्मृतस्तस्य बिलकर्षो गुणैरमृत् ॥ १००॥ बिलभद्रं सुतस्वासोज्जनार्दन इति श्रुतः।

गुणैरनवमस्वासीदर्जनासव्यसाचिनः ॥ १०८॥

¹ M8. दरस्को.

² MS. नि:मृतो मपीं-

³ MS. भिवेश चमापते.

^{*} MB. समा चारमध्यात्मसचित्रीयै:

⁵ MS. से बोंध्यीवाइ Vern. राजे की जगाउते भरी-

MB. afe.

⁷ MS. राजा नान्या पलायनतत्त्वरः 8 MS. समंतः

In the MS. the second half of verse 107 and the first half of verse 108 have been transposed.

धर्मे धनुषि ग्रत्वे नये भन्नौ कृपस्य च। हादशान्दं युष्टमासीकायत्विं हेन भूभृता ॥ १०८ ॥ यवनाधीमसचिवाप्रणिना' तस्य तेन तु । पस्तायिना जितेनापि बहुधा कपटासना ॥ ११०॥ वच्चयित्वातः नरेणापि भावा समन्वितः। विश्वकारेण जयिना देवादव्यन्तेजसा ॥ १११ ॥ पित्रादेशात्मवलसिंहान्जेनापि सङ्गत:। तदैव बिलभद्रस्य दन्धो देशो इतं धनम् ॥ ११२ ॥ यवनाधीशयोगेन गृष्टीतं राज्यमेव तत्। जनार्दनस्य पुत्रो भूत्ययोसिंशोऽपि बालकः ॥ ११३॥ देशाविः सत्य स गतो मण्डीकोलाचलादिवु। गतेषु बहुवर्षेषु प्राप्ते भेदे सहत्वपि ॥ १९४ ॥ दैवेऽनुकुलता प्राप्ते सामन्तैः संविधाय त्। सन्धिं समागतः पृथ्वीसिंहः कोलाचनात्स्वयम् ॥ ११५ ॥ **बङ्ग**यित्वा भूरिहिमं गिरिदेवानुकृततात् । खदेशस्यान्विधायापि कोटात्तस्यैव सैनिकान ॥ ११६॥ पितृष्णस्याष्ट्रनय्डे तत्र तत्राखिलान्सती। नि:पेषयित्वा चम्पापुर्या स्थितानिपुसैनिकान् ॥ ११७।। ग्रहीत्वा नासिकाचित्वा त्यक्वाऽन्याइनत्रभु: । देशागतांच इत्वान्यान्धमिः शोणितपङ्किला ॥ ११८॥ क्रत्वा निजाजावयगं सङ्गमं नाम सूमिपम्। दत्त्वा भलेहोमप्यसौ पितृष्णं इन्तुसुर्घतः ॥ ११८ ॥ सन्धिं विधाय यवनाधीश्रमान्यभठेन सः । प्रत्यचेण समात्रित्यं कलानीरपरे यदा ॥ १२०॥

TRANSLATION.

ADORATION TO THE ILLUSTRIOUS GURU.

While bowing before Narayana who by the qualities of Illusion has created the Universe [which had been] absorbed at the end of the Kalpa (may He protect it!) to obtain [our] wishes, this string of the Solar Race has been wound round His neck.

The Self-existent (Brahma) was born from the navel-lotus of Narayana, Marioi from his (Brahmā's) mind, and [from Marīci] Kasyapa the patriarch. From him (Kasyapa) by Aditi was born Vivasvant; the son of Vivasvant was Manu, the god of the funeral oblation (śrāddha-deva). From the nose of Manu, while sneezing, sprang his son Iksvāku, his (Iksvāku's) son was Vikuksi, and Vikuksi had a son called Purañjaya, also known by the names of Indravaha and Kakutstha.

[.]¹ The correct form would be—यण्या ः MS. बंचहिरवा

³ MS. व omitted.

⁴ MS. # omitted.

[ু] MS. — कूलनात्

[ः] मान्यभटेन सः

[&]quot; MS समाणत्य

⁶ Obscure.

From him (Puranjaya) [sprang] Anenas; his (Anenas') son was Prthu; Prthu's son was Viśvagandhi; from him (Viśvagandhi) [sprang] Candra; and Yuvanāśva was the son of Candra. His son was Sabasta and his (Śabasta's) son was known as Brhadaśva. His (Brhadaśva's) son was Kuvalayaśvaka, also named Dhundhumāra; Drdhaśva was his (Kuvalayaśvaka's) son and his (Drdhaśva's) son was known as Harvaśva-Nikumbha. Barhinaśva was the son of Nikumbha, and Krśaśva-Senajit was his (Barhināśva's) son. Yuvanāśva was his (Kṛśāśva's) son, and by the piercing of the womb [of his mother] was born [his son] Mandhatar the Emperor, also called Trasaddasyu. His (Mandhatar's) son was Purukutsa: his (Purukutsa's) son Trasaddasyu (II); from him (Trasaddasyu) was born (verse 10) Anaranya; his (Anaranya's) son was Haryasva (II), and from him (Haryasva) [sprang] Aruna. From him (Aruna) was born Nibandhana; [from Nibandhana] Satyavrata-Triśankuka. Triśanku's son was Hariścandra; from him (Hariścandra) was born the king Rohita through a sacrifice to Varuna; and his (Rohita's) son was Harita. His (Harita's) son was Campa who founded the town of Campa. Sudeva was his (Campa's) son, his (Sudeva's) son was Vijaya, and his (Vijaya's) son Bharuka. His (Bharuka's) son was called Vrka, and his (Vrka's) Bahuka. Sagara, the universal monarch (cakrovartin), was his (Bāhuka's) son, Asamañjasa was the son of Sagara; his (Asamañjasa's) son was Amsumant, his (Améumant's) Dilipa, his (Dilipa's) Bhagiratha. From Bhagiratha [sprang] Śruta, from him (Śruta) Nābha; and Sindhudvīpa from him (Nābha). (Sindhudvīpa's) son was Ayutāyus, his (Ayutāyus') Rtuparna, his (Rtuparna's) Sarvakāma; his (Sarvakāma's) Sudāsa, and his (Sudāsa's) Sarvasaha, also named Kalmāsapāda. The son of Sudāsa's son was known as Aśmaka. His (Aśmaka's) son, Mulaka, by name, was guarded by women and therefore called Narikavaca ("Women-armoured"), the progenitor of the warrior caste. Dasaratha was the son of Mulaka, Asmaka's son. From him (Dasaratha) [sprang] Aidavida, from him (Aidavida) was born Viśvasaha, and from him (Viśvasaha) Khatvanga the universal monarch (cakravartin) who in a moment attained spiritual wisdom. From Khatvanga [sprang] Dirghabahu, from him (Dirghabahu) Raghu, [and] from Raghu Aja From him (Aja) [sprang] king Dasaratha (II) from whom came forth Hari (Visnu) (verse 20) in his four-fold incarnation as Ramacandra and his brothers. His (Kāma's) son was Kuśa, his (Kuśa's) Atithi, [and] the son of Atithi was Nisadha. The son of Nisadha was king Nala, his (Nala's) son was Pundarika. Ksemadhanyan was his (Pundarika's) son and from him (Ksemadhanvan) again was born Devānika. [Devānika's son was] Pāriyātra, from him (Pāriyātra) | sprang] Bala [and] from Bala, Sthala. From him (Sthala) sprang Vajranabha, the ruler of the earth, who was born from a beam of the Sun. Svaguna was born from him (Vajranābha), from him (Svaguna) Vidhrti and from him (Vidhrti) Hiranyanabha, the best of royal sages, who first became the disciple of Jaimini and from whom the teacher of the Yoga, Yajñavalkya, the sage of Kosala, attained doubt-dispelling spiritual wisdom, which caused the great Yega

[·] Here three names which are found in the Bhagavata-parāna (9, 6, 1-2) have been omitted, namely, Ambarīša Yauvanētva aud Hārīta.

to rise. His (Hiranyanabha's) son was named Pusya, from him (Pusya) [was born! Dhruvasandhi, whose son was Agnivarna the king. From him (Agnivarna) was formerly born the quick Maru, the king accomplished in Yoga, who in the Age of Sin (Kali-yuga) revived the Solar Race which had become extinct. After he (Marut) had settled at the village of Kalapa, a son Prasusruta was born to him. Sandhi was his (Prasuśruta's) son, Amarsana, his (Sandhi's), and Sahasvant his (Amarsana's). His (Sahasvant's) was Viśvasāhva whose son was Brhadbala' who was killed by Abhimanyu in the contest and the great battle of the Bharatas. His son was Urukriya,3 and Vatsavrddha was his (Urukriya's) son. [From him was born] Prati yoma, from him (Prativyoma) Bhanu-Divaka the army-head. (Verse 30.) From him (Bhānu) Sahadeva the hero, then Brhadasva-Bhānumant. Pratikāśya [was the son] of Bhānumant, and Supratīka was his (Pratīkāśya's) son. From him (Supratika) was born Marudeva, his (Marudeva's) [son was] Sunaksatra and his (Sunaksatra's) Puskara. From him (Puskara) [was born] the king Antariksa, great in asceticism, the destroyer of his enemies. Brhadbhānu's was his (Antarikea's) son, from him (Brhadbhānu) [sprang] Bar' i and his (Barhi's) son was Kṛtañjaya. Raṇañjaya was his (Kṛtañjaya's) son, and Sańjaya was his (Rananjaya's) son. From him (Sanjaya) [sprang] Śakya, Śuddhoda was his (Śākya's) [son] and Lāngala was his (Śuddhoda's) son. From him (Lāngala) [sprang] Prasenaka, from him (Prasenaka) Ksudraka, and his (Ksudraka's) son was Ranaka. His (Ranaka's) son was Suratha, and Sumitra was his (Suratha's) son. Sumitra was childless, so that the race of the Sun was nearly extinct.

After many years had elapsed, king Maru, accomplished in Yoga, married a king's daughter and begot by her excellent sons. Having settled one of them at Kalapa, he left for the sake of his own growth with the two others [who were] householders, and settled one there on the slope of the Himalaya. Then having reached Kaśmir with the eldest son, he founded there Varmapura for the sake of his son Jaya-stambha and anointed him there [as king]. He himself stayed there practising asceticism—he the teacher of the Yoga. The son of Jaya-stambha was Jala-stambha. and his (Jala-stambha's) son Mahā-stambha. His (Mahā-stambha's) son was Adivarman, and Deva-varman was his (Adi-varman's) son. (Verse 40) Mandara was his (Deva-varman's) son, Kantara his (Mandara's) and Pragalbhaka his (Kantara's). The son of Pragalbha was Ajya-varman. When he (Ajya-varman), a master of the Yoga, practised difficult asceticism at Varmapura at the confluence of the Iravati and Budha stream, to please Siva, then numberless lingus appeared all over the place. The king, seeing his son a leader adorned with all royal virtues and being himself intent on the practice of Yoga, anointed his son Meru-varman for the sake of the growth of the State and, devoting himself to Yoga, he went from that same spot to the presence of Siva. Meru-varman was the tenth from Jaya-stambha settled in

¹ The Bhagavata-purana (9, 12, 7) has the names Presensjit and Takaska after Viévasahva.

² In the Bhagavata-purana (9, 12, 9) Brhadrana is the name of Brhadbala's successor.

³ Brhadraja according to Bhagavata-purana 9, 12, 12.

^{*} Presens jit according to Bhagavata purana 9, 12, 14.

⁵ The vernacular Vameavali speaks of seven sons, which is evidently due to a confusion between sat-sutan and at-sutan.

. for an abode of the god of the gods. He caused also an image of the Man-lion to be erected by his eminent guru who was an inhabitant of Kaśmīr and he set himself up a Sūryāmśa,2 [images of] the Blessed Kālī (Bhadrakālī), of Gaṇādhipa (Gaṇeśa) and of the bull (Nandi), and beneath the latter he wrote his royal commandments. Suvarna-varman was his (Meru-varman's) son and Lakşmī-varman was his (Suvarna-varman's) son. reign there occurred a pestilence, and the people were afflicted with sickness. the same time came the Kiras and slew the king in the front of the battle. queen who was pregnant was rescued by the ministers together with the familypriest; and at Devala, having stepped out [of her litter], she bore a son. (Verse 50) Leaving him in a cave, she proceeded to go, but the family-priest, seeing her, asked, "How, my daughter, art thou in this state? When hast thou born a child? Where hath our lord been laid?" And when she gave answer: "He is inside [the cave]," the family-priest took him and showed him to the minister, but not in public. Then they brought her to a country ruled by Parabhoga and there they tarried many years in the house of his guru with the child. Once she had gone to thrash paddy seeds. The guru of the king, seeing in the dust the footprints of the child marked with signs [of royalty], asked her, "Who art thou? Whence hast thou come? And why?" When he asked thus, the queen did not speak, but having questioned her attendants, he learnt to what house the boy belonged; and knowing that, as he bore the marks of a king, he was the son of a noble father, he took him to the town of Sukheta and presented him to his king who, when he learnt her misfortune, duly honoured her with a dwelling-place, with honours and gifts and daily reverence. When king Mūsana-varman had become of age, king Prabhoga gave him bis own daughter in marriage, according to the prescribed rules, with the village of Pāngī and great wealth, and gave him also a large army. Then that Mūsanavarman came hastily, (verse 60) slew all Kīrakas and settled as ruler in his own The king also called his mother, and the ruler [of Sukheta] sent her with her daughter-in-law, honoured with a dowry and presents. Mūşaṇa-varman, pleased with his queen, had by her a son Hamsa. From him (Hamsa) [was born] Saravarman, and from him (Sāra-varman) [a son] named Sena. The son of Sainya-varman was king Sujana and his (Sujana's) son was king Sahila-varman. He, engaged in severe austerity with his lawful wife on the southern slope of the Himālaya, attained his object and became accomplished in Yoga. Then there appeared wizards, eighty-four in number, to give him a boon. The king in his weariness did not express his wish, but they uttered the Raja's desire at once "May I have sons!"

"Ye must stay here, till my return," quoth the king, and they, on hearing it, consented saying, "So be it." The Jogi Carpati went with the king. Together

¹ The first half of verse 45 is unintelligible.

² The vernacular Banssuli has एक अपणे आत्मा का अंशंभृत गूर्ध लिंग कीइ अस्थाप करता भया. Evidently the text refers to the Sürajmukh linga at Brahmor. Cf. Chamba Gazetteer, p. 71.

³ Verse 66 is unintelligible, but the corresponding passage in the vernacular Pansauli says that the queen and ministers uttered the Rajū's wish to the Siddhas, who thereupon granted him tensons.

with Yugākāra and his nine other excellent sons the king defeated the Kṣatriyas in battle and founded on the bank of the Irāvatī the town of Campā, which was before adorned with campaka trees and guarded by the goddess (verse 70) Campāvatī, having slain the Buffalo and others.¹ On this same spot there were also various lingas, at the confluence of the Śālikā [with the Irāvatī], and at the confluence of the Kunāla and at the confluence of the Śālikā with the Sarasvatī. Having brought these [to the town] with the consent of Carpaṭi, the king, named Sāhila, the master of his senses, established Gupta and Candreśvara, Kūrmeśvara and other temples.

Having finally established a sanctuary of Carpata also, he sent nine of his sons [with the words:] "Bring me a large stone from the Vindhya." They went and brought with them a large and white stone, but the guru said: "This stone is not suitable for [an image of] Laksmī-Nārāyaṇa. Inside it is a frog." When the king had examined it and it was so, he set up other images of Śankara, Devī and Gaṇapati, all in the same temple and sent his sons again. As it was destined to happen, on the way his sons, when they were bringing the stone, were slain in battle by numerous robbers. When the king heard this, he sent Yugākāra the archer to slay them, and he (Yugākāra) slew the enemies from Mukuta-kota as far as

Yugākāra's son was Dogdha, his (Dogdha's) son was Vidagdha. Vicitravarman was his (Vidagdha's) son and Dhairya-varman was his (Vicitra-varman's) son. Asata was his (Dhairya-varman's) son, his (Asata's) two sons were Jasata and Dhālika. As Jasata was childless, Dhāla-varman became king. Ajita was his (Dhāla-varman's) son; his (Ajita's) Daityāri. Pṛthvī-varman [was the son] of Daityāri. Udaya was his (Pṛthvī-varman's) son. His (Udaya's) son was Lalita, whose [son was] king Vijaya. He, hastening from (?) the south, slew the Kāśmīras, Kīras and Mudgalas (i.e. Mughals), took the land and at once gratified [his] people. In order to attain heaven, he gave his royal command and granted to Brāhmans the villages of Rāṇavāṭa, and so on, with seedcorn and rent (?). He wa pious and generous and he subdued the Kāśmīras.

Rāja-varman was the son of Vijaya-varman; from him (Rāja-varman) was born Sāra-varman; his (Sāra-varman's) son was king Kīrti-varman. Ajita and

It is not clear whether this refers to the king or to the goddess. In the first case it could mean that, on the occasion of the foundation of Campa, a buffalo and other animals were sacrificed by the king. In the second case it would refer to the slaying of the Buffalo-demon (Mahisasura) by the goddess. Indeed the image of Campavati represents the Devi in the act of piercing Mahisa.

^{· 2} Most of verse 79 is obscure.

³ The first part of verse 82 is evidently corrupt.

⁴ The expression बीजभरणादि occurs in the Kulū grant 1. 10. A. R. A. S. for 1903-04, p. 268, but the meaning is uncertain.

Madana were the two sons of Kirti-varman. Ajita was without issue [and] Madana the excellent prince (verse 90)

and his son was Jīmūta (?).¹ Vairi-varman was his (Jīmūta's) son and Māṇikya was his (Vairi-varman's) son. Bhota-varman was his (Māṇikya's) son, his (Bhota-varman's) son was named Saṅgrāma. Ānanda-varman became king. When he married the daughter of the ruler of Trigarta and had entered the kitchen to take his food, that king, out of curiosity, together with his attendants had placed the cups and other vessels in such a manner that he could not reach them with his hand. There and then, stretching forth his hand, Ānanda-varman ate the soup (?) and, stretching forth his arm, drank water from a large drinking-vessel also placed far away. When the Rājā (of Trigarta) prostrated himself with his people before the king (Ānanda-varman), they beheld two licking serpents issuing from his nostrils (?)

Ganeśa-varman was his (Ānanda's) son. His (Ganeśa-varman's) son, full of dignity, was Pratāpa-simha-varman who equalled Yudhisthira in this Age of Sin. When he had begun work on the temples of Lakṣmī-Nārāyaṇa and other deities, he felt great anxiety how to procure the money and consulted with his ministers [saying]: "How will my purpose succeed without vexing my subjects?" (Verse 100). When at night he was lying on his couch, the Lord of Śrī (Nārāyaṇa) appeared to him in a dream and, awakening him, spoke to the prince: "King, have no anxiety, it hath all been provided by me." On hearing this, the king rose and spoke, falling on the ground like a staff: "How could not the All-Sustainer (Nārāyaṇa) cut short the distress of the distressed?" The following day there came some peasants from the village of Hol and, laying before the assembly some pieces of copper, they reported the discovery of a mine. Then he restored all the temples.

The State was increased by war: the king of Nagar-kōt (Kāngrā), Candra by name, was defeated and took to flight, as his forces were defeated from the land of Catī as far as the gate [of Kāngrā town?], and elephants, horses and all other booty was taken and much land of vassals and princes. He (Pratāpa-simha-varman) slew his (Candra's) brother, named Jayatsimha, who was honoured by the king for his virtues.

The son of Pratapa-simha was king Virabhanu. Balibhadra was his (Virabhanu's) son. He was a Balikarna in virtues. The son of Balibhadra was known as Janardana. In virtues he was not inferior to Arjuna, the left-handed archer, in righteousness, archery, heroism, statesmanship and piety. For twelve

¹ Verse 91 is obscure. The vernacular Bansauli contains the following names: Madan Varma, Mudra Varma, Nagari (or Navi) Varma, Asetri Varma and Veri Varma.

² The correct form of the name of this Rājā, as found in his numerous copper-plate grants, is Balabbadra. Bali and Karņa are two mythic kings, renowned for their generosity. Prājyabhatta writes in the 4th Rājatarangiņī (verse 675):

नाक्षरसमः क्षिश्वासमूद्र अविश्वति । दानं समर्पितं येन पश्चितेष्वपि वैरिषु ॥ कर्षः सुवर्णटानेन सूनिदानेन वा बलिः । समकावजुदानेन यशः प्राप्तीति भूपतिः ॥

[&]quot;Never has there been nor will there be a man generous like Akbar, who bestowed gifts on the leanned, even if they were his enemies. Karna wins fame by giving gold, Bali by giving land, but the king (Akbar) by giving everything."

In the Bombay edition (Bombay Sanskrit Series No. LIV) p. 360, the 2nd and 3rd pādas of the second verse have been left out.

years there was war between the king and king Jagatsimha¹ tne chief-councillor of the lord of the Yavanas. Though he (Jagatsimha) was defeated several times and fled, the treacherous [wretch] deceitfully [killed Janārdana], though accompanied by his heroic brother Viśvambhara, victorious and dignified like a god, and at his father's command accompanied also by his younger brother Sabala-simha. Then Balabhadra's land was burnt, his wealth carried off, and by means of the lord of the Yavanas he was even robbed of his kingdom.

Janārdana's son Prthvī-simha was yet a child; he left the country and went to the mountains of Mandi, Kola, and so on. When after the lapse of many years a great change had taken place and Fate had become favourable, Prthvī-simha made an alliance with some feudatory chiefs and came with them from the Kola mountain. Having crossed much snow through the favour of the mountain-gods he expelled from the fortress the soldiers of the murderer of his father who were staying in his country, and everywhere slew them all in battle successfully. After overtaking the soldiers of the enemy which stayed at the town of Campā

and having killed the others which had invaded the country: the land was red with blood. After he had rendered the prince named Sangrāma' dependent on his will and given him Bhalehi, he (Prthvīsimha), eager to slay the murderer of his father, when, after having made an alliance with the lord of the Yavanas Manyabhata (?) and sought refuge in the town of Kalānōr,

² Samgram Pal Balauria of Basohli. Cf. above p. 13.

¹ Jagat Singh Pathania of Nurpur who stood in great favour with the Imperial Court. The term Yavana, originally meaning Ionian, i.e. Greek, is here used to designate the Moslims.

CHAPTER VI.—ANCIENT HISTORY.

A.—The Rājās of Chambā.



Fig. 16. Temple of Manimahês at Brahmor.

In the absence of epigraphical or literary evidence, we may assume that the territory now known as Chamba State once formed part -nominally at leastof the great empires of the Mauryas, the Kusanas and the Guptas, which successively rose and fell in Northern India. The names of Aśoka and of the three Kusana princes, Huska, Juska, and Kaniska occur in Kalhana's Chronicle among the carly rulers of Kaśmir, and it is not unlikely that they and Mihirakula the Hun, whose sway extended over Kaśmir and Gandhara. reckoned the Rāvi valley among their dominions. Nor does it seem improbable that in the 7th and 8th centu-

ries, the suzerainty of Kaśmir under the powerful rulers of the Kārkoṭa dynasty, was acknowledged by the chiefs then established in the upper valley of the Rāvī. The statement of the Rājataraṅgiṇī that the great Lalitāditya reckoned the king of Jālaṁdhara, i.e. Kāṅgṛā among his feudatories seems, according to Dr. Stein,¹ to be based on historical fact. The inference is therefore unavoidable that to the north of the Dhaulā Dhār also, the supremacy of Kaśmīr was acknowledged.² It is, however, worthy of note that none of the epigraphical records of the chiefs of

Rajat. transl. Stein, Vol. I, p. 89.

² The same would follow from Ptolemy who speaks of Κασπηρία ὑπο τὰς τοῦ Βιζάσπου καὶ τοῦ Σανδοβαλ καὶ τοῦ Ρααδίο, πηγάς "Kasperia (i.e. Kaśmir) at the sources of the Bidaspes (Jěhlam), the Sandolal (Cināb) and the Roadis (Ravi)."

Chamba bears any evidence of their having recognised Kaémir as the paramount power. We must, therefore, assume that, if such a relationship existed, it was neither stringent nor permanent.

About A.D. 700, at the very time when the political influence of Kaśmir had reached its zenith, we find in the upper Kavi valley a Meru-varman. Rajput chief of the Solar race, Meru-varman by name. who not only assumed the proud title of "king of kings" (rājādhirāja, inscr. No. 6), but actually must have been the liege-lord of feudatory chiefs. The name of one of them at least is preserved in the Gum inscription (No. 9), which at the same time proves that Mcru-varman's rule extended down the Ravi valley at least ten miles below its junction with the Budhal. His capital was Brahmor, where the temples and inscribed brass images erected by him still testify both to his piety and power. The temple of Chatrarhi, which also contains an inscribed idol dedicated by him, proves that on the left bank of the Ravi his dominions included this village. The inscription (No. 8) on this image distinctly states that the Raja conquered his "enemies in their invincible castles," from which it would seem that he forcibly extended the territory held by his ancestors. The Chatrarhi inscription mentions the name of Meru-varman's father Deva-varman. Those of Brahmor (Nos. 5 and 6) call him Divakara-varman and contain, moreover, the names of Meru-varman's grandfather Bala-varman and of his great-grandfather Aditvavarman. It has been remarked above that Deva-varman's name occurs also in the Vamśāvalī (śl. 39) which calls him the son of Adi-varman, perhaps the Aditya-varman of the inscription, in reality his grandfather. The Vaméavali has four names between Deva-varman and Meru-varman, which must have been interpolated.

In two of the Brahmor inscriptions Meru-varman calls himself a scion of the Solar race and a descendant of the house (gotra) of Müşbpa. Mūsūna or Mosūna. The latter form is perhaps meant for a vrddhi derivative (correct Mausūna) of the former. In the Gum inscription we meet again with the name in the slightly modified form of Mosina. I feel inclined to identify the Mūṣūṇa of the inscription with the Mūṣaṇa who figures in the Vaméavali as the great-grandson of Meru-varman, and whose adventures are related at considerable length in that document (sl. 49-61). In popular legend his name has become converted into Mus Brahmā or Mushi Brahmā ("Mouse Brahmā"), which has given rise to the story that after his birth he was guarded by mice. It is significant that this tradition which is known to every inhabitant of Chambá, is not found in the Vaméavali. In the copper-plate grants Musana is very often mentioned as the progenitor of the Chamba Rajas.1 First of all Vidagdha calls himself a scion of the house of Mosana and of the Solar race. It is curious that here again we meet with the form with o in the first syllable, which we have already noticed in the Mosūna of the Laksana image inscription. In the two grants of Somavarman (Nos. 24 and 25) we find Sahilla praised as "the great Jewel embellishing the house of Pausana" (Pausana-vamba-bhūsana-mahāmani) and in his grant

¹ In the following charters of the Muhammadan period Muşana is mentioned: Samgrama-varman (XIII, l. 8). Anauda-varman (XV, l. 5), Ganesa-varman (XXI, l. 5), Balsbhadra (XLII, l. 7, XLIV, l. 2, LI. l. 8). All these rulers call themselves Muşana-vamsa-bhūşaṇa-maṇi, "the Jewel adorning the house of Mūṣaṇa.

(No. 26) Asata calls himself "the only ornament of the house of Pausana" (Pausana-kulaika-tilaka). I presume that the form Pausana, which is found on these three plates, is merely due to a clerical error and is to be read Mausana, which can be explained as a vrddhi derivative of the name Mūsana. It should be remembered that in Śāradā the letters pa and ma bear a close resemblance to one another and can easily be interchanged. I feel the more inclined to adopt this interpretation as the term Pausana is grammatically incorrect. If read Pausna, it would be a regular vrddhi derivative from Pūsan, but even then it would be an uncommon expression by which to designate the Sūrya-vamśa.

If my assumption regarding the identity of Mūsūṇa and Mūsaṇa is correct, it follows that the latter's name in the Vamśāvalī is entirely out of place. None of the other rulers mentioned in that document as Meru-varman's successors are proved by any epigraphical records to be historical. On the other hand, we have in the Proli-rā-gaļā rock inscription (No. 11) the name of Mṛtyuñjaya-varman, which is not found in the Vamśāvalī. The cognomen varman makes it probable that the bearer of that name was a scion of the house of Mūsūna, who may have ruled some two centuries after Meru-varman.

When from the 10th century inscriptions again become numerous, we find that a great change has taken place. The copper-plate grants Sāhilla-varman. which now make their appearance are all dated from the town of Chamba as the seat of government. The territory of their princely donors extended over the lower Rāvī valley, and thus the original Brahmor principality had developed into the Chamba State. The author of this important change, according to the Vamśavali, was Sahilla-varman whose name is associated with many a popular legend. The statement that Sahilla was the founder of Chamba town there is no reason to doubt, as the charters of his son Yugakara and of his grandson Vidagdha (Nos. 14 and 15) were issued from that place. We possess no record contemporaneous with Sahilla himself, but in two copper-plates of the 11th century (Nos. 24 and 25) we find a passage devoted to his praise which, within its gaudy garb of eastern verbosity, contains some interesting facts of his reign. The circumstance that Soma-varman and Asata, the donors of those grants, who probably lived a century after Sāhilla, looked back to him as their most distinguished ancestor, supports the tradition that he was the real founder not only of the town but also of the present State of Chamba.2

The substance of the long passage referred to is that he was in alliance with the Rājās of Trigarta (Kāṅgṛā) and Kulūta (Kulū) and repulsed the combined attack of the Saumaṭikas and the Kīra troops of the Rājā of Durgara (Dugar). The Saumaṭikas are undoubtedly the people of Sumaṛṭā (map Sambarta)³ a tract in the former Hill State of Basōhlī, or Balor, which is frequently mentioned in the Rājataraṅgiṇī under the name of Vallāpura. Evidently at the time of our inscription

¹ In my preliminary article on inscriptions in Chamba State I read Pausna (from Puşan).

² Sahilla is not mentioned in the later copper-plate inscriptions except in one of Pratap Single who calls himself stimat-Salila-devosya nirmale kulc tilaka-bhūtah.

³ It is evidently the Samur Thung (sic) of Vigne, Travels, Vol. I. p. 176.

Sumartă was a principality which afterwards became absorbed into the Balor State, or it may have been the ancient name of that State itself.

The Kiras, with whom the Saumatikas had combined, are known from other sources as a tribe settled in the neighbourhood of Kaśmir. Sometimes they are identified with the Kasmiris. In the present case they seem to have acted as mercenaries in the service of the chief of Durgara, the modern Dugar, and were sent by him to the assistance of Sumarta against Chamba. The whole episode reminds us of what happened some eight centuries afterwards, when a Raja of Jammu sent an army under the chief of Basohli to invade Chamba, which was repulsed with the help of the Sikhs. Anyhow, the contest referred to was evidently one of those petty wars which used to be the favourite occupation of the Hill Rajputs. Sahilla, while extending his dominions down the Ravi valley, was bound to come into collision with the rulers of Vallapura or Sumata, as apparently their State was then called. The Saumatikas would naturally apply for help to their neighbours the Daurgaras or Pogras, and the chief of Chamba secured the support of the rulers of Kangra and Kulu. With the latter he was related by blood, but it may be rightly doubted whether Sāhilla exercised any suzerainty over Kuļū, as would appear from the inscription. If we are to believe his eulogist, the Chamba chief was victorious, which fact may have been largely due to his alliance with his more powerful neighbours of the Bias valley.

In one of the two copper-plates (No. 25) which contain the eulogy of Sāhilla, mention is made of another victory, in this instance won over the Turuskas. This term, originally applied to the Turks, is indiscriminately used to designate any kind of foreign invaders. It is, therefore, impossible to decide who Sāhilla's opponents were. I feel inclined to assume that they were mercenaries employed by one of the neighbouring Hill chiefs.

Såhilla's pilgrimage to Kuruksetra on the occasion of an eclipse is quite in keeping with prevailing custom. It would seem that his pilgrimage and royal gift of "a multitude of elephants" to the Sun-god Bhāskara had the special object of obtaining a son and heir, and it is interesting to note that Sāhilla's austerities described in the Vamśāvalī had the same purpose in view. Here, however, a holy man of the name of Carpați figures as the agent of divine favour. He accompanied, so the chronicle says, the chief on his conquest of the lower Rāvī valley and took a leading part in the founding of the new capital. As the group of temples near the Chambā palace contains a sanctuary dedicated to the memory of Carpat Nāth, there is some reason to assume that Sāhilla's spiritual adviser is not merely a fictitious personage.

¹ The Kiras are mentioned Rājat, VIII, 2787; transl. Stein Vol. II p. 217, and BṛĀat-saṁhitā XIV 29. Apparently the name occurs in "Kiragrāma," the modern Baijnāth in Kāṇgrā. In the Vaṁsāvali (él. 48) mention is made of a Kīra invasion in the reign of Lakṣmī-varman. The Kīras are also mentioned among other non-Aryan tribes in the Khajurāho inscription of Yaéo-varman Candèlla (Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 124) and also in the Bhera-ghāṭ and Karanbel inscriptions.

² Carpat Nath is one of the gurus of the sect of the Jogis. Cf. J. C. Oman, Mystics, Ascetics and Saints of India, (London, 1903) p. 186.

The chief temple of this group dedicated to Laksmi-Nārāyana is ascribed to Sāhilla. There is no reason to disbelieve tradition which is unanimous on this point, though there is no epigraphical document to support it.

The Vamsavali dwells at some length on the difficulties experienced in obtaining from the Vindhya Mountains a block of white marble for the image. Sahilla deputed nine of his sons' for the purpose, but the stone they brought back was found to contain a frog, and though unsuitable for the proposed image of Laksmi-Narayana, it was considered good enough to be made into a linga. When the nine sons were sent out again they were still less successful, for they were killed in a fight with robbers (Skr. dasyu). Then Yugakara, apparently the only surviving son, went on the same errand, slew the enemies from Mukuta-kota as far as the snowy mountains (?) and returned with the precious block of white marble. The mention of Mukuta-kota is curious, as one of our inscriptions (No. 17) speaks of a locality Makuta -- apparently the ancient name of Tur. This place lies on the road to the Baleni Pass, a much frequented route into Kāngrā. If we may identify Mukuţa-kota with this Makuta, it would follow that Yugakara marched into Kangra, and it is questionable whether he went much farther to obtain his piece of marble. It is a curious coincidence that, according to a tradition existing in Kangra, the famous idol of Laksmi-Narayana came originally from that place.

The consecration of the idol of Lakṣmī-Nārāyaṇa had a special significance in the historia sacra of Chambā, as it was raised to the rank of the chief deity and thus Viṣṇuism became virtually the State religion of Chambā. This did not prevent the dedication of shrines to Siva alongside the Viṣṇu temple—nor did it in any way affect the worship of Devīs and Nāgas in other parts of the State.

Yugākara- (or Yagākara-) varman,² the son and successor of Sāhilla, is known to us from a copper-plate inscription (No. 14) issued in the tenth year of his reign. No particulars are mentioned regarding him except that his mother's name was Nennā-Devī. In the Vamśāvalī he is said to have assisted his father in reducing the Kṣatriyas and founding the town of Chambā. The term kṣatriya probably denotes here the petty Rājpūt chieftains, called Rāṇās, who held the lower Rāvī valley previous to the consolidation of the State by Sāhilla. Yugākara, as we saw, also succeeded in obtaining the block of marble for the Nārāyaṇa image. About his own reign, however, nothing is recorded. Tradition ascribes to him the founding of the temple of Gaurī-Śaṅkara at Chambā. This well agrees with the site of that temple in the same group with that of Lakṣmī-Nārāyaṇa founded by Sāhilla, and also with the Śivaitic colouring of Yugākara's copper-plate grant. It opens with a stanza in honour of Śiva, the Soul of the Universe. This is the more remarkable, as the grant was issued to Narasimha the

¹ In Vigne's account of the legend the ten sons of Sahilla have become sixteen. Cf. his Travels, Vol. I. p. 158.

In his own charter (No. 14) he is called "Yagākara-varman," in that of his son (No. 15) "Yugākara-varman," and in the Vaméāvali "Yugākāra." I presume that the second one is the correct form. The meaning of the name would be "dispenser of teams (scil. of cows)." The name does not occur anywhere else. Cf. Sujanākara Rājat. VIII 312.

Man-lion incarnation of Visnu.¹ The temple of this deity which is still extant at Brahmor, and which the Vamśāvalī erroneously attributes to Meru-varman, is stated in Yugākara's copper-plate to have been founded by Tribhuvana-rekhā Devī, who may have been a queen either of Sāhilla or of Yugākara himself. The latter seems the more probable assumption.



Fig. 17. Temple of Narasimha at Brahmor after the earthquake of 4th April 1905).

Yugākara's son and successor was Vidagdha, of whose reign we possess two vidagdha.

cpigraphical records. One is a copper-plate grant (No. 15) issued by Vidagdha himself in the fourth year of his reign to a Brahman. Nandu by name, who came from Kurukṣetra. As Vidagdha's reign probably falls about the time of the invasions of Maḥmūd of Ghaznī, we may assume that the grantee was a refugee. Possibly he had been the local purohita of the Rājās of Chambā, who as we have seen were in the habit of performing pilgrimages to Kurukṣetra. From the wording of the inscription, however, it is not clear whether the donee himself or his grandfather had left "the

As the word Narasinhasya has evidently been added, it is not impossible that the grant was originally made to another deity. But the name may have been simply modernized at the time when the character of the plate was no longer understood.

hermitage of holy Kuruksetra" for Chamba. His descendants enjoy the grant up to the present day.

The inscription, apart from the usual laudatory epithets, does not contain any facts regarding the royal donor, except that he was the son of Yugākara and Queen Bhogamatī. Vidagdha evidently shared the Sivaitic propensities of his father; for he is called here "the supreme worshipper of Maheśvara."

The other document (No. 17) of Vidagdha's reign, dated in his first year, is an inscription of a feudatory chief, Thakkika by name, who was settled at Tur in the Basu parganā and owed allegiance to the Chambā Rājā. It is of interest as showing that at this period the Rāvī valley was still partly occupied by Rāṇās. Evidently Sāhilla's conquest of the lower valley did not result in their extinction. From being independent chieftains they simply became his vassals. In this and other inscriptions the vassalage of the Rāṇās is evident from the circumstance of their dating their inscriptions in the regnal year of their liege-lord.

Another inscription from Tur (No. 18) mentions the name of Dodaka as that of Vidagdha's successor. He is undoubtedly identical with the Dogdha of the Vamśāvalī (śl. 82), though in that document the Rājā of this name figures as the father and predecessor of Vidagdha. After Vidagdha we find the names Vicitra-varman and Dhairya-varman, which do not occur in any inscription. On the other hand, we possess three fountain inscriptions (Nos. 20-22) dated in the reign of a Trailokya-deva who must have lived in the second quarter of the 11th century. In one inscription—that of Naghai (No. 22)—he assumes the royal titles usually borne by independent rulers. I have shown above that there is much reason to assume that this Trailokya was a ruler of the neighbouring Hill State of Balor (Skr. Vallāpura). He preceded Kalaśa-(pāla), who is mentioned in the Rāja-taraṅgiṇī (VII, 220) as an antagonist of Ananta of Kaśmīr.

From the middle of the 11th century Chambā history becomes more coherent and detailed, as now the local records are supplemented by numerous references in Kalhana's Chronicle. The first mention of Chambā in the Rājataranginī is to the effect that Ananta-deva of Kaśmīr uprooted Sāla the ruler of Campā and placed another prince on the throne. The fact that Ananta vanquished Sāla is also mentioned in the Vikramānkadeva-carita of Bilhana, who was a contemporary of Ananta-deva. The name of Sāla is not found in the Vamśāvalī, owing perhaps to the shortness of his reign or to its ignominious end. But in the three copper-plate inscriptions of the 11th century, edited in the present Volume, we meet with the name of Sālavāhana who, as first pointed out by Professor Kielhorn, must be identical with the Sāla of the Rājataranginī.

Those three grants were issued by his sons and immediate successors, Soma-varman and Asața. The former, whose name is likewise omitted in the Vamśāvalī, must have been the prince raised to the throne by Ananta-deva of Kaśmīr. The exact time of this event

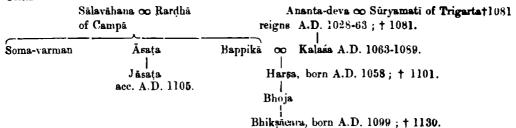
¹ Rājat.; VII, 218, transl. Stein, Vol. I, p. 286. Vikram. (ed. Bühler) XVIII, 38.

² Ind. Ant. XVII (1888) pp. 8 f. Sāla is an abbreviation (Bhīmavat) of Sālavāhana. Cunningham has confused Sāhilla with Sālavāhana. He first identified the former with the Sāla of the Rājataranginī (A. S. R. XIV, 115), and also with the Sālavāhana of the copper-plates (A. S. R. XXI., 135), and again in his Ancient Geography (p. 141) he makes Sāla the founder of the town of Chambā, i.e. Sāhilla. His reference to Ferishta must be due to an oversight.

-cannot be fixed, but we have pointed out that most probably it took place between the years A.D. 1050 and 1060. No events are known of Soma-varman's reign. He was succeeded by his brother Asata presumably between A.D. 1070 and 1080:

It stands to reason that Ananta's expedition against Chambā and Balor had for its object to assert the old claims of Kaśmīr suzerainty over the principalities of the Rāvī valley. In this he seems to have succeeded, for we meet with the names of Asata of Chambā and the Rājā of Balor among those of the eight Hill Chiefs who visited Śrīnagar in the winter of 1087-88, in the reign of Kalaśa, Ananta's son and successor. The other six princes were Kīrti of Babbāpura (Durgara), Samgrāma-pāla of Rājapurī (Rājaurī), Utkarṣa of Lohara (Loharin), Sangaṭa (?) of Uraśa (Hazārā), Gambhīra-sīha of Kānda and Uttama-rāja of Kāsṭhavāṭa (Kaṣṭavāṛ).

Kalaśa had previously married Asata's sister Bappikā, and their son, the ill-fated Harsa, became king in 1089, shortly after his father had died at Mārtāṇḍa. The following table shows the relationship between the ruling houses of Kaśmir and Chambā:—



Although the facts related by Kalhana seem to point to the dependence of Chambā on Kaśmīr, it is curious that in their contemporaneous records none of the Chambā Rājās acknowledge in any way Kaśmīr suzerainty. On the contrary, they assume throughout the full titles of independent kings. Kalhana also, wherever he mentions the Chambā rulers, never uses the term sāmanta "vassal," but always applies to them some expression meaning "king" (bhūpāla, nṛpati). It seems that the dependence of Chambā and the other Hill States of the Rāvī and Cīnāb valleys chiefly consisted in the obligation of military assistance. The relationship was perhaps the same as that existing at a later time between the Rājās of Jammū and their vassals. "The feudatory chiefs," says Drew, "those for instance of Akhnūr, Dolpatpūr, Kiramchi, etc., governed their own subjects, but to the ruler of Jummoo they paid tribute and did military service."

The second of the three copper-plate grants (No. 26) mentioned above was granted by Soma-varman, but issued in the first year of Asata. It contains the signature of both. An addition to it is dated in the eleventh year of Asata's reign.

¹ Cunningham, Ancient Geography, p. 141, places the invasion of Campa by Anatta between A.D. 1028 and 1031, which is decidedly too early. Ananta's succession took place in A.D. 1028, but he was then a minor, as is distinctly stated by Kalhana. Rājut, VII, 134-135, transl. Stein, Vol. I. p. 278.

² Rājat. VII, 588; transl. Stein, Vol. I, p. 315.

³ Rājat. Vil, 319; transl. Stein, Vol. I. p. 294. Cunninglam, A. S. R. Vol. XIV. p. 115, places this event in A.D. 1060. But this is too late, as Haras was born in A.D. 1058. Cf. Rājat. Vil. 1717; transl. Stein, Vol. I, p. 400.

¹ Jummoo, p. 9.

It records the donation of lands in various villages round the capital to two temples of Viṣṇu and one of Śiva. One of the Viṣṇu temples is undoubtedly that known by the name of Hari Rāi which stands between the Post Office and the Telegraph Office, at the side of the Caugān Gate. The Śiva temple referred to in the inscription appears to be no longer extant. It is stated to have been founded by Rardhādevī, the queen of Sālavāhana (here called Sālākara-varman) apparently for the sake of the future bliss of her husband. This queen was the mother of Soma-varman and Āsaṭa the donors of the grant. Among the lands presented to the temples there were some in the Pānthila mandala (now the Pañjilā pargaṇā) which at the time were enjoyed by the queen-mother, from which it follows that she had not become satī on the death of her husband.

I may mention here a hypothesis advanced by Mr. V. A. Smith, according to which a rare silver coin of a debased bull and horseman type might be ascribed to Āsata the chief of Campā. It should, however, be remarked that there is no evidence of Campā having ever possessed her own coinage except the copper caklī, of which I have seen no specimens of an earlier date than the reign of Rājā Carhat Singh (A.D. 1808-44).

The third and last copper-plate of the 11th century was issued by Āsaṭa in the fifth year from his succession. Neither this nor the previous plate contains any particulars about his reign. According to the Vamśāvalī he was succeeded by his son Jāsaṭa. The year of his accession is proved by the Luj and Lōh-Tikrī inscriptions (Nos. 28 and 29) to be A.D. 1105. These two inscriptions also establish the fact that both Curāh and Pāngī then belonged to the territories ruled by the Chambā Rājā. We have seen above that in the second quarter of the 11th century Curāh formed part of the Vallāpura State,

but it appears that in the first year of Soma-varman's reign it had come under the rule of Chambā. It seems probable that Sālavāhana added it to his dominions.

Before his accession Jāsaṭa took an active part in the civil war which, owing to Harṣa's misrule, had broken out in Kaśmīr. It will be remembered that Jāsaṭa was Harṣa's first cousin; it was, therefore, natural that he should side with his kinsman against the Lohara brothers, Uccala and Sussala. His support, however, did not save Harṣa from ruin. Jāsaṭa seems to have been with the army of Harṣa's general, Candrarāja, which was defeated by Sussala in A.D. 1101 near Vijbror (vulgo Bij-bihara). At least, Kalhaṇa mentions him among the four princes who, with the remnant of that army, had taken refuge in the temple-yard of Vijayeśvara and surrendered to Sussala. "He (Sussala)," the chronicle says, "opened the door and stepped out quite alone, carrying his sword and using harsh insulting words, into the midst of those assembled in the court-yard of the temple of Vijayeśvara, where there were king Jāsaṭa, the son of king Harṣa's maternal uncle, and three other

¹ V. A. Smith, Catalogue of the Coins in the Indian Museum, Calcutta (Oxford 1906), pp. 244 f. and p. 249; plate XXVI, 6. But cf. appendix IV.

^{**} Rājat. VII, 1512; transl. Stein. Vol. I, p. 385. At the time of this event Jūsata was not yet king (nrpati), but only heir-apparent, perhaps gravarāja. Kalhaņa rightly calls him "the son of King Harşa's maternal uncle." Umādhara whom Kalhaņa mentions as the principal of the other three Rājās who surrendered to Sussala, was perhaps a chief of Babbāpura. In the sequel we shall meet twice with a Rājā of Babbāpura of the name of Vajradhara ameng the supporters of Harşa's grandson, Bhikṣūcara.

chiefs, Umādhara, etc., and where the multitude of Rājaputras, horsemen, Tantrins and feudatories belonging to the eighteen divisions of the army could not be counted. He mercifully promised safety to those who prostrated themselves, and left after taking the image of Siva Vijayeśvara there as witness. He then ascended again to the terrace, had them all disarmed and led up by his servants, with their arms bound by ropes. The place where Sussala held his assembly, being covered with heaps of gold and silver sword-hilts and decked with arms, appeared as if decorated with strewn flowers. He handed them over to the Dāmaras to guard as one hands cattle to herdsmen, and stopped there for three days." This event sealed Harsa's fate and was immediately followed by the murder of himself and his son Bhoja.

Uccala now became king of Kaśmir. Bhoja's infant son, born in Bhadon 1099, who had received the inauspicious name of Bhiksu Uccaia of Kasmir. or Bhiksacara (beggar), was allowed to live, though, as Kalhanal remarks, " he should have been treated as an enemy, as he continued the enemy's stock." A few years afterwards when Uccala, threatened by various pretenders, wished to destroy the boy, he was saved by his relative the princess Asamatī and taken to the court of king Nara-varman of Mālava, where he was trained in arms and taught the sciences. Uccala at once took steps to prevent his return to Kasmir, by concluding treaties with the princess, whose lands lay on the route. But this precaution proved futile. In the year 1111 after a troublous reign of ten years Uccala was murdered. Kalhana extols on this occasion the valiant conduct of a Rajpūt from Chamba, named Soma-pala, who was slain in the attempt to defend his royal master against the conspirators. Possibly this Soma-pâla belonged to one of the baronial houses who held parts of the Rāvī and Cīnāb valleys as feudatories of the Chamba Raja.2

After a short interregnum the royal power was usurped by Uccala's brother Sussala who succeeded in holding his own against the Sussala of Kasmīr. powerful Garga-candra, Sahasra-mangala and other malcontents. But ere long a more dangerous opponent arose in the person of Harşa's grandson Bhikṣācara. Though yet a boy, Bhikṣācara, provided with money by the king of Malava and accompanied by Asamati, had started on the perilous undertaking of recovering his ancestral throne. At Kurukşetra he happened to fall in with five Hill Chiefs who, after having made a compact for the journey, were performing the pilgrimage to that holy place. Three of them were ruling chiefs, namely Jāsata of Campā, Vajradhara of Babbāpura and Sahaja-pāla of Vartula. The two others—Balha of Trigarta and Ānanda-rāja of Vallāpura—were Yuvarājas (i.e. heirs-apparent and co-regents). In view of subsequent events, we may assume that Bhiksacara's meeting with the Hill Chiefs took place either in A.D. 1113 or 1115. It has been remarked above that pilgrimages to Kuruksetra were and still are performed on the occasion of solar eclipses. In 1113 there occurred a solar eclipse on the 19th March and in 1115 on the 23rd July.

¹ Rājat. VIII, 16-18; transl. Stein, Vol. II, pp. 2 f. For the date of Bhikṣācara's birth cf. Rājat. VIII, 1775; transl. Stein, Vol. II, p. 138.

² Rājat. VIII, 323; travel. Stein, Vol. II, p. 27. The Rājānakas of the Chambā inscriptions almost invariably bear names ending in -pāla.

It may be assumed that the Chambā Rājā welcomed the opportunity thus offered to avenge himself for the disgrace of Vijabror. He received his youthful kinsman with the distinction due to his royal blood, and the other Hill Chiefs treated him with like honour. Thus he proceeded to Vallāpura, where Rājā Padmaka, at the instance of Jāsaṭa and of the Yuvarāja, gave him his daughter in marriage. A Thākur of that country, Gayapāla by name, collected troops, in order to restore Bhikṣācara to the rank enjoyed by his grandfather, but, before he could give effect to his design, he was murdered by his own relatives. Daryaka, the principal of the pretender's supporters, fell in an expedition sent out by Padmaka against the murderers. After the faithful Āsamatī had died and the funds provided by the king of Mālava had become exhausted, Bhikṣācara received less attention from his father-in-law, the Rājā of Vallāpura.

He, therefore, left Vallapura for Chamba and tarried with Jasata for four or five years. But here also the interest in the royal refugee seems to have declined considerably; for Kaihana assures us that during his stay in Jasața's house "he secured with difficulty mere food and clothing." His next place of retreat was the castle of a Thakur Denga-pala which stood on the banks of the Candrabhaga, probably somewhere between Doda and Rihasi. This Denga-pala seems to have been an independent baron, such as existed in some parts of the Upper Candrabhāgā valley until recent times. He received Bhiksacara with distinction and gave him his daughter Bappika in marriage. "While the prince," the chronicler says, "stopped there for some time in comfort and without fear, he left behind misery and boyhood." From these words we may assume that the events here related took place about 1117 when Bhikṣācara had reached the age of eighteen years. In the following year a conflict in Rajapuri, on the road to Kasmir, afforded him an opportunity to take another step towards the attainment of his aims. Samgrāma-pala, whom we have met with among the princes who visited Śrīnagar in the winter of 1087-88, had died, leaving three sons Pratapa-pala, Soma-pala and Nagapāla. The eldest, Pratāpa-pāla, was imprisoned and subsequently put to death by order of Soma-pāla, who ascended the throne.

Nāgapala, after killing Pratāpa-pāla's murderer, took refuge with Sussala. Threatened with war by the king of Kaśmīr, Somapāla applied for help to Bhikṣā-cara, who apparently at that time had returned to his first father-in-law, Padmaka. At least Kalhaṇa states that Soma-pāla called him from Vallāpura. As the pretender, on his gradual advance towards Kaśmīr, had now approached the very gates of that country, Sussala realised that the moment had come for vigorous action to check his further progress.

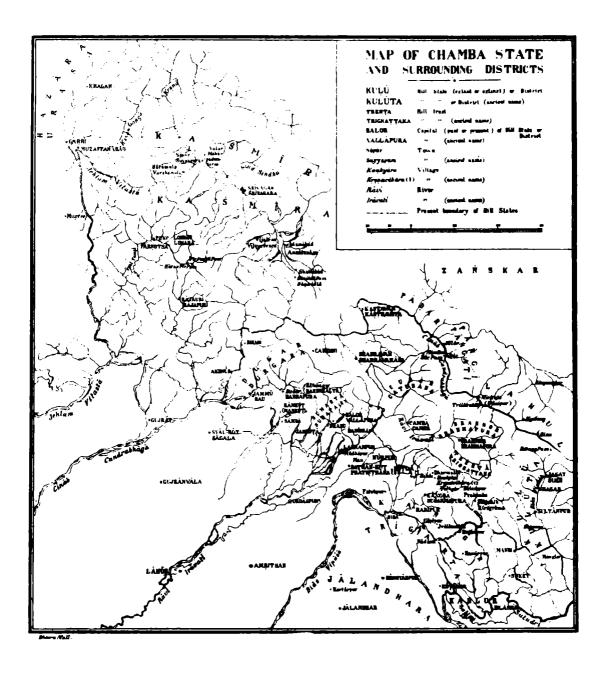
¹ Rājat. VIII, 537 ff.; transl. Stein Vol. II, pp. 44 f. Dr. Stein presumes that Balha of Trigarta is meant. It seems, however, more natural that it was the *yuvarāja* of Vullāpura who induced his father, Padmaka, to conclude a matrimonial alliance with the pretender.

The name of this Gayapala is perhaps preserved in one of our Chamba inscriptions (No. 34).

It is carious that in the Chamba dialect the word bhichu denotes a "mischievous, troublesome person," but it is probably derived from the generic Sanskrit name bhiksu.

^{*} Cf. Rajat. VIII, 1729; transl. Stein, Vol. II, p. 135.

For the events here summarised see Rajat. VIII, 538-542 and 547-555; transl. Stein, Vol. II, pp. 44 f.



In the autumn of 1118 he marched against Rājapurī, put Soma-pāla to flight, installed Nāga-pāla in his stead and stayed there for seven months "causing terror to his various enemies."

Who those enemies were is not definitely stated. Only one of them is mentioned by name, viz. Vajradhara of Babbāpura, whom we have found among the princes who met Bhikṣācara at Kurukṣetra and espoused his cause. Babbāpura, as I have shown elsewhere, was situated on the left bank of the Tavvi, 17 miles due east of Jammū, and must have been the ancient capital of Durgara.

It is evident that Sussala's expedition was necessitated by the movements of the pretender, whom we have seen coming to the Rāvī valley about 1114, advancing to the banks of the Candrabhāgā about 1117, and finally settling at Rājaurī. Sussala's object must, therefore, have been to discomfit the coalition of princes who had taken up Bhikṣācara's cause, and among whom those of Campā and Vallāpura were foremost. The king of Kaśmīr made Rājapurī the başe of his operations and sent marauding parties down the valleys of the Candrabhāgā and other rivers. It seems that Sussala's troops penetrated even as far as the upper Rāvī. This I infer from Kalhaṇa's statement that "the pious king (Sussala) preserved in the enemy's land Brahmapurī and its temples." The word brahmapurī occurs elsewhere in the Rājatarangiṇī as a generic name of uncertain meaning, but here, used in the singular, it can only be a proper name. I presume that Brahmapura the ancient capital of Chambā is meant. As to the significance of Sussala's campaign for Chambā history no information is forthcoming.

It is to be regretted that Kalhana is not more explicit in his account of Sussala's expedition against the chiefs of the Candrabhaga valley. His vagueness is perhaps intentional and due to the circumstance that, notwithstanding the submission of Vajradhara and other princes, the undertaking evidently ended in failure. It should be remembered that Kalhana composed his chronicle under Sussala's son and successor, Java-simha. Even the king's primary aim was not attained, for Naga-pala had to abandon his capital, and followed his patron to Kaśmir in the spring of 1119. Sussala's ill-success is still more obvious from the fact that in the following year a rising of the Damaras or feudal land-holders afforded Bhikṣācara a welcome opportunity to enter Kasmir and ascend the throne of his grandfather. But not for long did he enjoy the sweets of royalty. The energy which had marked his career in adversity left him as soon as fortune smiled on him, and the hereditary vices of Ananta's race soon became manifest in the young king. Only six months after his accession he had to flee the country, and Sussala re-assumed the royal dignity. Bhikṣācara established himself at Puṣiānā (8kr. Puṣyāṇanāḍa) on the Pir Pantsal road, from where he made inroads into Kasmir territory.

^{.1} Cf. J. R. A. S. for 1907, pp. 403 ff.

² On Sussala's campaign of. Rājat. VIII, 621-635; transl. Stein, Vol. II, pp. 50 f. Dr. Stein in a letter dated 9th August 1905 calls my interpretation of Rājat. VIII, 628 " very acceptable and convincing." "Kalhana's expression in VIII, 628," he remarks, "might have been clearer than it is, considering that a specific locality is meant by Brahmapuri, but then we know that Book VIII was never properly revised by its author and perhaps he was not himself quite clear as to what sort of a place Brahmapuri was. His geographical horizon was limited." As a generic name brahmapuri occurs. Rājat. VIII, 2421, 2423.

It does not appear that Jasata of Campa played any part in the later adventures of Bhiksacara. The year of his death is unknown. Udaya-varman. According to the Vamsavali (sl. 84) he died without an heir and was succeeded by his brother Phala-varman. Neither this ruler nor his three successors, Ajita, Daityari and Prthvi-varman, have left any record of their reigns. If the names of these four princes are historical, their reigns must have been very short. In 1117 Jasata seems still to have been alive, and in 1122 we meet in the Rajatarangini with a Raja of Campa of the name of Udayavarman. According to the Vamsavali he was the son of Prthvi-varman. Udava figures again in Kalhana's account of the civil war in Kasmir. We find him and Jajjala of Vallapura among the noblemen who valiantly assisted Sussala in defending Śrīnagara against Bhikṣācara. With their help Sussala not only repulsed the enemy, but inflicted a severe defeat on the Damara allies of Bhiksacara at the Gopādri hill (Takht-i-Sulaimān). How it happened that both Campā and Vallāpura had abandoned the cause of the pretender and joined his adversary, is not apparent from the chronicler's narrative.

The close alliance between the king of Kaśmīr and the chiefs of the Rāvī valley

Death of Sussala.

is also evident from the fact that Sussala had married two princesses from Campā—Devalckhā, praised for her beauty, and her sister Taralalekhā—and one princess from Vallāpura, Jajjalā by name. After Sussala's murder in 1128 these three ladies together with Rājalakṣmī, the daughter of Garga-candra, became satī. Kalhaṇa² relates how "the people, benumbed by the fear of a hostile attack and by the sudden hard frost, were not able to conduct Sussala's four queens to the distant burning ground. They therefore burned their bodies in haste near [the Vihāra of] Skandabhayana which was not far from the palace."

The death of his enemy did not in any way further Bhiksācara's cause. In Sussala's son and successor Jaya-simha (A.D. 1128-1154-5) he found a no less formidable adversary. Defeated at Dāmodara, he had to leave the country. Soma-pāla of Rājapurī concluded a treaty with the new ruler of Kaśmīr and refused the pretender a further refuge in his territory. This faithless conduct induces the chronicler's to utter the following invective, which no doubt is the echo of a popular adage: "Even the gods have no pity in Trigarta, no morals in Campa, no generosity in the Madra-land, and no good-will in Darvābhisāra."

The only chief who to the very last seems to have upheld Bhikṣācara's cause

was his father-in-law, the Thakkura Denga-pāla. His support, however, did not save him from ruin and in the summer of 1130 the ill-fated grandson of Harsa was treacherously slain, by Jaya-

¹ Rājat. VIII, 1083. Dr. Stein in his translation renders the dvandva compound Udayabrahmajajjalau as "Udaya and Brahmajajjala." I feel more inclined to take the names to be Udaya-brahman (for Udaya-varman) and Jajjala. In the Chambā copper-plates of the Muhammadan period -brahman is very often substituted for -varman. The feminine form of the name Jajjala on ā occurs Rājat, VIII, 1444. See beneath p. 108. It is borne by a Vallāpura princess. In his above-quoted letter Dr. Stein says: "If there is an Udaya-[varman] in the Chambā records, the division of Udayabrahma-Jajjalau is, of course, to be accepted as the only possible one."

² Rājat. VIII, 1440-1444; transl. Stein, Vol. II, p. 113. The name Skandabharana is preserved in Khand-bavan.
³ Rājat. VIII, 1531; transl. Stein. Vol. II, p. 120. Dr. Stein remarks: "This verse probably produces a proverbial saying of Kalhana's time. Rājapurī is clearly included in the judgment passed on Darvābhisāra."

simha's soldiers and his own Khaśa allies, in a fort at the foot of the mountain pass of Bāṇaśālā (modern Bāṇihāl).¹ With his death the war of succession came to an end. The prolonged struggle had completely broken the political power of Kaśmir, and the weak rulers who followed Jayasimha had to use all their efforts to hold their own, instead of asserting any claims of suzerainty over the neighbouring Hill States. Thus the connection between Kaśmīr and Chambā ceased. None of the later Kaśmīr chronicles ever mentions the Hill State on the Upper Rāvī.

For the further history of Chamba we are therefore limited to local records.

The last mentioned Chamba Rājā, Udaya-varman, as stated in the Vainšāvali (šl. 85) was succeeded by his son Lalita-varman. It appears from the Sālhī inscription (No. 33) that his accession took place in 1143 or 1144 and that he still reigned in 1170. The Rānās of Curāh and Pāngī recognised him as their overlord and in the Dēvī-rī-kothī prafasti (No. 32) which was composed by the Rājaguru Kamala-lāfichana in the 17th year of Lalita's reign, we find a stanza in which his virtues are culogized.

Lalita-varman's successor was his son Vijaya-varman. The Vamsavali (il. 86-88) relates of him that he subdued the Kasmīras, Kīras and Mudgalas (i.e. Mughals), but, considering that the Kasmīr chronicles do not even mention his name, the historical accuracy of Vijaya's alleged victories is open to doubt. Can it be that the Vamsavalī has retained a vague remembrance of Udaya's exploits in Kasmīr and transferred them to his grandson, whose name is so suggestive of war and victory? It further states that he granted lands to Brāhmans, but up to the present no copper-plate issued by him has been recovered. The fragmentary Mul-Kihār inscription (No. 34) seems to have been composed in his reign, and the Rāṇā to whom it is due was probably one of his feudatories.

The record of Vijaya-varman's reputed conquests is difficult to reconcile with the circumstance, that apparently towards the end of the 12th century the Rājās of Balor regained possession of Curāh. In that province two inscriptions (Nos. 31 and 35) have come to light, which are dated in the reigns of two rulers of the name of Raṇa-pāla and Ajaya-pāla. It is highly probable that both were Rājās of Balor, as their names can be traced in the Vamśāvalī of that State. These stones seem still to bear testimony to a struggle for the possession of Curāh, which raged between the two rival powers of the Rāvī valley in the 11th and 12th centuries. In the first half of the 11th century Trailokya-deva ruled Curāh. Then the Chambā Rājās from Soma-varman till Lalita-varman held it. Subsequently we meet again with the names of two Balauriā Rājās, but the province finally remained in the possession of Chambā.

It would seem, therefore, that Amṛt Pāl of Basōhļī only revived ancient claims, when, supported by Raṇjīt Dēv of Jammū, he invaded Curāh in A.D. 1774. But the renewed contest ended in the sack of Basōhlī by Rājā Rāj Singh, and shortly afterwards the ancient Balor principality became absorbed in the Jammū-Kaśmīr State.

¹ Bājat. VIII, 1740-1777; transl. Stein, Vol. II, pp. 136 ff.

B.—The Ranas of Chamba

The Ranas play such a prominent part in the Chamba inscriptions that they deserve special treatment. In our epigraphs they are The term rajanaka. usually indicated by the name rajanaka. This word is not found in the classical literature of India and seems, therefore, to be a sanskritized rather than a real Sanskrit word. Dr. Grierson' has suggested a connection between this word and the Prakrit title rajaña (i.e. rajañña=Skr. rajanya) which occurs on coins. To me it seems more probable that the word rānā is derived directly from rajan. Perhaps it is the oblique case of this word transferred to the nominative. In any case, there can be little doubt that the word corresponds with the modern rāṇā, used either as the title of a petty chief or as a caste-name. In the former meaning it is synonymous with Sanskrit sāmanta and thakkura. In one of our inscriptions (No. 32) we find the terms rājānaka and sāmanta applied to the same person. The word thakkura occurs in the form thakura in the Markula image inscription (No. 48). It is not found elsewhere in the Chamba epigraphs, but in the Rajatarangini it is used in exactly the same sense as rajanaka, to denote a feudatory chieftain. I may add that now-a-days the titles rana and thakur are employed promiscuously. A special meaning is attributed to the word rana (rānā?) in Kangra, namely that of "queen bee." The equivalent expression in Chamba is gane-rā rājā, in which we seem to have Sanskrit gana "a swarm."

the Ranas of Baijnath. The Ranas of Baijnath. The Ranas of Baijnath. The Ranas of Baijnath. The latter acquaint us with a baronial house which ruled for eight generations, at Kīragrāma, the modern Baijnath, in Kāngrā and owed allegiance to the Rājās of Trigarta. Their importance may be estimated from the fact that the mother of Laksmana-candra, the Rānā of the time, was a daughter of Hṛdaya-candra of Trigarta. The inscription, however, does not say whether her mother was a Rānī. It is certainly opposed to prevailing usage that the head of the illustrious house of Trigarta should give a daughter in marriage to one of his vassals. How punctilious the Katoces were in matrimonial matters, even in the expiring days of their rule, is shown by the example of Anirudh Cand, the last ruling chief of Kāngrā, who abandoned his State and everything rather than acquiesce in a matrimonial alliance which he considered below the dignity of his house.

"Even now," says the Baijnath eulogy, "exist such wonderful men, filled with devotion to Isvara like that store of marvellous virtue, the Rajanaka named Laksmana-candra, who, after performing a pilgrimage to Kedara, that cleanses from old sin, made even this vow: 'Henceforth shall all wives of others be sisters for me.' What wonder is it that in battle he was secure from assaults by warriors of irresistible bravery, since he, a Cupid at the head of the bowmen, was not to be subdued

¹ J. R. A. S. for 1907, p. 409. Cf. my note J. R. A. S. for 1908, pp. 536 ff.

Professor C. C. Uhlenbeck is of opinion that $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}naka$ is derived from the accusative of $r\bar{a}jan$, in the same way as bhattaraka from the accusative bhartaram (Prkt. bhattaram). Other instances are danta from da(n)t and $p\bar{a}da$ from $p\bar{a}d$.

³ Kangra Gazetteer, 1904 (Lahore, 1907), p. 38.

[•] Ep. Ind. Vol. I, pp. 110 f.

even by that [deity]. At present rulers, whose commands are disregarded by their opponents—because they deem them to be of small prowess—think the sovereignty over a town to yield its legitimate result only by the rape of the wives of the inhabitants. Fresh youth, beautiful shape, liberality, sovereignty over a town, many flatterers [all these are his]; if nevertheless his heart avoids the wives of others, what austerity is difficult to perform after that:"

Bühler rightly remarks that "the picture of the morals of the time, which these verses unfold, is certainly not a flattering one." The inscriptions of Chamba show us the ancient Rāṇās from a more favourable side. No doubt, like the knights of mediæval Europe, they regarded love and war as the great aims of life. But their love was often the devotion of the husband, and their warlike spirit was not rarely displayed in loyal

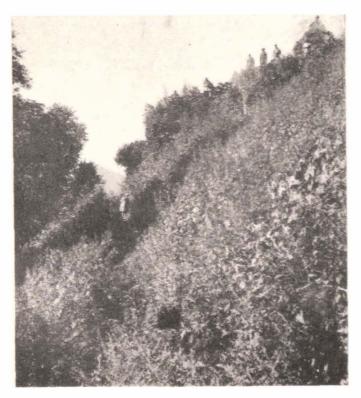


Fig. 18. Site of Rana's castle at Devi Kothi.

service to their liege-Among lord. those endless accounts treachery and baseness which Kalhana's chronicle abounds, it is refreshing to read of Rajput from Campa, Soma-pala, who, as his lord, king Uccala, was attacked by murderers "did not fall disgrace, when into after slaying his assailants he succumbed to their strokes." Of the conjugal devotion of these warlike barons we have ample proof in those quaint fountainslabs which they set up for the sake of the future bliss of their deceased wives. And even more clearly do we find it expressed in the solemn Sanskrit of those eulogies where, hidden under weight of rhetorical

ornament, we still feel the pulsation of true love. Would it be just to cast upon the hero of the Sarāhan eulogy the reproach that his love for the beauteous Somaprabhā was inspired merely by her fair form, which is sung in such flowery measures in that love-song carved in stone? Did he not prove his sincerity when, "to establish a firm friendship between her and the Mountain-born goddess" he built a temple to the moon-crowned Siva?

In the half-obliterated lines of the Mul-Kihar stone we still read of the tears shed by the chieftain of that place and his children, when "hostile Fate separated her—his most beloved, seated on his lap, the delight of his eyes, praised by all man-kind—from her husband, even as the passing of the parvan separates the Moon-sickle from the hot-rayed Sun."

The no less sadly damaged eulogy of Dēvī Kōthī speaks of yet another love: a noble lady, who, at her husband's death ready to follow him on the pyre, was kept back by her two sons, and who "henceforth, whilst by rigid vows of constant fasts she reduced her body to meagreness, brought up her sons and increased her charity, her compassion for the poor and her devotion to Kṛṣṇa. And conceiving at every step the world of the living to be unstable like the crescent reflected in a garland of waves, restless and trembling with the fleeting breeze, she caused a cistern to be made for the sake of the bliss of her lord." I know of no Indian inscriptions in which true human sentiment finds so eloquent an expression as in these two—alas! irreparably mutilated fountain-slabs. Nor would it be easy to point to another group of epigraphical records in which the feminine element is so prominent as in those of Chambā.

The inscriptions of Chamba State throw much light on the position formerly held by the barons of the Hills. They show that in the Highlands of the Panjab Rāṇās once existed in considerable number. The ruins of their strongholds are pointed out up to the present day; and still clearer evidence of their former importance is afforded by those huge carved slabs, frequently inscribed, which they erected over cisterns constructed for the heavenly bliss of deceased relatives. Such inscriptions usually contain the name and sometimes the pedigree of the local Rāṇā to whose piety they are due.

Numerous are the traditions still current in Chambā regarding those Rāṇās, of which the salient point is their spirit of independence and their mutual feuds. It is said that, when Sāhilla swept down the Rāvī valley, he found a Rāṇā of the name of Ralha settled on the top of Baunu Hill overlooking the site which he had selected for his new capital. The Rāṇā, when called into the presence of the Rājā, humbly tendered his submission; but as soon as he had returned to his castle, he assumed an attitude of defiance. It was then found out that it was the influence of the soil which caused him thus to change his mood. For when at the next darbār a lump of earth from his own ground was concealed under the carpet on which the Rāṇā was seated, his

speech became as haughty and insolent as if he were within the walls of his own castle.

Another legend is associated with the neighbouring hamlets of Bahnota and Siya in Loh-Tikri, where two of our fountain inscriptions came to light. Each of those places, so tradition says, was once the seat of a Rana. The more powerful of the two used to vex his weaker neighbour, until the latter, weary of continuous humiliation, called in a third Rana who promised to come to his assistance in the hour of danger, as soon as he should sound his horn. It was not long until the call for help was made, but when the third Rāṇā hastened to the rescue of his oppressed friend, he found that the latter had sounded the horn without any need, merely to test the trustworthiness of his new ally. It is hardly necessary to add that, when again the signal was given—this time not without cause—the suspicious weakling waited in vain for the protection of his patron and had to submit to any indignity his oppressor chose to inflict on him. The story is only an adaptation of the well-known tale of the shepherd boy and the wolf, but it shows that the ancient Rāṇās still live in the memory of the mountaineers as contentious and quarrelsome fellows, fighting and oppressing each other, as long as they had no common enemy to face.

There is a widespread tradition in the Alpine Panjab that at a remote time the Rāṇās were independent and held sovereign sway over their baronies, although these, in most cases, do not seem to have extended beyond a few villages. This tradition is to a certain extent supported by the negative evidence of the Svāim image inscription (No. 12), the earliest document in which the term rājānaka occurs. It is incised on the base of a stone image of Dēvī, and records that this object was made by order of Rājānaka Bhogaṭa, the son of Somaṭa, born in the district of Kiṣkindha. The inscription is not dated; but, judging from the characters, it must belong to the eighth or ninth century.

The earliest Śāradā inscription of Chambā, the praéasti of Sarāhaņ (No. 13), which may be attributed to the ninth or tenth century, appears also to be the record of a Rāṇā, though he is not designated by the title of rājānaka. Neither here nor in the Svāim inscription is mention made of an overlord, whereas the Rāṇās of the eleventh and twelfth centuries invariably date their inscriptions in the reign of the ruling Rājā. From this circumstance we may perhaps conclude that Bhogata of Kiṣkindha and Sātyaki of Sarāhaņ were independent chieftains. This is the more probable, as they must have lived at a time previous to the founding of Chambā. On the other hand, we find a feudatory chief of the name of Aṣāḍha as early as the reign of Meru-varman whom he acknowledged as his liege-lord. In his inscription (No. 9) he calls himself sāmanta which, as we saw, is a term synonymous with rājānaka.

¹ Cf. Chamba Gazetteer, pp. 60 ff.; Drew, Jummoo, p. 180.

It is indeed highly improbable that the whole of the Panjāb Hills were at any time ruled by Rānās. "Without a lord paramount," Sir J. B. Lyall rightly observes, "and with no bond of confederacy, such diminutive States could never have existed side by side for any length of time. It is pretty certain, therefore, that with short intervals of complete independence in periods of confusion, they must have been more or less subject and tributary to some superior power." We know from literary sources that the States of Trigarta, Kulūta and Kaśmīr existed and were ruled by Rājās in the earliest period of which we possess cognizance. At the same time the more remote and inaccessible valleys may have been held by more or less independent Rānās. The measure of their ascendancy, no doubt, depended largely on the influence which neighbouring Rājās could exercise. In the Candrabhāgā valley they remained in power until comparatively recent times. The history of nearly every Hill State of the Panjāb tells of a struggle between the Rājā and the Rānās,¹ which curiously recalls the contests of the monarchs of mediæval Europe with their powerful vassals.

It is evident from our inscriptions that in the 12th century the Rāṇās of Curāh and Pāṇgī acknowledged the suzerainty of the Rājās of Chambā. Not only are their inscriptions dated from the year of accession of the ruling Rājā, but in the Dēvī-rī-kōthī praśasti (No. 32) it is stated that the local Rāṇā, Nāga-pāla, received from Lalita-varman the title of rājānaka. It is clear, therefore, that in this passage there is a question of the investiture of a vassal by his overlord.

The prominent position occupied by the Rāṇās in the 11th and 12th centuries is obvious from the copper-plate grants, where we find them mentioned immediately after the Rājās and at the head of all other State officials. In the charter of Soma-varman (No. 24) two rājā nakas, Rīhila and Kāhila by name, figure as Prime-Minister (Skr. mahāmātya) and Great-Recordkeeper (Skr. mahākṣapaṭalika). It thus appears that the rulers of Chambā, like the contemporaneous princes in Europe, sought to attach the feudal lords to their court, and from turbulent chieftains converted them into assiduous officials.

This step led to a further development. It appears from the Rājataranginī that in Kaśmīr the title $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}naka$ came to be given to high officials as a purely honorary distinction. Thus we read that Queen Diddā (A.D. 980-1-1003) called her favourite Nara-vāhana into the council of ministers and conferred on him the title of $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}naka$. This practice apparently had become so common that in Kalhana's days the term was regarded as almost synonymous with "minister." This is evident from the following passage, in which the chronicler says of king Parvagupta: "Displaying a conduct in which the royal dignity was combined with the functions of a minister, he created the mingled impression of Rājā and Rājānaka."

¹ Cf. Griffin, Rajas of the Punjab, pp. 631 ff.

² I must note that the word rajanaka is due to a restoration.

³ Rājat. VI, 261; transl. Stein, Vol. I, p. 256.

⁴ Kājat. VI, 117; transl. Stein, Vol. I, p. 244.

The old feudatory Rāṇās of the Panjāb Highlands belonged naturally to the warrior caste. On the Chambā fountain slabs we see them rudely portrayed as knights on horseback, armed with

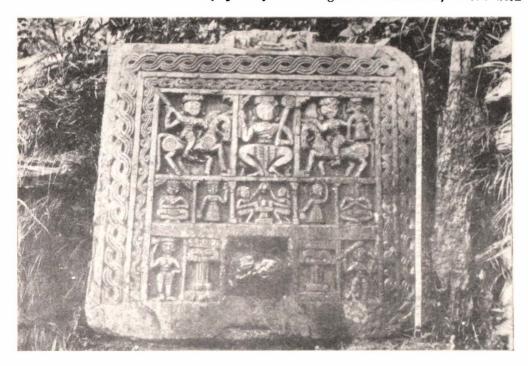


Fig. 19. Fountain-stone of Bharara (Loh-Tikri pargana.)

sword and shield. But the high officials on whom the honorary title of $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}naka$ was conferred were very often Brāhmans, and thus the word has survived in Kaśmīr in the form $r\bar{a}zd\bar{a}n$ as a Brahmanical family name. "It was borne," Dr. Stein writes, "by Rājānaka Ratnākara, the author of the Harivijaya (9th century) and by many Kaśmirian authors of note enumerated in the Vamśa-praśasti which Ānanda Rājānaka (17th century) had appended to his commentary on the Naiṣadhacarita." It may, however, be questioned whether Ratnākara bore the title $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}naka$ in his own time and whether, at so early a date, the use of the term was extended to Brahmanical officials.

It is curious that in the later Kaśmīr chronicles the same title is used to designate Muhammadan officers of rank. This accounts for the use of the word Ran^i in Kaśmīr as a Muhammadan $kr\bar{a}m$ name, which, as Dr. Stein observes, corresponds exactly to $R\bar{a}zd\bar{a}n$ as a family name of Brāhmans.

I have noted above the frequent reference to rājānakas in the Chambā inscriptions of the pre-Muhammadan period. It is remarkable that in the numerous later inscriptions found in the State they are never mentioned. There is no record to show in what manner the Rāṇās lost their position and power. We can only surmise that those numerous and warlike vassals—not less turbulent probably than the Pāmaras of Kaśmīr—constituted a constant danger to the supreme position of the Rājā. It must, therefore, have been his policy to curtail their power, and this

end he may have attained partly by main force. But from what has been remarked above it appears that, on the whole, the policy of the Rājās was the same as that followed by the kings of France in reducing their powerful barons: the vassals were converted into courtiers. It is indeed curious how much the history of the word Rānā is analogous to that of the titles of nobility in Europe.

The word rana has finally become a caste-name, and is now used as such in Chamba and Kangra. Regarding the Rangs of Kangra, Rana as caste-name. I quote the following from Mr. Barnes' Settlement Report1: "Another class of Rajputs who enjoy great distinction in the hills are the descendants of ancient petty chiefs or Ranas, whose title and tenure is said to have preceded that of the Rajas themselves. These petty chiefs have long since been dispossessed, and their holdings absorbed in the larger principalities. Still the name of Rana is retained, and their alliance is eagerly desired by the Mians. The principal families are those of Chari, Giro, Kanhiara, Pathiar, Habrol, Sumbar, Dadwal, and other localities. Besides these, the following races occupy a high rank: the Indauria, Malhotar, Salāria, Harchandar, Ludhiārach, Patiāl, Chib. Jaral, Bhugalia,3 and others which it would be tedious to record. these tribes affect most of the customs of Rajputs. They select secluded spots for their dwellings, immure their women, are very particular with whom they marry or betroth in marriage, but have generally taken to agriculture. In this particular consists their chief distinction from the Mians."

In Chamba the position of the ordinary Ranas is not different from that of the agricultural castes with which they intermarry. At The Rana of Triloknath. the last Census 94 males and 84 females were returned under that caste-name. There also exist, however, in Chamba a few Ranas in the original sense of the word, who still hold the position of their ancestors, the rajanakas of the inscriptions. Chief among them is the Rana of Triloknath whose barony extends over a large portion of Chamba-Lahul. It comprises the villages of Tunde, Kisori, Hinsa, Shokoli, Maiyar, Salgram and part of Shyor and Porthi. The tradition of his family is that they came originally from Jammū and settled at the place now known as Triloknath, before the celebrated idol of that name was established there. One of their ancestors was called Hamīr Bardhāim, whose deeds are sung in the local dialect. He is said to have repelled the attack of a Kulū Rājā, who tried to carry off the image of Triloknath. Subsequently, invited to a meal by his opponent, he was treacherously murdered, after he had laid down his weapons. At the annual mēlā on the last day of Savan (Śravana), in which

¹ G. C. Barnes, Settlement Report of the Kangra District, 270. Gf. Kangra Gazetteer for 1883-4, Vol. I, p. 88, and for 1904, (Lahore 1907), p. 74.

² Midn, i.e., Migan, is the title given to the Rajputs of the Panjab Hills. It dates apparently back to the time when the sons of hill chiefs used to stay at the Mughal Court, and was, so it seems, originally applied to them exclusively. It has gradually become a caste-name for Hill Rajputs in general. It occurs in the form Mic on some of the copper-plate grants of Raja Balabhadra as title of his son and heir-apparent Janardan (No. XLVII of A.D. 1613, line 12, and No. LIV of A.D. 1619, line 11).

³ Dr. Hutchison informs me that these are not $R\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ families. Some of them as Malbotar and Bhugālia (Baugahāliā) are really Miāns. The Jarāl are the old Rājās of Rājaurī (Rājapurī) and the Cib are Rājpūts from Cilān—the country in the outer hills between the Cīnāb and the Jēhlam. The Rāṇās of Paṭhyār are mentioned in documents of the 17th and 18th centuries in the Chambā archives. The last of them, Silā Cand by name, died in the reign of Rājā Umēd Singh (1748-1764).

the worship of Avalokiteśvara, the Great Compassionate, is strangely blended with bloody sacrifices of an aboriginal type, the Rāṇā takes the leading part. Though professedly a Hindu, he acts as manager of the famous Buddhist shrine, and appoints the lāmā pūjārī. The eldest son of the Triloknāth Rāṇā is addressed as Tikā.

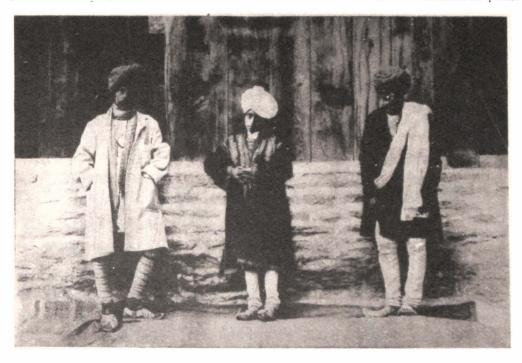


Fig. 20. The Ranas of Ulansa, Gurola and Svai.

On the left bank of the Ravi near its junction with the Budhal there are three small baronies held by the Ranas of Ulansa, Gurola Ranas of Ulansa, Gurola and Svai. and Svai.1 According to local tradition, these three ranhums were originally one fief, which was granted to the common ancestor of the present Rāṇās by Rājā Mūs Brahmā on his return from Kulū. The Ulānsā barony comprises 100 larhi or 376 acres and yields a revenue of Rs. 500. The area of the two smaller jāgīrs of Guroļā and Svāi is 274 and 235 acres respectively. As the present Rāṇā of Gurōļā, Sāhib Singh, who is an old man of 70 years of age, has no heir to succeed him, his jāgir will probably lapse on his demise. The same has already happened to the barony of Ranhum Köthi which adjoined Ulansa on the other side and has now become a pargana. Thus we see, how even those few surviving baronies gradually disappear. As now-a-days no new Ranas are created, there is a likelihood that in Chamba also the ruling Ranas will finally merge into the agricultural population, as has already happened in the neighbouring Kangra yalley. At Sām(b)rā in the Rāvī valley and at Margrām in Lahul there are two more Rānās who still hold small jāgīrs.

Until recently, as in the olden days, the chief duty of these Ranas was to render military service in the Raja's bodyguard. Tradition holds that a Rana of

¹ On the subjoined photograph (fig. 20) Judhbir Singh, the young Rana of Ulana, stands in the centre. To his left is the oid Rana of Gurola and to his right Cet Singh, the Rana of Srai.

² Cf. Chamba Gazetteer, p. 101.

Ulānsā fell at Nērtī together with his liege-lord Rājā Rāj Singh (7th Hār samvat 1850). Rājā Shyām Singh released the Rānās from their obligation of military service and converted it into a tribute in money of Rs. 100 annually in the case of Ulānsā and Rs. 70 for Svāī. The Rānā of Gurōlā has been acquitted of any payment presumably on account of his age.

The chief privilege of the Rāṇās is the freedom from forced labour (bēgār) or any kind of State service, except personal attendance on the Rājā, if he is in their neighbourhood or on special occasions in the capital. When any of the ruling Rāṇās dies, his heir has to come to Chambā to obtain a charter (pattā) from the Rājā, and in the case of the Trilōknāth Rāṇā, a small robe of honour (khil'at) is given. On the accession of a new Rājā, the Rāṇā of Trilōknāth comes to Chambā personally to tender his allegiance, and to present a tribute consisting of a number of Lahulī hill ponies.



Fig. 21. Rāṇā family at Sālhī (Pāngī).

Besides those six families of feudal Rāṇās, there are still at various places in the State descendants of the ancient Rāṇās who are in no way distinguishable from ordinary agriculturists, except by their name. That these agricultural Rāṇās are descended from the Rājānakas of our inscriptions cannot reasonably be doubted. It is proved by the huge fountain slab of Sālhī in Pāṅgī (No. 33) erected by Rājānaka Ludra-pāla, as stated in the inscription. The adjoining house is still inhabited by a family of Rāṇās, descendants of the founder, but now reduced to the humble state of ordinary peasants. When, some years ago, the stone was thrown down by an avalanche, the head of the family took care to re-erect it as being the embodiment of the departed glory of his house.

Other villages in which agricultural Rāṇās are known to live are Dhundhī, Tīsā, Gehrā (Pyuhr parganā), Agyārī (Rājnagar), Löh-Tikrī, Berā, Sai, Himgiri, Ranhum Kōthī and Kilār and Sāc in Pāṅgī. The Agyārī Rāṇā, though no longer a jāgīrdār, still enjoys freedom from forced labour. It is interesting to note that both at Dhundhī and Tīsā fountain slabs have been found which point to the former existence of Rājānakas at those two places.

The social status of the Rāṇās, both feudal and agricultural, can be best estimated from their relation to other castes in matrimonial matters. It may be summarized as follows: The Miāṇ Rājpūts, especially the smaller ones, take brides from the feudal Rāṇās. The latter, in their turn, intermarry with their own kind, but take also girls in marriage from the Ṭhākurs and the Rāṭhīs, who are the main agricultural caste of Chambā. The non-feudal or agricultural Rāṇās intermarry either with their caste-fellows or with the Ṭhākurs and the Rāṭhīs.

Finally, I wish here to insert a note on the existence of Ranas in British Lahul for which I am indebted to Mr. A. H. Francke. Ranas in British Lahul. "In the Tibetan writings," Mr. Francke says, "I have met the word only once, namely, in the Tinan Chronicle discovered by Miss J. E. Duncan in 1907. There the ancestor of the Princes of Tinan, who came from Leags-mkhar ("Iron castle") in Guge, is called "Rana Pala." Pala is certainly a hinduized form of the common Tibetan name dyal. The family obtained the title Rana either from the Raja of Kulu or from Chamba. Popular tradition usserts that at one time the Raja of Chamba ruled a considerable portion of Lahul. Perhaps the fountain-slabs of Lahul date back to that period. The tradition of Gus refers to the days when a Rana dependent on Chamba resided at that place. It is even said that there existed a copper-plate, issued by a Chambā Rājā which was carried off by the Rājā of Kuļu (possibly Bidhi or Mān Singh) at the conquest of Lahul. The fountain of Gus is entirely enclosed in ancient stone slabs. There are also traditions which relate to the Rāṇās of Gus.1 Descendants of these Ranas live at Gus up to the present day, where they form a "father-and-brother-(pha-spun)hood," which perhaps corresponds to the castes in India."

It is curious that on a temple flag from Ladak, now in the Lahore Museum, we find the central figure—a three-headed, six-armed, green-coloured deity of terrific appearance—marked by an inscription as $R\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ Heruga. He is a Tantric deity, about whom little is known. On the picture he is surrounded by eight animal-headed witches which are labelled: Lho-bya-gre ("the southern Eagle"), Zla-ba ("Moon"), Zhi-ba ("Peace"), Lho-rdor-phag ("the southern She-boar of the Thunderbolt"), Lha-chen ("Great-God"), Spankhu-śvan ("Wolf-dog"), Sgo-srun ("Door-keeper") and Nor-srun ("Keeper of riches").

¹ Cf. Francke, Historische und mythologische Erianerungen der Lahouler (blue-print in 40 copies). Nos. 11 and 13.

Cf. Grünwedel, Mythologie des Buddhiemus in Tibet und der Mongolei, p. 106.

C.—State officials.

I now wish to consider what information can be derived from our records regarding the State officials of ancient Chamba. Lists of officials in inscriptions. three of the copper-plates published in the present volume (Nos. 15, 25 and 26) we meet with a passage in which the donor addresses his officers, who are enumerated in a list of considerable length. The lists in Nos. 25 (ll. 13-15) and 26 (ll. 7-10) are identical, except for some slight difference in the order of the names. No. 26 adds rājasthānīya which perhaps has been left out from No. 25 by a clerical error. No. 25 has twenty-two and No. 26 twenty-three titles including the names of the four castes brāhmaņa, kṣatriya, vaisya and śūdra, which in No. 25 are found after rājāmātya and in No. 26 at the end of the list. It should be noticed that I have taken parikara-sanniyuktaka-viniyuktaka as the designation of one class of officials, though possibly the compound contains two or three different names. The list of Vidagdha's title-deed (ll. 6-9) omits the four castes, but has seventeen additional titles, making a total of thirty-six. Instead of parikara-sanniyuktakaviniyuktaka we find simply viniyuktaka, from which it may perhaps be inferred that in reality by the former expression one class of officials is indicated.

Lists of officials like the present occur in inscriptions from different parts of A few instances are found in the epigraphical records of the Gupta period. One of the earliest examples is the Kāvī copper-plate grant (1.8) of the Gurjara king, Jaya-bhata, who lived in the beginning of the 5th century.1 It contains only the following five titles: rājan, sāmanta, bhogika, viņayapati and rāstra-grāmamahattara, which terms Bühler renders: king, feudal chief, governor of a province. governor of a zila and chief of a taluqu and a village. Another instance is the Bihar pillar inscription (II. 27-30) of Skanda-gupta (A.D. 455-c. 480), in which unfortunately the passage in question is very fragmentary. About a century later in date is the Māliyā copper-plate (ll. 20-21) of Dhara-sena II and of the Gupta year 252 (A.D. 571-2), which contains a small list of only ten titles. A fuller list, partly identical with those in the Chamba copper plates, occurs in the Deo Baranark pillar inscription (ll. 7-10) of Jivita-gupta II who reigned in the beginning of the 8th century of our era. But here also the stone is badly damaged, so that several of the names are lost. Of special interest are the Amgachi (ll. 27-31) and Bhāgalpur (11. 30-36) copper-plates issued by Vigraha-pāla and his son Nārāyaṇapala respectively, who both belonged to the Pala dynasty of Bengal and lived about A.D. 1000.3 Professor Kielhorn has already drawn attention to the similarity of the lists of officials in those two documents and those in the Chamba title-deeds.

It is a question of primary import whether the lists reflect the actual state of affairs in ancient Chambā, or whether the authors of the title-deeds simply copied certain fixed forms in use all over India, without any reference to local circumstances. The agreement between the Chambā lists and those of the Pāla rulers of Bengal points to the latter alternative. It is, indeed, very doubtful whether all the officials enumerated in our documents actually existed in Chambā. We find among them

¹ Cf. Ind. Ant. Vol. V, pp. 114 f.

² Cf. Fleet, Gupta Inscr. No. 12, pp. 50 and 52; No. 38, pp. 166 and 169 f.; No. 46, pp. 216 and 217 f.

³ Cf. Ind. Ant. Vol. XIV, p. 167, and Vol. XV, p. 306.

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the visaya-pati, the head of a visaya or district, but the term visaya, though known in Kaśmir, is not used in the Chambā records, which invariably designate a district or parganā by the name of mandala. The head of a parganā, as we shall presently see, is now-a-days called cār which undoubtedly is the cāta of the copper-plates. In Vidagdha's plate we also find mention of "those concerned with elephants, horses, camels and the forces" (hastyaśvostrabala-vyāprtaka). The purport of this expression will be discussed subsequently. Here I wish only to point out that a "superintendent of camels" would have an extremely easy task in Chambā, considering that such animals are unknown there. "Ces Montagnes," says Bernier' with regard to Kaśmir, "sont trop rudes et trop facheuses pour leurs longues et roides jambes; il faut que les Portes-faix supléent aux Chameaux." This remark holds equally good, if applied to the mountains of Chambā.

Although, therefore, our conclusion must be that these lists cannot be regarded as authentic for ancient Chambā, we may safely assume that they are based on actual conditions in India generally during the 10th and 11th centuries. On that account they do not lose in interest. Unfortunately the individual functions of the officials named are by no means clear, as will be seen from the following detailed discussion. I shall follow the order of the titles as found in Vidagdha's grant, as it is the earliest and fullest of the three.

All three grants, like the Bhāgalpur plate, start with the names $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}$, $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}naka$, $r\bar{a}japutra$ and $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}m\bar{a}tya$. In No. 25 the two lastmentioned terms are reversed. There can be little doubt that among the vassals of the rulers of Chambā there were none who could rightly claim the title $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}$. The title $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}dhir\bar{a}ja$, literally "king of kings," which they adopt themselves in their charters, is indiscriminately used by any independent chief. The Muhammadan historians usually designate the chiefs of the Panjāb hill states by the name $zam\bar{n}nd\bar{a}r$. The title of $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}$ was conferred on them by the Mughal emperors as a personal distinction. Thus we read in the $B\bar{a}dah\bar{a}h$ $N\bar{a}mah$ that Prthvi Cand (or Singh) of Chambā received the title of $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}$ from Shāh Jahān in December 1641.

The term $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}naka$ has been discussed in the previous section. It is the title by which the vassals of the Rājās of Chambā designate themselves in their inscriptions. It corresponds to modern $r\bar{a}n\bar{a}$. It will be noticed that $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}naka$ as well as the following $r\bar{a}japutra$ is a title of nobility or a class-name and not the designation of an official. But the fact that the members of those noble classes were commonly entrusted with important State offices explains their being mentioned in the beginning of the list. It is interesting that in the Kāvī copper-plate quoted above the word $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}$ is immediately followed by $s\bar{a}manta$ which is synonymous with $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}naka$.

As to the word rājaputra, literally "a king's son, a prince," Dr. Fleet is of opinion that in such passages as the present it has some technical official meaning. He adduces Marāṭhī rāut or rāūt, and Gujarātī rāvat "a horse soldier, a trooper" which he derives from Skr.

¹ Voyages (Amsterdam, 1699), Vol. II, p. 266.

² Gupta Inscr. p. 218, n. 1.

 $r\bar{a}japutra$ and believes to indicate its technical meaning. But on account of its connection with $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}naka$ and for the reason stated above I see no necessity to assign it here any other than its ordinary meaning. It is, however, possible that from its original sense of "the son or near relative of a $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}$ " it had already like the modern $r\bar{a}jp\bar{u}t$, come to be used of the nobility in general.

The word $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}m\bar{a}tya$ means "a minister or councillor $(am\bar{a}tya)$ attached to the raja," the second member of the compound being synonymous with saciva and mantrin (from mantra "counsel, advice") which has become the Chinese mandarin. One of the two officials mentioned by name at the end of Soma-varman's plate (No. 24) has the designation of mahāmātya which we may render by "prime minister" or "chief councillor." His office, no doubt, corresponds with that of the wazīr of the Muhammadan period.

In Vidagdha's grant the word $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}m\bar{a}tya$ is followed by $r\bar{a}jasth\bar{a}n\bar{i}ya$. It is also found in No. 26, but here the four caste-names have rather inappropriately been inserted between the two. The term $r\bar{a}jasth\bar{a}n\bar{i}ya$ is occasionally mentioned in the inscriptions of the Gupta period, but they give no clue to the exact meaning of the word.\(^1\) It occurs also in the list of officials in the Bhagalpur grant.\(^2\) We know from the Rajatarangini that an office of the name of $r\bar{a}jasth\bar{a}na$ or $r\bar{a}jasth\bar{a}n\bar{a}dhik\bar{a}ra$ existed in Kasmir. It was held by Alamkāra, the brother of the poet Mankha, in the reign of Jaya-simha. Dr. Stein remarks that it was connected with the administration of justice and that we may assume that its holder discharged duties equivalent to those of Chief Justice.\(^3\)

After rājasthānīya the list in Vidagdha's title-deed contains nine terms not ound in the two other plates. The first is pramātar which apparently does not occur in the Gupta inscriptions edited by Dr. Fleet or in the charters of the Pāla kings. But at the end of the Valabhi copper-plates of Dhruva-sena III (l. 49) of the Gupta year 334 (A.D. 653-4) we find a pramātar Śrī-Nāga mentioned as the dūta of the grant. We know also that an official of that name existed in Kaśmīr, for Rāma, the poet of the Baijnāth eulogies (II. vs. 37), mentions that his father, Bhṛṅgaka, was a pramātar of the king of that country. These references do not help us to decide on the nature of his office. Here Śrīvara comes to our assistance. The chronicler, after relating how Sultān Zainu-l-ʿābidīn banished his eldest son Ādam Khān and favoured the younger one, remarks:

श्रवजानुजयो राजपुत्रयोः सुखदुःखयोः ।
विपर्ययं व्यथाद्वेधाः प्रमातेव विभागिनोः ॥

¹ Gupta Inser. pp. 157, n. 1, 170 and 218.

² The Bhagalpur plate has rajasthaniyoparika and the Amgachi plate rajasthanoparika.

² Rājat. (transl. Stein) Vol. I., p. 316 n. On the functions of a Chief Justice of. Jolly, Recht und Sitte pp. 183 f.

⁴ Ep. Ind. Vol. I, pp. 88 and 92.

⁶ Ep. Ind. Vol. I, pp. 115 and 118.

⁶ Śrīvars, Rājat. I. 70.

"Fate reversed the natural order of the eldest and younger son of the king, like a pramātar [would do] with two persons having share in an inheritance."

From this passage it is plain that the *pramātar* is an officer entrusted with the administration of justice. This agrees with the meaning of the word in literature ("a person fit to perceive or judge" from root $m\bar{a}$ -) and accounts for its place in the list immediately after $r\bar{a}jasth\bar{a}n\bar{t}ya$.

The next term sarobhanga I cannot explain. It does not seem to occur either in inscriptions or literature.

The office of kumārāmātya is well known from the Gupta inscriptions. Where
Rumārāmātya.

as the word rājāmātya, as noticed above, means "councillor of the king," the term kumārāmātya may be rendered by "councillor of the crown prince." It seems that in the days of the Imperial Guptas there existed, side by side with the State-council, a special council to advise the heir-apparent who usually took part in the State affairs as coregent (Skr. Yuvarāja). The office of kumārāmātya appears to have existed throughout the Gupta epoch. Its earliest mention I find in the famous Allahābād pillar inscription (l. 32) of Samudra-gupta, in which the title, combined with that of sāmdhivigrahika ("minister of foreign affairs") and mahādaudanāyaka ("prefect of police"), is borne by Hari-sena, the author of the prašasti. It is also found in the lists of officials in the Māliyā copper-plate and on the Dēō-Baraṇārk pillar, referred to above.

Among the inscribed clay sealings of the early Gupta period discovered by Dr. Bloch at Basārh, the site of ancient Vaiśāli, there are several which contain the title kumārāmātya. The fullest legend runs: Śrī-Yuvarāja-bhaṭṭāraka-pādīya-kumārāmāty-ādhikaranasya which I propose to translate: "[Seal] of the Court (or Office) of the Prince's Councillor(s) [attached] to His Highness, the illustrious the lord Heir-Apparent." I may also note an inscribed stone linga, which came to light at Karamdānde in the Faizābād district of the United Provinces in 1908 and is now placed in the Lucknow Museum. The inscription, which is dated in the Gupta year 117 (A.D. 436), mentions a Pṛthivī-ṣena who was mantrī and kumārāmātya and afterwards general (mahābalādhikṛta) under Kumāra-gupta I. As his father Śikhara-svāmin is stated to have been mantrī and kumārāmātya under Candra-gupta II, we may conclude that the office in question was hereditary.

The term uparika is also frequently met with in the epigraphs of the Gupta period, but there is nothing to indicate its meaning. In the Bihār pillar inscription it stands immediately before kumārāmātya, so that perhaps we may assume some connection between the two offices. Among the Basārh sealings is one with the following legend Tīrabhukty-uparik-ādhikaraṇasya "[Seal] of the Court (or Office) of the Uparika(s) of Tīrabhukti (i.e. Tīrhut)." In the Bhāgalpur grant the word uparika follows rājasthānīya.

Gupta Inser. pp. 10 and 16.
A. R. A. S. for 1908-04, pp. 103 and 107.

The next word visayapati, as already noted, means "head of a district (visaya)" and occurs on the Kāvī copper-plate. It is also found in the Indor copper-plate grant (l. 4) of Skanda-gupta, dated in the Gupta year 146 (A.D. 465-6). Among the inscriptions discovered by Mr. F. O. Oertel at Sārnāth in 1904-5 there is one in Gupta characters of the 5th century, recording the donation of a Buddhist image by a visayapati of the name of Suyātra. We have remarked above, that, as the term visaya is not met with in the inscriptions of Chambā, there is good reason to doubt whether the office of visayapati was known in that State.

In the two grants of the Pāla kings referred to we find visayapati followed by grāmapati "head of a village" and in the Kāvī inscription by rāstra-grāma-mahattara "chief of a taluqa and village" according to Būhler's rendering. In Vidagdha's copper-plate the word next to visayapati is nihelapati which is unknown in Sanskrit literature. On the analogy of the above-mentioned documents we may perhaps assume that a nihela is a subdivision of a visaya and a nihelapati the officer in charge of such a sub-division. I have little doubt that this term is identical with nihilapati, found in the Nirmand copper-plate as the designation of the dūta of the grant. As the word apparently does not occur anywhere else, it seems that the office it denotes was peculiar to the Panjāb Hills.

It may seem strange to find among Vidagdha's officials the kṣatrapa or satrap.

But we may safely assume that this word is due to a clerical error and has to be read kṣetrapa. This, at least, is the form found in both the Amgāchī and Bhāgalpur grants where it stands between gaulmika and prāntapāla. The literal meaning of kṣetrapa is "protector of the fields." The analogous French term garde-champétre would suggest a police officer.

In our Chambā copper-plate also the word ksatrapa, or rather ksetrapa, is immediately followed by prāntapāla. Neither of the two terms occurs, as far as I know, in the inscriptions of the Gupta period. The etymological meaning of the latter term would be "a frontier guard"—the word prānta being used in the sense of "a limit"—but it is impossible to decide whether the proposed rendering is applicable to our documents.

The compound hastyaśvostrabala-vyārrtaka which, as noted above, means "those occupied with elephants, horses, camels, and the forces" may, at first sight, seem a strange element in a list of State dignitaries. To understand the expression, it should be remembered that the army of ancient India comprised four arms—elephant-riders, horsemen, war-chariots and foot—and on that account was indicated as caturanga "four-membered." It is well-known that the game of chess—in reality a war game—

¹ Gupta Inser. pp. 70 f.

² A. R. A. S. for 1904-05, p. 81.

³ Gupta Inser., pp. 289 and 291.

^{*} इन्यापदातिक्षं सैन्यम् Sabdakalpadruma i. v. चतुरकः Cf. Macdonell, The Origin and Early History of Chess. J. R. A. S. for 1898, pp. 117 ff.

originally reflected that state of things and has preserved in India the ancient name caturanga in its Persianized form that range (Arabic that range). The chariots, which play such an important part in the Indian epics, fell into disuse, apparently before A.D. 600, as they formed no part of Harsa's army. It would seem that, to keep up the ancient tradition of a "four-membered" army, the "warchariots" were replaced by a camel-corps. This much is certain that in the game of chess, as it is now known in India, the chariot has been replaced by the camel. I have little doubt that this change is based on the actual development of the old Indian army. If so, it is evident that the compound hastyaśvostrabala is synonymous with caturanga "the four-membered army" in its later form, and that "the persons concerned with elephants, horses, camels and the forces" are "officers connected with the four arms of the army" or in general "all military officers."

It is interesting to note that the expression hastyaśvostrabala-vyāprta may safely be restored in line 10 of the Dēò Baraṇārk pillar inscription, where Dr. Fleet reads.....ka....rsni (?) valavyāyata. For it will be noticed that the following compound, which is also mutilated, is undoubtedly kiśora-vaḍavā-go-mahieyajādikādhyakṣa which in the Āmgāchī and Bhāgalpur grants stands immediately after the first mentioned compound. As the Dēō Baraṇārk inscription belongs to the beginning of the 8th century, there is reason to suppose that the introduction of a corps of camel-riders in the Indian army took place in the 7th century, if not earlier.

We have just seen that the two plates of the Pāla kings also contain the expression under discussion in their lists of officials. But it deserves notice that here the word nau (ship) is introduced between ustra (camel) and bala (infantry). For an explanation we have to turn again to the history of chess. In a treatise on this game in Raghu-nandana's Tithitattva we find the word "ship" (Skr. naukā) used as the name of the corner-piece—our "castle." It is very curious that in Chambā the castle is still indicated by the name nau, though few of the inhabitants have ever seen a ship. In the Russian game also the castle is called "ship" (ladija). It would, therefore, seem that in certain parts of India the ship, or rather the navy, was adopted as the fourth arm of the army as a substitute for the abolished chariot. We may assume that the choice between camel and ship depended on the geographical position of the country. In the expression used in the Amgāchī and Bhāgalpur grants we find both introduced. Here the meaning evidently is "officers connected with the army and navy."

The next nine terms are identical in our three lists. The first three dūta,

gamāgamika and abhitvaramāva seem all to have the
same meaning—that of "messenger." The Bhāgalpur
grant introduces a fourth synonymous word praisanika, evidently derived from
presana "mission." In the Dēō Baraṇārk inscription, on the contrary, we find
dūta alone—the only one among these four terms which is found in Sanskrit

¹ V. A. Smith, Early History, 1901, pp. 118, 126 and 288. Cf. Si-yu-ki, Vol. I, pp. 52 f.

The Hindi name of the castle is Suf (derived from Skr. uefra), but in Urdu the term rukh is used.

³ Cf. Sir W. Jones, On the Indian Game of Chess. As. Res. Vol. II, pp. 159 ff. T. von der Lam, Zo-Geschich'e und Literatur des Schachspiels. Leipzig, 1897. pp. 13 f.

literature. The exact meaning of this and the other three terms in our lists of officials is by no means clear. In the "Trial" described in the ninth act of the old Indian play "The Little Clay Cart," the Court of Justice is compared with an ocean,

"Whose waters are the king's advisers, deep
In thought; as waves and shells it seems to keep
The attorneys; and as sharks and crocodiles
It has its spies that stand in waiting files;
Its elephants and horses represent
The cruel ocean-fish on murder bent;
As if with herons of the sea, it shines
With screaming pettifoggers' numerous lines;
While in the guise of serpents, scribes are creeping
Upon its statecraft-trodden shore: the court
The likeness of an ocean still is keeping,
To which all harmful-cruel beasts resort."

Here the translator, Dr. Ryder, renders dūta by "attorney"—I do not know on what authority. The meaning which would seem most natural in connection with a law-court would be "a beadle." But it is curious that in the passage referred to the beadle is called śodhanaka "cleaner," because his duty was to keep the court-room clean.

It is well-known that in connection with grants of land the word dūta or dūtaka indicates the official who carries out the king's orders—his agent or delegate. Dr. I'leet 2 remarks that "the Dūtaka's office was to carry, not the actual charter itself, for delivery into the hands of the grantees, but the king's sanction and order to the local officials, whose duty it then was to have the charter drawn up and delivered." As the person or persons mentioned as dūta at the end of the grant usually are indicated as the incumbents of some high office—e.g. that of mahākṣapatalika or mahāmātya—it would seem that their function as dūta was only incidental. It follows that this word, when indicating a certain office-holder—as apparently it does in our lists—must have a different meaning. All we can say is that the dūta was one of the seven state officials, who, according to Kalhana, had existed in Kaśmīr up to the time of Jalauka.

As the terms gamāgamika and abhitvaramāna occur merely in the lists of officials discussed here, we can only state that the etymological meaning of these words would be "one who goes (gam-) and comes (ā-gam-)" and "one who hurries (tvar-)."

Khaśa and Kulika are tribal names. In the two Pāla grants we find them mentioned together with the Gauda, Mālava, Hūṇa, Karnāta, and Lāta—all non-Aryan tribes. The Khaśas—the Khakhas of modern times—are referred to in the Brhatsamhitā among the peoples of the north-eastern region in combination with the Kāśmīras, Abhisāras, Dārvas, Kīras, Kulūtas and Kaulindras. That the Khaśas are rightly classed with these tribes of the Western Himālaya, is evident from the Rājatarangiṇī

¹ The Little Clay Cart (Mrcchakațikă) transl. by A. H. Ryder, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1905, p. 140.

[·] Gupta Inser. p. 100 n. 3.

³ Rajat. I, 119; transl. Stein Vol. I. p. 22.

⁴ Brhatsamhita XIV. 29 ff; cf. Ind Ant. Vol. XXII (1898), pp. 172 and 181.

in which they play an important part. "The ethnography of the territories immediately adjoining Kaśmīr," Dr. Stein¹ remarks, "can be traced quite clearly from the notices of the Rājatarangiṇī. In the south and west the adjacent hill-regions were occupied by Khaśas. Their settlement extended, as shown by numerous passages of the chronicle, in a wide semicircle, from Kaṣṭavār in the south-east to the Vitastā Valley in the west. The hill-states of Rājapurī and Lohara were held by Khaśa families; the dynasty of the latter territory succeeded to the rule of Kaśmīr in the eleventh century. I have shown elsewhere that the Khaśas are identical with the present Khakha tribe to which most of the petty chiefs in the Vitastā Valley below Kaśmīr, and in the neighbouring hills, belong. We have already seen that the Khakhas have until very recent times worthily maintained the reputation which their forefathers enjoyed as marauders and turbulent hillmen."

Regarding the Kulikas we are not so well informed. The word kulika as a generic name means "kins nan" (from kula) and is also assigned the sense of "head of a guild." It occurs in the legends on some of the clay sealings (Nos. 5, 28, and 29) found at Basārh by Dr. Bloch who renders it by "merchant." I have little doubt, however, that in the documents under discussion it is, like Khasa, the name of a tribe. It would seem that Kulait, ancient Kulikagoṣṭha, in the upper Rāvī Valley received its name from a settlement (goṣṭha) of Kulikas.

The mention of those tribes in a list of State officials may be explained from the part which the Khasas played in the history of Kasmīr. We read in the Rājataranginī of Tunga, the Khasa, who, through the favour of Queen Diddā, rose from being employed as letter-carrier (lekhahāraka) to the rank of prime minister. The same man led an unsuccessful expedition against Maḥmūd of Ghaznī in support of Trilocana-pāla, the Shāhī king of Gaudhāra. From the part played by the Khasas in the civil wars of Kasmīr, we may assume that their chiefs were employed as captains of mercenaries, and this would explain why they rank among the State officials in our title-deeds. Their position may be compared to that of the Scots and Swiss at the court of the Bourbons.

The two terms śaulkika and gaulmika are also found combined on the Bihār pillar inscription and in the Āmgāchī and Bhāgalpur copper-plate grants. Dr. Fleet proposes the conjectural rendering "Superintendent of tolls or customs (śulka)" and "Superintendent of woods and forests (gulma)." Evidently the words are vyddhi derivations from śulka and gulma; but it should be noticed that the latter word occurs also in the sense of "a patrol." It is, therefore, possible that by gaulmika a military or police officer is meant. The words śaulkika and gaulmika are unknown in Sanskrit literature.

The next word appears as khandarakşa in plates Nos. 15 and 26, but has the form khandarakşa.

khandarakşa in No. 25. We are tempted to consider the latter as the correct form and to regard khandarakşa as a corruption under vernacular influence. There can be little doubt that Hindi khandā "a straight, double-edged sword" is derived from the Sanskrit khadya. It

¹ Rājat. (transl. Stein) Vol. II. p. 430. Bīhaspati mentions that the "levirate" (niyoga) was practised among the Khasas; cf. Jolly, Recht and Sitte, p. 71.

should, however, be noticed that in the Bhagalpur grant also the form khandaraksa occurs, whereas the Amgachi plate has angaraksa. The word does not seem to occur in the Gupta inscriptions or in literature. The etymological meaning, supposing khadgaraksa to be the correct form, would be "swords-guard."

The word tarapati (or tarapatika) too is of uncertain meaning. It seems to correspond with tarika which in the two Pāla grants comes immediately after visayapati and grāmapati. In Sanskrit literature the word tarika means "ferry-man" (from tari "boat, ship" root tar-, to cross). The term tarapati which is not found in literature might be taken in the same sense, as tara means "crossing, passage, ferry" (but also "freight"). But it is not very clear how a ferry-man could be expected to interfere with the rights and privileges of the owner of rent-free land. Besides, in Chamba territory ferries are practically non-existent, the only one being that which Forster used on the 10th April 1783, when he crossed the Rāvī to reach Basōhlī. One of the Basārh clay sealings (No. 16) has the legend Mahāpratīhāra-taravara-Vinayaśūrasya. Dr. Bloch may be right in suggesting the identity of taravara and tarika, but the meaning of both words remains unexplained.

We meet next with two expressions which occur only in Vidagdha's grant, and as far as I know, are hapax-eirēmena. We have, therefore, to rely entirely on etymological evidence. There can be no doubt, that chat[t]racchāyika is derived from chattracchāyā "shade of a parasol." The literal translation of the word would consequently be "parasol-shadower" and we may safely assume that it is synonymous with such words as chattragrāhin, chattradhāra, chattradhārin and chattrapati meaning "the parasol-bearer." It is well known that in the East the parasol is one of the emblems of royalty. In Indian sculpture a royal personage is usually recognizable from the parasol held over his head by an attendant, whilst figures of deities and saints also are very often portrayed with that symbol of sovereignty. The chattracchāyika or "parasol-bearer" is, therefore, a personal attendant on the Rājā.²

The same is, I believe, the case with the vetakila. This word, which is only found here, I propose to derive from Sanskrit vītikā, a diminutive of vītā, meaning "a little ball," but used as an abbreviation of tāmbūla-vītikā in the sense of "a preparation of the areca nut enveloped in a leaf of the betel plant." The form vetakila is, of course, irregular, but it should be remembered that the word is not Sanskrit, but apparently a sanskritized Prākrit or bhāṣā term. In any case, I have little doubt that it may be taken as a synonym of tāmbūla-da, "dāyaka, "dāyin, "dhara, "vāhaka, etc. The "betel-carrier" was a satellite of the Rājā not less indispensable than the "parasol-carrier." Kalhaṇa relates a story about Jayāpīda who, when wandering in Paundravardhāṇa (Bengal) in disguise, was recognised as a king from the circumstance that out of habit his hand reached from time to time to the back of his

¹ In a MS, history of the Rājās of Jammū in the vernicular it is said of Ranjit Dev कई राज और मुलक इसकी छन्न इन्दर्भ में रहिने ये '' Several rājās and countries remained in the shade of his parasol.''

³ Cf. Rājat. VIII, 336, where it is related, how after the murder of king Uccala his body was cremated by his "parasol-holders."

³ Rajat. IV, 425-431; transl. Stein, Vol. I, p. 160.

shoulder as if to receive betel from an attendant standing behind him. That the office of "betel-carrier" was not an unimportant one we may conclude from the fable of "The Blue Jackal" in the Pahcatantra, where we read that the upstart jackal king "gave the lion the rank of a minister, the tiger the guardianship of the bedroom, the leopard the office of the betel (tāmbūtādhikāra) and the wolf the post of doorkeeper." This passage makes it clear why the retakita is mentioned among the office-bearers of the State.

The term $v\bar{i}ray\bar{a}trika$ (No. 25) or $v\bar{i}raj\bar{a}trika$ (Nos. 15 and 26), according to Professor Kielhorn, is not mentioned in any other grant. We can only say that the first mentioned form appears to be the correct one, the change from $v\bar{a}$ into $j\bar{a}$ in the second being due to vernacular influence (Sanskrit $y\bar{a}tra$ =Hindī $j\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$). Etymologically we may interpret the word as meaning "a person belonging to a military expedition."

The cauroddharanika of the three Chamba plates is also mentioned in the lists on the Deo Baranark pillar and the two copper-plates of the Pala kings. The literal meaning, as Dr. Fleet observes, is "one who is entrusted with the extermination of thieves," from which it may be inferred to be a technical title of a certain class of police-officers. Professor Jolly considers the word as synonymous with cauroddhartar and cauragrāha mentioned in the law-books. I may add that the prosecution of thieves (cauroddharana) is sometimes mentioned as a special privilege conferred on the grantee, e.g., in the Bhāgalpur grant (l. 42). It corresponds to the infangthef of Old English law. In case this right is excluded from the donation, we find it especially stipulated for by such expressions as coradandavarjya. coradrohakavarja, or simply coravarja.

The two terms dandika and dandavāsikā also relate to criminal justice. The rod (danda) is the symbol of judicial power and punishment and is, therefore, used to indicate punishment in general. As in ancient India a fine was the most common form of punishment, we find in the vernacular the word dand exclusively used in that sense. The term dandika or dandika and its synonyms dandin and dandapāni occur in literature in the sense of a police officer.

The Dēō-Baraṇārk pillar inscription and the two copper-plates of the Pāla kings have dandika and dandapāśika immediately after cauroddharanika. The term dandapāśika is derived from danda and pāśa, the latter word meaning "a sling or snare." The compound danda-pāśa may, therefore, be rendered by "rod-and-rope" the latter expression indicating punishment by confinement. From this it is evident that the dandapāśika, originally at least, was an officer entrusted with the punishment of criminals. In the Chamba copper-plates, we find a slightly different form, namely dandavāsika. I feel inclined to ascribe this

[।] Pañcat. I. 10 (ed. Kielhorn, p. 55 and note p. 26). Сf. Hitop. III, 7 (ed. Schlegel-Lassen, p. 92). तक्षेत्र सिंहच्याचारीवृत्तसमरिजनार माध्य.

² Reckt und Sitte, p. 124.

³ Ibidem p. 129.

^{&#}x27;Among the Basish clay scalings there are two (Nos. 14 and 15) with the legend [Da]ndapāśādāikaranasya which I propose to translate "[Scal] of the Court of criminal law." Dr. Bloch's rendering is "[Scal] of the Chief of Police." Another seal (No. 17) has the legend Mahādandanāyaka-Agniguptasya "[Scal] of the Judge Agni-gupta."

form to vernacular influence, instances of which we have already had occasion to notice in khandaraksa and vīrajātrika. It is curious, however, that, whereas the words dandapāśaka and dāndapāśika have the meaning "police officer," the Petersburg Dictionary ascribes to dandavāsin that of "village elder" and to dandavāsika that of "doorkeeper." Here I wish only to mention that the last-named form occurs in the Sālhī fountain inscription (No. 33, l. 2) as the designation of a district officer in Pāngī.

The last seven names of the list, with the exception of viniyuktaka, are peculiar to Vidagdha's charter. The term bhogapati occurs in literature in the sense of "a governor of a town or province," the first member of the compound being a territorial term apparently synonymous with bhukti. The latter word is found in proper names like Tirabhukti (Tirhut) and Jejākabhukti (Bundelkhaṇḍ). Which meaning the term bhogapati has in our copper-plate and whether an official of that title existed in Chambā at all, I am unable to decide.

After bhogapati comes viniyuktaka. This word occurs also in the two other Chamba grants, but here we find it placed towards the Viniyuktaka. beginning of the list and preceded by parikarasanniyuktaka. The word parikara does not appear to be the designation of an official. At least, I have not found it used in that sense in inscriptions; and in literature it always figures as a collective noun meaning "followers, servants." I therefore take parikara-sanniyuktaka-viniyuktaka to be one expression, in which sanniquktaka and viniyuktaka seem to indicate some contrast. It deserves notice that in the Māliyā copper-plate and in the Amgāchī and Bhāgalpur grants we find viniyuktaka preceded by āyuktaka. The term āyukta-purusa, rendered as "officer," occurs in the Allahabad pillar inscription, while we find tan-niyukta "his deputy" in the Alina copper-plate (l. 76) of the Gupta year 447 (A.D. 766-7) and samniyukta "appointed" in the Junagarh rock-inscription (l. 9) of Skanda-gupta. Finally I may also mention prayuktaka which has been read by Dr. Bloch on one of his Basarh seals. There can be little doubt that all the enumerated derivatives of the past participle yukta (root yuj) must be closely related in sense, but the exact meaning of each of them it is impossible to establish.

The following two words bhāgika and bhogika are also uncertain. It seems reasonable to connect them with the dvandva compound bhāgabhoga which is frequently met with in the inscriptions of the Gupta period and will also be noticed in the grant of Vidagdha (l. 22). Dr. Fleet translates it with "royalties"; a more literal rendering which I have chosen is "share and use." It should, however, be noticed that both words, bhāga and bhoga, are also employed in the Gupta inscriptions as territorial terms and that bhogika, if Bühler's interpretation is correct, occurs in the Kāvī grant as a synonym of bhogapati.

The meaning of the word cāṭa, on the contrary, can be established with full certainty, as it is one of the very few terms in the list which have been preserved up to the present day. And I may at once add that Chambā appears to be the only place in the whole of India in which the word cāṭa in its modern form cāṛ is still extant. That an official of that

designation once existed all over the Indian continent may safely be concluded from the frequent occurrence of the term in inscriptions. In the Maliya copper-plate (1.20) the cāta and bhata are mentioned after the mahattara. We find both words especially used in the expression acatablatapravesa (as an epithet of the word grāma) to indicate a certain privilege attached to the donation of a village or village lands. One of the earliest instances of that compound seems to be in the Khoh copper-plate inscription of Maharaja Hastin of the Gupta year 156 (A.D. 475-6). Variant expressions are abhatapravesya, abhatacchā'rapravesya and pratinisiddhacātabhatapravesa. Dr. Fleet also compares the expressions samastarājakīyānām apravesya and rajasevakānām vasatidandaprayānadandau na stah. The last mentioned expression seems to refer to "fines, i.e., forced contributions of money or supplies imposed by the king's servants, when halting at or starting from a village." Dr. Fleet adopts Bühler's interpretation of the word cāta in rendering it by "irregular soldiers." The constant combination of the word with bhata "a soldier" seemed to lend support to that view, though in Sanskrit literature cafa has quite a different sense, namely, that of "a cheat, deceiver, fortune-teller."



Fig. 22. State officials at Brahmor.

As noticed above, the word câța survives in Chambā in its modern form câp.2

¹ Jud. Ant. Vol. V (1876), p. 115 n. and Gupta Inser. p. 98 n.

On the subjoined photograph the man scatel in the centre with an inkstand $(kalamd\bar{a}n)$ stuck in his girlle is the $c\bar{a}v$. The old man standing to his right and the one on the extreme left with a strike-light (cakmak) in his girlle are bhatrāls and the tall man standing to the $c\bar{a}v$'s left is a $p\bar{a}hv\bar{a}$ or watchman. Of the two seated in front, the old man is an $\bar{a}hv\bar{a}$ or milk-collector, and the other a $dvuhi\bar{a}l$ or tax-gatherer. All these men wear the national costume of the Gadai or shepherd tribe which inhabits the Brahmor $waz\bar{a}vat$. Three hold the wand of office. Their pointed cap is supposed to represent Mount Kailūsa.

This is the title of the head of a pargana who is responsible for the internal management of his district, for the collection of revenue and the apprehension of criminals.1 It belongs to the duties of the car, in case the head of the State, his relatives or officials - and in modern times European travellers also-visit his pargana, to collect load-carriers and supplies. It should be remembered that the carrying of loads on such occasions is forced labour $(b \hat{e} g \bar{a} r)^3$ paid according to a fixed rate out of which the car receives his commission. The duties and position of the cata of the copperplates were, no doubt, the same as those of the $c\bar{a}r$. This explains why it was granted as a special privilege to holders of rent-free lands that the $c\bar{a}ta$ should not enter their village. It means that the head of the district had no right to seize agriculturists dependent on the grantee for the purpose of forced labour. Nor should he be allowed to call on the grantee to furnish supplies. This is distinctly stated in Vidagdha's grant: "And of our catas and bhatas, etc., no one will be allowed to enter his (i.e. the grantee's) house, to cut or crush his corn, sugarcane or pasture (?), whether green or ripe, nor to take rocika (?) or citola (?) or cows-milk, nor to carry off stools, benches, or couches, nor to seize his wood, fuel, grass, chaff, and so on. Not even the slightest oppression or vexation should be inflicted [on him] nor on his ploughmen, cowherds, servants, maid-servants, and all other people that are dependent on him." I quote this passage in full, as it is of unusual interest in picturing to us the amount of oppression and vexation the ordinary villager who was not in possession of, or settled on, rent-free land might be expected to endure, at the hands of petty ustrict officers. It also supplies us with a valuable commentary on the expression rāja-sevakānām vasatidandaprayānadandau quoted above from the Paithan grant of Rāma-candra of Śaka-Samvat 1193. The substitution of chātra ("parasolbearer") for cata, in the Chammak and Siwani copper-plate grants of the Vakataka king Pravara-sena II, points to the fact that to the authors of those grants the word cāta was unknown or unintelligible.

We have seen that in the inscriptions the word cāṭa is nearly always coupled with bhaṭa. The latter means "soldier" but also "servant." I presume that, when combined with cāṭa it has to be taken in the sense of "an official subordinate to the head of the pargaṇā." The word sevaka which closes the list means probably any menial servant in State employ.

In the course of our discussion we have seen that only the following officials named in Vidagdha's list can be said with certainty to have been known in Chambā: rājā, rājānaka and rājaputra (which however in reality are titles of the head of the State, his feudatories and near relations), rājāmātya (if synonymous with mahāmātya), daudavāsika and cāṭa. Other offices may be assumed with a high degree of probability to have been in existence in Chambā, as there is evidence of their occurrence in Kaśmīr or other parts of the Western Himālaya. Such are rājasthānīya,

^{&#}x27; On the present designations of officials in Chamba cf. Rose, Ind. Ant. Vol. XXXVI (1907), pp. 350 f. The cār is the "chak" of Brigade-Surgeon C. F. Oldham J. R. A. S. for 1901, p. 470.

⁷ The meaning of Persian bē-gār (i.e. kār-i-bēgār) is "unpaid labour." In the title-deeds of the Muhammadan period we find the tautologic expression bịṭh-bēgār, or bēṭh-bēgār, the first member of the compound being derived from Skr. viṣṭi. "forced labour."

pramitar and nihelapati. If we take hastyuśvostrabalavyāprtaka in the sense of "officers attached to the army," it is evident that this element also must have been present in ancient Chambā. The chattracchāyika and vetakila were, of course, indispensable satellites of the Rājā's court.

Chambā documents, apart from the above discussed lists. At the end of two of our title-deeds (No. 14, l. 19; No. 26, l. 21) we find the name of an official with the designation of ākṣapaṭalika. In two other plates (No. 24, l. 24; No. 25, l. 28) we have the same title preceded by the word mahā "great." It seems that the mahākṣapaṭalika mentioned in these two plates is one and the same person, though the form of his personal name slightly differs in the two cases. It is Kāhila in No. 24 and Kāhuka in No. 25; but in support of my suggestion I may quote the Sarban well inscription in the Delhi Museum in which the names Paitūka and Paitala are applied to one and the same person. It is impossible to say whether the terms ākṣapaṭalika and mahākṣapaṭalika denote any difference in grade. So much is certain that both words are used to designate the official who acted as the dūta of the grant.

The aksapatalika is the officer in charge of the aksapatala office. The latter name has been rendered by "Court of Justice" and "Archive," but Dr. Stein's prefers to translate it as "Accountant General's Office" on account of a gloss in a manuscript of the Rajatarangini which explains aksapatala as gananādhipatisthāna. Dr. Fleet renders it as "Record Office" or "Court of Rolls" (daftar). In the Kaśmir chronicle the word is of frequent occurrence. One passage' is of special interest, as it shows that in reality title-deeds were issued by the office in question. It is the story of the low-caste Ranga, the favourite of king Cakra-varman. "When the king had granted the village of Helu to Ranga as an agrahāra, and the recorder of official documents (pattopādhyāya) did not execute the document relating to the grant (dānapattaka), then Ranga proceeded to the Akṣapatala [office] and in anger thus addressed that [official]: "You son of a slave, why do you not write: "Rangassa Helu dinna" ("Helu granted to Ranga"). The idea of a grant of a village to a low-caste man was, of course, as absurd in the eyes of Kalhana as that of a title-deed composed in the vernacular.

Two of the Chambā copper-plates (Nos. 25, l. 23, and 26, l. 21) mention, after the mahāksapaṭalika who acted as the dūta of the grant, two officials, designated as karaṇa kāyastha, who were the writers of the document. Bühler assumes that in this compound "karaṇa is perhaps only a synonym of kāyastha, as the law-books mention the Karaṇas as one of the mixed castes." I prefer to follow Kielhorn in taking karaṇa in the sense of "a deed, legal document." The word karaṇaka which he renders by "writer of legal documents" is synonymous with karaṇa-kāyastha.

¹ Ep. Ind. Vol. I, pp. 94 f. Cat. Delhi Museum (Calcutta, 1908), pp. 33 ff.

³ Note at Rajat. V, 301; of. Bühler, Indische Palaographie, p. 94; transl. Fleet, p. 102.

³ Rajat. V, 397-8; transl. Stein. Vol. 1, p. 228.

^{*} Indische Palaographie, p. 94; transl. Fleet, p. 102.

The Brahmor grant of Yugākara (No. 14) mentions only one writer who has the designation $k\bar{a}yastha$. In No. 15 we find only the writer's personal name In No. 24 the corresponding passage of the inscription is partly lost; but the syllables $k\bar{a}$. De[va] . . . are still legible. Evidently $k\bar{a}$ stands for $k\bar{a}yashta$ and De[va] . . . I propose to restore as Devapena, the Instrumental case of Devapa, this being the name of the father of the $k\bar{a}yastha$ Sivapa mentioned in Nos. 25 and 26. If this restoration is correct, it would show that the office in question—as we should have expected—was hereditary. In the Sālhī fountain inscription (No. 33, 1. 3) mention is made of a $K\bar{a}yastha$ Sekha; his knowledge of Sanskrit certainly left a great deal to be desired.

The kāyasthas who are mentioned in inscriptions from the 8th century, are a caste of clerks. We have seen that in the passage from "The Little Clay Cart" quoted above these scribes are dubbed the "snakes" (we should say "sharks") of the law-court. This agrees well with the part they play in the Rājatarangini where their oppression is frequently complained of. "The Courtezan," says Kalhana, "the scribe (kāyastha), the clerk (divira) and the merchant, being [all] deceifful by nature, are [in this respect] superior to a poisoned arrow that they have been trained under a teacher's advice." That the modern Kāyasth or Kāyath enjoys no better reputation may be inferred from the Persian proverb:

"Even if there befell a famine of men, one should not make friendship with these three; first the Kāyath, second the Kambōh, third the bad-natured Kashmīrī."

The influence of the $k\bar{a}yasthas$ on the development of the Indian alphabets has been noted by Bühler. The modern form of Nāgarī in use in Bihār is called after them $K\bar{a}yath\bar{i}$.

I now wish to draw attention to an interesting passage in the Sālhī fountain in
Officials of Pāṅgī in A.D. 1170.

Scription (No. 33, l. 2) in which we find the names and designations of the local officials of Pāṅgī at that time (A.D. 1170). They are: Segāṇa Śrī-Kāluka, Pratihāra Śrī-Nenuka, Daṇḍavāsika Śikutaka (?) and Koṣṭhika-satka-segāṇa Sirika. As the words are given in Sanskrit, or, correctly speaking, Sanskritized forms, it is impossible to say which terms were actually in use. We can only assume that they did not differ materially from those used in the inscription. The document does not supply any information regarding the functions of these officials. All we can say is that in all probability they are mentioned in order of rank.

The chief official of Pangi at that time would, therefore, be Kaluka (probably sanskritized Kālu) who bears the curious title of Segāna.

This word is not Sanskrit. According to a suggestion, for which I am indebted to Mr. A. H. Francke, the word is perhaps a corruption of Tibetan kogampa meaning "a custom house officer or tax-collector." If this

¹ Rajat. VIII, 131; transl. Stein, Vol. II, p. 12.

² Another, perhaps more original, version of this privoerb mentions the Afghan instead of the Kayath.

interpretation is correct, it would point to the occupation of Pāngi by some Tibetan power previous to Chambā rule. Anyhow, we may assume that the functions of the segāṇa were substantially the same as those of the head official of Pāngī who until recent times bore the title of pālsarā. This term, which is not found in other parts of Chambā, is the designation of the head of a pargaṇā in Maṇḍi State and is known to have existed in Kuļū also, where it has been replaced by the term nēgī.

The next official Nenuka (probably sanskritized Nenu) has the title of pratihāra. This term is also found in the fountain inscriptions of Sai (No. 35) and Nāl (No. 39, l. 2) as the designation of a local official.

In Sanskrit literature the word pratihāra is used in the sense of "a door-keeper or porter." Among the five offices created by Lalitāditya of Kaśmīr the first is that of mahāpratīhāra.¹ Dr. Stein renders it by "High Chamberlain." The same term occurs in the Alīnā copper-plate of Śīlāditya VII' (l. 75) as the designation of the dūta of the grant who has also the title of mahākaapatalika, discussed above. We have already noticed it in combination with taravara on one of the Basūrh clay sealings. In the list of officials in the Āmgāchī and Bhāgalpur copper-plates the mahāpratīhāra is mentioned immediately after the mahāsenāpati "the Commander-in-Chief."

In the Gwalior inscription of Bhoja's (1.3) Laksmana is called the pratihāra of Rāma; on that account the rulers of Bhoja's House who claimed descent from Laksmana were known by that name. In the same document the word is explained by a fanciful etymology from pratiharana. At first sight it may seem strange that the office of "door-keeper" was considered of such importance. In this connection it is interesting to note that Dhyān Singh, the powerful minister of Mahārājā Ranjit Singh held the post of deorhivālā or "chief door-keeper." Drew rightly remarks that "in a native court, a place of personal government, the door-keeper, possessing as he does the power of giving or restraining access to the chief, has considerable influence."

It is clear, however, that the term, if applied to a district officer in Chamba can mean neither "door-keeper" nor "chamberlain." It is evidently an instance of the degradation of a high title of which India offers so many examples. We may perhaps conjecture that the pratihāra of the three fountain inscriptions held the same position as the modern likhnihārā who is the deputy of the cār, keeps the revenue accounts and does the clerical work. I do not, of course, assume any etymological connection between the two words.

The title dandavāsika borne by the third official of the Salhī inscription has already been discussed above. Here also we shall have to assume a deterioration in meaning, at least if the word is derived from Sanskrit dandapāšika. What in the present instance the

¹ Rājat. IV 142; transl. Stein Vol. I, p. 1133.

² Gupta Inscr. pp. 180 and 190.

³ A. R. A. S., 1903-4, pp. 280 and 283.

⁴ Jummoo, p. 12.

functions of the dandavasika were, it is impossible to say. Perhaps he was subordinate officer corresponding with the bhatvāl of modern Chamba.



Fig 23. State Kothi at Bialomor (ruined in the carthquake of 4th April 1905).

The last official mentioned in the inscription bears also the title of segāņa and may, therefore, have been a revenue officer. But besides, he is called kosthika-satka which probably means that he was attached to the kōthī (Skr. kosthika). It should be remembered that each parganā contains a State granary (kōthī) in which the local officers live and in which the revenue, collected in kind, used to be stored. In a Chambā copperplate (No. 25, 1–21) mention is made of such a granary (kosthāgāra) at Bhadravarma, modern Bhadram, not far from the capital. This explains why in Kuļū where once the same system of administration existed, the word kōthī is used in the sense of pargaņā.



TEXTS AND TRANSLATIONS

Nos. 1-4.—PANALI NĀLĀ ROCK INSCRIPTIONS.

(PLATE VI.)

THESE rock-inscriptions are found in the Panali Nala not far from Gum which was once the head-quarters of a parganā of the same name, but is now included in the Lilh parganā.

The letters are of a cursive type which makes it in many cases difficult to establish their value. The main interest of these inscriptions is the circumstance that they are the oldest epigraphs hitherto found in Chambā territory. On account of the character, I feel inclined to assign them to the 7th century.

The first inscription (Plate VI a) consists of two lines 2'1" and 7" long respectively. The letters in the upper line are partly uncertain. The following is a tentative reading:

मश्(?)श्विमवारा सुच्चित वं(?)त ते ते स(?)वच्छरा (1. 2.) गोरटीवेन [लिखितं]

The only part of the reading which appears certain is vaccharā at the end of the first line and Goradīvena at the beginning of the second line. The latter is probably a personal name. I presume that i has been substituted for e and that the name is in reality Goradeva. There are other instances of the substitution of i for e in the Chambā inscriptions. This points to Kaśmīr influence, as the paṇḍits of that country usually pronounce e as i in Sanskrit words. After the instrumental case Goradīvena we naturally expect a past participle. Perhaps we may read likhitam, assuming that the vowel stroke of khi has erroneously been drawn through the akṣara instead of at the side of it.

The second inscription (Plate VI b) consists of a single line 1' 2" long. It contains eleven *aksaras* 1" to $2\frac{1}{2}$ " high. It will be noticed that it partly agrees with No. a. I read it tentatively:

हि[म]वारा प्रस्तिया एते भ

The third inscription (Plate VI c) consists of one line, $5\frac{1}{3}''$ long, of only six aksaras. I read it un tiquet; which corresponds to Sanskrit unfuntional "In this year." Possibly the numeral or numerals expressing the year have become lost. The use of Prakrit in an inscription of this period is remarkable.

The fourth inscription (Plate VI d) consists also of one short line, 6" long, of six akṣaras. It reads चो नम[: । श्रिवाय "Adoration to Siva."

Nos. 5-8.—IMAGE INSCRIPTIONS OF MERU-VARMAN.

(PLATES VII-X).

These inscriptions were first brought to notice by Sir Alexander Cunningham and subsequently re-edited by me. They are engraved on the pedestals of the brass images of Lakṣaṇā Devī, Gaṇeśa, Nandi and Śakti Devī, of which the first three are found at Brahmor (map Barmaor), the ancient capital of the State situated on the Buḍhaļ, a tributary of the Rāvī; whilst the temple of Śakti Devī stands at Chatrāṛhī (map Chitrahi) about half-way between Brahmor and Chambā town below the triple junction of the Rāvī, Buḍhal and Tundēhn.

The four inscribed images, which were made by order of Meru-varman, exhibit a high degree of technique, rather than of artistic merit. In the Devi statues the workman, whose name, Gugga, is perpetuated in the inscriptions, has realized that conception of female beauty so frequently portrayed in Old-Indian poetry, but so alien to western taste. Even the trivali has not been omitted!

Laksana is mentioned in the Vamśāvalī (śloka 46) as Bhadrakālī and is also known by the general name of Bhagavati, the feminine of Bhagavan. she is, in the popular belief, no other than Durgā-Pārvatī, for she is portrayed in the act of slaying the Mahisasura—the much extolled exploit of that goddess. The image proper is 3'4", the pedestal 9" high. Her right foot is placed on the head of the buffalo-shaped demon, and with the trident held in her right hand she pieroes his neck. Her left hand partly raises his body from the ground. Another right hand clasps a sword, another left hand a bell. It is of interest to note that the forked end of the trident (Skr. triśūla) assumes the form of a thunderbolt (Skr. vajra, Tib. rdorje). There is thus reason to suppose that this favourite weapon of Devi and of Siva, the ancient storm-god, is nothing but a representation of the forked lightning, which in a somewhat different shape became the attribute of the thunder-god Indra. Miniature tridents of iron are presented in great number at Devi shrines as votive offerings, all through the western Himalayas. The bell, another favourite attribute of the goddess, by means of which she frightens her adversaries, I suppose to be a symbol of thunder.

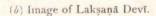
The image of Ganesa is 3' high, its copper pedestal $14\frac{1}{2}$ ". Its erection by Meruvarman is duly mentioned in the Vamsāvalī (śloka 46). Both the legs of the Ganesa image are broken, but a fragment of drapery, decorated with lotus-flowers, is still preserved on the pedestal. The god wears a snake as a sacred thread and has a tiger's or lion's skin tied round his waist. It is fastened in a knot over his prominent belly. He is three-eyed and four-armed and holds the following attributes: a rosary in his upper right hand and one of his tusks in the other right hand, a hatchet in his upper left hand and a vessel of sweetmeats in the lower left hand. The appearance of the

^{&#}x27; A. S. R. Vol. XIV p. 111 f.; Pl. XXVIII and A. R. A. S. 1902-03, pp. 240 ff.

[ै] Durgä-saptasati (Bombay 1871) III, 37. एवसुका समुख्य साइडा तं महासुरम्। पार्टनाकस्य कच्छे च कूलेश्यमसास्थ्यत्

² Cf. Fergusson and Burgess, Cave Temples of India, Plate LXXII.

(a) Image of Šakti Devī.







HEIGHT 4' 6"

HEIGHT 4' 1"

figure therefore closely agrees with the description given in the following dhyāna, for which I am indebted to Mr. D. R. Bhandarkar.

सिन्दूराभ विनेत्रं पृथुतरजठरं इस्तपश्चेर्दधानं दन्तं पायाक्ष्मेष्टान्युरुकरविलसक्षीजपूराभिरामम्। बालेन्दुद्योतमीलं करिपतिवदनं दानपूरार्द्रगण्डं भोगीन्द्राबहभूषं भजत गणपति रक्तवस्त्राक्षरागम्॥

"Worship ye the Lord of Gaṇas (Gaṇapati) with his diadem shining like the young moon; with the face of a lord of elephants and cheeks moist with gushing rut-juice; with a mighty snake, fastened as an ornament, and red clothes and oint-ment—him, minium-coloured, three-eyed and very corpulent, who in his lotus-like hands holds a tusk, a noose, an elephant hook and a boon, and who delights in the citron glittering in his broad trunk."²

The following is another dhyana which I obtained from a local Pandit:

भ्रग्**डादग्डिवराजितो गजमुखो इस्तैय**नुर्भिर्वरै:

विभन्नोदकचा चस्त्रपरशं 'तदद्रदं निर्मेकम्। विवृध्वसनिवारणैकचतुरो यः सिहिबुद्विपतिः ' सो ऽ यं वो विद्धात् वाञ्चितमलं बृद्दासम्बन्धनः॥

"May the corpulent son of Rudra (i.e., Siva) grant you the desired fruit, he, the lord of success and intellect, who alone is quick in destroying and removing obstacles. He, elephant-faced and distinguished by an elephant's trunk, bears in his four excellent hands [a vessel of] sweetmeats, a rosary, a hatchet and likewise a spotless tusk."

On the pedestal arc a pair of lions, the ordinary symbol of a throne (Skr. simhāsana lit. lion-seat) in Indian plastic art, and in the centre a grotesque, elephant-eared figurine crouching in an indecent attitude and resting his hands on a crooked stick. Over it the inscription is placed. I have noticed a similar figurine on a stone Ganesa image of the Viśveśvara temple at Bajaurā (Kuļū). It is probably meant for one of Śiva's Ganas who are often represented with animal heads, and of whom—it should be remembered—Ganesa is the leader, as his name indicates. Mr. Cousens informs me that, in the Cave sculptures, one finds dwarfs and some of Śiva's Ganas resting upon crooked sticks. They are often portrayed in indecent attitudes. Possibly the figure in question was originally derived from the Bodhisattva figurine commonly found on the pedestals of Buddhist statues of Gandhāra. On a brass Buddha statuette from Fatchpur (Kāngrā District), now in the Lahore Museum, the centre of the pedestal is occupied by a miniature Atlant, for which I have claimed the same origin. The Ganesa figure is perhaps the most fortunate

¹ It occurs in the Tantrasara and is quoted Saldakalpadruma. The metre is Stagdhara.

² The word ista in the second line is perhaps synenymous with vara and may refer to the "gift-bestowing attitude" (Skr. varamvdrā). But it is strange that no mention is made of the vessel of sweetmeats, one of Gancsa's most characteristic attributes. It is interesting to note that the citron or lemon (Skr. bijapūra) is also an attribute of Vaisravana the Buddbist god of wealth.

³ It is composed in the Sīrdālavikrādita metre.

⁴ Read विभन्मीदकमचन्पपरणू.

⁶ Perhaps सिद्धिकों; पति; is to be read. Instead of बुद्धि it πould be better to read ऋषि.

[•] A. R. A. S. 1904-05, p. 109.

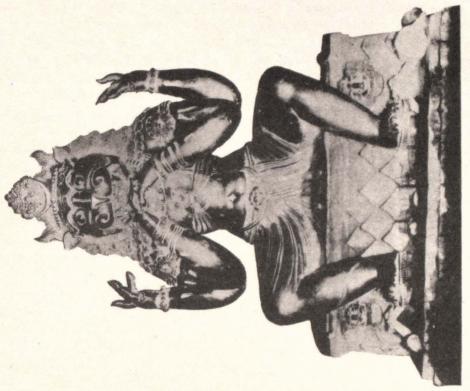
of Gugga's works, and we cannot but admire the skill with which he has succeeded in imparting majesty to the grotesque features of the elephant-faced god.

The bull Nandi (locally called Nandigan), the vehicle of Siva, stands in front of the temple dedicated to that deity under the name of Manimahes. "The execution," Cunningham says, is stiff and rigid with all the features much exaggerated." The erection of the bull is mentioned in the Vamsāvalī (śloka 47) which asserts that Meru-varman wrote on it his royal decrees. This tradition which exists up to the present day does not unfortunately, agree with the facts. Strange to say. the Vamsāvalī does not mention the founding of the temple itself. The bull is of considerable size, being 5' high, to which the pedestal adds 13". It should be noted that the tail, the right ear and the bell suspended from the neck of the animal are broken. It is believed that this damage was done on the occasion of a foreign invasion, but tradition fails to supply any reliable information as to the nationality of the invaders. The people agree in asserting that they were not Muhammadans. These certainly would have done the work of destruction more thoroughly. According to some, the invaders came from Yarkand. The Vainśāvalī (śloka 48) relates that in the reign of Laksmi-varman, the grandson of Meru-varman, the Kiras invaded Chamba and killed the Raja in battle. It seems not unlikely that the damage done to the statue as well as to the Ganesa image may be connected with this invasion.

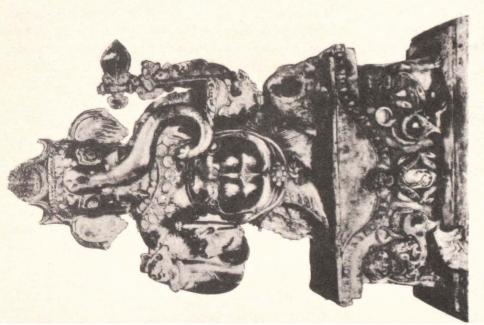
Sakti Devi of Chatrarhi is more properly named Sivasakti, from which it appears that she represents the female energy of Siva, commonly called Māheśvarī (from Maheśvara=Siva). This explains also why a stone effigy of Siva's bull Nandi is placed in front of the shrine. The image which is 4'6" in height is four-armed. The chief attribute is not a trident, as one would expect, but a lance which is an attribute not of Siva but of his son Kumāra or Kārttikeya. Possibly it implies an allusion to the name of the goddess, Sanskrit śakti meaning both "power" and "lance." In the other right hand she holds a full-blown lotus-flower—the general Indian symbol of beauty and grace. The two left hands grasp a bell and a snake. The meaning of the bell has been indicated above. The snake, whatever its original significance may be, is decidedly a Saiva emblem. The goddess is standing on a conventionally treated lotus, beneath which the inscription is engraved.

The language of Meru-varman's inscriptions is Sanskrit, but of an extremely ungrammatical type. The substitution of v for b and the doubling of t before r (gottra, puttra) and of g, c, t, m, and v, after that letter (durgga, arccā, kirtti, varmman, pūrvvam) are too common in Sanskrit epigraphs to call for special notice. A more serious error is the substitution of o for au in potra and the use of forms like $k\bar{a}r\bar{a}pita$ for $k\bar{a}rita$ and $karm\bar{n}n$ for $karmin\bar{a}$. The Laksanā and Ganeśa inscriptions are in prose, the other two in verse, the Nandi inscription in the Vasantatilaku metre, that on the Sakti image in what is evidently meant for the $Indravajr\bar{a}$ metre. The numerous grammatical as well as metrical mistakes occurring in the two latter epigraphs do not suggest great ability on the part of Meru-varman's panilits. They obscure the meaning to such a degree that it is

¹ Cunningham calls it a sceptre. The temple attendants informed me that this lance is a modern addition. Possibly the image held originally its proper emblem—the trident (Skr. trisala).







EIGHT 3

only possible to establish the general purport of the inscriptions. In transcribing them, I have attempted to correct the numerous mistakes which will be obvious to any one possessing the most elementary knowledge of Sanskrit. A disregard of sandhi rules is noticeable throughout.

The inscriptions of Meru-varman are not dated. According to Cunningham, the character would be that of the ninth and tenth centuries. It should, however, be noted that the script of Meru-varman is much earlier than the Sarada character, which must have existed as a distinct type as far back as the tenth century and was in common use in the Panjāb Hills by that time. Hence it is difficult to assign to these inscriptions a later date than the eighth century. On account of the striking resemblance of their scripts to that found on the Multai copper-plates of c. A. D. 700, I am inclined to place them rather in the beginning than at the end of that century. This conclusion well agrees with the place assigned to Meru-varman in the Chambā Vainśāvalī. It should further be noticed that the sacred syllable oin is regularly expressed by a symbol which is derived from the sign for O, as found in inscriptions of the seventh century, but which in some cases is placed vertically. In the Laksanā legend we twice find at the end of a sentence a symbol consisting of two concentric circles, the inner one approaching a dot. In the same inscription the use of the jihvāmūlīya should be noticed.

No. 5.—LAKŞAŅĀ IMAGE INSCRIPTION.

(PLATE X.)

The inscription on the image of Laksanā consists of two lines, $18\frac{1}{2}''$ and $17\frac{1}{4}''$ long respectively. The average size of the letters is from $\frac{3}{3}''$ to $\frac{1}{2}''$. The engraving is well executed. The epigraph records the construction of the image by the workman Gugga by order of Meru-varman, whose three immediate ancestors are enumerated, together with the mythical and the presumably historical progenitor of his race—Āditya the Sun-god and Moṣūṇa. The main point of interest from a linguistic point of view is the word used to indicate the image. Cunningham read in the second line $Devy\bar{a}rccavk\bar{a}r\bar{a}pit\bar{a}h$, but the syllable which he read $vk\bar{a}$ can only be $\underline{h}k\bar{a}$. It is further evident that the preceding compound contains the word $arc\bar{a}$ which means "worship," but which must here be taken in the sense of "object of worship." Another instance of a similar "materialisation" of meaning is found in the word kirti meaning "glory," but which in inscriptions is used for "an object of glory, a glorious work." In that sense we shall presently find it in the Nandi image inscription.

The faulty form of devyārccal seems to be due to confusing the alternate forms devyā arcāl and devyarcāl. The a of the last syllable must in any case be lengthened. It should also be noted that the word arcā stands in the plural.

¹ Ancient Geography, p. 141.

Buhler, Indian Palaography, Table IV; col. XX.

³ Ibidem p. 90; Bubler supposes it to be a conventional representation either of the dharmacakra or of the lotus. For the peculiar form of O see Table IV: 6, XVIII.

⁴ Cf. Fleet, Gupta Inser. p. 212, footnote 6,

A similar mistake occurs in inscription No. 14, 1, 4 devyodars instead of devyudues (or devya uda. .).

TEXT.

भोम् ॥ मोषूणसगोन्नादित्यवंशसंभूत-श्रीकादित्यवर्मादेव प्रपौन्नो-श्रीवसवर्मादेवपीन्न-श्रीदिवा-करवर्मादेवपुन्नेस ॥ (ग. 2) श्रीमेकवर्माणा ॥ मात्मपुष्यवृद्धये सचणादेव्यार्ब × कारापिता: ॥ ० ॥ कर्मीण गुम्मेस ॥ 🖸 ॥

CORRECTED READING.

षोम् ॥ मोषूणस्वगोत्रादित्यवंश्रसंभूत-श्रीमदादित्यवर्भदेवप्रपौत्र-श्रीवलवर्भदेवपौत्र-श्रीदिवा-करवर्भदेवपुत्रेण् (l. 2) श्रीमेश्वर्भणात्मपुष्यवृद्धये सञ्चणादेत्या सर्चा × कारिताः कर्मिणा गुगोन् ॥

TRANSLATION.

Born from the own-house (gotra) of Mosūna 1 and from the Solar race, the great-grandson of the illustrious lord Āditya-varman, the grandson 2 of the illustrious lord Bala-varman, the son of the illustrious lord Divākara-varman, (1. 2) the illustrious lord Meru-varman, for the increase of his spiritual merit, has caused the holy image of the goddess Lakṣaṇā to be made by the workman Gugga

No. 6.—GANEŚA IMAGE INSCRIPTION.

(PLATE X.)

The Ganesa image bears an inscription in four lines of unequal length (13" to $5\frac{3}{4}$ "). The fourth line is divided into two by the head of the grotesque figurine noticed above. The size of the letters is from $\frac{1}{4}$ " to $\frac{3}{8}$ ". The execution is fair. The contents—it will be seen—are almost identical with those of the Laksanā inscription. Instead of the word pauttra we find here the curious term anupottra (read anupautra) which evidently owes its origin to a wish to emphasize the distinction between pautra and prapautra, the meaning being the same as that of pautra. The word indicating the gift was read by Cunningham devavarma(n); but varman never has the meaning of "an image." The third syllable must be dha. Evidently the expression intended by the author of the inscription was deyadharma, the term commonly used in the epigraphs of the Gupta period to indicate "a pious gift" and regularly followed by 'yam.

TEXT.

भों नम: गण्यतये ॥ सूषूण्रस्त्रगोत्रादित्यवंश्रसंसूत-त्रीत्रादित्यवंश्रदेव-पपौत्र-(1,2) त्रीवस-वर्मादेवानुपोत्र-त्रीदिवाकरवर्मादेव-सूनुन्। ॥ (1,3) महाराजाधिराज-त्रीमेस्वर्मणा कारापितं देव-धर्मी यं॥ (1,4) कर्मीण् गुगोण्॥

CORRECTED READING.

भी नमी गणपतये ॥ मूष्णस्त्रगोत्रादित्यवंशसंभूत-त्रोमदादित्यवर्मदेवप्रपौत्र-(l. 2) त्रीबलवर्मदेवपौत्र-त्रीदिवाकरवर्मदेवस्तुना (l. 3) महाराजाधिराज-त्रोमेरुवमंणा कारितो देय-धर्मी उयं (l. 4) कर्मिणा गुग्गेन ॥

^{&#}x27;Cunningham took the syllable sna to be part of the proper name. I believe that it belongs to the following word gotra and has to be taken as a separate word.

² As remarked by Dr. Fleet, Gupta Inser. p. 15, footnote 3, the more correct rendering of prapautra and pautra would be "son of son's son' and "son's son."

³ Cf. Fleet, Gupta Inser. p. 25, footbote 5. The expression devadharmma for deyadharmma occurs in inscription No. 9 of the present volume.

TRANSLATION.

Adoration to Ganapati. Born from the own-house of Musuna and from the Solar race, the great-grandson of the illustrious lord Aditya-varman, the grandson of the illustrious lord Bala-varman, the son of the illustrious lord Divakara-varman, the king of kings, the illustrious Meru-varman has caused this pious gift to be made by the workman Gugga.

No. 7.—NANDI IMAGE INSCRIPTION.

(PLATE X.)

On the image of the bull Nandi we find two lines each 3' 2" long,' the name of the maker being added in the third line of $4\frac{3}{4}$ ". The letters, the average size of which is $\frac{1}{2}$ ", are very distinct. Unfortunately the author of the inscription has performed his task in a far less satisfactory manner than the artist. His knowledge of Sanskrit grammar was evidently very imperfect, and the whole record looks like a conglomerate of words and expressions borrowed from other votive inscriptions, but only partially understood, or altered to such an extent as to render them unintelligible. So much is certain that the inscription records that Meru-varman built a temple which, with an evident allusion at the founder's name, is said to have equalled Mount Meru in height. In front of it he placed the bull on which the inscription is found. The second half of the first stanza which contains a description of the temple in question is very obscure, owing to the use of what seem to be technical terms denoting various members of the building.

Unfortunately it is by no means certain that the present temple is the edifice founded by Meru-varman. Its style is that of the ordinary sikhara temple; whereas at this early period and in such close proximity to Kaśmīr one would expect to find the style of the ancient Kaśmīr temples which, as we know, was also in vogue in the plains. The façade of the Lakṣanā temple has the trefoil arch enclosed in a triangular pediment, which forms such a typical feature of the Kaśmīr temples. This would indicate that the Kaśmīr style was known in Chambā in the days of Meruvarman, who—it should be remembered—was well-nigh contemporaneous with the great Lalitāditya, the founder of the famous temple of Mārtānda. It should also be noticed that our inscription seems to imply that Meru-varman's temple was provided with a mandapa, whereas the present shrine consists only of a cella entered through a porch, to which that appellation can hardly be applied. (Cf. fig. 16.)

In ancient Hindū temples we invariably find the figures of the river goddesses Gangā and Yamunā on both sides of the entrance. Such for instance is the case with the temple of Mārtaṇḍ.³ In one of the Baijnāth *Praśastis*, too, it is distinctly stated that figures of Gangā and Yamunā were placed at the entrance. It deserves special notice that they are also found, carved in wood, on the temple of Lakṣaṇā Devī. In each instance the two river goddesses are distinguished by their vehicles—the crocodile (makara) and the tortoise.

¹ The estampage reproduced in plate X has been out into two ..

² Vide A. R. A. S. for 1902-03, plate XXXIV.

³ Major Cole has misinterpreted these figures. Ancient buildings in Kashmer, Plates 18-18.

In temples of a later period we usually still find two female figures flanking the entrance to the sanctum. But their true meaning has become lost, and the characteristic vehicles of the two river-goddesses have either been omitted or changed into meaningless animals. This is the case in the temple of Manimaheśa where the crocodile and the tortoise have developed into birds, apparently geese. This is another sign of the late date of this temple. Considering that the temples of Lakṣaṇā, Śakti and Gaṇeśa are all built of stone and wood and decorated with woodcarvings, it seems highly probable that the Śiva temple of Meru-varman was a shrine of the same type, which at a later period was replaced by the present stone temple.

The word $k\bar{\imath}rti$, as has been remarked above, is used here in the sense of "a work which renders its constructor famous." The compound $\acute{S}r\bar{\imath}$ -Meruvarmma-catur-odadhi- $k\bar{\imath}rttir$ will be readily understood by comparing an expression like catur-udadhi-samatikrānta- $k\bar{\imath}rti$ which is found elsewhere in epigraphical records. At the end of the inscription the object of the donation is said to be the increase in religious merit of the founder and his parents.

TEXT.

भो प्रासाद मेक्सदृशं हिमवन्तमूर्भिः कला खयं प्रवर-कर्मग्रुभैरनेकैः तचन्द्रशालरचितं नवनाभ नाम प्राग्योवकैर्व्विवधमण्डपनैः कचिन्नैः ॥ (1.2) तस्यायतो व्रषभ पोन-कपोलकायः संश्विष्ट-वच्चककुदोवतदेवयानः श्रीमेक्वर्भा-चतुरोदधिकीर्त्तिरेषाः मातापिनृः सततमात्मफलानुवृद्धैः ॥ (1.3) कतं कर्मीण गुम्मेनः ॥

CORRECTED READING.

भोम्॥ प्रासादं मेर्सदृशं हिमवसृधि कत्वा खयं प्रवर-कर्मशुभैरनेकै: । तचन्द्रशाला रिचता नयनाभिरामा प्राग्नोककै विविधेर्मण्डपैनैंकचित्रै: ॥ (1.2) तस्याप्रतो [स्थापितो] वृषभः पोन-कपोलकायः संक्षिष्टवचः ककुद उनतदेवयानं । श्रीमेर्द्वर्मण्यतुरुद्धि[समतिकान्त]कीर्तिरेषा मातापित्रोरात्मनय संतर्भकाभिह्डा ॥ (1.3) कतं किर्मणा गुग्गेन ॥

TRANSLATION.

After that he had himself built a temple like unto Mount Meru on the top of the Himavant through the manifold bliss of [his] good works, an upper chamber (candraśālā) delightful to the eye, was added to it with various porches (mandapa) and numerous ornaments (citra) turned towards the east; in front of it [was set this bull fat of cheeks and body, compact of breast and hump, the exalted vehicle of the god (Siva). This is the glorious work of the illustrious Meru-varman [famous] over the four oceans, [tending] continually to increase the [spiritual] fruit of his parents and himself. Made by the workman Gugga.

¹ Fleet, Gupta Inser. p. 288, Nirmand copper-plate inscription, l. 1. Cf. also p. 27, n. 5.

^{*} The rendering of the third pāda of the first stanza is problematic. For the term navanāhha nāma (if this is the correct reading) I cannot offer any plausible explanation. Possibly it stands for nayanahhirāma or perhaps navanāhha ought to be navagarbha. Cf. Ep. Ind., Vol. VII, p. 71. Nor is it clear what is meant by candrasālā and prāggrīraka.

Brahmor and Chatrathi Image Inscriptions.

निर्माला में ते मिर्मा ते मिर्मा महत्त्री मार् हा पयार वर्ष ने हत्ती वल वसारे वेष हत्त्री विद्यार मार्ग हे हे जा। Laksaņā Image Inscription.

क मिलियोसेल ॥ ७॥ ्रम्य तीनायत्मा प्रमुक्त मक्ते अस्ति विभागत्ति अस्ति अस्ति अस्ति प्रमुक्त गा मित एक मिर मित्र मुक्त मारि मेर्द वर्षे भारेग विमाल Ganesa Image Inscription.

७४ मर्घ म्य ह्रीय म्य ब्राह्म हिंदि । इ. च च संप्रवास्य म्यान केः व म्या में के व म्या में के व में के में के व में के व में के मे Nandi Image Inscription.

रम्मुस्तर्भितं मवस्त न यथ्यि वैहिति वयः परमानिति। रणम्सीये तवध्वद्रो द्वितितिषः प्रतिप्तः मत्त्य व्यव्य म् र्

१६ रेहरेस्या दे मेर्गः॥

Sakti !mage Inscription

3 x

No. 8.—ŚAKTI IMAGE INSCRIPTION.

(PLATE X.)

The inscription on the image of Sakti Devi at Chatrarhi consists of two lines, each 1'3" long. The maker's name is mentioned in a separate line of 3" placed behind the former two. The engraving is inferior to that of the Brahmor inscriptions. The shape of the letters which measure only from \frac{3}{8}" to \frac{1}{2}" in the average, is indistinct and the value of several of them uncertain. The inscription, moreover, exhibits the same want of grammatical knowledge on the part of its author as that on the bull Nandi discussed above.

TEXT.

चो चासो गिग्रवकुसधर्यवाष्ट्री चोदेववधाँति प्रसिषकीर्त्ति त्त्रस्यसुतः सर्वगुणातिरामः चीमेब-वर्मा प्रथित प्रिथिव्याः ॥ (1. 2) मातापितः पुर्व्यनिमित्तपूर्वि । कारापिता मित्तता एव (?) प्रक्रि जिल्ला रिपूं दुर्जयदुमोसंस्था कीर्त्तिर्थमोर्धर्मा-विद्यध्यतागुः ॥ (1. 3) क्रतं कमींच गुम्नेच ॥

CORRECTED READING.

भोम्॥ भासी दिश्वदक्क लधुर्यवाद्यः त्रीदेववर्मेति प्रसिवकीर्तिः। तस्य स्तः सर्वगुवाभिरामः त्रीमेक्वर्मा प्रथित[यशाः] पृथिव्याम्॥ (1.2) मातापितृपुव्यनिमत्तं पूर्वकारिता भक्तित एव शक्तः। जिल्ला रिपृन्दुर्जयदुर्गसंस्वाद्वीर्तियशोधर्मविवर्धितायुः॥(1.3)कतं कर्मिचा गुन्नेन॥

TRANSLATION.

There was an eminent chief of a pure race, the illustrious Deva-varman of celebrated fame. His son, charming by every virtue, [is] the illustrious Meru-varman, renowned on the earth. First, for the sake of the spiritual merit of his parents, he, out of devotion, caused the image of Sakti to be made, after having conquered [his] foes in their invincible strongholds, he who has prolonged his life by glory, fame and religious merit.

No. 9.—GŪM STONE INSCRIPTION OF SĀMANTA AṢĀŅHA-DEVA. (Plate XI.)

Gum¹ (map Guh) is situated on the ancient road from Chambā city to Brahmor, which follows the hill slopes along the right bank of the river Rāvī. It was once the head-quarters of a parganā of the same name which, together with the former parganā of Belj (map Bailj), is now included in the Lilh parganā. The State kōthī of Gum is still extant. At some distance from it there is a Devī shrine surrounded by a considerable number of lingas. Tradition holds that their number once amounted to 101. On the same spot near the edge of the precipice a squared stone is found 3′ 2″ long and broad, by 9″ in height. Apparently it once served the purpose of a linga stand. On the front of this slab the inscription is cut in bold and well-defined letters which measure from $\frac{3}{5}$ ″ to $1\frac{1}{3}$ ″. It consists of four lines varying from 15″ to 18″ in length.

¹ As a generic name gain (ai) means "a chestnut tree."

The character is similar to that of Meru-varman's inscriptions, but in some respects it represents a more ancient type. Post-consonantic e is expressed by a stroke in front of the consonant and not by a flourish over it. In the same way the vowel-sign o consists of two strokes, one before and the other after the consonant. The aksara m is not provided with a loop as in the Brahmor inscriptions. On the contrary, the aksara s has a loop and the u in su is expressed by a downward continuation of the vertical stroke, as in the early Gupta inscriptions. On the whole the character resembles more that of the seventh than that of the eighth century. The syllable om is rendered by a symbol; in the first line we meet with the sign for upadhmauva.

The points just-noted are the more remarkable, as the inscription refers itself to the reign of Meru-varman, and cannot, therefore, be separated by any considerable space of time from his epigraphical records. The purport of the Gum inscription is that Aṣādha-deva, a feudatory (sūmanta) of Meru-varman, built at Śiva-pura a temple dedicated to Ṣaṅkalīśa. This conclusion cannot be said to be absolutely certain, owing to the language of the inscription, which shows the same disregard of grammatical and metrical rules as we have noticed in the Brahmor and Chatrāṛhī inscriptions.

TEXT.

भी मोषीणादित्यवङ्ग 🔾 परमधिवनतो ऋसमाद्यत्तगुढः।

- (1. 2) त्रीमेरोवर्भादेव कमलकिसत्तयागृत्य देवस्य पादा।
- (1. 3) सामन्त प्रषाढदेव सुतिपतरजनोर्वे स्डिसेवाप्रसादा ।
- (l. 4) क्रत्वोयं देवधर्माश्चावपुरमधिक षङ्कीशस्य इम्म्यें॥

The inscription, as it stands, does not yield any sense. We can only attempt to discuss what its author can have meant by the curious succession of compounds it consists of. First of all it should be noted that it is composed in poetry. It consists of one stanza of four $p\bar{a}das$ in the $Sragdhar\bar{a}$ metre—each $p\bar{a}da$ occupying one line of the inscription. There can be little doubt that $Mos\bar{u}n\bar{a}dityavanga$ (or perhaps vanga) is intended to convey the same meaning as the expression $Mos\bar{u}nagottr\bar{a}dityavangasambh\bar{u}ta$ used in the Laksana and Ganesa inscriptions of Brahmor. The following compound paramasivanato is clear; but it is difficult to say what is meant by $ksattran\bar{u}dyattasuddhah$. In any case these three compounds must belong to the name $\hat{S}r\bar{s}$ -Merovarmmadeva in the second line, in which the poet has taken the liberty of changing Meru into Mero for the sake of the metre.

The second line will become intelligible if we place the word $p\bar{a}da$ (or $p\bar{a}dam$?) immediately after $Sr\bar{c}$ -Meruvarmma-deva, by which the genitive devasya becomes superfluous. The word $\bar{a}srtya$, which stands either for $\bar{a}sritya$ or for $\bar{a}srita^{-1}$ connects the two hemistichs syntactically. The following compound $S\bar{a}manta-As\bar{a}dha$ -deva which shows a curious ignorance of the most primitive samdhi rule, ought to stand in the instrumental case. It is to be connected with the past participle krto in the last line. The rest of the third line, as it stands, is unintelligible.

¹ For a similar mistake of, inser, No. 15, 1, 24.



SCALE 0.50

Proli-rā-gaļā Rock Inscription.



SCALE

Perhaps it is meant for surapitrianavindasevāprasādāt. The impossible form kitvo in the last line is a mixture of kito and kitoā. Evidently the past participle kito is wanted, its subject being the expression [a]yam devadharmmas, immediately following it, for which, as in the Sakti image inscription, devadharmas is to be read. The last member of the next compound Sivapuramadhike is not clear. The only explanation I can offer is that madhika (the last syllable ought to be long) stands for madhye or for madhyagam. The genitive Ṣankalīśasya belonging to harmmyam is very strange. Can it stand for Sankareśasya? We arrive consequently at the following reading which approximately must represent what the would-be poet employed by Samanta Asādha wished to express.

CORRECTED READING.

बोम् ॥ मोष्णादित्ववंश-[संभूत]-परमधिवनत इद-

- (1. 2) त्रोमेश्वर्मदेव-पादकमस्तिसलवात्रितेन
- (1.3) सामन्ताबाढ-देवेन सुरियत्वनहन्दसेवा-प्रसादात्
- (1.4) क्रतोऽयं देवधर्मः प्रिवपुरभध्वगं वह्नलीप्रस्य इम्प्रम्

TRANSLATION.

The feudatory chief Asadha-deva resorting to the lotus-like feet of the illustrious prince Meru-varman (that scion of the house of Mosūņa and Sūrya, and worshipper of the most exalted Siva), has made this pious gift—a shrine of Sankalīśa in the midst of Sivapura—thanks to the service [rendered] to the multitude of the gods and the ancestral spirits.

No. 10.—TUR ROCK INSCRIPTIONS.

(PLATE XII.)

The village of Tur belongs to the Basu parganā and is situated 1½ miles east of south from Basu Köthi on the road which leads by the Baleni Pass to Shāhpur and Rihlu in Kāngrā. At a short distance beyond the shrine of Stūhr Nāg before entering the village, the road passes a boulder bearing carvings and inscriptions. The locality where it is found is known by the name of Tārsruā and the stone itself is usually designated as likhā paṭā "the inscribed slab." No traditions seem to be connected with it.

The centre of the slightly slanting surface is occupied by an elaborate square figure supposed to be a magic spell. Under it we find the effigies of a caparisoned elephant and two horses running, as it were, in the direction of the Pass. Over the front horse is the word Sri enclosed in a rectangle. Between this and the central figure we read: Sri-Harismetam, the meaning of which I cannot explain. Most probably it is a proper name, but the last member of the compound is puzzling. It is noteworthy that the last syllable is written under the line, evidently because the central figure came in the way. This must, therefore, have been carved before the inscription.

Over the second horse are three lines apparently without any connection with The first line measures 3' 1" in length and consists of eleven aksaras 3\frac{1}{3}" to 8\frac{1}{3}" high. I read it: Om svasti \ Sr\overline{t}\-Tthakkikena likhitam. "Hail! Written by the illustrious Thakkika." The syllable following Sri is doubtful, but it is very similar to the aksara ttha found in the Sarahan prasasti (No. 13) 1.7.1 I suppose that in reality the name is Thakkika and that the form Tthakkika is due to a confusion of Śrī-Thakkika with Śrīmat-Thakkika. The second line has only four aksaras $2\frac{1}{4}$ " to $4\frac{1}{4}$ " high, and reads: Magarabrū, which can be hardly anything else but a proper name. It is possible that the first syllable is in reality na, as in the inscriptions of Meru-varman this aksara can scarcely be distinguished from ma. The third line contains three aksaras of very large size: $S_{r\bar{i}}$ -Laksm \bar{i} . The first aksara is no less than $14\frac{1}{4}$ high. It is impossible to decide whether the word "Laksmi" here indicates the goddess of good fortune and forms part of the charm, or is to be taken as the personal name of some female. Nor can we make out who "the illustrious Thakkika" was by whom these lines and presumably the accompanying figures also were engraved. It is, however, noteworthy that an inscription (No. 17) incised on the pedestal of an image found in the same village of Tur, contains the proper name, "Śri-Thakkika." The character of this epigraph which exhibits a much later type than that of the rockinscription precludes the possibility of the two names indicating the same person. But the occurrence of the proper name "Thakkika" elsewhere supports my explanation of the ttha in the word Śri-Tthakkikena. I may add that the image inscription contains also the invocation Om namo Śrī-Tthakkikasvāmi-pādāh, in which apparently the same orthographical mistake is made.

The later Thakkika was a local Rāṇā; possibly the older one was his ancestor, as there are instances of a name recurring in the same family. Most probably the two inscriptions are separated by a space of time of nearly three centuries. The rock inscription is written in the same character as Meru-varman's inscriptions and may be assigned to the beginning of the 8th century, whereas the younger Thakkika was a vassal of Rājā Vidagdha and must therefore have lived about the end of the 10th century.

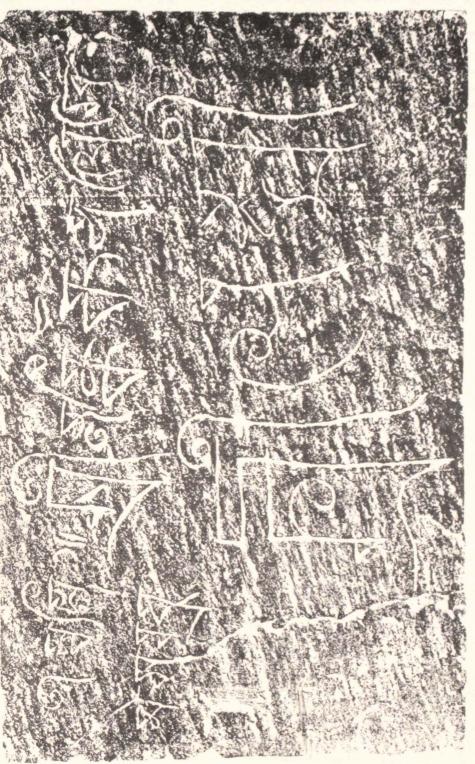
No. 11.—PROĻĪ-RĀ-GAĻĀ ROCK INSCRIPTION OF MŖTYUÑJAYA-VARMAN.—(Plate XI.)

Proli-rā-gaļā is the name of a narrow mountain-passage $(gal\bar{a})$ literally "neck") through which the road from Basu leads over the Kankōt range, and thence by the Kankōt Pass (the Bowar Pass of the Survey Map) over the Dhaulā Dhār to Rihlu in the Kāngrā District. The locality evidently owes its name to its resemblance to a gate $(prol\bar{a})$. There are no traces of buildings on the spot, but at a distance of 2 miles the ruins of a fort are said to exist. In these days the Kankōt road is but little used owing to its difficult nature. It is, therefore, the more

¹ Cf. also the ligature nthyā in paripanthyā (No. 15, l. 17.)

² On the meaning of this word and its connection with Sanskrit pratoli and Hindi paul(i) see my note J. R. A. S. for 1906, pp. 539 ff





Tur Rock Inscription.

remarkable to find a rock-inscription here, proving the fact of its having been in existence for a thousand years at least.

The inscription which has to be reached by means of a ladder is cut on a rock at the side of the road. It consists of two lines 3' 1" and 3' 2" respectively in length. The letters vary from 1" to 2" in size and, though irregular in shape, are distinct and legible throughout, except where the stone is broken. This is unfortunately the case in the latter half of the second line, where the letters are crossed by a number of cracks which have disfigured several of them beyond recognition.

Owing to this circumstance, I have not been able to make out the exact purport of the document. It seems to record the appointment of a certain Rajaputra (whose name is illegible) to some post. This at least seems to follow from the word purokṛtah (read puraskṛtah) at the end of the second line. The main interest, therefore, lies in the first line which is legible throughout and contains the name of a Raja which I read: Mṛtyunjaya-varmma-devs. The use of the royal titles and of the cognomen varman renders it highly probable that the person bearing that name was one of the early rulers of Brahmor or Chamba, though his name does not occur in the Vamśāvalī.

The inscription is undated, but its character bears a close resemblance to that used in the records of Vidagdha's reign. This is particularly striking in the shape of the s which has a pouch and not an angular loop as is regularly found in later Saradā inscriptions. The r also presents a type peculiar to the 10th century. Post-consonantic e is expressed by a horizontal stroke running from the top of the aksara towards the proper right.

On the strength of palæographical evidence we may, therefore, assign the Proli-rā-gaļā inscription to the 10th century of our era. Assuming Mṛtyunjaya-varman to have been a ruler of the house of Muṣaṇa, the question arises whether he is to be placed before or after Sāhilla. In other words, was his capital Brahmor or Chambā? Geographically both alternatives are possible, as the Basu pargaṇā presumably belonged to the ancient Brahmor State. Two points may be noticed. From Sāhilla onwards the Vaṃśāvalī becomes fairly reliable, whereas for the preceding period it cannot claim the same degree of historical value. It is, therefore, more likely that a name should have been left out in the earlier portion. Secondly, it is noteworthy that all documents after Sāhilla are dated, whereas those of the period previous to his reign are not. In this respect the Proli-rā-gaļā inscription agrees with the earlier records. Weak though these arguments are, they perhaps justify us, in the absence of other evidence, in provisionally placing Mṛtyunjaya-varman between Meru-varman and Sāhilla, but considerably nearer to the latter from whom he cannot have been separated by more than a century.

TEXT

स्वस्ति महाराजाधिराज¹-परमेश्वर-त्रीमृत्वुस्त्रयवर्कादेव ॥

(1. 2) यद्यादेवाज्ञया परवकस्या राजपुच चु(?) . . . त . [खत] सच पुरोकतः

¹ The stroke following m cannot be part of the inscription. The a stroke of has is uncertain.

This word I cannot explain; the third akeara is perhaps ca.

TRANSLATION.

Hail! The king of kings, the supreme lord, the illustrious and divine Mṛtyufijaya-varman. By order of the king the Rājaputra . . . has been appointed

No. 12.—SVAIM IMAGE INSCRIPTION OF RAJANAKA BHOGATA.

(PLATE XIII.)

This inscription is cut on the base of a stone image of Devī Astabhujī which is placed in the village shrine of Svāim (map Sai), a hamlet of the Himgiri parganā, 1 mile east of Himgiri Kōthī. The Himgiri parganā forms part of the Curāh wazārat. The shrine, which measures nearly 11'9" by 11' exteriorly, contains a cella or gambhīrā of nearly 4'4" by 4' in which the image is enshrined.

The statuette which is 3'3" high and 1'10" wide is carved on one side only. It represents the goddess in the act of slaying the evil demons. She is shown standing in the archer-attitude (Skr. ālīdhāsana¹)—the favourite position of deities in their angry mood. She wears a diadem, heavy ear-pendants and various other ornaments. Her forehead is marked with the frontal eye. She is eight-armed, whence the name Asṭabhujī by which she is often indicated. With two hands she clasps her formidable weapon the trident (Skr. triśūla) on the prongs of which struggles a demon who still raises his sword for a desperate blow at the goddess. In her remaining three right hands she holds a long sword, a thunderbolt (Skr. vajra) and a sword-shaped mace. Two left hands hold a bell (Skr. ghantā) and a bow. With her eighth hand she seizes the hair of a second demon, armed with sword and shield, who struggles in vain to escape her grip. The two demons are no doubt the Asura kings, Sumbha and Nisumbha, whose destruction is extolled as one of the greatest deeds of Devī.²

The feet of the goddess are hidden behind a miniature balustrade formed by a row of eight dwarf pilasters. The two central ones support an arch under which a figurine, apparently male, is seated. It occupies the same position as Aruna the charioteer in images of Sūrya. The Buddhist goddess Vajra-varāhī "the Sheboar of the Thunderbolt" is also accompanied by a similar figure, which is supposed to drive her team of seven hogs. But in the present case the meaning of this attendant figure is by no means clear. It is a frequent practice in Indian art to represent, at the feet of a divine image, a miniature effigy of the donor or donors of the sculpture. But such figurines are always shown in a much more respectful pose than is the case here. Otherwise we might take it to be a portrait of Rāṇā Bhogata, the son of Somata, who was the donor of the image.

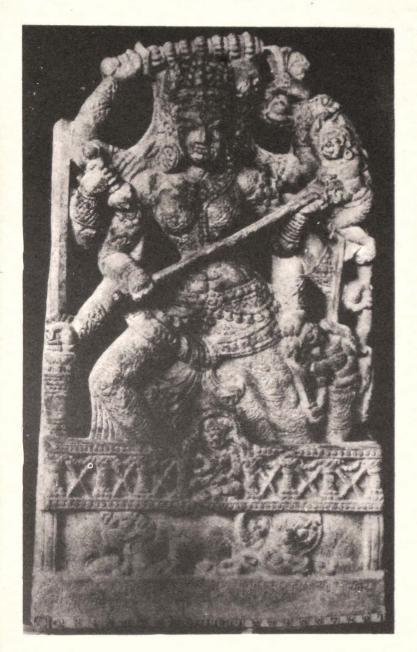
On the front of the pedestal we see two ferocions lions devouring the body of the Buffalo demon, whose discomfiture is regarded as a no less famous exploit of Pārvatī than her victory over Sumbha and Niśumbha.³ In plastic art she is usually

¹ Foucher, Iconographie bouddhique (Paris, 1900) p. 67, n. 2.

² It is soug in Chapters 1X and X of the *Durgā-saptašatī* which forms part of the *Mārkanācya-purāṇa*. A reference to Pārvatī's victory over Sumbha and Nisumbha occurs in the last verse of the sixth act of the *Mṛcchakaṭikā*.

³ Ci. Durgā-saptasatī, Chapters II and III.

Svāim inscribed Devī Image.



HEIGHT 3' 8"



represented in the act of piercing the Mahisasura with her trident. An instance of this is the statue of Laksana Devi at Brahmor. The presence of two lions on the base of the Svaim image is surprising. It is true that according to the texts, the lion of Parvati took an active part in the fighting, but we read only of one lion. I presume that the second lion here is due to the fact that in Indian sculpture a throne (Skr. simhāsana) is invariably supported by two such animals.

The inscription consists of two lines, which measure $20\frac{1}{2}''$ and $5\frac{1}{4}''$ respectively. The aksaras are from $\frac{1}{2}''$ to $\frac{3}{4}''$ in length. They are clearly cut and legible throughout. The inscription is not dated but, on the strength of palæographical evidence, may be assigned to the 9th or 10th century of our era. The type of the letters with their clongated, mostly nail-headed and decoratively twisted strokes shows some similarity to that used in the inscriptions of Meru-varman. Especially the k and t with their twisted tails have an early type. Some of the letters, however, (e.g. n, k and θ) exhibit a later stage of development. It may, therefore, be better described as a transition from the ornamental script of the 7th and 8th centuries to the early Sarada, as found in the Sarahan praéasti (No. 13).

The language is Sanskrit, but the number of grammatical errors is remarkable, considering the briefness of the record. In this respect also the Svaim inscription reminds us of the epigraphs of Meru-varman. Here also we find the prakritism kārāpitah for kāritah. The meaning of the preceding word bhaktā is not clear. It can, of course, be connected with the immediately preceding Bhagabhati. which evidently stands for Bhagavati. But after the name of the deity represented by the image one naturally expects a word meaning "an image." I do not see how bhakta can be explained in this manner. For the rest, the purport of the inscription is clear, notwithstanding the corruptness of the language. A difficulty remains with regard to the last word which is the name of the donor of the image. The reading is undoubtedly Sri-Bhogatesyah. The visarga may be eliminated. In ungrammatical inscriptions like the present we often find it used at random as a kind of ornament at the end of a sentence or word. But how to explain the vowel e in the last but one syllable. I presume that the author of the inscription hesitated between the instrumental Bhogatena and the genitive Bhogatasya and, by confusing the two, produced the impossible form Bhogatesya. Anyhow the word must be an a stem. Compare Somata the name of the donor's father. Other instances of a man's name ending in ta are Āsata (Nos. 25-27), Bhogata (No. 15), Jāsata (Nos. 28-29), Prakata (No. 17, 1. 3) and Surambhata (No. 25, 1, 16).2

The Svāim inscription records the construction of the image of Bhagavati, i.e. Devi, on which it is found, by order of a Rāṇā Bhogaṭa, the son of Somaṭa, born in the district of Keṣkindha. It is of interest as the earliest document in which the word rājānaka "a rāṇā" occurs. The expression "born in the district of Keṣkindha," if applied to Somaṭa, does not necessarily imply that his son Bhogaṭa resided

¹ Bhakta, though a past participle, is used in an active sense.

² I quote, moreover, the following examples from other sources: Bapputa (Kājat. VII 442, 572 and in Papputa devi V 282, 1290), Bhapputa (Rājat. IV 214; Cipputa (Rājat. IV 676, etc.), Dhammata (Rājat. VII 618, etc.), Hembata (Gupta Inser. p. 190), Kalata (Rājat. V 66), Mungata (Rājat. VII 589, VIII 1090), Sangata (Rājat. VII 589 P), VIII 1090, 2178), Senata (Rājat. VII 482) and Varnata (Rājat. VI 90, etc.).

³ Grammatically the compound Keskindha-visayotrana(nna) can, of course, be just as well applied to Somaşa-puttra, i.e. to Bhogata.

in that country. I feel, however, inclined to assume that this was the sense which the author of the inscription wished to convey, as Bhogata was probably the hereditary Rāṇā of the tract round Svāim. If so, this must have been the district designated by the name of Keskindha. It is impossible to say how far it extended, but, as the old baronies are said to have often corresponded with the modern parganās, we may roughly say that, in all probability, Keskindha is the ancient name of the Himgiri parganā. The name does not seem to have survived.

In the Sarahan prakasti (No. 13, ll. 3-4) mention is made of "a lord of Kişkindha" whose daughter Somaprabhā was married to Sātyaki, the son of Bhogata, evidently a Rānā residing in the Sāu valley. I have little doubt that this Kişkindhikā is the same country which is called Keşkindha in the Svāim inscription. Possibly the c in the first syllable is due merely to a clerical error. This assumption, if correct, would render it the more probable that Kişkindha corresponds roughly with the Himgiri parganā. For it was only natural that the chief of Sāhō should intermarry with the family of a neighbouring Rānā.

TEXT.

भो खास्त ॥ भगभित भक्ता कारापितः त्रीकेिकिन्धविषयोत्पन-सोमटपुत्र-राजानक-सकलागुण-गणलंक (1,2) त-प्रदीरा-त्रीभोगटेस्यः॥

CORRECTED READING.

भों खस्ति ॥ भगवती भक्ता कारिता श्री-किष्कित्यविषयीत्पन्न-सोमटपुत्र-राजानक-सकत्त-गुणगणालंक (1. 2)तश्रदीर-श्री-भोगटेन ॥

TRANSLATION.

Hail! [This image of] the revered (?) Bhagavati² has been made by order of the Rāṇā, the illustrious Bhogaṭa, whose body is adorned with the full number of all virtues, the son of Somaṭa, born in the district of Kiṣkindha.

No. 13.—SARĀHAŅ PRAŚASTI.

(PLATE XV.)

The village of Sarāhan is situated on the left bank of the Sāl rivulet opposite Sāhō (map Sāu), the head-quarters of a parganā of the same name. The distance from Sāhō to Chambā City is $6\frac{1}{2}$ miles as the crow flies, and about 8 miles by road. In the village temple of Sarāhan—an insignificant little building of a type common in the Panjāb Hills—an inscribed stone was pointed out to me, remarkable both for its workmanship and excellent preservation. Since May 1908 the stone is preserved in the Chambā State Museum and is entered in the Museum catalogue as No. A, 1. The inscription is carved on the front and the back of the slab, the inscribed sides being 22" in width and $6\frac{1}{4}$ " in height. It consists of twenty-two lines, of which eleven, each measuring 21" in length, are found on the obverse and the

¹ There can hardly be any connection between this Kişkindha and the mythical realm of the monkey kings Sugriva and Välin which has given its name to the fourth canto of the Rūmāyana.

Bhagavati is the feminine form of Rhagavan which is used to designate deities and deified saints, especially Buddha and Krena. The most correct rendering would be "Lord." Bhagavati, therefore, is almost equivalent to "our Lady."

remaining nine lines, each $20\frac{1}{3}$ long, on the reverse, the last line being only $14\frac{1}{3}$. The average size of the letters is $\frac{3}{3}$.

The obverse is in a perfect state of preservation. Some small pieces have flaked off along the edges, but this has hardly affected the lettering. Of the reverse the two upper corners are broken, by which the first and last two aksaras of the 12th line have become lost. The initial syllable can be nothing but ra. The two at the end of the line I have restored in accordance with a conjecture made by Pandit Nityānand Śāstrī of Śrīnagar (Kaśmīr). Here also I believe the restoration may be regarded as certain. For the rest, the execution is such that there cannot be the slightest doubt as to the meaning of any of the characters.

The inscription, except the initial mangala, is composed in Sanskrit poetry and consists of twenty-two verses. The first and last, which are benedictory, are in the $Ary\bar{a}$ metre, the second and third in the Vasantatilaka. The remaining stanzas are $Upaj\bar{a}ti$, except verses 18 and 19 which have a long syllable at the beginning of each $p\bar{a}da$, and therefore belong to the $Indravajr\bar{a}$ variety. It will be seen that this diversity of metre has a close connection with the nature of the contents of the poem. The verses are not numbered in the original, but simply marked by a double stroke at the end. The single stroke after the second $p\bar{a}da$ is often omitted.

The author of the inscription was evidently well acquainted with the rules of Sanskrit grammar and rhetoric, and therefore a good poet in the Indian sense of the word. The only objection we can make to his language is the frequent use of such burdensome adjectives as kāthinyabhāj (l. 11), aruņabhāvabhāj (l. 13), šubhratvabhāj (l. 14), kṛśatākula (l. 15) and vyākośatā-śālin (ll. 17-18) which, after all, convey no more sense than kathina, aruna, subhra, kṛśa and vyākośa. The two blunders kāthinya-bhājas instead of "bhājā (l. 11) and stāt for syāt (l. 19) are probably due to an oversight. We find also cakkra for cakra (l. 3) and Kartikeya for Kārttikeya (l. 3). The signs for ba and va are often interchanged. For the rest, the orthography of the inscription is unobjectionable. The sign for anusvāra is never used as a substitute for the nasal consonants; it is exclusively found before semi-vowels and sibilants. In the same way the visarga is only used in pausa; whilst before initial sibilants the final sibilant is retained with the necessary modifications. Before hard gutturals and labials we find jihvāmūlīya and upadhmānīya used throughout. Finally, the following uncommon words occurring in the inscription should be noted: vimalimākara (vimaliman-ākara) in l. 2 and sudhā-sūti in 1. 17, both meaning "moon"; pravikasvaratva from vikasvara "full-blown" in 1. 3; and atmaja in 1. 13 with the meaning of "love." The use of pramodollasa for pramodollasa in 1. 8 is hardly justified.

The inscription records the foundation of a temple dedicated to the "moon-crowned" Siva (verse 21) by an individual called Sātyaki (v. 3) the son of Bhogata (v. 2) and married to a lady named Soma prabhā ("Moonlight") of the house of the lord of Kişkindhikā (v. 4). The greater part of the poem (vs.5-20) is devoted to the praise of this lady, whose charms are extolled in the flowery style of Indian erotics. No more information is given regarding the donor, but we may infer from certain expressions (vijitāri-cakkrah v. 3; jayatu pṛthvīm sakalām v. 22); and especially

¹ Uf. manasija, manobhava, manobhū, cetobhava, cetobhū, cittoje, cittajanman, etc.

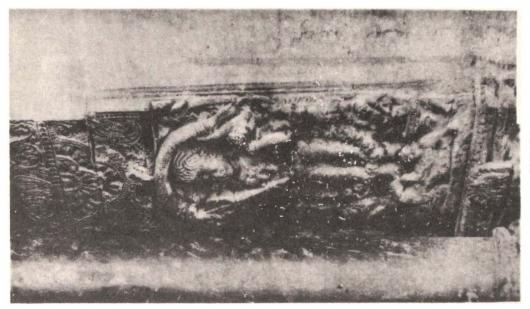
from the term narendra (v. 21) applied to him, and from that of Devi (v. 4), applied to his consort, that he belonged to the warrior caste. The names Bhogata and Sātyaki do not occur in the genealogical list of the Chambā Rājās; nor is there in the epigraph itself any evidence that they belonged to the illustrious house of Mūṣaṇa. More probably they were local chiefs belonging to the class of Rāṇās to whom so many of our Chambā documents owe their existence. We have seen above that Kiṣkindha is the ancient name of the country round Himgiri. It was the seat of a Rāṇā's family, and it was evidently a daughter of that baronial house whose beauty is sung in the Sarāhaṇ eulogy.

The temple founded by Sātyaki is indicated as deva-kulan-kalanka-mukt-endulekh-ānkita-śekharasya (v. 21), and again in the final benedictory stanza Śiva is spoken of as himaraśmiśekhara (v. 22). From this it may be conjectured that the shrine, the foundation of which the inscription records, is not the poor and unimportant village-temple of Sarāhan, but the Śivālaya of Sāhō, known by the name of Candrasekh (Skr. Candraśekhara). At first sight this building, with its high slate roof supported by white-washed pillars, presents quite a modern appearance. But on close samination it will be seen that the cella in which the linga is placed is undoubtedly ancient.

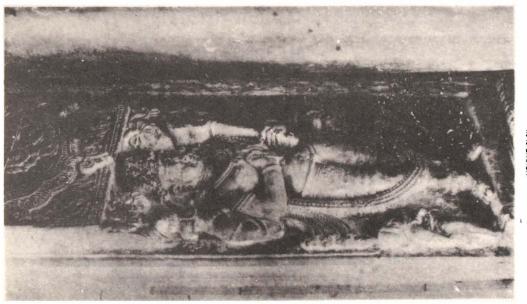


Fig. 24. Temple of Candrasěkh at Sāhō.

This cella, which measures 17' 10" outside and 12' 7" inside in both directions, is oriented east. It contains a large stone linga placed on a stand, 6' 4" square at the top, which is encased in copper sheeting. The walls of the temple are plain.



16:011 2:



HEIGHT 2. 3...

The north wall is pierced by an outlet for the sacrificial water which is provided with a gargoyle in the shape of a makara head. On the south, west and north sides there is an ornamental niche in the centre of the wall. That on the south is surmounted by the figure of a monkey and contains a stone slab which represents Narasimha disembowelling Hiranyakasipu. On the east side are two niches, one on each side of the doorway.

The doorway is the most ornamental part of the temple. The doorlintel is supported by two pillars with round shafts and capitals of the pot-and-foliage type. The bracket-capitals are provided with supporting figurines. Both sides of the entrance are elaborately carycd. The lower half of each doorjamb is decorated with a standing figure of Siva, measuring 2'3" in height (plate XIV). That to the right shows him in his angry form (Skr. kruddha), and that to the left in his benevolent mood (Skr. śānta, prasanna). The right-hand figure has three faces and six arms. With two hands he holds the ends of an elephant-headed snake swung over his head. The other two right hands hold a trident and an object which is perhaps the hilt of a sword or mace. The left hands hold the heads of two demons. The god wears a long necklace of human heads and, as sacred thread, a snake. He stands on a corpse and is attended by two miniature chowrie-carriers. The left-hand figure represents Siva four-armed. In his right hands he holds a flower and a rosary, and in his left hands a trident and a waterpot. He is also accompanied by two chowrie-bearers. The roof and the verandah with its twelve neatly stuccoed pillars are said to have been built about A.D. 1900, after the temple had been damaged by a flood. In front of the temple is a sunk courtyard which contains a large stone slab pierced with an octagonal hole. Apparently it once belonged to the stand of a linga. On the other side of this courtyard opposite the temple, stands a large stone figure of Siva's bull Nandi, 6' 4" high, which is entirely blackened with oil. It has very elaborate trappings, in which demon-heads are introduced, and a decorative coverlet carved with a row of geese on each side and an eight-petalled lotus on the top in the manner of a saddle. The bell, suspended from the neck of the animal, is broken on the proper left side. For the rest, the statue is well preserved. A male figurine, said to represent a cowherd, hangs at its tail. Such figures I have often noticed on Nandi images in the Panjab Hills.

Tradition ascribes the foundation of the Candrasekhara temple to Sāhilla-varman. Though, in view of our inscription, this tradition must be rejected, it may be taken to afford an approximate date both for the temple and for the record of its construction. The circumstance that the inscription is undated points to its being one of the earlier epigraphs found in Chambā. Some peculiarities of the script contirm this conclusion. The na has a shape different from that found in other Sāradā inscriptions but very similar to that of the time of Meru-varman. It is also noteworthy that in $p\bar{a}$, $m\bar{a}$ and $y\bar{a}$ the vowel-sign is attached to the consonant by means of a long horizontal stroke which does not touch the upright, in exactly the same manner as in the copper-plate grant of Vidagdha, Sāhilla's grandson. The inscription may, therefore, be assigned to the 10th century and to the time of Sāhilla or one of his immediate successors.

TEXT

भी खस्ति ॥

जयित शिव एव ईश्रस्तीमप्रभया विभूषित-शरीर:। सततानुरक्त-गौरी-देशार्ध-निबद्ध-सद्भाव: ॥ १ ॥ चासील्रशस्त गुण-गौरव-दृत्त-यु (ो. 2) क्तं पर्यक्रसिंदमिलमाकर-राजि-शुद्ध:। त्री-भोगटो भुवन-भूषण-भूत-मृतिंस्य्यक्त-मौक्तिक्त-मणि-प्रतिमं पृथिखाम् ॥ २ ॥ तस्माद्रजा (l. 3) यत जयन्त इवामरेन्द्राचन्द्रार्थ-शिखर-धरादिव कार्तिकेय: । मो-सात्यकि अण्यि-दैन्य-निराकरिक्णविक्णर्यथा पृथ-गुक्तो विजितारि-चक्कः ॥ ३ ॥ किष्कि (l. 4) स्थिक।धीय-कुले प्रसूता सीमप्रभा नाम बभूव तस्य। देवी जगद्गषण-भूत-मूर्तिस्त्रिलोचनस्येव गिरोश-पुत्री॥४॥ चपूर्वमिन्द्रभ्यविधाय विधास्मदा-(l. 5) स्मृरत्कान्ति-कलङ्ग-मृक्षम् । सम्पूर्ण-विम्बं वदनं यदोयमभूत्तराङ्गण्टिकताङ्ग-यष्टिः॥ ५॥ नानाविधासङ्गति-सिववेष-विशेष-रम्या गुणशासिनी या। (1. 6) मनोच्चरत्वं सुतरामवाप सचेतसां सत्कवि-भारतीव ॥ ६ । ग्रङ्गार-सिन्धो× किमियव बेला कि वा मनोभू-तर्-मञ्जरी स्यात्। वमन्त-राजस्य नु रा(1 7)न्य-लक्ष्मीस्त्रैलोक्य-मौन्दर्य-समाप्तृतिर्न्॥ ७॥ जगन्नयी-वथ्य-विधान-दत्ता विद्या मनो-मोहनिकाभिधा नु। इ.स.च्चनो जात-वितर्क-राशिर्यस्या न निश्चेतुमभू (l. 8) त्समर्थः ॥ ८ ॥ चण्यमोदोल्लसया समेतो दशा चणं विसाय-गर्भया चः चाणं वितर्का कुल-रूपया च पश्यञ्जनो याम्बहुभावको भृत् ॥ ८ ॥ या च हिरेफ-दाति-(1. 9) केश-पाशम्बभित धात्रा कुसुमायुधाय । जगन्नयी-मानस-संयमार्थङ्कतम्प्यङ्कर्तमभीष्स्नेव² ॥ १० ॥ ममानत-भू-धनुषा कटाच-विचेष-बार्णर्ज(1. 10)नता-मनांसि । चाक्रान्तवत्या सतरां विजित्य निराश्ययो कारि यया मनोभः॥ ११॥ यस्या× कपोली परिपाण्ड्राङ्गी सीन्दर्य-कान्ति-द्रव-निर्भरी च। नेत्रोत्पला(l. 11)नन्य-विधान-दत्ती शशाङ्क-बृडिङ्करतो जनस्य ॥ १२ ॥ रागान्वितेन।प्यधरस्य यस्या× काठिन्य-भाजा सुकुमार-मूर्ते:। न पद्मरागेण रसोजिभतेन सुधा-(1. 12)[र]स-स्थन्दिन द्यापि साम्यम् ॥ १३ ॥ यस्यास वजीकवल-दम्त-राजेर्मणाल-कौमल्य-भृजा-लतायाः। तुङ्गं स-लावण्य-जलं विभाति क्वच-इयन्द् र्गि मि (1. 13)वासाजस्य ॥ १४ ॥ बाल-प्रवालाक्ण-भाव-भाजी कराम्बुजे यद्दर्नन्द-भासा। योगे पि यस्या 🗡 प्रविकस्वरत्वश्वत्तो जने विस्मय-कार्यभूतत् ॥ १५ ॥

¹ The verses are not numbered in the original.

² Cf. Sārngadharapaddhati 3290. चलरकामिमनीमीनमादातुं चित्तज्ञातः। जाखयष्टिरिवाभाति बाला वेणी-गुणीळ्वला॥

³ The original has kāthinya-bhājas.

The lower portion of the sign for ga is still traceable. Cf. Hanumannāţaka II, 6.
 पदापि जनगेलदर्गविषमें सीमिन्निनौना प्रदि

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TRANSLATION.

HATL!

- 1. Victorious is Siva, our Lord, whose body is adorned with moon-light and whose affection is fixed on [that] half of [his] body [consisting] of the ever-devoted Gauri.
- 2. There was on the earth a man of laudable virtues, dignity and deportment pure like the sickle of the glittering shedder of brightness (the Moon), whose form was an ornament of the world and who resembled a jewel of very clear pearls.
- 3. From him was born—even as Jayanta from the Prince of the immortal (Indra) and Kārttikeya from Him who bears the half moon as his diadem (Siva)—the illustrious Sātyaki who used to put away the sorrow of his dear ones—like unto Visnu of abundant virtue and the victor over his enemies' host.
- 4. A daughter of the house of Kiskindhikā's Lord, Soma-prabhā by name, whose form was an ornament of the world, was his queen—even as the daughter of Himālaya (Durgā) [was the queen] of the three-eyed god (Śiva).
- 5. When the Creator had fashioned her face—a moon such as was never seen before, of ever sparkling splendour, devoid of blemish [and] full-orb'd—the hairs on his slender limbs stood on-end.'

तन्त्रक्या गजकुष्मपीनकठिनोत्तृको बद्देन्याः सनी

सध्यः चामतरोऽपि यद्य क्षटिति प्राप्तीति अकं विचा।
तन्त्रको निपुणेन रोमलितकोडेटापर्दश्चादसी

निःसन्दास्तृटलोडम्बसिया संदानिती वेचसा ।

¹ The original has vibhrateva.

² Cf. Śri-Mammata quoted Subhāşitāvalī 1557.

³ The original has nitamva-bimbe.

¹ The original has stat.

⁵ Literally "this Lord."

An evident allusion to the name of the lady to whose praise the greater part of the poem is devoted.

⁷ The Creator himself was in raptures over her face, which resembled and, at the same time, surpassed the moon as it was never obscured by eclipses or clouds, had no markings and was not subject to different phases.

- 6. She, exceeding lovely and rich in virtues, attained by the cunning disposition of various ornaments still greater charm in the eyes of the men of taste, like the Muse of a good poet.'
- 7. "Can she be the high-tide of the ocean of passion, or a cluster of blossoms on the tree of love, or the presiding goddess of the realm of king Spring, or the sum of the beauty of the three worlds?
- 8. Or a spell named 'Mind-perplexing,' capable of rendering the three worlds obedient?" Thus lost in a multitude of doubts, one cannot decide about her.
- 9. Beholding her with an eye, now sparkling with joy, then pregnant with amazement, and then again confused with doubt, one was bewildered and full of imaginings.
- 10. She bears a lock (lit., sling) of hair, glittering like a bee, made by the Creator—desirous, as it were, to show favour to the flower-armed One (Cupid) that he may fetter [with it] the hearts of the three worlds.
- 11. By her who, with the bent bow of her brows and with the arrows of her side-long glances, has attacked and completely conquered the hearts of mankind Cupid has been rendered shelter-less.³
- 12. Her cheeks, of a very pale hue and full of the essence of beauty and loveliness, capable of causing delight to the night-lotuses which are the eyes [of her admirers], make on the people the impression of the Hare-marked One (the Moon).
- 13. Her lip is not equalled by the ruby, though endowed with [a like] redness; for the one partakes of hardness³ and has no moisture, the other is soft-shaped and nectar-distilling:
- 14. Her rows of teeth beam like diamonds; her slender arms are soft like lotus-stalks; her pair of breasts, high and watered with charm, appear [like a castle] of Cupid.4
- 15. That her lotus-like hands, possessing the ruddy appearance of young buds, remain expanded in the brightness of her moon-like face, even when in contact [with each other], caused amazement among the people.⁵
- 16. With the flashing net of her ray-like nails, gifted with whiteness, of spotless nature, exceeding captivating, she seems to scatter bundles of pearls in all directions.
- 17. The Creator who was afraid that, by carrying the burden of her breasts, her slender waist might break, has bound it with a girdle of multitudinous folds.
- 18. The dolphin-bannered One (Cupid), perceiving that she contains exquisite treasures of grace and dalliance and such-like pearls, has, in order to guard these, shaped her navel like a seal.

¹ According to the laws of Indian rhetoric, good poetry has three virtues (guna), namely vigour (gas), serenity prasāda), and sweetness(mādhurya). The ornaments (alankāra) of speech are an essential part of it.

[&]quot; Kama dwells in the human hearts, whence his epithet munobhū.

³ I have translated according to the proposed emendation.

^{*} The words between brackets are missing in the original.

⁵ The red lotus is expanded only in the day-time, and not when the moon shines.

⁶ The three-folds (trivati) about the waist are considered a mark of female beauty. Cf. Kumārasumbhava I. 39. It is duly indicated on the Devi images of Meru-varman; cf. above, p. 138.

- 19. The eye roaming over her broad, round buttocks is wholly bewildered. She has thighs yellowish like the centre of a lotus, well-matched like two honest men.
- 20. If a tendril-like beam of the Nectar-shedder (the Moon) fell on a widely expanded red lotus, then were there an image of the net of her ray-like nails on her pair of rosy lotus-like feet.'
- 21. "May there be an unshaken friendship between her (Soma-prabhā) and the Mountain daughter (Durgā)." With this wish that prince (Sātyaki) had this temple built to Him whose diadem is marked with the stainless sickle of the Moon (Siva).
- 22. Victorious be [Siva] He, whose diadem is the cool-rayed One (the Moon) and may this temple be of high renown, as long as the wealth-bestowing One (the Earth) [endures] and may the illustrious Sātyaki conquer the entire Earth!

No. 14.—BRAHMOR COPPER-PLATE INSCRIPTION OF YUGAKARA-VARMAN.—(PLATE XVI AND Fig. 15.)

The copper-plate which contains this inscription is $13\frac{1}{3}$ " wide by $8\frac{1}{4}$ " high. The average size of the letters is $\frac{3}{16}$ ". The epigraph consists of nineteen lines, besides the subscription which is written vertically on the proper right margin. The plate is far from entire. The four corners are broken away, which has led to the loss of the symbol om and the first two aksaras of the signature in the upper proper right corner, and of the last five aksaras of the first line and of the upper portions of the last four aksaras of the second line in the upper proper left corner. In the lower corners the first four aksaras of each of the last two lines are missing to the proper right, whilst the ends of the last six lines are missing to the proper left in such a manner that of line 14 only the last aksara is damaged and of line 19 nine aksaras are lost. In the upper part of the plate a broken piece of $2\frac{1}{2}$ " by $1\frac{3}{4}$ " has been fastened on with clamps by which several aksaras of the first four lines have been injured or destroyed. Most of the missing portions can be restored.

The inscription opens with a Mālinī stanza in praise of Siva, the soul of the universe (ll. 1-2). In the following passage (ll. 3-6) we find the names of the donor Yagākara varman and of his parents Sāhilla and Nennā. Both Sāhilla and Yugākara hold a prominent place in the Vamšāvalī, especially the former as founder of the town of Chambā and of the temple of Laksmī-Nārāyana. The passage in which the grant is defined (ll. 6-10) is far from clear, owing partly to the number of proper names and what apparently are sanskritized vernacular words, and partly to the loose syntactical construction and absence of signs of punctuation.

As the flower of the red lotus is closed at night, the condition proposed by the pact is never fulfilled, in other words, the combination of her feet which are red like a lotus and of her nails glittering like the moon, is without a parallel. The name of the alankara used here is atisayokti. Cf. Sākitya-darpana X 694.

² With this verse may be compared Bhagav. 7, 4.

भूमिरापी नली वायु: खं मनी वृद्धिरेव च। चहंकार इतीयं में भिन्ना कळतिरष्ट्या।

² Yagākara is called Yugākara in the charter of his son Vidagdha (No. 15, l. 1) and Yugākāra in the Vamīāvali (sloka 68, 78, 80 and 82). Cf. p. 100 π. 2.

It is of great interest that we meet here with the ancient name of Brahmor. It is Brahmapura and not Varmapura as assumed by Cunningham, presumably on the authority of the Vamsavali. Mention is also made of the hospice (matha) of Khani. This village, which still retains its name (map Kani), is aituated east of the confluence of the Ravi and the Budhal, on the ridge which forms the watershed between these two rivers. It is curious that up to the present day we find several rest-houses for travellers, shaded by mulberry trees at the spot where the road from Ulansa to the village of Brahmor crosses the ridge near Khani. They consist of open wooden pavilions called bilang. The other two villages mentioned are Vidavikā, perhaps the modern Barei (map Barai) and Grima which is still known by the same name. Barei is situated about half-way between Brahmor and Khani on the road which connects these two places. Grima lies above Barei on the ridge which separates the Ravi and Budhal valleys. It is passed by the road which leads from Brahmor to Trehta, a tract on the left bank of the Upper Ravi. In none of these villages any traditions seem to exist regarding rent-free land having been situated there. It is, therefore, impossible to identify the fields described in the title deed and to interpret the passage satisfactorily. There is, however, above Grima a field, "Kuti" by name, which, I believe, may be identified with the Kutika of the inscription.3 Vernacular names, it should be noticed, are regularly sanskritized by adding the termination ka (cf. beneath kolhika). The "Kuti" field belongs at present to the Gaddis Juahri and Bhandari. It is said to yield two piras in two years, namely, a crop of wheat (kanak) and a crop of buckwheat (bharës). This would well agree with the statement in the inscription that the Kulikā field yielded 1 pilaka, that is, annually. This Sanskrit pilaka is the modern pira, which is the twentieth part of a khāri and consists of 20 mānis, a māni being equivalent to 2 pakkā sēr. A pirā consequently amounts to 40 sēr. The term vapya may either be connected with the Sanskrit root vap- " to sow " and rendered as "arable land" or it may be derived from vapi (tank) and explained as "land watered from tanks." The latter interpretation seems to me preferable as we have a parallel in the word kolhika. This word is evidently sanskritized kolhi, which in Chamba indicates an irrigated field used for rice cultivation. It frequently occurs in the vernacular portions of the Chamba title-deeds of the Muhammadan period. The word is derived from kuhl(a) "a channel," Skr. kulyā, Kaśm. kul.

Vāpya would, therefore, correspond with Persian <u>chāh</u> from <u>chāh</u> (well) and kolhika with Persian nāhrī from nahr (canal). The second member of the proper name Sabda-bagga is evidently a vernacular term, bag meaning "a field." It also occurs in Khani-bagga and Prāha-bagga, names of fields mentioned in Vidagdha's copper-plate grant (No. 15, 1.13). Now-a-days it is still used in the names of fields

¹ A. S. R. Vol. XIV, p. 110, and Ancient Geography, p. 141.

² Skr. khani means "a mine."

³ In the Kulu dislect the generic word kut means, "cultivated land lying at a high elevation yielding in the course of two years only two crops, buckwheat followed by wheat." Cf. Disck, The Kulu Dislect of Hinds (Lahore, 1896), p. 75.

A pird is said to be equivalent to a dron (Skr. drona) and a mani to a path (Skr. prastha). The path is the unit used in Kulu for measuring grain. Cf. A. R. A. S. 1903-04, pp. 263 f. also Rajat. IV 203.

¹ Cf. Dinck, op. cit. i. v. khol.

such as, "Hola-bag" in Grima, "Sat-bag" in Malkota and "Bag" alone as the name of a field at Khani. In Brahmor baggi is used to denote a field in general.

The donee of Yugakara's grant was the god Narasimha, the man-lion incarnation of Vianu, whose image had been erected by Queen Tribhuvana-rekhā, perhaps the consort of the donor. There can be little doubt that this is the same image which is still worshipped in one of the ancient temples of Brahmor (Plate VIII b). "The figure," Cunningham' says, "is seated on a Singhasan or lion throne, and is remarkable for its ferocious aspect and horrible wide jaws. There are traces of an inscription on the pedestal, but the letters are so much decayed that I was obliged to give up the attempt to copy it." In the Vainśāvalī (śloka 45) the Narasimha temple along with the others is ascribed to Meru-varman, but this can hardly be correct. The temple is no longer in possession of the lands described in the title-deed, and the copper-plate has now been deposited in the Chambā State Museum.

The concluding portion of the inscription contains no less than six stansas—all in the Anustubh (bloka) metre—regarding the Jānadharma. Then follow the date, the 10th year—presumably of Yugākara's reign—the name of the messenger (dūta) and that of the writer, the latter partly missing, and finally the subscription of the donor.

The language of Yugakara's grant is far from correct. Altogether we count in it more than fifty mistakes. A few of these errors are evidently due to want of care on the part of the engraver who left out syllables or attered them. Thus we find tava (l. 2) for Bhava, prayacha for prayacchatu (l. 14), tad for etad (l. 16); pālapālanānā (l. 15) for pālanāt = paramam; anodakešu rane šupka- (l. 18) for anudakesu vanėsu suska-; tra ksapatika (l. 19) for trāksapatalika. The frequent omission of the visarga and anusvara may also be partly attributed to the engraver. Instances are pādapa (l. 5), va (l. 11), janapadānā (l. 11), sarvai (l. 13), vaie (l. 14), dharma (l. 15), sabija (l. 17), tadāgānā (l. 17) and -māliņi (l. 17). On the other hand, süyukrtām (l. 17) ought to be süryakrtā. But the great majority of mistakes, no doubt, result from the ignorance of the author of the document. Trespasses against the samdhi rules are very frequent, e.g. devyodara-(l. 4) for devyudara or devyā udara; niyogasthām (l. 10) for niyogasthān; savāsā (l. 11) for savāsān; agrahāratveti (l. 12) for agrahāratva iti; paramo svarga (l. 15) for paramak svargo. The final consonants of terminations are often missing, e.g., madhyā (l. 7), prāmānyā (1. 13), asmi (1. 14), kaści (1. 14), bhave (1. 14), vyatikrame (1. 15), pālanā (1. 15), ci (l. 16). Wrong terminations are used in bhage (l. 14), samulpanne (l. 14), pālanā (l. 16), loke (l. 17). The form vasāpayatu is a prakritism like the past participle kārāpita of Meru-varman's inscriptions, Substitution of na for na in Trinayana (l. 12), Tribhuvana (l. 12) and -malini is due to the influence of the vernacular, likewise the substitution of sa for sa in sāsana (ll. 13 and 15). The double consonant is replaced by the single one in bhataraka (ll. 3 and 5), bhatarika (l. 4) and [da]tvā (l. 17).

¹ The word bag is possibly derived from Skr. varga meaning "group, section, division."

² Cf. Cunningham, A. S. R. Vol. XIV, p. 110.

TEXT.

बस्ति: ॥ भो गणपतये नम: ॥ भ 🔾 🔾 सलिन-विक्व-विक्वाम-वायुक्तिराता 🔾 🔾 🔾 U (1. 2) पुराण स्वाङ्ग-संभूत योने । इर तव भिव भवे श्रम्बकेशान केंद्र विणयन व्रवसाङ्ग-(1.3) नन्तमूर्ते नमस्ते ॥ त्री-चण्पका-वासात्परमब्रह्मान्य-देव-दिज-गुक-भक्त-परमभटारक-म-(1. 4) हाराजाधिराज-परमेश्वर-त्रीमत्माहिल-देव-पादानुष्यात-परमभटारिका-महाराज्ञी-त्री-नेवा-देखोदर-समुत्य (1. 5) वो एकारातिचक-निर्मुलन-महादान-सल्लि-सेत्-सम्भिर्धित-यग्रू-पादप ॥ परमभटारक महाराजा (l. 6) धिराज-परमेश्वर-श्रीमदागाकरवर्म-देव× क्याली स्वयास्यमान-ब्रह्मपुर-मण्डल-प्रतिबद्ध-विडविका- (l. 7) ग्राम-प्रतिबद्ध-पूर्वे खणी-मठस्य कोल्हिक-सत्त-भू २ एषां मध्या इरिइन्न-रांकिल-स्वतस्य प्रविष्टं ग्रन्ट-बमा (l. 8) नाम चेत्र तस्य परिवर्ते दत्तं ग्रिम-ग्रामे चन्दि श्राक्तटनागविक-सत्क-रहङ्ग-सृत गण-भुख्यमाना कुटिका-वाप्ये- (1. 9) य धाना-पिटकमेक दतम (े) तथा खणी-मठस्य-सिक्कष्ट-यमलिका-याकवाटिका तत्र वाध्ये पिटक-इय (1.10) सङ्गत ॥ उभी कुटिका-सिंहत पि ३ तथा धारुवाटिकार्धेच । सर्वानेव नियोगस्यां राज-राजानक-राजस्थानी-(l. 11) य सर्व-सवासा बोधयत्यस्त व संविदितम प्रतिवासि-जनपदाना भागिकादीनां साष्टादय-प्रकृत्यादीनां मञ्चा- (1. 12) राज्ञी-स्वी-विभुवणरेखा-देव्या प्रतिष्ठित-नर-सिइस्य' योमलकतस्या प्रतिप्रहेणाग्रहारत्वेति प्रतिपादितम् (1.13) विदित्वा कीर्तितानकीर्तितै सर्वे राजपुरुषेर जमन्तव्यम यतो साग्रदत्त-शाश्रन-प्रामान्या वसतु वसाप- (l. 14) यतु भागेन प्रयक् नक्षेत्र चित्परिपत्वता कार्या । प्राम्म वशे समत्वत्रे य× कश्चि तृपतिर्भवे तस्त्राहं ह[स्त-] (l. 15) सने सि प्राप्यनं मा व्यतिक्रमे। पालनात्परमो धर्म पाल-पासनाना तपः पालना परमो स्वर्ग गरी -- (l. 16) न पालना । यिकांचि कुरुते पापं जन्म-प्रभृति मानवः तहोचर्म-माबेण भूमिइर्ता न भुद्धाते। पाक्रष्ट — — (l. 17) त्वा सबीजा समा-मालिणी। यावस्य-क्रता लीके तावत्स्वर्गे मङ्गोयते। तत्वागाना सङ्ग्रेण — — — — — (1.18) — — — — कोटि-प्रदानेन सूमिइती न गुद्धाते। चनोदकेगुरने गुप्क-कोटर-वासिग्र कृष्ण-स — — — — — — (l. 19) — — — — न्ति ये॥ संवत् १० वैद्याख वित १० द्रती त चपटिकः न्नी-विव**खलखित कायस्य-जा** — —

(1. 20) — - धगाकरवम-देव-खहस्तः ।

CORRECTED READING.

भी सिस्तः ॥ भी गणपतये नमः ॥ भवनि-सिलल-विक्व-विद्योम-वायुन्तरात $0 \cdot 0 \cdot 0$ $0 \cdot (1, 2)$ पुराण स्वाष्ट्र-संभूत-योने । इर भव ियव यर्षे स्थान्तेशान रुद्र विनयन द्यमाङ्गाः (1, 3) नम्तमूर्ते नमस्ते ॥ श्री-चणपका-वासात्परमञ्ज्ञाः त्य-देव-दिज-गुरु-भक्त-परमभद्दारक-म (1, 4) हाराजाधिराज-परमेश्वर-श्रीमत्साहिल-देव-पादानुध्यात-परमभद्दारिका-महाराज्ञी-श्रो-नेवा-देव्युद्दर-समुत्य- (1, 5) नी उने काराति-चक्र-निर्मूलन-महामान-सिलल-सेतु-सम्भिविधित-यश्वX-पादपः परमभद्दारक-महाराजा- (1, 6) धिराज-परमेश्वर-श्रीमद्यगाकरवर्म-देवX कुशली स्वशास्त्रमान-ब्रह्मपुर-मण्डल-पृतिबह-विडिविका- (1, 7) याम-पृतिबह-पूर्वे खणी-मठस्य कील्हिक-सत्त-भू २ एषा

¹ The aksaras of this word are partly damaged, but the reading is certain.

This word, except the last aksars, has evidently been added at a time subsequent to the engraving of the grant.

³ The akşara which I read no is not clear and has almost the shape of c. But on account of the preceding ending, I take it to be ne, in which the vowel-stroke has become amalgamated with the letter proper.

Brahmor Copper-plate Grant.

ALE 0-7

मध्यादं रिहत्न-रांकिल-सुतस्य प्रविष्टं ग्रन्टबगा- (1. 8) नाम चेत्रं तस्य परिवर्ते दत्तं विम-ग्रामे चापि (?) चाकुटनामिवक-सत्त-रइक्क-सृत-गण-भुज्यमान-कुटिका-वाप्ये (1. 9) य-धाना-पिटक-मेकं दत्तम तथा खणी-मठस्य संनिकष्ट-यमिकका गाकवाटिका तत्र वाध्ये पिटक-इय-(l. 10) मक्रतः २॥ उभी क्रिटिका-सिक्तं पि ३ तथा शाकं (१) वाटिकार्धं च। सर्वानेव नियोगस्थान राज-राजानक-राजस्थानी- (l. 11) यान्सर्व-सवासान् बोधयत्यस्त् वः संविदितं प्रतिवासि-अनपदानां भोगिकादीनां साष्टदश-प्रकृत्यादीनां सहा- (l. 12) राज्ञी-श्री-विभुवनरेखा-देव्या प्रतिष्ठापित-नरसिंइस्य योमनकंतस्य प्रतिग्रहेणाग्रहारत्व इति प्रतिपादितम् (1. 13) विदित्वा कीर्तिता कीर्तितै: सर्वै: राजपुरुषैरनुमन्तव्यं यतोऽकाखदत्त-शासन-प्रामाख्याइसत् वास- (1.14) यत् भाग न प्रयच्छत् न केन चित्परिपत्यना कार्या॥ घसिन्वंधे समृत्पत्रीय× कस्त्रिपतिभेवेत्। तस्याच इन्त- (l. 15) लम्नोऽधिः शासनं मा व्यातिक्रमित्॥ पालनात्परमो धर्मः पालनात्परमं तपः। पालनात्परमः खर्गी गरीयस्ते- (l. 16) न पालनम् ॥ यत्निं चित्कुक्ते पापं जन्म-प्रमृति मानवः। एतहोचर्म-मानेण भूमि-दानेन ग्रध्यते॥ फाल कृष्टां मही द- (J. 17) त्वा सबीजां सख-मासिनीम्। यावसूर्य-कृता लोकास्तावत्स्वर्गे स्रष्टीयते॥ तडागानां सहस्रेण चायमेध-श्रते (1. 18) न च । गवां कोटि-प्रदानेन भूमि-इर्ता न ग्रध्यते ॥ चनुदकेषु वनेषु ग्रष्क-कोटर-वासिन:। कथा-सर्पा हि जायन्ते भूमि- (1.19) दायं इरन्ति ये॥ संवत १० वैद्याख व ति १०॥ द्रतो ऽवाचपटिलक-स्री-विवख(स:?) ॥ लिखितं कायस्य-जास[टेन ॥?]

(1. 20) श्रीमदागाकरवर्ध-देव-खइस्तः॥

TRANSLATION.

Hail! Reverence to Ganapati. O Thou that art the soul of the earth, the water, the fire, the æther and the air...ancient and self-created! Hara, Bhava, Siva, Sarva, Tryambaka (three-eyed), Isana (Lord), Rudra, Trinayana (three-eyed), Vrsabhanka (bull-marked), O Thou whose shape is endless, reverence to Thee.

(L. 3.) From [his] residence at the glorious Canpakā, he who reverently remembers (lit. is meditating at the feet of 6) the very devout worshipper of the deities, the twice-born (the Brāhmans) and the spiritual preceptors; [him] the supreme prince, the king of kings, the supreme lord,7 the illustrious and divine Sāhila, and who was born from the womb of the supreme princess and queen, the illustrious and divine Nennā; he, the tree of whose glory is increased by damming back the great wave of pride [arising from] the uprooting of the host of manifold foes;—he, the supreme prince, the king of kings, the supreme lord, the illustrious and divine Yagākaravarman, the prosperous one grants:

¹ Cf. beneath No. 15, ll. 9-10.

² On the meaning of bhaga as a fiscal term of Fleet, (J. R. A. S. for 1908, pp. 479 f.) who quotes Manu 7, 180.

This stanza is restored from No. 25, 11, 26-27.

⁴ This stanza in a modified form is found in Gupta Inser, pp. 108, 137 and 180 and Ind. Ant. vol. XIV (1885) p. 319.

b The name Jasata may be surmised here. It occurs as the name of a Chamba Raja in inscriptions Nos. 28 and 29.

⁶ Cf. Fleet. Gupta Inscr. p. 17, n. 2. The vorb anudhyāyati means "to remember, to think of." Cf. Bhāg. P. 10, 2, 53, 40 सा (बिकायो) चातुष्यायति संबङ्भकुन्दवरवास्त्र ते ।

¹ Cf. Fleet, op. cit. p. 10, n.

⁵ I translate according to the proposed emendation māna for dāna, as the latter word does not yield any reasonable sense.

[•] The expression "kušalin in charters is usually translated " being in good health." Cf. Fleet op. cit. p. 119, n. 8.

- (L.7) -2 bhū¹ of kohlī land of the Khanī hospice in the pūrva (?) belonging to the village of Vidavikā belonging to the Brahmapura district of his domair. Out of these a field, Sabdabagga by name, which was enjoyed (lit. entered) by the sor of Harihalla Rānkila, is given in exchange. Also in the village of Grima one piṭaka of rice is given from the vāpya land of Kuṭikā which was [previously] enjoyed by the sons of Rahanka collectively and belongs to the Ākuṭanāgavikā. Further in the vicinity of the Khanī hospice is the Yamalikā kitchen-garden; out of the vāpya land there, two, in figures 2, piṭakas [are given]. [These] together with that of Kuṭikā [make] three pi. And further, half the kitchen-garden.
- (L. 10.) He [the king] informs all officials, every $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}$, $r\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, chief-justice and all house-owners. Be it known unto you, neighbouring country people, land-holders and others, who are the eighteen elements of the State. On [the temple of] Narasimha founded by the Queen, the illustrious and divine Tribhuvanarekhā, is by a formal libation of water (?) this grant bestowed. Having understood [this], let all servants of the king, named and unnamed, observe it, so that on the authority of the charter issued by us, he (the grantee) should live and cause [his tenants] to live, without paying a tithe [to the Rājā]. Let no one offer obstruction.
- (L. 14.) Whosoever, born of this race, may be king, I enjoin on him not to transgress [this] order. By [its] observance the highest religious merit, by [its] observance the highest ascetic merit; by [its] observance the highest heaven [will be attained]; [its] observance, therefore, is very important. Whatsoever sin, from his birth onwards, a man commits, it will be cleansed by a gift of land, be it only the size of a cow-hide. He, who gives land, tilled with the plough, provided with seed-corn and fertile (lit. wreathed with grain), he will be blessed in Heaven, as long as light is produced by the sun. He who takes away [the land] is not cleansed by [the digging of] a thousand tanks, by a hundred horse-oblations, and by a gift of ten million cows. Those who confiscate a grant of land are born as black serpents dwelling in the hollows of withered up trees in waterless forests.
- (L. 19.) In the year 10, [the month of] Vaiśākha, the dark fortnight, the lunar day 10. The messenger on this occasion was the Recordkeeper, the illustrious Vivakha(la).

Written by the writer of legal documents Jā[saṭa?]. Own sign-manual of the illustrious and divine Yagākara.

No. 15.—SUNGAL COPPER-PLATE INSCRIPTION OF VIDAGDHA.

(PLATE XVII.)

The plate of Vidagdha measures 17" in width by 13" in height and contains thirty lines of which two are written vertically in the proper right margin. On the cunciform handle to the proper right side of the plate there are, moreover, three short lines containing the donor's subscription. The average size of the letters is $\frac{1}{4}$ ". The plate is well preserved except for a small piece missing in the lower proper

¹ A $bh\bar{u}$ or $bh\bar{u}mi$, sub-divided into four $(bh\bar{u})m\bar{u}saka$, is equivalent to about 17 acres.

² On the use of sasana in the sense of "a charter" cf. Fleet, op. cit. p. 99, n. 2.—In Chamba rent-free land given to Brahmans and temples is now-a-days regularly designated by the name of sasan.

right corner, by which one aksara has been partly lost. Through the central portion of lines 13-15 there runs a rent which, however, has caused no damage to the inscription.

The engraving is remarkably clear, the letters being well-shaped and slimmer than is usually the case with Śāradā inscriptions. As regards its language also, this copper-plate inscription is superior to that of Yagākara-varman. We note the omission of visarga and anusvāra, the substitution of n for n (three times, 1. $2\bar{s}$) and that of \hat{n} for \hat{m} (1. 19 sansāra; 1. 25 vanse) and the interchange of the sibilants (1. 8 Khaṣa). Anusvāra is substituted for final nasals, including n. The word $p\bar{a}s\bar{a}na$ (1. 15) is used in the neuter instead of the masculine gender. In line 24 āsṛta stands for āśrita.\(^1\) In line 21 we find the ungrammatical forms bhumjātu and bhumjātayatu instead of bhumktām and bhojayatu. Some other mistakes are due merely to carelessness on the part of the engraver

The inscription contains a certain number of sanskritized vernacular terms which it is not always easy to explain. Thus in line 5 we meet with the expression gardikaharana evidently a synonym of chatrabhoga (read ksatrabhoga No. 24, ll. 15-16 and No. 26, l. 11) found in corresponding places on other copper-plates. In the passage describing the boundaries of the land (ll. 12-16) such terms are particularly numerous. Here we twice have the word $vid\bar{a}$, evidently the modern bir which in the dialect of Chamba denotes the steep slope between terraced fields usually strengthened with a rough wall. The word bagga which here occurs twice in the names of fields (Khanibagga and Prāhabagga) has been noted above (p. 160). In khadda we easily recognize the modern khad3 "a precipice" The word kuppata means perhaps "a rivulet." The terms asihāra and kullaka (l. 16) which belong to the same class of expressions are immediately preceded and followed by a word meaning "water." There can be little doubt that kullaka is the bhāṣā word kulla or kuhl(a) "an irrigation channel." The real Sanskrit word would have been kulyā, from which kuhl(a) is derived. We have met above (p. 160) with the word kolhika. kõlhī "an irrigated field," evidently a derivate of kuhl. Possibly asīhāra has some similar meaning. The words rocika and citola I am unable to explain; judging from the context, they would seem to denote some agricultural products.

In the beginning of the inscription (ll. 1-5) the donor Vidagdha is mentioned as a soion of the Solar race and of the house of Mosana, and as the son of Yugākara-varman and Bhogamatī. The name of his ancestor Mosana we have met with in a slightly different form in the image inscriptions of Meru-varman. His father Yugākara-varman is undoubtedly the same as Yagākara the donor of the Brahmor grant. Vidagdha was consequently the grandson of Sāhilla or Sāhilla, the founder of Chambā town.

The lands granted are said to be situated near the village of Sumangala, the modern Sungal (map Sungul) 2 miles above Chamba town on the right bank of the Sāhō stream. The name of the district, Tāvasa(ka), is probably preserved in that of the village of Tausā, which may once have been the head-quarters of the mandala

¹ A similar mistake occurs in inscription No. 9, l. 2.

² B. R. has gabdikā (or gandikā) Kāśikāvītti, The Pandit VII N. pr. einer Oertlichkeit.

³ Cf. beneath No. 16, l. 13.

of that name. Most of the names of the localities mentioned in describing the boundaries of the grant (ll. 11-15) are known up to the present day.

The exact meaning of the special privileges connected with the donation (ll. 15-26) it is difficult now to ascertain. It is, however, clearly stated that the gift is given in perpetuity and is not to be interfered with in any way. The clause enjoining that the head of the district (cāṭa: cāṛ) was not allowed to enter the land seems to imply exemption from forced labour (Skr. visṭi; Camb. biṭh). Rents and taxes (and apparently fines also) due to the king would fall to the share of the grantee. The present holders of the land assert that originally the right of sanctuary was connected with the grant and that this right was still exercised in the reign of Rājā Caṛhat Singh (A.D. 1808-1844). But no reference to such a privilege is found in the title-deed. The donee named, Nandu(ka) the son of Deddu(ka), was a Brāhman whose grandfather had come from Kuruksetra, the famous place of pilgrimage near Thāṇesar.

In the following three lines (26-28) we find the usual verses—ascribed to the Sage Vyasa, the mythical compiler of the Vedas and the Mahabharata—in which the duty of maintaining the grant is emphasized. This is the only portion of the inscription composed in poetry. It consists of three stanzas, two of which are in the Anustabh and one in the Indravajra metre.

The document is dated in the fourth year of Vidagdba's reign on the first day of the bright fortnight of the month of Māgha. As previously stated, the grant was made on the occasion of the hibernal solstice (Makara-samkrānti).

TEXT

चो सस्तः॥ त्री चष्पकावासकात्परपमष्टारक-महाराजाधिराज-परमेत्रर-त्रीमयुगाकरवर्म-देव-पादानुष्यात् [X*]परमञ्ज(1. 2) ह्राख्यो निखिलसच्छासमाभिप्रष्टत्त-गुव्यत-देवतानुष्टत्त-समधि-गत-पास्त्रज्ञयनतया समाराधित-विह्ञज्ञन-(1. 3) हृदयी नयानुगत-पोक्षप-प्रयोगावाप्त-विवर्गसिहिः सं(सम्)यगिजेताभिकामिकगुण-सहिततया फिल्त द्व (1. 4) मार्गतक्[:*]। सर्वसत्वा(त्त्वा)त्रयनी-(षो)यो मोषनात्राय (मोषणात्रय) चादित्य-वङ्गो(वंगो)कृव [X*] परममाहित्रये(रः) त्री-भोगमतीदेव्या(व्या) समुत्पत्र[X*] प-(1 5)रमभद्दारक-महाराजाधिराज-परमेत्रय-त्रीमहिद्यध्ये देव × कुग्रली । स्वास्थमान-गिद्धकहरण-संवह-ताव-(1. 6) सक-मण्डल-प्रतिवह-सुमङ्गल-ग्रामे समुपागता[न्*] सर्वानेव राज-राजानक-राजपुत्त-राजामात्य-राजस्थानीय-(1. 7) प्रमात्त-सरोभंग-कुमारामात्योपरिक-विषयपति-निह्नलपति-चत्रप-प्रान्तपाल-हस्त्यत्रीप्रवलव्याद्य(प्र) तक-दृत-ग-(1. 8) मागमिकाभित्यरमाण-खव(ग्र)-कुलिक-गौस्किक-गौस्किक-खण्डरच-तरपतिक-छत्र(त्र)च्छायिक-वेट-किल-वोरयात्रिक(1. 9)-चोरोहर्गिक-दिण्डक-दिण्डवासिक-भोगपित-विनियुक्तक-भागिक-भोगिक-चाट-भट-सेवकादो-(दीन्) सर्वानेव कीर्तिता-(1. 10)कीर्तितां(तान्) राजपाद-प्रसादोपजीविनो(न \times) कुटुब्ब-जनपदा(दां) स्व बाह्मणोत्तरा[न्*] साष्टादग-गक्तत्याधिचा(ष्ठा)नीयो(यान्) मेदान्दक-(1. 11)

¹ Similar passages in which the natural boundaries of the granted land are described are regularly found in the Chamba copper-plate grants of the Muhammadan period. They are invariably in the vernacular and begin with the words: Atra simā.

² In later title-deeds one meets with the expression bith-bagar.

The akeara vy is provided with an \bar{a} mark.

^{*} No. 25 l. 14 reals khadga-, aksa which is probably correct. Cf. above p. 127.

सुरु रुपु र पड

SCALE 0-50

धीवर-चच्छाल-पर्यन्तां[न्तान्] सर्व-सवासां(सान्) समाजापयत्यस्त वस्रांविदितम्[।*] यद्योपरि-लिखित-सुमङ्गल-पामे सेरी ना-(l. 12) मा(म) भूरेका यस्यामाघाटान्यमी(सृति) भवन्ति। पूर्व-दिग्भागे पाटलीयाग्रहारिक-भू-सोमा दिचण-दिग्भागे वृष्ट्वीडा-नाम-(l. 13) सोमा पश्चिम-दिग्भागे खनिवन-वीडा-सीमा उत्तर-दिग्भागे प्राष्ट्रवन-नाम-सीमा एवं चतुराधाटोपेता उपरिख्यित-गर-(1. 14)इ-माकवाटिका समिता भूरेका [1*] तथान्यास्मिनेव गामे स्वास-नामार्धभमी। यस्यामा-घाटानि भवन्ति। पूर्व दिग्भागे खडा। द-(l. 15)चिन-दिग्भागे बृहत्पाषाचं(न:) पश्चिम-दिग्भागे मञ्चलिका-नाम-कुप्पटो उत्तर-दिग्भागे गोचर-पुष्करो-पथ-सीमा [1*] एवं चतुराघाट(टो)-(l. 16) पेतं भूभ्यर्भे उपरितिखित-भूम्या सह सार्धा भू[:*]खसोमा-तृष-गोयूयो (गव्युति)-गोचर-पर्यन्ता सवा(व)नस्यत्यदकासीहार-कुक्कक-पाणी(नी)य-(1. 17)ममेता सागम-निर्गम-प्रवेशा सस्विक-पोलाचा सद्यापराधा पुत्र-पौत्रादान्वयोपभोग्या अनाक्केदा प्रपरिपन्था अचाट-भ-(l. 18)ट-प्रवेशा अविवित्वरा अनाइ।रा आचन्द्राकार्णव-किति-स्थिति-समकालोना मया मातापित्रोरासनस पुष्य-हेतवे यशो-भिव-(1. 19) इये । परलोकःसंत्रेयोर्धं सङ्गाः (संग्रा) रार्णवन्तारवार्धं च । कुरुविच-तीर्थात्रम-विनिर्गत-ब्राह्मण-देवब-पोत्राय देइक-पुत्राय त्रीनन्दका-(1. 20)य कार्यप-गीत्राय ब्रह्मचारिणे त्रिप्रवराय वाजिसे (जस) नेयाय पुग्ये इत्यत्तरायण-सङ्गान्याम् दक-पूर्वेक-प्रतिष्रहेणाष्ट्रा-रत्वे-(1. 21)न प्रतिपादितम् [1*] विदिलास्मदीयात्रहार-ग्रासन-प्रामास्या[द्*] यथेष्टं भंजतु (भुङ्काम्) भंजापयत्(भोजयत्) भंजमानस्य (भुञ्जानस्य)प्रतिवासि-जनपदै:(र्)चा-(l. 22)चा-त्रवच-विधेयैर्भत्वा यथा-समुचित-भाग-भोग-कर-हिरखादि सर्व-राज-भाव्य-प्रत्यायमस्योपदेयम् [।*]प्रस्य चास्रदीय-चा - (1. 23)ट-भटान्यतरादिना ग्रह।वतरच-इरित-पक्क-सस्येत्तु-चारच-लवका(नो)-प्रमर्दन-रोचिक-चिटोला-ग्रहण-गोस्रोर-ग्रहण-पोठक-पोठि-(J. 24) का-खटापहरल-काष्ठेन्धन-धास-बुसादिक न केनचित्रयाश्चम्[।*] खल्पमपि पीडोपद्रवं न कर्तव्यम्[।*]एतदाश्(त्रि)त-हालिक-गोपास-(1. 25) टासी टासाटि-समस्त-जन-समेतस्य च। श्रतीन्यया शासनातिकमे धर्महानि-नियहो(इ:) स्यात । श्रामन्तुःराजभिरस्रदङ्गे(दंग्र)जैस (l. 26)सामान्य भूदान फलमवेस्थायं ब्रह्मदायो नुम-न्तव्य $[:^*]$ । परिषा (q_1) त्तनीयस् । उत्तं भगवता वेदव्यासेन । बहुभिवेसुधा भुक्ता राजभि- (l, 27)सागराहिभि:[1*]यस्य यस्य यदा भूमि[स्*]तस्य तस्य तदा फलम्[॥*]सुवर्षमेक[वां]गौरेका (गामेकां) भूमि(में) रायेक्सक् लं $[1^*]$ हरे (\mathbf{t}) करकमाप्नीति यावच (1, 28)न्द्र-दिवाकरी $\mathbf{l}(\mathbf{l})$ दत्तानि दानानि पुरा नरेन्द्रैर्यास्य(न्य)त्र धर्मार्थ-यशस्त्रराणि । निर्मास्यवन्त(त्त)त्रतिमाणि(नि)तानि को बा(ना)म साध् 🗶 पुनरादधीत: (दोत) ॥ (1. 29)प्रवर्धमाण(न)-कल्याण-विजय-राज्य-संवत्सरे चतुर्धे संवत् ४ माघ-ग्र-ति-प्रतिपद(त्)९ [।*] दूतीत्रश्री-[ग्रा](!. 30)दित्यवर्धेन[:*] ॥ लिखित-(तं) मया सुद्धरानजे॥ त्रोमहिदग्धदेव-खहस्त[:*]॥ त्रोमहिदग्धदेव[:*]॥

TRANSLATION.

Hail! From [his] residence at the glorious Canpaka, he who reverently remembers the supreme prince, the king of kings, the supreme lord, the illustrious and divine Yugakara-varman; he, the very devout one; who, having attained expertness in the Law, by his devotion to all good commandments, by his deportment towards the spiritual preceptors and by his obedience to the deities, has propitiated the hearts of the learned; who by the practice of bravery combined with policy, has acquired success in the three aims of life; who, by his complete attainment of

¹ Virtue (dharma), p'easure (tāma) and wealth (artha).

desirable qualities, resembles a fruit-bearing tree on the road-side; he, the refuge of all beings; sprung from the House of Mosana and from the Solar Race, the supreme worshipper of the Great Lord (Siva), born from the illustrious and divine Bhogamati; the supreme prince, the king of kings, the supreme lord, the illustrious and divine Vidagdha, the prosperous one,

(L. 5.) orders all who are concerned with (lit. arrived at) the village of Sumangala belonging to the Tāvasa(ka) district of his domain (?)—every rājā, rāṇā, rāṇā, rājpūt, royal minister, chief-justice, judge, sarobhanga, councillor of the Prince, uparika, viṣayapati, nihelapati, kṣatrapa (kṣetrapa ?), frontier-guard (?), those occupied with elephants, horses, camels and the forces, every dūta, gamāgamika, abhitvaramāṇa Khaśa, Kulika, superintendent of customs (?), superintendent of forests, khandarakṣa, (khadgarakṣa?), tarapati, parasol-bearer, betel-carrier, those belonging to the expeditionary force (?), every "thief-catcher," "rod-bearer," "rod-and-rope-bearer," bhogapati, viniyuktaka, land-owners (?), land-holders (?), district officers (cār) and their subordinates, servants and so on, —all, whether named or unnamed, who subsist on the favour of His Highness the King, householders and country-people, from the highest Brāhmans who hold a prominent position among the eighteen elements of the State down to the Medas, Andrakas, fishers and Candālas—all inhabitants:

(L. 11.) Be it known unto you that in the above-named village of Sumangala [there is] one bhū of land, Serī by name, of which the boundaries are these: on the east side the limit of the rent-free land (agrahāra) of [the village] of Pātala, on the south side the limit known as "the great slope," on the west side the limit of the slope of the Khanibagga [field], on the north side the limit known as Prahabagga. One bhû [of land] thus bounded, together with the houses and kitchengardens situated thereon. Further in that same village [there is] another half bhū [of land] Lavala by name, of which the boundaries are: on the east side the precipice, on the south side the large rock, on the west side the rivulet (?) Majvalikā by name, on the north side the limit of the path to the pasture-ground of Puşkarı. Half a $bh\ddot{u}$ thus bounded together with the above described $bh\ddot{u}$ [to wit] one and a half $bh\ddot{u}$ as far as its limits, grass, grazing and pasture-ground, together with fruit-trees and with the water-courses and channels, with approaches, ingress and egress, with fallow-land and cultivated land,* with [the fines for] the ten offences,3 to be enjoyed by the succession of sons, sons' sons, and so forth, uncurtailable, unopposed, [with the privilege that it is] not to be entered by district-officers or their servants, free from tax, inalienable, for as long a time as the moon, the sun, the ocean and the earth shall endure, for the sake of the spiritual merit and for the increase of the glory of my parents and myself, for the sake of the bliss of the next world, and in order to cross the ocean of existence, have I granted by a formal libation of water,

(L. 19) as an agrahāra to the illustrious Nandu(ka), the son of Deddu(ka) and grandson of the Brāhman Devanna from⁵ the hermitage of holy Kurukṣetra, [to

¹ The meaning of these various titles has been discussed above, pp. 120 ff.

I suppose polacya to be Hindi polac " land constantly under cultivation."

^{*} Cf. Fleet, Gupta Inser. p. 189, n. 4.

^{*} The ordinary meaning of akimcitkara "Nichts zu Wege bringend, zu Nichts nutze" (B.R.) cannot be applied here. Cf. Rājat. VIII 551.

⁶ On the meaning of vinirgata cf. Fleet, Ind. Ant. Vol. XXXI, p. 331.

him] the Brāhman student' of the house of Kāśynpa, the descendant of three prominent sages (rsi) and adherent of the school of the Vājasaneyas, on the auspicious day of the hibernal solstice.

- (L. 21.) Having understood this, he should freely enjoy and make [others] to enjoy [this grant] on the authority of our charter. The subjects, resident in the enjoyed land, in obedience to our command, will have to deliver to him the regular share and use, 2 tax in kind and cash, and every other tribute due to the king. And of our district officers and their subordinates and others no one will be allowed to alight at his house, to cut3 or crush his corn, sugar-cane or pasture(?), whether green or ripe, nor to take rocika or citolā or to take cows-milk, nor to carry off stools, benches or couches, nor to seize his wood, fuel, grass, chaff, and so on. Not even the slightest oppression or vexation should be inflicted on him. nor on his ploughmen, cowherds, maids, servants and all other people that are dependent on him. Otherwise, in case of infringement of [this] order, there will be punishment for breaking the law. Also the future kings, born of our race, considering the common merit of bestowing land, should recognize and preserve this brahmanical inheritance.
- (L. 26) It has been said by the venerable arranger of the Vedas: "Many kings from Sagara onward have enjoyed the land. Whose is the ground, his is the fruit. Whosever shall take away one gold-piece, one cow, or one inch of land, he will remain in hell as long as moon and sun shall endure. Those gifts which have been given by previous princes causing here [in this world] spiritual and material gain and glory, and respected like the remnants of a sacrifice, what pious man, indeed, would take them back?"
- (L. 29.) In the fourth year of the increasing, fortunate reign of victory, anno 4, [the month of] Māgha, the bright fortnight, the first lunar day 1. The messenger on this occasion was the illustrious Āditya-vardhana. Written by me, Sukha-rāja.

Own sign-manual of the illustrious and divine Vidagdha. The illustrious and divine Vidagdha.

No. 16.—SPURIOUS SAI COPPER-PLATE INSCRIPTION OF VIDAGDHA-VARMAN.—(PLATE XVIII.)

This copper-plate measures $10\frac{3}{5}''$ in width and 6" to $6\frac{1}{5}''$ in height. It contains fourteen lines of writing; lines 11-13 are half lines written vertically on the side margin to the proper right, and line 14 is incised inversed on the top margin. The side margin contains, moreover, the signature in two short lines, and at the bottom we find half a line in the vernacular in somewhat smaller type. The remainder of the inscription is in Sanskrit. The size of the letters varies from $\frac{1}{4}''$ to $\frac{5}{16}''$. The inscription is clearly engraved and the plate is in an excellent state of preservation. Its present owner, Byāja, a Brāhman resident at Sai (Gudyāļ pargaņā) is still in possession of the land described in the title-deed.

¹ The word brahmacārin can either be taken in its classical sonse of "Brahmanical student" or in that of a Saiva sect of ascetics founded by Sankarācārya. Cf. Oman, Mystics, Ascetics, and Saints of India (London, 1903), p. 152.

² For bhaga cf. Fleet, Gupta Inser. p. 248, for bhoga ibidem, p. 112, n. 1 and for bhaga-bhoga, p. 120, n. 1.

I translate according to the proposed emendation, lavana instead of lavana.

The inscription pretends to be the record of a grant of land by Vidagdha-varman to a Brāhman, Kalaši-šarman by name. There can, however, be little doubt that the copper-plate on which it is engraved was never issued by Vidagdha, who, as we know, ruled in the 10th century A.D. The character of the inscription alone is sufficient proof; it is the Tākarī found on copper-plates of the 16th and 17th centuries.\(^1\) It should also be noticed that the inscription is dated in the Sāstra year 27, whereas this era was not used in title-deeds until the 14th century, the earlier plates being dated according to regnal years. The very corrupt language of the inscription also points to a much later date than the 10th century. Finally, it may be noted that the clause tad anena sasamtānenācandra-sūrya-brahmānda-sthiti-paryantam upabhuāja-nāyam is regularly found in the same words on the later copper-plates, but on the specimens of the pre-Muhammadan period the idea is expressed in a different manner. The subsequent description of the boundaries also is in the style of those later documents.

On the other hand, the inscription has certain features in common with the early title-deeds of the period to which it is alleged to belong. This leads me to think that it was, partially at least, copied from a title-deed actually issued by Vidagdha-varman. It opens with a stanza in the Vasantatilaka metre in honour of Siva which is to be restored as follows:—

तस्मै नमं परम-कारण-कारणाय दीस्युज्ज्वलज्ज्वलित-पिङ्गल-लोचनाय। नागिन्द्र-हार-वृत्युख्डल-भूषणाय ब्रह्मोन्द्र-विश्वु-वरदाय नर्माश्रवाय॥

Such verses are regularly found at the beginning of the Chamba copper-plates of the 10th and 11th centuries; but there is not a single instance on plates of the Muhammadan period. Two orthographical points deserve special notice. In namaś= Sivāya we find the final sibilant assimilated to the initial sibilant of the following word. This is a peculiarity of the pre-Muhammadan period; in later epigraphs the final s is changed into visarga. In the first line we have namas-parama. I presume that in the original the first word ended in upadhmānīya, which the maker of the spurious plate mistook for sa to which it bears a close resemblance, if placed vertically. It has to be remembered that the upadhmānīya dropped out of use in this part of India after about 1200 A.D. These observations lead us to infer that the original was not copied from memory, but that the engraver actually had before him some genuine plate of Vidagdha, part of which he transferred into the character of his time, not without making numerous blunders. The subscription in the margin points to the same conclusion, for this also is a feature peculiar to the earlier copper-plate inscriptions. The engraver only repeated erroneously the visarga and the double stroke after the first half of the compound.

The original document seems no longer to be extant. It is clear that it cannot be the Sungal plate of Vidagdha edited above (No. 15), as it does not contain the initial stanza. The fact that another plate of Vidagdha existed up to a few centuries ago is of some interest.

It is interesting that the village of Sungal is mentioned here by its ancient name, Sumangala, which we have already met with in the immediately preceding inscrip-

¹ Ct. my paper " A copper-plate Grant of Bahādur Singh of Kuļu." A. R. A. S. for 1903-04, pp. 262-269.

र द ए.न. मीप्रमक्ट्रकमडम रात्रक मी मान्य र यावन्त माबु:।यामकर नम् विक्र र नम्लामकनाव स्मापन प्र उस्मि ।। उस्निम्बंम क रल्प क्वल्य यहार्य है है नि अ व्यास माना मनी माय विभित्र खिति हिंग हरा कल समित्र। ३ वियवन क्यानमित्र या। म्याम्य कर्षाणा ह सार्डिया दे उसीमा निस्मिन् वे उत्भामा १०० लि जिंड निस्क्रिक कर करें। ありなる利がる「小のなががいま」、一次の रं उसी मार्गामिम हिस

Spurious Plate of Vidagdha-varman.

CALE 0.9

tion (No. 15). The other localities referred to in the description of the boundaries—the village of Salo, the Muredi Khad and the hamlet of Balyārā—are still known by the same names. The rock marked with a hoe (tānkī) is also said to be still extant. The word tākuru denotes also a rock. It is probably the same as tikrī which occurs in the names of the two parganās Loh-Tikrī and Bhatti Tikrī.

TEXT.

भो सिद्धः ॥ ¹तस्रे नमस्परमकरणकारणाय दीत्स्रोक्ज्यलक्क्य-(1. 2)लित-पिक्कल-स्रोचनय । नगिन्द्रस्यतृतकुण्डल-भूषचाय ब्रह्मे-(1. 3)न्द्र-विश्वुःवरदाय नमिक्कावाय ॥ त्रोमस्वक्त-गुण्यगणालङ्कत-(1. 4) मूर्त्तः । याचकजन दिद्दः दावानल-सकलवर्णत्रम-धर्मप्रति-(1. 5)पालक-त्रो-परमभद्दारक-महाराजाधिराजा त्रोमिद्दर्भवर्मे दे-(1. 6)वेना । स्थ-नाम याम [:*] मीमा-परिमितं (त) । प्रवि-गोचाय कलिश्यमेणे (1. 7) ब्राह्मणाय तुभ्यमहं संप्रदर्दे (त्रे) ॥ तदनेनाससंतानेनाचंद्रसूर्यवर्मे (1. 8)ह्माण्ड-स्थित-पर्यतसुपभुंखनोयं ॥ चय सीमा पूर्वदिमा टि-(1. 9)कुक-पर्यत-सीमा । दिच्च-दिमा मालो-पश्चत् । टंकिकाह्यत-(1. 10)धिला-पर्यत-सीमा पश्चिम-दिमा सुमंगलस्य गोपय-पर्यता सीमा ॥ (1. 11) उत्तर-दिमा चालिन्ति (1. 12) पर्यत घर-इठ-सहित (1. 13) मुरेडो-षड-पर्यत-सीमा ॥ १। ११ (१) लिखितंमिद मद्दाचर्ये [ण्] (Subscription) त्री-विद्यम्वर्माः ॥ देवस्त्रस्यः ॥ (Vernacular) जो कोइ मरे बंसे द होए ती कि ना कर्षे गंतमतत

TRANSLATION.

Hail! Homage to Him, the ultimate Cause of causes, whose eyes are blazing red and lustre-flaming—adorned with ear-rings, wrapped in serpent-garlands, Brahm', Indra, Visnu's Patron—Hail to Siva!

The illustrious [prince] whose frame is adorned with the full number of all virtues; who resembles the fire of a forest conflagration [in his behaviour] towards supplicants and poor, the protector of all the castes, the orders of religious life, and of the law; the illustrious supreme prince, the king of kings, the illustrious and divine Vidagdha-varman grants a village, Sya by name, limited by its boundaries, to the Brahman Kalasi-sarman of the house of Atri. It is to be enjoyed by him and his offspring for as long as the moon, the sun and the earth shall endure. These are the boundaries. On the east side the boundary is as far as the rock; on the south side the boundary is as far as the hoe-marked rock behind [the village of] Sālō; on the west side the boundary is as far as the cattle-tract of Sumangala (i.e. Sungal); on the north side the boundary is as far as the Cālī Nāļī including house and shop, the boundary as far as the Muredī Khad, the boundary as far as [the hamlet of] Balyāre Kasyarota(?). In the Sāstra year 27 [the month of] Māgha . . . Written by Bhatṭācārya. Signature of the illustrious and divine Vidagdha-varman. (In vernacular:) Whosoever there will be of my race,

¹ For a restored reading of this stanza see above p. 170.

² The construction of this sentence is hopelessly wrong.

³ Read छपभोजनीयम्

¹ Probably चालिनासी.

⁵ Read शास्त्र. 6 Read अहाचार्येश.

⁷ The epithet is hardly flattering. A victorious prince is often compared to a forest-conflagration, his enemies representing the trees, e.g. Pratāpānalanirdagdha-vipakṣakulakānanah Kathās. 11, 8, 60 and pratāpa-dahana-dagdhāri-kula-kānanah. Delni Museum, Inser. No. B 6, verse 5, Ep. Ind. Vol. I, p. 93.

^a The words तुआसई I have left untranslated.

The rest of this sentence is unintelligible.

No. 17.—TUR IMAGE INSCRIPTION OF THAKKIKA.

(PLATE XIX a.,

Besides the rock inscriptions noted above (No. 10), the village of Tur has yielded three inscribed stones which were all found on the same spot inside the village, and have since been brought to Chamba Town and placed in the State Museum (Nos. A, 2-4). Two of the stones are evidently detached pedestals of images; they are provided with a mortice to receive the tenon of the image, and with a waterspout to allow the sacrificial water to run off.

One of these slabs, measuring $2'3\frac{3}{4}''$ by 1'3'' by 6'', bears an inscription of six lines of 23'' each, except the last line which is 17'' in length. The letters which are on the average $\frac{1}{2}''$ in height, are clearly cut, but a considerable number of them are more or less worn away or damaged. The two ends of the first line are completely destroyed, by which some three aksaras have been lost at the beginning, and some sixteen aksaras at the end of this line. In the second line also the initial three aksaras are indistinct, and the last twelve aksaras are uncertain, owing to the surface of the stone having peeled off. There is a crack through a portion of the last line by which the first six aksaras have become injured.

The language used in the inscription adds to the difficulty of its interpretation. It is Sanskrit, but the words follow each other without any syntactical connection. We may assume a priori that the inscription records the erection of the image to which it belonged. This assumption is confirmed by the word pratisthitam? preceded by a date at the end. But the object, the erection of which it is meant to record, is apparently not mentioned. We find, however, in the first line a deity invoked whose name reads: Śri-Tthakkika-svāmin, and there is every likelihood that this is the god represented by the image. It is true that no member of the Hindu Pantheon bears this name, but it was the custom in Kaśmir's and probably in other parts of India to give an image the name of its founder, with the words iśvara or svāmin added to it.' Well-known instances are afforded by the temple of Meruvardhanasvamin founded by Meru-vardhana at Pandrethan; those of Avantisvamin and Avantisvara at Vantipor (Avantipura) named after their founder Avanti-varman; and the two temples of Patan called Sankaragauriśa and Sugandheśa after Śańkara-varman and his queen Sugandhā. In general the term svamin in such compounds indicates an image of Visnu, and īśvara or īśa one of Śiva, so that in the present instance the inscription presumably refers to a Vișou image.4 The only objection to my interpretation is that the person who erected this image is mentioned in the inscription under the name of Thakkaka (l. 3) or Thakkika (1.4). The resemblance, however, of this name to the first part of that of the deity invoked in the beginning of the document is so great, that I have no hesitation in restoring the latter as Śri-Thakkika-svāmin or Śrimat-Thakkika-svāmin.

¹ See above, pp. 147 f.

² The past participle of the causative pratisthāpita would have been more correct; cf. above, No. 14, l. 12.

³ Cf. Stein, Rājat. vol. II, p. 369. The custom exists also in Rajpūtana.

^{&#}x27; It is true that in the inscription Thakkika calls himself a worshipper of Siva, but this need not have prevented him from dedicating an image to Visnu.

Besides the founder's name, we find that of his father, Prakata, his grandfather, Carata, his great-grandfather,—khika, and his great-great-grandfather, Canna. The progenitor of his house was Dhara who is called sāmanta, Lord of Makuta and mahārājādhirāja. Regarding the position of Makuta I am unable to offer any suggestions, but it should be noticed that it occurs also in the Vamśāvalī (verse 79). Possibly it was the old name of Tur.

It is interesting to meet here for the second time with the ancient name of Brahmor, viz., Brahmapura already noticed in the copper-plate grant of Yugā-kara-varman (No. 14, l. 6). Unfortunately, owing to the stone being broken, it is not clear in what connection it is mentioned here. The title sāmanta indicates that Dhara and his descendants were feudatory chiefs, no doubt dependent on the Rājās of Brahmor and Chambā. The inscription is dated in the first year of the reign of Vidagdha, and at the end of a long series of partially obscure epithets Thakkika is said to have found high favour with Vidagdha-deva. This Vidagdha can be no other than the Chambā Rājā whose copper-plate grant has been edited in the course of this work (No. 15). To him Thakkika owed allegiance, and the mention of Brahmapura perhaps indicates that the same relationship existed between Thakkika's ancestors and the ancient rulers of Brahmor.

TEXT.

[भों स्वस्ति¹] त्रीमहिदन्ध-राज्य-संवस्वरे १ । भों नमो(म:) त्रीत्वविवस्वामिपादाः

(1. 2) [संवर्षि]त-महात्री-सामन्त-मजुटाधिपति-महाराजाधिराज-त्रीधरेच त्रीब्रह्मपुर-म[ध्यक्ष] (1. 3)श्रीधर-वर्ष्मो (वंशो)द्वव-त्रीच्छ-पुत्र-त्रो - . . खिक²-पुत्र-त्रीचरत-पुत्र-महाराजाधिराज-त्रीप्रकट-पुत्र-त्रीयक्षक-परममाहेश्व-(1. 4) [र-] देव-गुद-प्रमिरत-भक्षं ॥ महाराजाधिराज-त्रीविक्षक-त्रेसरि-सङ्ग्राम-विज्ञीच (विनोद $^{\circ}$) 3 -गुज-सागर-सोह (सिंह)-परा [क्रम-) (1. 5) जय त्री-[ध्रिम्सास्--] खड्गक्यानुराग-निज्ञभुज-प्राकार-वन्दि(त्र्य)न-समर् [र $^{\circ}$]ति-रिपुवल-सन्त्रास-त्रीमहिदन्ध-देव-लब्स- (1. $^{\circ}$) पर-प्रसाद-महाराजाधिराज: ॥ माध-ग्रुति-हादस्त्रां भीमवारे प्रतिष्ठितम् ॥

TRANSLATION.

Hail! In the first year of the reign of the illustrious Vidagdha. Reverence to the feet of the illustrious Thakkika-svāmin. (l. 2.) By the very illustrious baron, the lord of Makuta, the king of kings, the illustrious Dhara . . . in the midst of Brahmapura In the lineage of the illustrious Dhara was born the illustrious Canna; his son was the illustrious -khika; his son was the illustrious Carata; his son was the illustrious Thakkaka, the supreme worshipper of the Great Lord (Siva), delighting in the adoration of the deities and the spiritual preceptors.

¹ The lower ends of the two aksaras of svasti are still traceable.

² Between sri and khi one aksara is lost.

³ Cf. beneath No. 24, l. 11 and No. 25, l. 11.

⁴ It seems that the aksara la is written beneath the line between bks and sa; but owing to the fracture of the stene, the proposed reading is to be considered by pothetical.

Before is evidently an aksara is missing. On account of the preceding ra, we may assume that it was this syllable, though I have not met with the expression samara-rate anywhere else. It is also possible to restore it to samaraksite which would yield a better sense.

He, the king of kings, the illustrious Thakkika disported himself in the combat with the maned lion, was an ocean of virtues, of lion-like prowess, the terror of the hostile host, when in the joy of battle¹ he raised a rampart with his own arms reddened with the crossing of swords in search of victory, and won great favour with the illustrious and divine Vidagdha, he, the king of kings. Erected in [the month of] Māgha, the bright fortnight, the twelfth lunar day, on Tuesday.

No. 18.—TUR IMAGE INSCRIPTION OF DODAKA.

(PLATE XIX b.)

The second of the inscribed slabs noted at Tur must likewise have belonged to an image. It measures 3' by 2' l" by $7\frac{1}{2}$ " and bears an inscription in three lines each about 18" in length. The letters which measure $\frac{1}{2}$ " to $\frac{3}{4}$ " in height are badly formed, and in places damaged. In the first line most of the aksaras are broken at the top, but enough remains to enable us to decipher it. The language is Sanskrit, but the vowel marks have often been omitted. As the greater portion of the inscription consists of conventional royal titles, the uncertain syllables can be easily restored.

In the inscription it is recorded that an image of Kārttikeya—evidently that of which the inscribed stone formed the base—was erected by Dodaka. This Dodaka may be identified with the Chambā Rājā who in the Vamśāvalī (verse 82) is called Dogdha, and there figures as the son of Yugākara and the father of Vidagdha. From the Tur inscription, however, it is clear that Dodaka was the successor, and presumably the son of Vidagdha, whereas the latter was the son and successor of Yugākara. This last point is, moreover, established by Vidagdha's copper-plate grant (No. 15).

TEXT.

भीं खस्ति ॥ त्री-महाराजाधिराज-परमेश्वर-त्रीमद्युगाकर-[पुत्र-त्री-] (l. 2) विद्यादेव-पदनु-ध्वत-(पादानुध्वात-)परमेश्वर-परमभट(द्वा)रक-त्रीमदो(हो)द-[l. 3]कदेव-[कामु]क-देव-त्रीसा (स्ता) मिकार्तिक [:*] त्रीदोदक(के)न स्थापित[:*]

TRANSLATION.

Hail! The illustrious Dodaka has erected [an image of] the illustrious lord Kārttika, that god who loves the supreme lord, the supreme prince, the illustrious Dodaka—him that reverently remembers the illustrious and divine Vidagdha, the son of the illustrious king of kings, the supreme lord, the illustrious Yugākara.

No. 19. -TUR IMAGE INSCRIPTION.

(PLATE XIX c.)

The remaining Tur inscription occurs on a much defaced stone statuette of inferior workmanship (height 1'11"; width 1') now placed in the State Museum (Cat. No. A, 4.) It represents a standing four-armed goddess, presumably Pārvati,

the spouse of Siva. One of the two left hands is missing. The figure seems to hold a trident (Skr. triśūla) in one of her right hands and a snake (Skr. sarpa) in the preserved left hand. A lion, the vehicle of the goddess, rests at her feet.

The inscription carved on the base consists of three lines, each 9" in length. The letters, which measure $\frac{1}{2}$ " to 1" in height, are well formed, but unfortunately nearly the whole of the writing is obliterated. The only word which is quite distinct is pratisthita in the last line. Here as in Nos. 14 (l. 12) and 18 (l. 6) this past participle is used instead of the causative pratisthāpita. It suffices to show that the inscription records the erection of the image on which it is engraved. After pratisthita, and separated from it by a double vertical stroke, we read Nnanenna followed by the aksara gha. I presume that the latter forms the beginning of the past participle ghatita. In fact the second aksara of the word is still traceable, though apparently it is provided with a long i stroke. If this restoration is correct, the preceding word is the name of the maker of the image, in the instrumental case. Probably we have to read Nanena.

The word preceding pratisthita, in all probability, gave the name of the deity represented by the image. The last letter is certainly ta and the last but one may be dha, pa, or ba(va). Perhaps the word was $Bhagavat\bar{\imath}$ which is also used in the Svāim image inscription (No. 12) and is a general title of female deities. It should, however, be remarked that there is no trace of an $\bar{\imath}$ stroke connected with the t.

In the second line the only aksara which is distinct is an initial $\bar{\imath}$ which here presents the same archaic appearance as in the Sarāhan praśasti (No. 13, l. 1). It is preceded by an aksara of which only the \bar{u} mark beneath is preserved. The letter following $\bar{\imath}$ seems to be an initial a. It is not clear, how these two letters could follow each other in a Sanskrit record, but we have had frequent opportunity to observe that the language of the Chambā inscriptions is often far from correct. The remaining portion after the supposed a I propose to read $s\bar{a}ha$ - $r[\bar{a}]nena$. The e stroke over the first n can still be traced.

This reading, if correct, would yield the word $r\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ in its vernacular form which elsewhere in inscriptions is regularly sanskritized as $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}naka$. We may assume that the donor of the image belonged to the house of hereditary $r\bar{a}n\bar{a}s$ who once held sway at Tur, as is evident from the other image inscription (No. 17) discussed above. His name seems to be Asāha or perhaps Asāhya (Irresistible) which is almost identical with that of Aṣāḍha borne by a feudatory of Meru-varman (Inscription No. 9, 1. 3). It is also possible that Asāh(y)araṇa is to be taken as one name. The rest of the inscription is too much obliterated to allow of even tentative decipherment.

TEXT.

(L. 3) [भग]वत(तो) प्रतिष्ठित(ता) वनेव घट(टिता)

TRANSLATION.

[This image of] Bhagavatī has been crected by Rāṇā Asāh[y]a. It was made by Nana.

No. 20.—DADVĀR FOUNTAIN INSCRIPTION OF THE REIGN OF TRAILOKYA.DEVA; ŚĀSTRA [41]17 (A.D. 1041).

(PLATES XX AND XXXVII a.)

The hamlet of Padvār is situated $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles north of Tisā and belongs to the Tisā parganā of the Curāh wazārat. A profusely carved fountain-slab broken into three pieces was found here in 1905. It has since been deposited in the Chambā State Museum (No A, 6) and refixed. It measures 5'9" in width and 3' in height. In the centre we recognize Varuṇa with his lotus-flower. On each side of this figure are three horizontal bands of ornamental carvings, the lowermost consisting of a pair of birds with elaborate tails, a design very common on stones of this kind. Beneath Varuṇa is a square opening to receive the spout; on both sides we find the usual dwarf pilaster and eight-petalled lotus-rosette, surmounted by a narrow band of scroll-work. The whole of these carvings are enclosed within a double serpent border.

On the plain rim, between the horizontal top portion of this border and the inner carvings, there runs an inscription in one line, 5' long, divided into two portions, owing to the fracture of the stone. This inscription is well preserved. The letters, which measure from $\frac{1}{2}$ " to $\frac{3}{4}$ ", though shallow and badly shaped, are legible throughout. Originally the stone had a panel projecting from the centre of its top. Only a corner of it now remains. Beneath it we notice another short line of writing, of which the concluding portion has been lost with the greater part of the panel. The first two aksaras also are indistinct.

I read the preserved portion of this upper line: Samvat 17 Śrīmatrailo. The last akṣara, though partly missing, may be considered as certain. The concluding part of the line cannot have consisted of more than eight akṣaras, as the gap is about equal in length to the preserved portion. In view of the Naghai and Bhakūnd fountain-inscriptions (Nos. 21 and 22), which are both dated in the reign of Trailokya-deva, I have no hesitation in restoring the upper line of the Dadvār inscription as follows: Samvat 17 Śrīma[t]-Trailokya-deva-rājya-samvat followed by a figure expressing the regnal year of Trailokya-deva, in which the stone was erected. It will be seen that the Bhakūnd inscription is dated both in the Śūstra era and in the reign of Trailokya-deva. There can be little doubt that in the present instance also the figure 17 refers to that era. We find it, moreover, repeated in the beginning of the second line, without any mention of a reign, but immediately followed by the notation of the month, fortnight, lunar day, day of the week and nakṣatra.

This very full indication of the date enables us to find the corresponding year of the Christian era We may assume on palæographical grounds that the date lies between A.D. 900 and 1300. The Sastra year 17 can, therefore, correspond to A.D. 941, 1041, 1141 or 1242. I find that for those four years Jyestha bati 12

¹ Cf. beneath p. 234.

² On Trailokya-deva cf: above pp. 71 f.

^{&#}x27; The same mistake occurs in the Bhakund inscription.

Dadvār Fountain Inscription.



SCALE 0 375

Bhakhūnd Fountain Inscription.



(pūrnimānta) corresponds to April 26, Monday; April 30, Thursday; May 5, Monday, and May 9, Thursday, respectively. As the week-day recorded is Thursday, it follows that the only possible date is the 30th April of A.D. 1041, on which the moon stood in the lunar mansion Revati.

Thus the Dadvar inscription has enabled us to fix not only the time of Trailo-kya-deva, but also that of the Bhakund and Naghai fountain stones which were both erected in his reign. For the rest, the document under discussion does not present anything deserving special notice. The language is, as usual in fountain-inscriptions, very corrupt.

TEXT.

संबत १७ त्रीम हैं को [क्वदेव-राज्य-संवत- -]

(1. 2.) घों खिस्ताः ॥ संव[त्] १७ ज्वेडवित १२ वृहस्मतिवारे रैवती'-नस्त्रे । ब्राह्मस्-सैडिस-पुत्र-भोग(गेन) वर्ष'-देव[:"] स्वापित[:"]। संसार-भव-भीतेन। सर्गे स्नत रेखा ॥ इति ग्रमं भवित ॥ इति भद्रं ॥

TRANSLATION.

In the year 17; [in the year? of the reign of] the illustrious Trailo[kyadeva.] Hail! In the year 17, [the month of] Jyestha, the dark fortnight, the lunar day 12, on Thursday, at [the conjunction of the moon with] the lunar mansion Revati, has [this] fountain-stone (lit. god Varuna) been erected by Bhoga, the son of the Brāhman Saihila, fearing with the fear of existence. A line made in heaven. Thus will it be blessed. Thus [will it be] fortunate.

No. 21.—BHAKUND FOUNTAIN INSCRIPTION OF THE REIGN OF TRAILOKYA-DEVA; \$ASTRA [410]4 (A.D. 1028-9).

(PLATE XX.)

Bhakūṇḍ is a hamlet situated in the Bhakūṇḍ Nālā, some 5 miles north-east of Tīsā Kōṭhī, in the Tīsā pargaṇā of the Curāh wazārat. An inscribed flat stone, 4' 9" long, 1' 10" wide and 2" thick, was discovered here in 1904 on the top of a wall belonging to one of the houses of the village. It is now preserved in the Chambā State Museum (Cat. No. A, 5).

The inscription consists of three lines which measure 4', 4' 4" and 1' 6" respectively in length. Unfortunately the proper left end of the slab is broken off, causing the loss of the concluding portions—probably some eight syllables—of each of the first and second lines. At the beginning of the first line the symbol for Om also is lost with a corner of the stone. The letters are 1" to 2" in size and very distinct, though rather shallow and evidently not cut by a professional sculptor.

The language of the Bhakuṇḍ inscription is less faulty than that of later fountain inscriptions. Samdhi rules are neglected in name (1.1) and Sukkradine

The original, as remarked above, has Setmatera.

¹ The original has Revati-.

The stone is broken through between the akiaras ru and na, owing to which the latter is partly destroyed.

⁴ The words placed between square brackets are missing in the original.

[.] The meaning of this phrase I cannot explain.

(1. 2). The single consonant has been substituted for the double in Śrīma-Trailokya.
(1. 1) and utara- (1. 2), and the double consonant for the single one in Śukkradine
(1. 2), -nakṣattre (1. 2) and iti śśubham (1. 3). The lingual n has been used instead
of the dental in Phalgunī- (1. 2). The character shows some remarkable archaic
features. The akṣara nu (1. 1, less pronounced in 1. 2) still retains a remnant of the
ancient base stroke. Medial e is throughout expressed by the pṛṣṭhamātrā except
in -dine (1. 2) where the superscribed sign is used. Medial ai in -Trailokya- is rendered by the pṛṣṭhamātrā and the superscribed stroke combined. For medial o, on
the contrary, the superscribed mark is used throughout. The ligature stha (1. 3) has
its later type. The cursive loops of the akṣaras u, ta, da, ma deserve special notice.

The man who erected the Bhakund fountain stone was apparently not a Rānā but a Brāhman, judging from his father's name ending in -śarman and from the absence of any titles. The inscription is dated both in the Śāstra era and in the reign of Trailokya-deva, but the notation of the regnal year, of the month, the fortnight and the lunar day has been lost at the end of the first line. From the Dadvār fountain inscription (No. 20), however, we have drawn the conclusion that Trailokya-deva lived in the first half of the 11th century. The Śāstra year 4 of the present epigraph must, therefore, correspond to the 28th or 29th year of the 11th century of our era.

TEXT.

CORRECTED READING.

[ओं] स्वस्ति: ॥ ओं नमी वरुण-देवाय नमः । संवत् प्रास्त्रीये ४ श्रीमचैलोकादेव-रा[च्य—]¹ [1. 2] शुक्रदिन उत्तरफाल्गुनी-नचने भोशर्म-पुत्र-परिपूर्णन संसार-भय-भी[तेन वरुण-देव:²] [1. 3] स्थापितः । इति शुभम् ॥

TRANSLATION.

Hail! Adoration to the god Varuna, adoration! In the Sastra year 4, in the reign of the illustrious Trailokya-deva on Friday, at [the conjunction of the moon with] the lunar mansion Uttaraphālgunī, has this fountain-stone (lit. god Varuna) been erected by Paripūrna, the son of Bho-śarman, fearing with the fear of existence. Blessed be it:

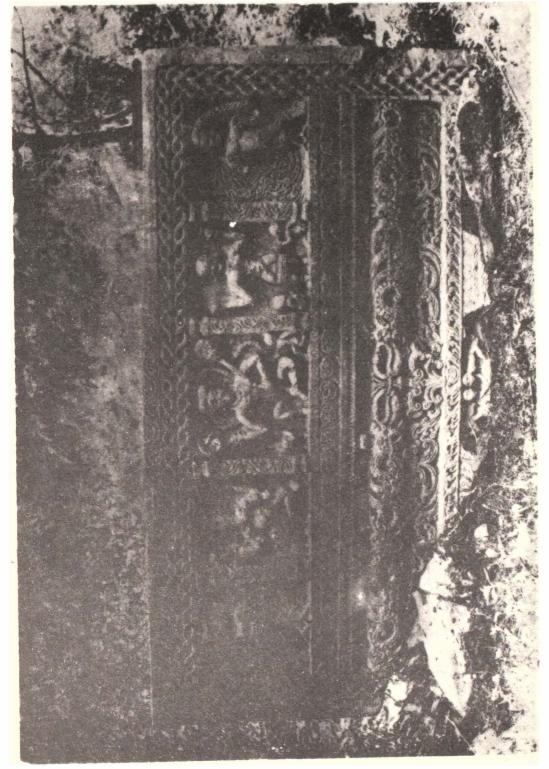
No. 22.—NAGHAI FOUNTAIN INSCRIPTION OF THE RĀJANAKA DEVA-PRASĀDA DATED IN THE REIGN OF TRAILOKYA-DEVA.

(PLATES XXI-XXII.)

About 1895 half a dozen carved fountain-slabs of large size were unearthed in the jungle below the village of Naghai, 2 miles south of Sai Kōthī in Curāh. The largest specimen, which is still standing and measures 5' 2" in height by 6' 7" in width, is much defaced. The upper portion is divided into five panels, each of which

¹ The curve of ya is still visible.

This portion can be restored with certainty from analogous passages in other fountain inscriptions.



Naghai Fountain Stone.

contains a figure. The central figure armed with a trident and a mace evidently represents some divinity, perhaps Varuna the god of the waters, in whose honour such slabs are usually erected. To his right we find a standing male figure with a sword in his right hand, a shield in his left, and a dagger in his girdle. To the left of the central panel there are two figures, possibly meant for a woman with a child. Each corner panel has a rudely carved horseman. In the middle of the lower portion of the slab a square hole has been cut out to allow the water to run through. It is enclosed on each side by a dwarf pilaster and a lotus-rosette. Over each division there runs a horizontal band of decorative design, whilst a serpent-border encloses the whole of the carvings. Behind this stone there are two smaller slabs, each 1'54" high and 6'6" wide, one of which is still standing.

Another large sized slab, the lower portion of which is broken, measures 3' 6" in height and 6' 41" in width and is divided into two portions by a broad horizontal border of exquisitely carved scroll-work, in the centre of which a pair of birds are introduced. Over and beneath this border there runs a narrow band of leaf ornament. The upper division consists of a row of five sunk panels, each containing a clumsily carved figure, separated by square pilasters. The central panel is occupied by a seated deity holding a snake in his right, and a lotus flower on a long stalk in his left hand. To his right is a kind of animal, perhaps meant for a vahana, and to his left a miniature human figure. In the panel adjoining the central one to the proper right we recognize Ganesa, holding a hatchet and a flower, accompanied by two animals which probably represent mice. The corresponding panel to the proper left side contains a female figure standing with her two hands raised, palms upwards. The last hand holds a water-vessel. She wears, besides the usual ornaments, only a short petticoat reaching down to the knees and fastened round the loins by means of a girdle. The two little figures seated on each side at her feet evidently represent children. Each of the corner panels contains the figure of a harpy (kinnari) with little wings instead of arms, a short bird's tail and a long crest falling down from the head. The carvings are enclosed on the three sides within a double serpent border.

The lower portion of the slab must have had a spout-hole in the centre, flanked by two dwarf pilasters, the capitals of which are still extant. Between them we listinguish a pair of apparently flying figurines which must once have surmounted the spout-opening. Over the figure of Varuna also a portion of the stone is broken off. Presumably it was a projecting square panel as is sometimes found on fountain-slabs. (Cf. fig. 11).

Along the raised narrow band beneath the row of figures there runs an inscription in one line, which is continued on a similar band between the leaf and scrollwork borders. The first line measures 5' 3" in length and the second only 10''. The letters, which are $\frac{1}{2}''$ to $\frac{5}{8}''$ in size, are very shallow and indistinct, especially in the beginning portion of the epigraph. The reading of this part is therefore uncertain. The inscription records the erection of a "Varuna-deva"—i.e. the slab on which it is carved—by Deva-prasāda, the son of Rāṇā Nāga-prasāda, the son of Nāguka for the sake of [the bliss in] the other world of Rāṇā Mekhalā. We may assume that the Rāṇā who may have been the wife of Deva-prasāda, is represented

¹ On the accompanying plate XXII the first line is divided into four.

on the stone by the female figure at the side of Varuna. That the persons, for whose sake such stones were erected, were sometimes portrayed on them is proved by the Sai example (No. 35). The circumstance that the Rānī is accompanied by two children and another child kneels down at the feet of Varuna, perhaps gives a clue as to the peculiar reason, for which it was considered necessary to erect so elaborate a stone for the sake of the deceased Rānī. It is said to be still the custom in Chambā to erect stones for women who have died in child-bed. This custom is based on a wide-spread superstition that the souls of women who die in child-bed become evil spirits.

Possibly for this same reason the Naghai stone was erected to assure peace to the deceased Rāṇi in the next world and to her relatives in this one.

TEXT.

[श्री सस्ति: ॥ परमभद्दारका-] महाराजाधिराज-परमेश्वर-श्रीम[श्री] लोख-देव-राज्य-संवत् १ श्रावण-वति — चन्द्रदिने धनिष्ठा-नचने स्वापितं । महाश्री-नागुकपौनेण राजानक-श्री-नागप्रसाद-पुनेन त्री-देवप्रसादेन राज्ञी-श्री-मेस्बलाया[:*] परलोकार्थं व(1.2)क्ण-देव[:*] स्थापितम् (त:1) स्ति ग्रुभम् [॥*]

TRANSLATION.

Hail! In the 3rd (?) year of the reign of the supreme prince, the king of kings, the supreme lord, the illustrious and divine Trailokya, in [the month of] Śrāvaṇa, the dark fortnight, the lunar day, on Monday, at [the conjunction of the moon with] the lunar mansion Dhanisthā [was this stone] erected. By the grandson of the very illustrious Nāgu(ka), by the son of the Rāṇā the illustrious Nāgaprasāda, by the illustrious Deva-prasāda was this fountain-stone (lit. god Varuṇa) erected for the sake of [the bliss in] the next world of the Rāṇī, the illustrious Mekhalā. Blessed be it!

No. 23.—BĀHNOTĀ FOUNTAIN INSCRIPTION OF THE REIGN OF SOMA-VARMAN.—(Plate XXIII.)

In the summer of 1908 an inscribed fragment of a fountain-slab was discovered near the village of Bāhnotā in the Löh-Tikrī parganā of the Curāh wazārat. It is now placed in the State Museum and numbered A, 7. When discovered, the stone was used in a flight of steps leading up to a dwelling-house, which accounts for the central portion of the lettering being much worn. Besides, the stone is broken on both sides, so that, to the right and to the left, parts of the inscription are missing. The remaining fragment is $1^{\circ} 9\frac{1}{2}$ high and $1^{\circ} 4$ wide. The upper half is carved with horizontal bands of decorative design, through the middle of which there runs a plain rim with one line of writing 12 long. The lower half is inscribed with eight lines (2-9) partly obliterated. This part of the inscription, when complete, must have occupied an oblong panel, measuring about 20 in width and 10 in height, which probably was placed over the spout-opening of the slab.

¹ The first ten akearas are partly traceable.

² Between 3 and &rā there is a depression which possibly represents zero. There is sufficient space for a according to but the surface is warn.



CALE O.

Lines 2-5 are $10\frac{1}{7}$ " to 11" in length, but the concluding portion (ll. 6-9) is only preserved for a width of 7".

As the contents of the inscription are very similar to those of other such documents found in the Löh-Tikrī parganā, it is possible to restore the missing portion to a certain extent. Thus it appears that between the second and the third lines ten aksaras are lost and between the sixth and seventh lines fifteen aksaras. If the first line contained the full stanza which in a modified form occurs in the Bharārā fountain inscription (No. 36) also, we may infer that on the proper right side sixteen syllables are lost and that, consequently, on this side the larger part of the stone is broken off. For this reason, I have placed the restored portions at the beginning of the lines.

The inscription was evidently fully dated both in the Sastra era and in the regnal year of the ruling chief Rājā Soma-varman, whose name is found in line 3. Had it been complete, it would thus have enabled us to fix the year of accession of that prince and at the same time the date of Ananta-deva's invasion and Sālavā-hana's dethronement. Unfortunately the Sastra year as well as the regnal year are lost. So is the name of the donor. From other sources we know that Soma-varman's accession must have taken place about the middle of the 11th century and that Āsata succeeded him before 1087-8. These data supply an approximate date for the Bāhnotā fountain inscription.

Line 1 and lines 5-7 contain four stanzas which, as remarked above, occur on other fountain-slabs and can be restored, except the one in lines 5-6 which has not been found elsewhere. These verses all emphasize the merit of erecting a fountain-stone in honour of the god Varuna. The Sanskrit seems here to be less incorrect than in similar passages of other inscriptions. The concluding two lines of the epigraph are apparently composed in the vernacular, but their fragmentary state renders it impossible to interpret them.

The inscription is well executed. The letters, as far as they are preserved, are well-shaped and distinct. They measure about $\frac{5}{8}$ " to $\frac{3}{4}$ " in height. A peculiarity which is also noticeable on the copper plates of Soma-varman and Asata, is that postconsonantic i and \bar{i} are sometimes expressed by a flourish written over the consonant and turned towards the proper right and left respectively, but not continued along the side of the consonant. See e. g. the word $Abvin\bar{i}$ in line 2.

TEXT.

[न च वक्णात्यरं धर्म न च क्णात्यरं तयं।] न च वक[णात्य]रं देवं तृशु लोकेशु वि[सुतं॥]¹

- (1. 2) अभी खस्ति:। प्रास्त-संवत् . .] चा . ग्राति १५ सीरीदिने पश्चिनी-नचने प[रम-]
- (i. 3) [भट्टारकः महाराजा]धिराज-प[रमेख]र-त्रीमलौमवर्भ-देव -रा[ज्य-]
- $(l.\ 4)$ [संवत्] पित्रीणां ृमात्रीनां ' . . .] य परलोका $[\hat{\mathbf{z}}]$
- (1.5) [वक्णदेव: स्थापित:। ఆ ఆ तेन ग्ररो [रेण ఆ]च भवो न वस —।

¹ This pseudo-stoka has been restored according to the reading of the Bharāṇā inscription (No. 36). In correct Sanskṛit it would be: न वक्णास्परी धर्मी न वक्णास्पर तप:। न वक्णास्परी देव: तृषु खीकेषु विश्वतः ।

² The vowel strokes over s and r are still traceable.

³ Read सीमवर्म-देव . • Read वित्वा मान् चां

TRANSLATION.3

No higher religious merit than [the erection of] a Varuna [slab]. No higher ascetic merit than [the erection of] a Varuna slab. No higher god than Varuna is known in the three worlds.

Hail! In the Sastra-year . . , [in the month of] A . , on the 15th day of the bright fortnight, on Saturday, at [the conjunction of the moon with] the lunar mansion Asvini. In the year . . of the reign of the supreme prince, the king of kings, the supreme lord, the illustrious Soma-varman of divine descent for the sake of [the bliss in] the next world of the deceased ancestors, male and female, . . . [this] fountain-stone (literally god Varuna) has been erected by the body the eternal world is gained. By a gift of ten million cows at an eclipse of the sun or moon an equal merit [is attained as by him] who erects [an image of] Devi or Varuna . . .

No. 24.—KULAIT COPPER-PLATE INSCRIPTION OF SOMA-VARMAN. (PLATE XXIV.)

This copper-plate grant of Rājā Soma-varman was brought to my notice in the summer of 1902. I subsequently edited it in my paper on inscriptions in Chambā State. The copper-plate is $14\frac{3}{4}$ wide and $10\frac{3}{4}$ high, and consists of twenty-four horizontal lines. In the proper right margin the subscription of the donor and two short lines, containing the names of the officials concerned with the grant are written vertically. Over these the signature of the previous Rājā, Sālavāhana, the father of Soma-varman, can still be traced, partly running through the initial akṣaras of lines 5-17. The plate is in a fair state of preservation, except along the proper right margin where both corners are broken. In the upper corner the symbol om, the initial akṣaras of the first two lines and the initial akṣaras of the subscription are missing. In the lower corner five akṣaras of line 22, probably two of line 23, and one of line 24 have been lost, besides the lower portions of the two short vertical lines in the margin. Along the lower edge of the plate some rents are visible, one of which has been clamped. The letters are well-engraved; their average size is $\frac{3}{16}$ to $\frac{4}{4}$.

¹ Read साम्रत:

² This sloka has been restored according to the reading of the Eharāyā inscription (No. 36, Il. 14-17). It also occurs in the Löh-Țikri (No. 29, Il. 7-11), the Mangalöā (No. 41, Il. 5-7) and the Suköi inscriptions (No. 43, Il. 5-8). In correct Sanskrit it would be गर्वा कीटिप्रदानिन यहणे सीम-सूर्ययी: । सम-तुत्त्व-फले दंवी वर्षो वा प्रतिष्ठित: ॥

The pada गवा कोटिप्रदानेन occurs in a sloka found in copper-plate inscriptions (No. 14, Il. 17-18, No. 25, Il. 25-27.)

³ The vernacular fragments in lines 8 and 9 I have left untranslated.

⁴ A. R. A. S. fer 1902-03, pp. 255 ff. with facsimile III.



Siyā Fountain Inscription.





The plate records a grant of land by Rājā Soma-varman, the son of Sāla-vāhana. The latter, as we know from the Rājataranginī,¹ was deposed by king Ananta-deva of Kaśmīr and replaced by another ruler. From the fact, just noted, that Sālavāhanā's signature is still traceable on the plate, there can be little doubt that Soma-varman was his immediate successor, and consequently the new ruler installed by Ananta. The granted land was situated at Kulakagoṣtha, the modern Kulait, in the district of Trighatṭaka which corresponds to the Trēhṭā pargana on the Upper Rāvī.

The inscription opens with a stanza in the Puepitāgrā metre, in praise of the three great gods Brahmā, Vișnu and Siva. The same verse is found at the beginning of another copper-plate grant issued by Soma-varman together with his brother and successor Asata (No. 25, ll. 1-2), and also in a corrupt form in the Salhi fountain inscription (No. 33). Subsequently no less than nine lines (2-10) are devoted to a eulogy of Sāhilla the glorified ancestor of the donor. This passage recurs also, with slight modifications, on the title-deed of Somavarman and Asata. The praise lavished on the reputed founder of Chamba is not merely of the conventional kind usually found in Indian inscriptions. It speaks of a successful war waged by him against the Kira troops of the Lord of Dugar (Durgara) and their allies the Saumatikas, of his alliance with the ruler of Kangra (Trigarta) and of his suzerainty over the principality of Kuļū (Kulūta). It mentions a pilgrimage performed by Sāhilla to Kuruksetra on the occasion of a solar eclipse, and his great liberality on that occasion. Apparently his gift of "a multitude of elephants" which afforded him the honorific title of "Elephant-rain" had the desired effect of securing offspring for his house, through the favour of its mythical progenitor, the sun-god Bhaskara.

The encomium bestowed on Soma-varman himself is, on the contrary, purely conventional, though no less elaborate. We may conclude, therefore, that this prince had not rendered himself conspicuous by any exploits. Whether he had really "uprooted and replanted the royal power of several princes" may rightly be doubted, as this belonged to the *dharma* of every right-minded ruler of ancient India.

The inscription is dated in the 7th year of Soma-varman's reign, but, as stated above, there are no data to fix the exact time of his accession. All that can be said with certainty is, that it cannot be far removed from the middle of the 11th century. When first editing this plate, I assumed that its date could be fixed owing to its having been issued on the occasion of a solar eclipse. But on re-examining the original, I have come to the conclusion that the damaged syllable following that indicating the month (Bhā. i.e. Bhādrapada) is śu and not kṛ, as I first read it. It is, therefore, certain that the date of the inscription does not coincide with that of the solar eclipse at which the grant was made. Other instances are known of copper-plate grants being dated on a day subsequent to the donation.

¹ Rajat. VII 218; transl. Stein, Vol. 1., p. 286.

It reminds of the name of Kaukanavarsa "Bracelet-rain" borne, according to Röjat. IV 246, by a Tuhkhara magician, brother of Lalitaditya's general Cankuna and also by king Ksemagupta (Rājat. VI 261).
 See Prof. Kielhoru's Inscriptions of Northern India, No. 502 in Ep. Ind. Vol. V, App. p. 70.

It is a point of special interest that both the Prime Minister (Skr. mahāmātya) and the Great Record-keeper (Skr. mahākṣapaṭalika) mentioned as "messengers" at the end of the title-deed, bear the title rājānaka, i.e. rāṇā. Whether this title here denotes a feudatory chief or is merely honorary, does not appear, but the former alternative seems more likely. The name of a third official is only partly preserved. Between the initial a and the three syllables -lhuthukah in the next line some eight aksaras appear to be missing. We may, therefore, assume that here also the official's personal name was preceded by his designation, perhaps ākṣapatalika "connected with the aksapatala office." It will be noticed that the \bar{a} is followed by a short almost vertical stroke which is also found after $k\bar{a}$ (for $k\bar{a}yastha$) in the next line and after brā (for brāhmana) in line 22, and evidently is meant to indicate an abbreviation. If so, this \bar{a} may stand for \bar{a} ksapatalika and the missing portion may have been the word $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}naka$, followed by $\bar{S}r\bar{\iota}$ and the initial letter or letters of the official's personal name. The name of the kayastha of which only the initial aksara de is preserved, may be restored with some degree of probability from the grant of Asata (No. 26, l. 21), which was written by two kayasthas. one of whom is called Sivapa the son of Devapa.

Soma-varman's grant, though neatly engraved, is by no means free from errors. Most of these seem to be due to thoughtlessness on the part of the engraver. Sometimes we find syllables or even words left out, which we have restored from inscription No. 25. On the other hand, we find a syllable repeated in paripāpālita (l. 13). Vowel-marks have been omitted in Kurukṣattra (l. 5) for which No. 25, l. 5, has the correct form Kurukṣetra; in pratirāpita (l. 14) for pratiropita and in udayaśelo (l. 16) for udayaśailo. Mistakes for which the author of the inscription may be held responsible are partly due to the peculiar local pronunciation of Sanskrit. Thus we find ri for r in trina (l. 21), j for y in praniji (l. 15), and an interchange of sibilants in maśī (l. 7) for maṣī, visva (l. 17) for viśva, sāsyamāna (l. 20) for śāsyamāna. The form vaiśa (l. 10) for vamṣa nearly represents the local pronunciation bemsa. For the rest such mistakes are almost entirely limited to trespasses of sam thi rules which I have left uncorrected in my transcript. Marks of punctuation have been frequently omitted.

TEXT.

श्चिं स्त्रीस्तः॥ श्चीं नमश्चिवाय॥ जयित भुवन-कारणं स्वयंभू ज्यित पुरन्दर-नन्दनी मुरारिः [1*] जयित गिरिसुता-निरुड-देशे (1. 2) [दु]रित-भयापस्रो हरस देवः॥ श्वी-चण्यका-वासकात्यरम-ब्रह्माखो ललाट-तट-घटित-विकट-भ्रुकुटि-प्रक-(1. 3) ट-कुटि(हि)त-कटक-सौमटिक-कृतसानाध्य-दर्गरेश्वर-समीर-सम्युक्तित-कीर-बल-बलवहवाग्रग्रक्तणि-क्रण-चपण-(1. 4) नव-जलधरस्य। दण्डोपनत-विग्रतीधिपानुनय-प्रार्थित-सम्यानस्य। संवा-विधि-व्यग्र-स्वकुत्य-कुर्लृतश्वर-कर्म-व्यतिहा- (1. 5)र-प्रार्थमान-राज्यापण-प्रसादस्य। कुरुक्तचे(क्तित्रे) राष्ट्रपराग-समय-समर्थि(पि)त-मद-गम्य-स्वस्य-मधुकर-कुलाकुल-कपोल-पर-(1. 6) क्रक्तकर-घटा-दान-प्रोति-प्रसन्त-मानम-भगवद्गाम्बरामि निन्दित-निजान्यय-प्रसृति-परम्परा-सार-करिवर्षाभिधानाम्य-(1. 7) दयस्य तत्काल-मिलित-निखिल-

¹ Cf. above No. 14, l. 19 and beneath No. 26, l. 21; also Stein's note at Rājat. V. 301 and Buhier, Indian Palwography, p. 102.

50

CH.

24

Kulait Copper-plate Grant.

0

12

CALE 0-63

महीपाल-मुख-मग्री(घी)-कूर्चिका-[*कीर्ति-1] सुरभित-सप्त-भुवन(भोगस्त । निरतिशय-ग्रीर्यौदार्य-धे (1. 8) र्यागाध गाम्भीर्य मर्यादा-दया-दाचिष्य-वैलचष्य-जर्जरित जामदग्य-शिवि-कर्ष-युधिष्ठिरादि-प्रवर-प्रसिक्षे: दर्भन-सफिल-(1.9)त-लोक-कोचन-मनोरम-मूर्ति (तें) भैगवक्को-गूट्श-स्वामि-देव-प्रख्याप्यमानानम्य-सामान्य-स्कार-स्कार-स्कार्दर(इ)-मिश्रनः समर-म-(1.10) इस-सिक्यान-कार्यित(कोपा-र्जित²)-साइसाइ-निकाइसइ-मटमटलिइ।(त्सिंहा)-दापर-पर्यायस्य । पौ(सो) जण³-वै(वं) श्र-भूषण-महामण: (l. 11) श्रीमत्माहिक-देवस्य ॥ निर्मेत्तं क्ले तिलक-सूत: निरवद्य-विद्या-विनोद-रस-रसिकः अभेष-भास्त्र-परिमलाधि[*वासित'-] (l. 12)मानसः अगणित-विमल-गृण-गृणालकत-मूर्तिः विवेक्षैक-वसितः देव-द्विज-गुक्-पृजा-निरत-मित्ररितशय(यि)- (1.13) त-शौटीय-शाल-स्पृष्ठणीय विक्रमः क्रम-परिपापालित (परिपालित)-चातुवर्ण (चातुर्वर्ष्य)-व्यवस्थः दुर्वार-वैरि-वस-विपुल-दर्प-दलन-व्य-(1. 14) ग्रोग-करवाल-वला[न*]-दिक्तण-दोर्दण्डः प्रचण्ड-प्रतापोत्खात-प्रतिरा-(री) पितानेक-नरनाय-प्रथित-प्रीट-प्रभु-प्रक्तिः (1.15) वांकित-वस्तु-विस्तर-परिपृर्ति-सकत्त-प्रणिजि (
abla u)-जन-मनोरयः ग्राधर-कर-निकरावदात-यu्रा[*]-प्रसर-प्रकाण्चित-(l, 16)सर्वाग्रः कला-केलि-पेशल-विलास: उदय-शे(शै)लो मित्र-मण्डलस्य उन्पा(त्पा)त-केत्रक्ति-जनस्य । ससाधा-(1. 17) रण-शौर्यान (र्जि)त-यशो-राश्चि-प्रकाशिताशेश(ष)-विख(श्व)-प्रदेश: पौ(मौ)षणान्य(न्व)-योभ(द्व) वित्यतु -मात् भिक्त विनिजित-राम-चरित (l. 18) परममाहेश्वर; परमवैख्वतः परमभद्दारख-महाराजाधिराज-परमेश्वर-श्रोमलालवाइन-देव-पादानुष्वात-प-(1. 19) रमभद्दारिका-महाराज्ञी-श्री-रढा-देवी-कृत्ति-चौरनीरनिधि-म्धादीधित-परमभद्दारक-महाराजाधिराज-परमेश्वर-श्री-(1. 20) मत्सोमवर्म-देव× क्यली ख-सा(शा)स्यमान-विषद्ध-मण्डल-प्रतिबद्ध-। कुलिकगोष्ठे रङ्ग्क-सुत-रणादित्य - सत्त एतत्पत्र - उद्म (!. 21) - स्थि तामी [*दु] भूरेकाङ्गतः रङ्गुक-स्तर-मङ्गात्क) - भू १ एवं स्व सीमा-त्रि(तः)ण-गोय्थी(गव्युति)-गोचर-पर्यन्तं स-खिलोपखिलं स-वनस्य-(l. 22) [त्युदकं स]• - बाराम-विश्वाम-संहितमा-चन्द्रार्कः। ब्रा । काम(श्व)प-गोत्रागाय(गोत्राय) । विप्रवराय। वाजिस्रोय (वाजसनेय)-प्राखाय। (l. 23) — — पौचाय। ब्रह्म-पुचाय। भट्ट-रह्माय । सूर्य-यहण-निमित्ते चयहारत्वेति-प्रतिपादितं इत कर्ध(र्धु)मा-चन्द्रार्क 'पुन-पौ-(l. 24) [व]यो[र] भोक्तव्यम् [रा] प्रवर्धमान-कत्वाण-विजय-राज्ये संवत् ७ भा मृति ३ दूतो व महामात्व-राजा-नक-त्री-रोडिल: मद्दान्तपटलिक-(l. 25)राजानक-त्री-काहिल: \mathbf{u} (l. 26) ल्ह्युक:[*।] लिखितं का. दे[वपेन¹⁰]

ञ्जो मत्सोमवर्म-देव-खहस्तः ॥ Original subscription. [त्रो]मत्साखवाहन-देव-खहस्तः ॥

¹ This word has been supplied from the corresponding passage in No. 25, 1. 7. Possibly a word like vareita is o missing after kürcikā. 3 Cf. above p. 97.

² Restored from No. 25, l. 9.

⁴ Restored from No. 25, l. 11.

[•] The correct reading is probably सौधवान्वयोद्वय प्रति

⁶ The stroke between go and sthe is evidently due to accident.

⁷ This akeara is partly destroyed.

⁸ The last aksara is damaged.

More currect is the expression प्राप्त वाद वाद क्यांच्या found in No. 15, 1. 17.

¹⁰ Cf. No. 26, l. 21. .

TRANSLATION.

Hail! Reverence to Siva. Victorious is the Cause of the world, the Self-existent (Brahmā). Victorious is the son of (Siva or Indra) the Destroyer of castles, the Enemy of Mura (Kṛṣṇa). Victorious is He, whose body is held by the Mountain-daughter (Durgā), He who removes distress and dauger—Hara the god.

(L. 2) From his residence at the glorious Canpaka, the highly devout [king Soma-varman, who is an ornament of the spotless house of the illustrious Sāhilla of divine descent—that great jewel adorning the race of Muşana1—who (Sahilla) was a fresh rain-cloud to extinguish in a moment the mighty blazing fire of the Kira forces, fanued, as by the wind, by the Lord of Durgara, assisted by the Saumatikas. whose camp was manifestly crushed by the fearful frown produced on the slope of his (Sāhilla's) forehead; whose (Sāhilla's) alliance was humbly sought by the ruler of Trigarta, subdued by force; who (Sahilla) was asked the favour of bestowing royalty in return for services by his kinsman, the Lord of Kuluta, anxious to render him homage; who (Sahilla) had the fortunate name of Karivarsa (Elephant-rain) on account of the continuous and stable generation of his posterity joyfully granted by the Lord Bhaskara (the Sun-god), whose mind was contented with gladness by the gift of a multitude of elephants, whose flat cheeks were covered by a swarm of bees attracted by the scent of the rut-secretion, and which were bestowed in Kuruksetra at the time of an eclipse; who (Sāhilla) has made the circuit of the seven worlds fragrant by his fame [painted] with the ink-brushes which were the mouths of all the princes assembled (at Kuruksetra) on that occasion (the solar eclipse); who (Sahilla), by his unequalled kindness and compassion combined with unsurpassed bravery, generosity, firmness and unfathomable profoundness, has impaired the fame of Jamadagni's son (Parasurama), Sibi, Karna Yudhisthira and such-like heroes; by looking upon whose (Sāhilla's) lovely presence the eyes of the world have been made fruitful; whose (Sabilla's) widespread greatness brilliant with matchless and universal effulgence was renowned like [that of] the lord, the illustrious Sūdraka-svāmin' of divine descent; who (Sāhilla) by his fury in setting in array a thousand battles had acquired such names as Sahasanka (Marked by rashness), Niśśańkamalla (the dauntless Wrestler) and Matamatatsimha (the roaring? Lion)-

(L. 11.) [King Soma-varman] who delights in passing his time in attaining faultless knowledge; whose mind is perfumed by the fragrance of every science; whose form is adorned with an innumerable number of spotless virtues; he, the only abode of discrimination; whose heart takes delight in the worship of the deities, the twice-born and the spiritual preceptors; who possesses enviable courage full of excessive manliness; who in their proper order maintains the status of the four castes; whose strong arm is dexterous in brandishing the fierce falchion intent on crushing the great pride of the irresistible foe; who (Soma-varman) by his

¹ Here as well as in line 17 I have translated according to the proposed emendation. If we read Pausna the rendering will be "the Solar race."

² I translate according to the proposed emendation samarpita instead of samarthita.

² Südruka is a legandary king who largely figures in old Indian folklore, and is the reputed author of the play Mrcchakatikā ("The Little Clay Cart").

excessive majesty has uprooted and replanted the mighty and widespread royal power of several princes; who has completely fulfilled the wishes of all his favoured ones by profusely granting to them their desired objects; who, by the effulgence of his glory, bright like the multitudinous beams of the Hare-holder (the Moon), has illumined all regions; who takes an exquisite delight in every art and sport; he, the eastern Mountain where-from the orb of the sun (alias the circle of his friends) rises, [but] a Comet of calamity to the wicked; he who has illumined all the quarters of the universe by his fame acquired by extraordinary heroism; he, born in the house of Mūṣaṇa, who by his devotion to his parents has outvied the piety of Rāma; he, the supreme worshipper of the Great Lord (Siva) and of Viṣṇu; he, who reverently remembers the supreme prince, the king of kings, the supreme lord, the illustrious Sālavāhana of divine descent and was born from the womb of the supreme princess, the queen, the illustrious and divine Rardhā even as the Moon was born from the Milk-ocean; he, the supreme prince, the king of kings, the supreme lord, the illustrious Soma-varman of divine descent, the prosperous one,

(L. 20) has granted one bhū in Kulika-gosṭha, which belongs to the Trighaṭṭa-(ka) district of his domain and was occupied by Raṅgu(ka)'s son Raṇāditya and belonged to the latter's son Udma—in figures 1 bhū occupied by Raṅgu(ka)'s son—as far as its limits with grass, grazing, and pasture-ground, with fallow land large and small, with fruit-trees and water, with ingress and egress, together with gardens and resting-places, for as long as the moon and the sun [shall endure,] to the Brā[hman] of the house of Kāṣyapa, the descendant of three prominent Sages (rsi) and adherent of the school of the Vājasaneyas, the grandson of ..., the son of Brahma, Bhatṭa Rahaṣa—on the occasion of a solar eclipse, as an agrahāra. To be enjoyed henceforward for as long as the moon and the sun [shall endure] by son and son's son.

Own sign-manual of the illustrious Soma-varman of divine descent. (Original subscription.) Own sign-manual of the illustrious Sālavāhana-varman of divine descent.

No. 25.—CHAMBĀ COPPER-PLATE INSCRIPTION OF SOMA-VARMAN AND ĀSAṬA.—(PLATE XXV.)

This copper-plate belongs to the temples of Hari Rāi and Campāvatī, both in Chambā city, and is now preserved in the State Museum (Cat. No. B, 5).

The inscription was first brought to notice by Sir Alexander Cunningham and was subsequently edited by the late Professor F. Kielhorn. I have re-edited it in my preliminary article on the inscriptions of Chambā. Here again I desire to acknowledge the great assistance I have derived from the work of so eminent an

¹ A. S. R. Vol. XXI, pp. 135 f. Ind. Ant. Vol. XXVII, pp. 7 ff. A. R. A. S. 1902-03, pp. 258 ff., with faceimile IV.

authority on Indian epigraphy. My transcript—it will be seen—differs but slightly from that of Professor Kielhorn, which was prepared from an imperfect rubbing. In my translation I have adopted the rendering of certain passages, as given by my predecessor in the course of his paper. The only point, on which I venture to differ in my conclusions from those of that distinguished scholar is the topography, in elucidating which I had the enormous advantage of an investigation in loco.

The plate measures 18" in width and 12" in height. It contains thirty-two lines, of which 1-28 are written horizontally over the whole breadth of the plate, and record the original grant by Soma-varman, whose signature is engraved vertically in the centre of the proper right margin. The addition by his successor Asata commences from the end of line 28 and is continued along the lower, proper left and upper margins, ending in the proper right margin near the first aksara of Somavarman's subscription. After his name that of Asata is engraved.

The upper proper left corner of the plate is broken, causing the loss of about five aksaras at the end of line 30, and of about three aksaras at the beginning of line 31. In the upper proper right corner also a small piece is missing. Here two aksaras have become damaged, but are still legible. Otherwise the inscription is well preserved. Its execution leaves nothing to be desired. The average size of the letters is between $\frac{3}{16}$ and $\frac{1}{4}$.

The grant is composed in prose, except two imprecatory verses in the Puspitāgrā and Mālinī metres at the beginning, one in the Šārdūlavikrīdita metre in the middle, and four ślokas (Anustubh) regarding the dānadharma at the end. The insertion of a verse in the middle and in continuation of the prose, though common enough in literature, is unusual in a title-deed. "From a grammatical point of view," Professor Kielhorn remarks, "I may draw attention to the employment of the instrumental case Šukravāreņa in line 27 instead of the locative Šukravāre, and to the position of the numeral in bhūmāṣaka-caturnām, line 29, and in deva-dvayoh, line 30, which is not uncommon in Sanskrit inscriptions of the middle-ages. The Sanskrit of the genealogical part of the inscription, up to line 13, is unobjectionable."

As regards orthography, Professor Kielhorn draws attention to the use of the dental for the palatal sibilant in Kulūtesvara and sākhinah (l. 5), Sivi (l. 8), asesasāstrārtha (l. 11) and paramesvara (l. 12); the employment of the guttural nasal instead of the anusvāra in vanše (l. 24); and the fact that ba is everywhere denoted by the sign for va. I may add that we find ri for r in iritīyāyām (l. 27) and that the nasal is used instead of anusvāra in svayambhūr¹ (l. 1), sandhūksita (l. 4), sandhānasya (l. 4) and sanniyuktaka (l. 14).

The inscription, as stated above, opens with two benedictory verses, the first of which occurs also in the grant of Soma-varman (No. 24, ll. 1-2), whilst the second will be found again in that of Āsata (No. 26, ll. 1-2). In some respects the two readings differ in spelling. The first stanza recurs also in a very corrupt form in the Sar's fountain inscription (No. 33, l. 1). The next eight lines (3-10) contain, with some slight modifications, the same eulogy of Sahilia, the ancestor

¹ No. 24 has in the same verse svayambhur.

of the donor of the grant, as we have noticed in Soma-varman's title-deed (No. 24, ll. 2-11). This has enabled us to restore missing words or syllables and to correct mistakes in both the corresponding passages.

A point of special interest is that in the present grant mention is made of a victory gained by Sāhilla over the Turuṣkas. Professor Kielhorn conjectures that this refers to the repulse of one of Sultān Mahmūd's invasions at the beginning of the 11th century. As, however, according to the Vamśāvalī Sāhilla is separated from Āsaṭa by five reigns, to which probably those of Sālavāhana and Soma-varman are to be added, he can hardly have been a contemporary of Mahmūd of Ghaznī. Unfortunately the term "Turuṣka" is not only used to denote the Turks, but, like "Śaka" and "Yavana," it designates any race of foreign invaders. Kalhaṇa calls even the Scythian Kaniṣka a Turuṣka. It is quite possible that the Turuṣkas defeated by Sāhilla were merely foreign mercenaries employed by one of the neighbouring hill-chiefs. Kalhaṇa¹ speaks of Turuṣka centurions (Turuṣka-śatā-dhīśa) in the service of king Harṣa of Kaśmīr, and of Turuṣka allies which the latter's grandson Bhikṣācara employed in an expedition against Sussala, who defeated them near Puñc (Parṇotsa) in the month of Vaiśākha A.D. 1121.

The praise bestowed on the donor himself is less elaborate than in the corresponding passage of Soma-varman's grant. The high-flown expressions used are partly identical. It will be seen that Soma-varman is the donor of the grant, but that the charter was issued after he had been succeeded by his brother Asata, in the first year of whose reign it is dated.

The following passage (ll. 13-15), in which the donor enumerates his officials and enjoins them to observe the grant, also occurs with certain modifications in the title-deed of Vidagdha (No. 15, ll. 6-11) and in that of Āsaṭa (No. 26, ll. 7-10). In the next 6 lines (16-21) the situation of the granted lands is described. In each case we find the names of the district (Skt. mandala), of the village and of the previous landholder. In some cases a name is added which apparently indicates the land itself. In the grants of Yugākara (No. 14) and Vidagdha (No. 15) also the fields are designated by special names, according to a custom still prevalent in Chambā. The villages, which can nearly all be identified, are situated in the immediate neighbourhood of the capital and belong to three different mandalas, the position of which can approximately be fixed from that of the villages.²

Among the persons who enjoyed the lands at the time when the grant was made we find in the first place the Queen-mother, Rardhā. From the wording of the title-deed (bhucyamāna i.e. bhujyamāna is the present participle of the passive voice!) we may infer that she was still alive at the time of the donation and consequently had survived her husband, Sālavāhana. From the Dēvī-rī-kōthī fountain inscription (No. 32) it is evident that the custom of satī prevailed among the noble families of Chambā, but was not universally practised. Queen Rardhā possessed a jāgīr, indicated by the name of Kulotī, out of which she granted four bhū of land, thus participating in the donation of her two sons. It will be seen in the sequel

¹ Rājat. VII 1119; transl. Stein, Vol. I. p. 357, and VIII 885, 886, 919 and 923; transl. Stein, Vol. II. pp. 70 and 73.

[?] On their position see above, pp. 11 f.

that she was the founder of one of the two temples to which the grant was made. This accounts for her liberality. The position of Kulotī is uncertain. A charter of Rājā Samgrām-varman, dated Sāstra 22 (A.D. 1446) contains the name of a village called Kulodi, but without any particulars regarding its situation. In a copper-plate grant of Rājā Balabhadra, dated Sāstra 68, Vikrama 1649 (A.D. 1592) mention is made of Kulot dhaga, i.e. "precipice" near the village of Lakhalī in the Sāhō pargaṇā.

The next landholder mentioned in our inscription is the cook (sūpakāra) Surambhata. We may safely assume that he was the cook of the royal household. Among the numerous grants of Rājā Balabhadra is one dated Vikrama 1697, Šāstra 16 (A.D. 1640/l) which records the donation of the village of Ktahmāro¹ in the Sāhō parganā to the cook (sūpakārin) Viṣṇu-śarman. I may add that up to the present day the Rājā's cook is a Brāhman.

The land granted in the village of Vata was in the possession, not of an individual, but of the members of a committee (gosthika2 from gostha). chonneraka, by which these gosthikas are indicated, I cannot explain. Possibly it denotes some locality. The next landholder, Vijjaula, is called Bhadravakāśiya. i.e. a native of Bhadravakāśa, the modern Bhadarvah. This hill-tract belongs at present to the Jammu-Kasmir State. Among the remaining five landholders two bear the designation astaprahārika. This word is not found in Sanskrit literature. but there can be little doubt that it denotes eight watchmen attached to the temple of Lakemi-Nārāyan, the chief sanctuary of Chambā. The word prahārika is evidently derived from Skr. prahara (Hindi pahr) meaning "a watch of three hours." The expression dopahr for "noon" (literally "two watches," i.e. six hours after 6 A.M.) is well known. The word astapraharika is not formed according to the rules of Sanskrit etymology. The correct vrddhi form from prahara would be prāharika. This is also borne out by the fact that its modern derivative is pāharī, a word used in Chamba to denote a watchman, either of a temple or some other building. It is synonymous with the Urdu word caukidar (Anglo-indice chowkidar). At present one pūjārī and four pāharīs are attached to the temple of Laksmī-Nārāyaņ. In a charter of Balabhadra dated Vikrama 1664 Šāstra 83 (A.D. 1607) mention is made of these watchmen as Śrī-Nārāyane de pāhari (l. 11). Professor Kielhorn has drawn attention to the fact that here as well as in the concluding portion of the inscription the landholders are sometimes not called by their own proper names, but described as the sons of their respective fathers. The same peculiarity may be noticed in Yugakara's grant (No. 14).

The total area of land granted is stated to be 15 bhū. It is clear that bhū is a superficial measure divided into four bhūmāsakas. In the grants of Vidagdha (No. 15), Soma-varman (No. 24) and Āsaṭa (No. 26) also we find the area of the land expressed in bhū or bhūmi. In that of Yugākara, on the other hand, the extent of the granted land is expressed in a measure of capacity—the piṭaka (modern piṛā)—according to the usage of the Hills. We may compare with bhū the English word "acre" which originally must have meant "a field," as appears from German

¹ At present the village belongs to the temple of Laksmi-Narayan.

² Cf. Ep. Ind. Vol. 1, p. 106.

Acker and Latin ager. As to the exact value of a $bh\bar{u}$, I may note that the land, granted in Asata's charter, which is stated to be 1 $bh\bar{u}$ 6 $m\bar{a}_5aka$, in other words $2\frac{1}{2}bh\bar{u}$, has an area of 14 $l\bar{a}hr\bar{i}$ or 42 acres, from which it would follow that 1 $bh\bar{u}$ corresponds with nearly $5\frac{1}{2}$ $l\bar{a}hr\bar{i}s$ or nearly 17 acres.

In addition to the 15 $bh\bar{u}$ of land detailed, the donor granted annually one $kh\bar{a}ri$ of grain from the store-house ($kosth\bar{a}g\bar{a}ra$) of Bhadravarma, the modern Bhadram. This store-house was, no doubt, the building in which the revenue in kind was collected and would, therefore, correspond to the State Köthi found at the head-quarters of each $pargan\bar{a}$, and used not only as a residence for the State officials, but until recent years also for the storage of the grain paid as revenue. The oustom of paying revenue in kind has been abolished since A.D. 1863, but the large wooden grain vessels called $ka\bar{n}j\bar{a}t^{\dagger}$ may still be seen in many of the Köthis.

Lines 21-24 contain particulars regarding the donees of Soma-varman's grant. It is to be regretted that, in the midst of his business-like statements, the author of the title-deed was suddenly seized with poetical inspiration, which circumstance has considerably impaired the lucidity of this passage. This much is clear that the total grant is divided into two very unequal portions. One portion consisting of only half a bhū is given to a Viṣṇu temple founded by order of the illustrious Pāsata. Professor Kielhorn proposed to read Srī-Asaţa, but to this emendation there seem to me to be serious objections, though at first I felt inclined to adopt it. First of all it will be seen that the akṣara pā, which was doubtful in Professor Kielhorn's rubbings, is quite distinct in the original. Supposing that the engraver had really substituted $p\bar{a}$ for \bar{a} , it can hardly be believed that such a mistake in a personal name would not have been corrected at the same time as other corrections were made. By reading Sri-Asata, we should moreover have to assume that the author of the inscription had made a serious mistake in samdhi by allowing the hiatus to stand. Finally we notice that Śrī-Pāsata is called mahārājaputra, so that he can hardly be identical with Asata, who was the ruling Raja at the time when the charter was We shall, therefore, have to admit the existence of a Pasata, but it is impossible to say in what relationship he stood to the donor. The Visnu temple founded by him seems to have disappeared. Judging from the smallness of the grant, it cannot have been a very important shrine.

The remaining $14\frac{1}{3}bh\bar{u}$ of land, together with the annual $kh\bar{u}ri$ of grain, were bestowed on two other temples, one of the Lord Hari (i.e. Viṣṇu) founded by Lakṣmana-varman and the other dedicated to Siva by Queen Rardhā, apparently for the benefit of Sālākara-varman. The first-mentioned shrine is undoubtedly the temple of Hari Rāi near the Caugān Gate, which still enjoys part of the grant. Regarding its founder, Laksmaṇa-varman, nothing is known, but we may assume that he was a member of the ruling house. In any case, it is very probable that the Hari Rāi temple was built shortly before the grant was made. The tradition that it dates back to a period anterior to the foundation of Chambā by Sāhilla will, therefore, have to be rejected. Professor Kielhorn is, no doubt, right in identifying Sālākara-varman with Sālavāhana-varman, the father of the donor. The fact that Rardhā

¹ Smaller vessels for storing grain are called tun. They contain up to 20 perc of grain. On the kothi cf. above p. 136.

built a Siva temple in his memory is conclusive proof that she did not become satā after his death. The temple in question is no longer extant. At least, none of the three chief Siva temples of Chambā town—namely, Candargupt, Gaurī-Sańkar and Trimukh—has any tradition regarding Sālavāhana and his queen Rardhā. In view of the above, Professor Kielhorn's conjecture, that the two gods were worshipped in the same temple and that this temple was probably that of Laksmī-Nārāyan cannot be upheld. It is curious that at the present time Hari Rāi sharês the grant with Campāvatī the eponymous goddess of Chambā. In what manner a part of the donation has become transferred to this temple, it is impossible to decide.

Lines 24-27 contain four ślokas of the usual type, in which the sanctity of the donation is emphasized and its confiscation denounced as the blackest of crimes. In line 27 the date is given as the first year of the reign of Asața, the month of Vaiśākha, the third tithi of the bright fortnight, Friday.

The Great-Recordkeeper (mahākṣapaṭalika) Kābuka, mentioned as "messenger" of the charter, is perhaps identical with the Rājānaka Kāhila, whose name occurs with the same designation and in the same connection at the end of Soma-varman's plate (No. 24, l. 25). In the same manner we find the names, Paituka and Paitala, used to denote the same person in the Sārbān well inscription in the Delhi Museum (Cat. No. B, 6). The kāyasthas, Śivapa and Manna, by whom the charter was written are mentioned again in line 32. They were also the writers of Āsaṭa's grant (No. 26, l. 21).

After the formula iti śubham which marks the end of the original document we find a few lines added in the 11th year, evidently of Āsata's reign, the menth of Bhādrapada, the 12th day of the bright fortnight. The name of the day of the week is lost except the initial s. This addition is written in a less careful manner than the original grant and contains several mistakes, which to a certain extent obscure its meaning. It records a change in the original donation as regards the bhū of land in the village of Mangala (modern Manglā) in the Pārakamaṭa manḍala. It also records an additional grant of one bhū of land to a temple (it is not clear which), apparently for the special purpose of rewarding the services of the eight watchmen (aṣṭaprahārika) above mentioned. In the right hand margin we find the signatures of both the original donor Sema-varman and of the ruling chief Rājā Āsata.

TEXT.

श्रीं नमश्चिवाय । जंयित भुवन-कारण्(णं) ख्रयंमूर्जयित पुरन्दर-नन्दनो मुरािदः [i^*] जयित गिरिसुता-निरुद्ध-देहो दुरित-भयापहरो हर् (1,2) ख देवः ॥ जयित जनमिनष्टादुद्धरन्तो भवानी जयित निज-विभूति-व्याप्त-विश्व χ पुरािदः [i^*] जयित च गजवक्कस्मो च यस्य प्रसादादु-परमितं (1,3) ममस्तो विश्व-वर्गोपसर्गः ॥ श्री-चण्पका-वासकात्परम-ब्रह्मस्थो ललाट-तट-घटित-विकट-भुकुटि-प्रकट-कुटित-कटक-सौमिटिक-क्रत-सानाय्य-दुर्ग-(1,4) रेश्वर-समीर-सम्युचित-

A parellel instance is the temple of Rādhā-Kṛṣṇa built in 1825 by Rāṇi Sārdā, the widow of Rājā Jit Singh who died in 1808. Cf. above p. 1, n. 3.

³ Cf. Ep. Ind. Vol. I. p. 95.

^{*} I read first bhakati with Prof. Kielhorn. The aksara bhrā, however, occurs in No. 13, 1. 9, in a different form.

विडेमेरापय्र हैं भवा

10

22

टा रिप्रमेर रम् रेथर दि: हां अभिरियु में रिस्स परें प्रेर मधा पहराहर 6 र भ मिलाया राया हे स्व र स र ल माय प्र स्यवः॥ हथ्रिहरम्दिस्वत्रीरुणर्शहेर्यरेत्रित्रे हेर्यरेत्वस्थात्रे स्वाद्मार्यस्य स्थान्यस्थान्यस्थान्यस्थान्यस् मभर्ते विश्वर्त्ता प्रसंकः। नी वयं हो व्यं नहार र भवक हो लन्त हो हो वितर एक हो प्रकार के एक एक में स्वाधित होत रमुर भशीर भर्ते हुउतीर वेल वलवय्य मुस्किल होल्हिण हो प्रमाण विश्व में स्वाधित होते हैं। यह प्रस्ति के स्वाधित होती संदेखहैं जिन में कर है दिर में है में रेस हैं है ले में में में में भारत कर के कर में कि में के विसे ले कि मान में कि राहे गस्ययसम्बद्धम्यात्रम्यात् वृद्धम्यक्रिक्षेत्रम् सक्यव्यव्यक्तिक्षेत्रम्यम्यप्रियम् प्रस्तिमानके निवश के ए रेड महासह है तथि लेड दिवित्यकी ए तम् विस्ति के दिन के इस प्रदेश र यमंद्रियस्या वरा भीराभवार्षयस्ति द्वां नह्यहरू विद्रामा मुस् विकले यु विश्व मिस वर्षे महासम्ब विनगपसी ज्ञानक स्थानिय विद्या प्रति स्थान मंडमहिनिम्ह गत्रुभएमें ए भेषा नुभर पटास मुग्ति भाग प्रमेर्स के माना मेर हिन्दी निर्मे ें देनवहा वर्षे वर्षेनरमेर सका सामिस से दें पर्वे गणिय सिर्भेर भी विषक्ति में नरहें दें सा सगलि विषय त्या प्रा विकुषर मधर विके विके विके पर सम्मित से प्रतास पर एक एक एक स्वास में स्वी सन्ने साय के या वर्ष के विके सम्मित हो स् महिन्द्रिय निक्रम् द्रिय दे के विदेश दे में में मारा मारा कि है हैन महिला महिला कि के में कि कार्य महिला है के महिला के मारा कि के महिला के महिला कि कि के महिला कि के महिला कि के महिला कि कि के महिला कि के महिला कि के महिला कि के महिल प्रभार हिल भाषा त्राय प्रेच स्टार हैं भी रह पष्टा हु सम रह ले की महत्त्र मरा सुर सार में रमे के से के के से के कर्षपम्य सिन भी में चित्र के उत्तर हिन में शह तक्ष्य व में व सक्षेत्र के में विश्व के में के के के के कि से से म्यद्रम्य द्रमक्षा द्रमा के के के द्रमा में का एड़ का मन वर्ष मार्ग गरी है वर्ष कि विविद्य होते । विविद्य के व बुदाक्रमान्त्रमञ्ज्यमञ्चर र प्रवेशीयमर सम्बन्धान स्वाद्य स्वाद र व १ व में व स्वाद र क्षेत्र स्वाद स्वाद स्वाद विवार प्रायम् त्रात्र कर वर वर मिर्दे कामानिक किया मिर महात्र किया महात्र के त्रात्र के वाहवा महासम् विशेष मिर हम्द्रियारी धार्ड ए विमाद्य द्रिया विमाद्य स्थाप में द्रियों । विमाद में माद स्थाप असी तार्म द्रियों कर में जिद्र क्षेत्रम् त्रा अवत्रभावक हो ता निर्देश कि हो अयमत्रेवीधमेव मायमा विभाव मा विभाव कि ही हो हो वे में स्वर्ण में ह मुर्दे र भए हे पर निक्सी लड़क : लिखर भे देत र एक या मुनिया भे राष्ट्री में भे र मेर मेर मेर पिलिया उरा के पर

कीर-बल-बलवहवाग्रग्रचणि-चब-चपण-ब(न)व-जलधरस्य। द्वापनत-विगर्ताधिपाननय-प्राधित-सन्धानस्य। सेवा-विधि-व्यय- (1. 5) खकुत्य-कुस्तेख(य)र-कर्म-व्यतिशार-प्राव्यमान-राज्यात्य(र्घ)-ण-प्रसादस्य। समर-भर-भग्नाकाणाकव्य-तुकव्य-विप्रस-वयास-धा(मा)विनः कुक्वेत्रे राष्ट्रपरा-(1.6) ग-समय-समर्थि $(\hat{\mathbf{v}})$ त-मद-गन्ध-सुन्ध मधुकर-कुलाकुल-कपोल-फलक-करि-घटा-दान'-प्रोति-प्रसन्न-सानस-भगवद्वास्कराभिनन्दित-निजान्वय-प्रसृति-(l. 7)परम्परा-प्रार-करिवर्षा-सिधाः नाम्यदयस्य तत्काल-मिलित-निखिल-महीपाल-मुख-मग्री(षी)-कृचिका-कोर्ति-सुर्भित-सत-भुवनाभी-गस्य निरतिय- (l. 8)य-योर्यौदार्यागाध-गाश्चीर्य-मर्यादा-दया-दाश्चिख-वेश्वचख-जर्जित-जामद-म्न्य 2 -सि(श्रि)बि-कर्ण-युधिष्ठिरादि-प्रवर-प्रसिद्धेः दर्शन-सफलित-लो $\cdot (1.9)$ क-लोचन-मनोर्म-सूर्ति (तर्)भगवच्छी-गृद्रक-खामि-देव-प्रखाप्यमा'नानन्य-सामान्य-स्कार-स्कृरदुव-महिन्नःसमर-सहस्र-संवि-धान-कोपाजित- (l. 10) साइसाइ-निकाइसक-मटमटसिंघा(हा)द्यापर-पर्यायस्य । पौ(मौ)वक-वै(वं) ग्र³-भूषण-मद्दामणे: श्रीमत्वाद्विज्ञ-देवस्य। निर्मेले क्ले तिल् (l. 11) क-भूत: निर्वद्य-विद्या-विनोद-रस-रसिक: भसे(शे),ष-सा(शा स्त्रार्थ-परिमलाधिवासित-मानस: विवेक्षैक-सरो-राज्यहंस: भग-णित-विमल-गुण-गणालङ्क'-(1. 12) त-मूति: विभुवन-भवन-विकु(क्क्)रित कीर्ति: परमभद्दारक-महाराजाधिराज-परमेख(श्व)र-श्रोमलालवाहन-देव-पादानुध्यात: परमभद्वारिका-महाराह्यो-श्वी-रठी-(1. 13) देवो-कृचि-चौरनिधि-सुधादोधिति: परमभट्टारक-महाराजाधिराज-परमेश्वर-श्रीमत्त्रो-सवर्म-देव× कुश्रली। सर्वानेव नियोगस्थान् राज-राजानक-राज(जा)- (l. 14) मात्य राजा(ज) पुत्र-परिकर-सन्नियुक्तक-विनियुक्तक-दृत-गमागमिक(का)-भित्वरमान्य(ण)- खग्र-कलिक-ग्रीस्किक-भौत्सिक-खडूरच-तरपति-वोश्याचिक-चौरो- $(l,\ l\,\delta)$ हरणिक-दण्डिक-दण्डवासिक 6 -ब्राह्मण्-चित्र 2 -विटक्क(भ)द्रादिभा(सा)ष्टादम-प्रकृती 🗶 प्रतिवासि-जनपदांच समान्नापयत्वस्त वस्तंविदितं यथा स्वभास्त्रमान-ष(च)वा-(1.16) भोगे' पान्यिल-मण्डल-प्रतिबद्ध-महाराज्ञी-वो-रर्टा-देव्या भुच(च्य)-मान -कलोटी-सत्त-भूमयश्रतम् तथा मुङ्गले स्पकार-सरभट-स्थिता(तमा)मीत् भूमि-इयं। (1. 17) वाटायां क्रोबेरक-गोष्ठिक-स्थिता(तमा)सोत् भूमि-इयं तथा तावसक-मण्डल-पृतिबद्ध-भदवमें भदावकाश्रीय-विज्ञौल-स्थितामीतु भूरेका। तथा सराइले (री. 18) भद्रवसन्त-स्थितासी-इसिरेका तथा ढात्यके ष्टप्रहारिक-देव-भृत-सत्क-लर्त्के भूमीइयं तथावैव दितीयाष्टप्रहारिक-रामञ्जय भन्त-सत्त-जीढके भू-इयं तथा पारे (र)-(l. 19) कमट 10-मख्डल-प्रतिबद्ध-मङ्गले ढी जिकायां लुई(त्यु)क-सुत्रा-मत्क-भूमाषक-द्यं तथाइं [र्ता]क-सुत-सत्क-भूमाषक-दयसुभी(मे)संगुद्धं भूरेकाङ्कतः कलोटी-भू । मङ्गले भू २ वाटायां (1. 20) भू २ भद्रवर्मे भू १ सराहुले भू १ टास्वके भू । मङ्गले भू १ एवं भ १५ एवं पूर्व-प्रसिद्ध-भृक्ति-प्रमाणेन खन्मोमा-त्वण-गोय्यो (गञ्जूति)-गोचर-पर्यन्तं स-खिलो-पित्रलं म-निर्गम-प्रवेशं (1. 21) स-वनस्यत्यद्वं ग्टइ-शाकवाटिका-हज्ञाराम-वित्रामोपेतं तथा

Prof. Kielhorn reads dara.

² The aksara ma is written below the line.

³ Perhapa vemsa.

^{*} The aksara la is written above the line.

⁵ Prof. Kielhorn reads [da]ndika-danda[p] asi(si)ka,

⁶ The word ksatriya is written below the line.

⁷ Prof. Kielhorn proposes to read cchatrābhoge and compares the expression chatrabhanga "interregnum" Ind. Ant. Vol. VIII, p. 214, 1.7.

Prof. Kielhorn remarks that -devi-bhujyamana- would be more correct.

[•] Prof. Kielhorn reads Rāmajjeya. Cf. bowever the akṣara ñca in the Dēvi-rī-koṭbī inscription No. 32 !!. 13

¹⁰ In 11, 21 and 29 the name is written Pārakamaja.

n Prof. Kielhorn reads: Dhaullekāyām Lutthukasuta-. In l. 21 the name is undoubtedly Latthuka.

¹² Prof. Kielhorn reads sakhila[m] pakhilam. Cf. however insor. No. 24, 1. 21. In No. 15, l. 17, we have instead sakhilapolacya.

भद्रवर्म-कोष्ठागारात्रातिवर्षे धान्य-खार्येकाक्रतः धान्य-खा १ पतो मध्यात्पारकमट-मक्रल-मार्गाक्र-ख्क-सु-(l. 22) तीय-भूमाषक-इयमत्रैव मञ्चाराज-पुत्र-श्री-पासटस्योद्देशेन¹ प्रतिष्ठापित-भगविद्वणावे **भवहार**ले इति प्रतिपादितं पान्य(बन्य)-भू १४ मा २ धान्य-खा १ घाचन्द्रार्कमना-(l. 23) च्छेयमशार्यमनुपद्रवम् पग्रहारतया तोय-चुलुकापूर-पूर्वकं ॥ त्रीमक्षक्रणवर्मणक्राभवद-प्राख्ये (ख्यो) विभूगी इरिश्यी-सालाकरवर्मणे च ग्रिव-कद्वाणार्चिती य-(1. 24) श्चित् [1*] देव्यास्त्रिन्यर-भक्ति-भावि-तिधया त्री-रर्देया स्थापितस्ताभ्यां दत्तिमिदं मया नतु जनैस्वर्षेरतु ज्ञायताम् ॥ तथा च व्यास-भाषितम [॥*] पितान्वङ्ग्रे(न्वंग्रे) सुविस्तीर्णे य× क- (1. 25) श्विद्यतिर्भवेत [।*] तस्याहं इस्त-लानो सि ग्रासनं मा व्यतिक्रमे: । पालनात्परमो धर्म X पालनात्परमं तप: [1*] पालनात्परमैश्वर्ये गरीयस्तेन पालनम् ॥ अन्यायेन (1. 26) हृता भूमिरन्यायेन तु हारिता। इरन्ती(ती) हारयन्त-(त) ब दहत्यासप्तमं कुलम् ॥ तडाकाना(गानां) सहस्रेण श्र(चा) श्रमध-श्रतेन च । गवां कोटि-प्रदानेन भूमि-इर्ता (1. 27) न गुड(हा)ति ॥ प्रवर्धमान-कत्याण-विजय-राज्ये श्रीमटास्टरेवीये संवत्तरे प्रथमे वैशाख-सित-चि (σ) तीयायां गुक्रवारेण पृष्टकमिदं संपादि- $(1,2^5)$ तम $[n^*]$ दृती च महाचपटलिक-श्री-काहुकः लिखितमिदं करणकायस्य-श्रिवप-मन्नाभ्याम् ॥ दति श्रुभम [।*] श्रन प्रनरिप लिख्यते [1*] यथोपरि- (1. 29) लिखित-पारकमट-मङ्गले भूमाषक-दा-(च)त्र्णी परिवर्ते तचैव सर्वायक-स्तानां सत्क-भूमाप(ष)काश्रतार: (1. 30) यङ्गत: भू-मा ४ यग्रहारत्वे विभागे देवह्यो: पन(पुन:?) संवत् ११ भाद्रपद-ग्र-ति १२ स — — — — (l. 31) — — वरे दत्तं पात्रिल-मण्डल-प्रतिबद्ध-घलहणे महेन्द्रक-पो(पौ)त्र-मत्तिक'-सत-सत्त-भूरेकाङ्गतो भू १ अष्टप्रह (हा) रिक-सव सेवा) थें ने (ने) व दे (दे) वग्टहे प्रतिप (पा) दिता। प्राङ्गे (ग्लि) खित-क्रम (मे) ण पालन यम् ॥] (l. 32) [लि खितं पिवप-मन्नाभ्यामेव เ(แ)

त्रीमत्सोमवर्म-देव-खहस्त [:*]॥ त्रीमदासट-देव खहस्तः [॥*]

TRANSLATION.

Reverence to Śiva. Victorious is the Cause of the world, the Self-existent (Brahmā). Victorious is the son of the Destroyer of castles (Kṛṣṇa), the Enemy of Mura. Victorious is he, whose body is held by the Mountain-daughter (Durgā), he who removes distress and danger—Hara the god. Victorious is she who saves mankind from misfortune—Bhavānī (Durgā). Victorious is he who with his splendour has pervaded the universe, the Foe of the castles (Śiva). Victorious also is the Elephant-faced one—he by whose favour the whole calamity of a host of obstacles ceases (Gaṇeśa).

(L. 3.) From his residence at the glorious Canpakā, the highly devout [king Soma-varman] who is an ornament of the spotless house of the illustrious Sāhilla, of divine descent—that great jewe¹ adorning the race of Mūṣaṇa³—who (Sāhilla)

¹ See above p. 191.

² Read ryatikramet.

² Prof. Kielhorn reads [dvi]tiyāyām. The first akṣara, however, is undoubtedly, tri in which ristands for r as in trina (No. 24, 1, 21).

⁴ Prof. Kielhorn divides this compound: Śiva-Pamannābhyām. Cf. however, Manna-Devapātmaja-Sivapā-bhyām in No. 26, l. 21.

⁵ Savarmika sutānām in Prof. Kielhorn's transcript.

⁶ Another alternative is to read para-samvat as P1of. Kielhorn conjectures.

Prof. Kielhorn has . Mantrika.

⁸ See note 4.

See p. 186, note 1.

was a fresh rain-cloud to extinguish in a moment the mighty blazing fire.of the Kira forces, fanned, as by the wind, by the Lord of Durgara, assisted by the Saumatikas, whose camp was manifestly crushed by the fearful frown produced on the slope of his (Sahilla's) forehead; whose (Sahilla's) alliance was humbly sought by the ruler of Trigarta, subdued by force; who (Sahilla) was asked the favour of bestowing royalty in return of services by his kinsman, the Lord of Kuluta, anxious to render him homage; who (Sahilla) by the weight of battle had broken, like a wide-spreading tree, the large force of the Turuskas, on whom wounds had been inflicted; who (Sahilla) had the fortunate name of Karivarea (Elephant-rain), on account of the continuous and stable generation of his posterity joyfully granted by the Lord Bhaskara (the Sun-god), whose mind was contented with gladness by the gift of a multitude of elephants, whose flat cheeks were covered by a swarm of bees attracted by the scent of the rut-secretion, and which were bestowed in Kuruksetra at the time of an eclipse; who (Sahilla) has made the circuit of the seven worlds fragrant by his fame [painted] with the ink-brushes, which were the mouths of all the princes assembled (at Kuruksetra) on that occasion (the solar eclipse); who (Sāhilla), by his unequalled kindness and compassion combined with unsurpassed bravery, generosity, and unfathomable profoundness, has impaired the fame of Jamadagni's son (Parasurāma), Sibi, Karna, Yudhisthira and such-like heroes: by looking upon whose (Sabilla's) lovely presence the eyes of the world have been made fruitful; whose (Sabilla's) widespread greatness brilliant with matchless and universal effulge, ce was renowned like [that of] the lord, the illustrious Sudraka-svāmin' of divine descent; who (Sāhilla) by his fury in setting in array a thousand battles had acquired such names as Sāhasānka (Marked by rashness). Niśśankamalla (the dauntless Wrestler) and Matamata-simha (the roaring? Lion).

(L. 11.) [King Soma-varman] who delights in passing his time in attaining faultless knowledge; whose mind is perfumed by the fragrance of every science; the royal swan of the only lake of discrimination; whose form is adorned with an innumerable number of spotless virtues; whose fame is strewn over the dwellings of the three worlds; he who reverently remembers the supreme prince, the king of kings, the supreme lord, the illustrious Sālavāhana of divine descent and was born from the womb of the supreme princess, the queen, the illustrious Rardhā of divine descent, even as the Moon was born from the Milk-ocean; he, the supreme prince, the king of kings, the supreme lord, the illustrious Soma-varman of divine descent, the prosperous one,

(L. 13.) enjoins on all the officials, every rājā, rāṇā, royal minister, rājpūt, those appointed and commissioned of [the Rājā's] attendants (?), every dūta, gamāgamika, abhitvaramāṇa, Khaśa, Kulika, superintendent of customs (?), superintendent of forests (?), sword-guard (?), tarapati, those belonging to the expeditionary force (?), every "thief-catcher," "rod-bearer," "rod-and-rope-bearer," brāhmaṇa, kṣatriya, vaiśya, śūdra, and all others, that constitute the eighteen elements of the State and the neighbouring country people:

¹ I translate according to the proposed emendation -samarpita- instead of samarthita-.

² See ahove, p. 186, n. 3.

- (L. 15.) Be it known unto you, that within the domain under our sway in the Panthila district there are four bhumi of land belonging to Kuloti, enjoyed by the queen, the illustrious Rardha of divine descent, and at Mungala two bhumi belonging to the cook Surambhata, and at Vata there are two bhumi belonging to the Chonneruka-gosthika, and in the Tavasaka district at Bhadravarma there was one bhū held by Vijjaula of Bhadravāh, and at Sarāhula there was one bhū held by Bhatta Vasanta, and at Phalyaka two bhumi in Lartuka which belong to the watchman the son of Denna, and in the same village two bhū in Jaudhaka, belonging to the second watchman, the son of Rāmanjaya, and in the Pārakamata district at Mangala in Phaullika two bhumaşaka belonging to the son of Lutthuka and two bhūmāṣaka belonging to the son of Humrtaka, both together making one In figures: of Kuloti 4 bhū, at Mungala 2 bhū, at Vatā 2 bhū, at Bhadravarma 1 bhū, at Sarāhula 1 bhū, at Phālyaka 4 bhū, at Mangala 1 bhū, thus 15 $bh\ddot{u}$, thus on the previously established terms of occupancy, as far as their limits, grass, grazing and pasture-ground, with fallow land large and small, with ingress and egress, with fruit-trees and water, together with houses, kitchen-gardens, orchards, and resting-places; also from the storehouse of Bhadravarma annually one khārī of grain, in figure 1 khā. of grain. Out of these [lands] the two bhūmāsaka of the son of Lutthuka on the road to Mangala in Pārakamata are bestowed as an agrahāra on the Lord Viṣṇu, founded here by order of the illustrious Pasața the son of the Mahārājā. The remaining 14 bhū 2 mā, and 1 khā, of grain are granted by me for as long as moon and sun shall endure, uncurtailable. inalienable, unopposed, as an agrahāra by a formal libation of water,
- (L. 23.) to the Lord Hari (Viṣṇu) who is renowned by the auspicious name of the illustrious Lakṣmaṇa-varman, and to Śiva who, praised with music, has blessed the illustrious Sālākara-varman and has been established by the illustrious queen Rardhā, whose mind possessed highest devotion to him. Let then all people approve it.
- (L. 24.) And this has been spoken by Vyāsa: "Whosoever of this wide-spread race may be king, I enjoin on him not to transgress [this] order. By [its] observance the highest religious merit, by [its] observance the highest ascetic merit, by [its] observance the highest sovereignty [will be attained]; [its] observance is therefore very important. The land which is unlawfully confiscated or unlawfully caused to be confiscated consumes up to the seventh generation of him who confiscates it and of him who causes it to be confiscated. He who takes away the land is not cleansed by [the digging of] a thousand tanks, by a hundred horse-oblations and by a gift of ten million cows."
- (L. 27). In the increasing, fortunate reign of victory, in the first year of the illustrious Āsaṭa of divine descent, on the third day of the bright fortnight of [the month of] Vaiśākha, on Friday has this plate been presented. The messenger on this occasion was the Great-Recordkeeper, the illustrious Kāhuka. This was written by the writers of legal documents, Sivapa and Manna. May it be blessed!
- (L. 28.) Here again is written that, in exchange for the four bhūmāṣaka of Mangala in Pārakamaṭa, four, in figures 4, bhūmāṣaka, belonging to the sons of Savayika, are given as an agrahāra in apportionment (?) to the two gods. In the

year 11, [the month of] Bhādrapada, the bright fortnight, the lunar day 12 . . . One, in figures 1, bhū belonging to the son of Mattika, the grandson of Mahendraka, in Ghalahana, situated in the Pānthila district, is granted for the service of the watchmen in the same temple. To be observed in the previously described manner.

(L. 32.) Written by the same Sivapa and Manna. Own sign-manual of the illustrious Soma-varman of divine descent. Own sign-manual of the illustrious Asata of divine descent.

No. 26.—THUNDHU COPPER-PLATE INSCRIPTION OF ASATA. (PLATE XXVI).

This grant of Rājā Āsata came to my notice in the summer of 1902 and was preliminarily edited by me with the other four Chambā copper-plate inscriptions of the pre-Muhammadan period. It belongs to a Brāhman of the name of Jasu who lives in the village of Thundhu at the head of the Hol valley in the Hol-Gudhyāļ parganā. It is doubtful whether the lands now held by the owner of the plate are those described in the charter. On a visit to the spot I could not identify any of the localities mentioned in connection with the donation. Those lands are no longer regarded as a sāsan, as the owner has to pay the ordinary revenue. It is a curious circumstance that Jasu claims to belong to the Bhāradvāja gotra, whereas the original donee was a Brāhman of the Kāśyapa gotra, so that it may rightly be doubted whether he is a descendant of the latter. The plate is now preserved in the Chambā State Museum (Cat. No. B, 6).

The copper-plate on which Asata's grant is engraved measures $9\frac{1}{2}''$ in height and $13\frac{1}{2}''$ in width, including a short handle to the proper right. It is pierced with a round hole which is probably meant to hang the plate on the wall. It may be noticed here that none of the copper-plates found in Chambā are provided with a seal. The inscription consists of 21 lines, besides the signature of the donor written in the proper right margin. The average size of the letters is from $\frac{1}{16}''$ to $\frac{1}{4}''$.

The inscription is engraved with great care and the lettering is distinct throughout. Yet the number of blunders is very considerable. They consist mostly of the substitution of aksaras closely resembling the intended ones. Such mistakes are: vyāpna (l. 1) for vyāpta, suru (l. 3) for guru, gapāgamika (l. 5) for gamāgamika, bhitvarašāna (l. 9) for bhitvaramāna, saulmika (l. 9), for saulkika, sapājāāpayati (l. 10) for samājāāpayati, yadhā (l. 10) for yathā, tabhā (l. 12) for ubhā, socara (l. 13) for gocara, vanapsaty-(ll. 13-14) for vanaspaty-, pālanāt=maramo (l. 19) for pālanāt=paramo, u (l. 19) for ca, gagayas (l. 20) for garīyas, ato (l. 21) for dūto. Visarga (or final s) and anuvāra have been omitted in va saviditam (l. 10); anusvāra in vanapsaty-udaka (ll. 13-14). The top-stroke has been left out in sarver-uparilikhitair (l. 16) and the ā stroke in -Šīvapābhyam (l. 21). We may perhaps assume that the engraver had to execute the plate from an indistinct copy which would account for so great a number of blunders. When comparing this grant with the previous one (No. 25), we notice that in the present

¹ A. R. A. S. for 1902-03, pp. 264 ff; with faceimile V.

case the writing is much more cursive. This is especially noticeable in the shape o ja. The short i stroke used in this inscription deserves special notice.

Mistakes of a different kind are those resulting from an imperfect knowledge of Sanskrit on the part of the author of the inscription. They are on the whole similar in nature to those noticed in the other four grants of the pre-Muhammadan period. Samdhi rules are generally treated with great levity. Thus we find vivardhita akalankah (l. 6), sarvānneve (l. 7), caurodharanika (l. 9), vṛkṣa-ārāma (l. 14) and agrahāratve iti (l. 16). Interchange of sibilants is found in kuṣalī (l. 7) for kuśalī, sāsyamāna (l. 11) for śāsyamāna, Vyāśa (l. 19) for Vyāsa. In jala-śuluka (l. 15) śu has been substituted for cu. We find ri instead of r in trina (l. 13) and u instead of n in Dhaṇañjaya (l. 15). In khaṇḍarakṣa (l. 9) and vīrajātrika (l. 9) we notice the influence of the vernacular words khaṇḍā (from Skr. khaḍga) and jātrā (from Skr. yātrā).

The charter opens with a stanza in the Mālinī metre, the same as is found at the beginning of the previous grant (No. 25, ll. 2-3). We notice that upaśamati has been substituted for uparamati. The eulogy of the donor (ll. 2-6) is partly identical with the corresponding passage in Soma-varman's grant (No. 24, ll. 11-18), but less extensive. The following portion (ll. 7-10) in which the officials are enumerated who will have to observe the Rājā's grant, agrees closely with the list of officials found in the charters of Vidagdha (No. 15, ll. 6-11) and in that of Soma-varman and Āsaṭa (No. 25, ll. 13-15).

The Bhattara mandala in which the granted lands are said to be situated, corresponds perhaps with the Hol-Gudhyāļ pargaņā. The other localities, called Dālima and Vañjillikā (l. 12), I have not been able to identify. They are probably fields; it will be noticed that no village is mentioned. As usual in these charters, the lands are indicated by the names of the last holders. The name of the donee, Māca the son of Pūrņarāja and grandson of Dhanañjaya is found in line 15. In lines 19-20 one śloka is quoted from Vyāsa in corroboration of the grant. The date is the 5th year of the reign of Āsaṭa. The messenger is the Recordkeeper Bhuvana-pāla, and the writers are the kāyasthas Manna and Śivapa (here called the son of Devapa)—the same whose names we have twice met with in the grant of Somavarman and Āsaṭa (No. 25, Il. 28 and 32).

TEXT.

यों जयित जनसनिष्टादुंदरस्तो भवानी जयित निज-विभृति- व्याप्न(प्न)-विश्व अपुरारि :[1*] जयित च गजव-(1, 2) क्राम्पो च यस्त्रप्रमादादुपश्चमित समस्तो विज्ञ-वर्गापमगः॥ श्री-चाण्पका-वास-कात्परम-ब्रह्माखो देव-द्विज-(1, 3) श्र(ग्)क-पूजनाभिरतो दोनान्ध-कपणानाश-वत्मनः श्रगणित-गृण-गणालङ्गत-सूर्तिः विविक्षक-वसित श-(1, 4) श्रधर-कर-निकरावदात-यश्अ-प्रसर-प्रकाशित-मर्वाशः पौ(सौ)षण-कुर्ज्ञक-तिलकः परमभद्दारक-महाराजा-(1, 5) धिराज-परमश्चर-श्रोमत्सालवाह्नन-देव-पादानुध्यात-परमभद्दारिका-महाराज्ञी-श्री-रठी-दे-(1, 6) व्यो (व्य) दशेदधि-विविधित श्रकलङः परम्प्तभद्दारक-महाराजाधिराज-परमेश्वर-श्रीमदा-(1, 7) सट-देव अव्य (श्र)ली समुपागतान् सर्वादे (ने)व

Apparently pag or pvi was written first, and corrected into pla.

म्रीयस्भरदेयम् ५मुः

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नियोगस्वान् राज-राजानक-राजपुत्र-रा-(l. 8)जामात्य-ब्राह्मण-चत्रिय-विट-श्टू-राजस्वानीय-परि-कर-सनियुक्तक'-विनियुक्तक-दूत्र-गपा(मा)गमि-(l 9) क(का)भित्वरमान(माण)-खम-कुलिक-मीस्सि-सिकादिमाष्टादश-प्रकत्यादीना(न्) सर्वोन्सपा(मा) ज्ञापयत्यस्तु व[:*] स(सं)विदितम् यथा(था)स्त-11)सा(शा)स्यमान-ष(श्व) नाभोगे भद्दार-मण्डल-प्रतिबद्द-चाब-मृत-उद्दर-भुश्च(ज्य)मान-स्थितासीत् (1.12) दालिम-सत्त-भूरेका विचित्रिका 3 -सत्त-भूमि-माप्रका[:*] पर् त(3)भावकृतो भू १ मा ६ एवं पू-(1. 13) वेभुक्ति-प्रमाणेन ख-सीमा-चि(तृ)ण-गोय्यो (गव्यति)-ग्रो(गो)चर-पर्य-सा (नां) स-खिलीपखिलं स-वनत्स(सा)-(l. 14) त्युदक (कां) स-निर्गस-प्रवेशं ग्रह-प्राक्तवाटिकादि-हच-भाराम-विश्वाम यदव लग्यमानं तस-(l. 15) वे-सहितं काम्यप-गोत्राय धण्(न)क्षय-पीत्राय पूर्वराज-पुत्राय ब्राह्मण-माचाय जल-गु(चु)लुक-संप्रदान- (1. 16) पूर्वकं सूर्येन्द्र-चिति-स्थिति-सम-कालमग्रहारते इति प्रतिपादिता(तं)। सर्वे(वें) इपरि-लिखिते राजप् इपैर-(1. 17) नुमन्तव्यम एतलुन-पीनान्वयोपभोग्यमनाहार्यमनाच्छेदामपरिपन्थं न किश्वद्रपद्रवादिक(कं) कर्तव्यम(1.18) चम्मजदत्त-ताम-शासन-प्रामाच्यादसत् वासयत् भुनक् भोजयत् यथेष्ट-चेष्टं करोत् न केन (l. 19) चित्परिपत्यना कार्या । तथा उ(च) व्याम (स)- मुनिराइ। पालनात्म(त्प)रमो धर्म Xपालनात्मरमं तपः पाल-(1. 20) नावरमस्खर्गी गग(री)यस्तेन पालनम । प्रवर्धमान-कस्थाण-विजय-राज्ये संवत प चावण-शु-ति १५ (l. 21) भ(द्)तो व भाचपटलिक-श्रो-भुवनपाल: लिखितमिदं करण-कायस्य-मच-देवपात्मज-श्विवपाभ्यम् (भ्याम्) [॥*]

त्रीमदासट-देव खहस्तः [॥*]

TRANSLATION.

Victorious is she who saves mankind from misfortune—Bhavānī (Durgā). Victorious is he who with his splendour has pervaded the universe, the Foe of the castles (Siva). Victorious also is the Elephant-faced one—he by whose favour the whole calamity of a host of obstacles ceases (Gaṇeśa).

(L. 2.) From his residence at the glorious Canpakā, the highly devout [king Āsata] who takes delight in the worship of the deities, the twice-born (the Brāhmans) and the spiritual preceptors; the friend of the distressed, the blind, the needy and the unprotected; whose form is adorned with an innumerable number of virtues; the only abode of discrimination; who, by the effulgence of his glory, bright like the multitudinous beams of the Hare-holder (the Moon) has illumined all regions; the only ornament of the race of Mūṣaṇa; who reverently remembers the supreme prince, the king of kings, the supreme lord, the illustrious Sālavāhana, of divine descent, and was reared by that other Ocean—the womb of the supreme princess, the queen, the illustrious Rardhā of divine descent, but was without spot.

¹ No. 25, l. 14 has sanniyuktaka.

² No. 25, l. 14, has khadgarakşa which is probably the correct reading. In No. 15, l. 8, we also find khandarakşa.
³ The original has Vakjillikā, but I presume that the k in the second akşara has been substituted for 5 to which it bears a great resemblance. Cf. Dkanañjaya (l. 15).

⁴ I translate according to the proposed emendation. If we read "Pausna," the rendering will be: "the only ornament of the Solar race."

Here, as in the other grants, the donor is likened to the Moon born from the Milk-ocean, but in the present instance it is added that, unlike the Moon, he was spotless. Cf. above, No. 13, verse 5.

- (L. 6.) He, the supreme prince, the king of kings, the supreme lord, the illustrious Asata, of divine descent, the prosperous one, enjoins on all the officials concerned—every rājā, rānā, rājpūt, royal minister, brāhmana, kṣatriya, vaiśya, śūdra, chief-justice, those appointed and commissioned of [the Rājā's] attendants(?), every dūta, gamāgamika, abhitvaramāna, Khaśa, Kulika, superintendent of customs (?), superintendent of forests (?), sword-guard (?), tarapati, those belonging to the expeditionary force(?), every "thief-catcher," "rod-bearer," "rod-and-rope-bearer," and all others that constitute the eighteen elements of the State.
- (L. 10.) Be it known unto you that within the domain under our sway, in the Bhattāra district there is one bhū of land belonging to Dālima which has been enjoyed by Uddhara, the son of Caṇṇa, and six bhūmi-māṣaka of Vañjilikā, together in figures 1 bhū 6 mā. [This land], on the terms of its previous occupancy, as far as its limits, grass, grazing and pasture-ground, with fallow-land large and small, with fruit-trees and water, with ingress and egress, with houses, kītchengardens and so on, trees, gardens and resting-places together with all that is attached to it, has been granted as an agrahāra to the Brāhman Māca, the son of Pūrnarāja, the grandson of Dhanañjaya of the house of Kāśyapa, after a formal libation of a handful of water, for as long a time as the sun, the moon and the earth shall endure. This grant is to be observed by all the above-named royal officers, to be enjoyed by the succession of his sons and sons' sons, inalienable, uncurtailable, unobstructed. Let no hindrance whatever be caused [to him]. Let him, on the authority of the copper-charter, issued by us, live and make [others] to live, enjoy and make [others] to enjoy. Let him act as he pleases. Let no one offer obstruction.
- (L. 19.) For thus has Vyasa, the Sage, spoken: "By the observance [of this grant] the highest religious merit, by [its] observance the highest ascetic merit, by [its] observance the highest heaven [will be attained]; [its] observance, therefore, is very important.
- (L. 20.) In the increasing, fortunate reign of victory; in the year 5 [the month of] Śrāvana, the bright fortnight, the lunar day 15. The messenger on this occasion was the Recordkeeper, the illustrious Bhuvana-pala. This was written by the writers of legal documents Manna and Śivapa, the son of Devapa.

Own sign-manual of the illustrious Asata of divine descent.

No. 27.—SİYA FOUNTAIN INSCRIPTION OF THE FIRST YEAR OF ASATA—(Plates XXIII and XXVII)

The carved fountain-slab on which this inscription occurs came to light in the summer of 1908. It was found at a locality known by the name of Siyā and situated on the ridge above Lōh-Ṭikrī beyond Bharārā and at a distance of some 8 miles from the Kōthī. Siyā consists of a few houses which are only inhabited in summer by cowherds, who graze their cattle on the rich pastures of the Siyā Dhār. The place is believed to have been the seat of a Rāṇā,¹ but this is not borne out by the inscription. At the time of its discovery, the stone was almost entirely buried. It measures 3 in height, and 6' in width, and is beautifully preserved.

The centre of the carved surface is occupied by the squatting figure of Varuna, the god of the waters, to whom the stone was dedicated. He holds a cobra (?) in his right, and a full-blown lotus-flower in his left hand. Beneath him we notice the well-known decorative device of a pair of birds with interlaced necks. For the rest, the upper portion of the slab is carved with four horizontal bands of scrollwork, and the lower portion with panels containing eight-petalled lotus-rosettes and other ornaments. The spout opening is also enclosed within a border of ornamental carving and the whole is surrounded by a double screent border.

The inscription is cut on two elongated panels, measuring 2' in width and 4½" in height, which are placed beneath the lowermost horizontal band of scrollwork. Each of the panels contains three lines of writing. The letters are in the average from ½" to 1" high. The lettering is clearly engraved and well preserved, so that there can be little doubt about the reading except in the case of a few aksaras which present an uncommon appearance. The aksaras ca, dha, and va (ba) are very similar to each other.

It should be noted that the tailed form of the cerebral n appears here for the first time. We notice also the looped r and the ru with its vowel mark attached to the top-stroke. Medial e is expressed ten times by the preshamātrā and seven times by the superscribed sign. Medial e in lokeśu (read lokeśu e) is hardly distinguishable from medial e. The language of the inscription, except in the first two lines, is hopelessly incorrect, so that it is sometimes difficult to guess the sense concealed in these barbarous forms. A comparison with other fountain-inscriptions has enabled us to establish the meaning in most cases.

The inscription records that a fountain slab was erected by Ranasiha and Dhanasiha, the sons of Māca, the son of the Bhatt Rudra for the sake of the future bliss of their brother Canika. This name occurs also in the Löh-Tikri inscription (No. 29), and possibly indicates in both cases the same person. The two stones were found at a few miles distance from each other and the founders of both belong to the caste of the Bhatts. The date also would agree, as the Löh-Tikri stone was erected for the sake of the son of Canika, in the reign of Jāsata who succeeded Āsata in A.D. 1005-6. But the names of the relatives differ. It seems more plausible to identify Dhanasiha with an individual of the same name mentioned on the Sīyā-Dudhār fountain stone, which was discovered not far from that of Sīyā. He belonged also to a Bhatt family and is called the grandson of Ludrauka which may quite well be another form for the name Rudra. The names Ludrau, (of which Ludrauka is the sanskritised form), and Ludru are still used in Chambā. Evidently they are connected with Sanskrit Rudra. In the Sālbī fountain inscription (No. 33) the name Ludra-pāla is found which undoubtedly stands for Rudra-pāla.

The second half of the epigraph contains a stanza, which occurs in other fountain inscriptions in the same corrupt form, followed by a half-verse which appears to be a quotation from a dialogue between Siva and Parvati.

The most important part of the inscription is the date—the first year of the reign of Asata, Magha $\acute{s}u$ $\acute{t}i$ 13, Monday, the lunar mansion $\ddot{A}rdr\ddot{a}$. I have pointed out in the introductory part of the present work (p. 73) that only in two cases within

¹ The personal name Maca occurs also as that of the grantes in Asata's copper-plate grant (No. 26, l. 15).

the period from 1060 to 1088 does Māgha śu ti 13 fall on a Monday and in conjunction with the naksatra mentioned in the inscription. The corresponding Christian date could, therefore, be either the 13th January 1074 or the 10th January 1077. Unfortunately the data provided by the copper-plate grant, No. 25, which is likewise dated in the first year of Āsaṭa's reign, do not tally with the assumption that either A.D. 1073-4 or 1076-7 could be the year of his accession. It seems that in one of the two inscriptions the date is wrongly noted. The years to which the data of the copper-plate grant can be applied are A.D. 1071-2 and A.D. 1080-1 so that in any case it is highly probable that the year of Āsaṭa's accession lies between 1070 and 1080.

TEXT.

शों स्वस्तिः ॥ परमभद्दारक-महारजाधिराज-परमेश्वरः श्री-श्रासट-देव-राज्ये सम्वत् (1.2) १ माघ श्र ति १३ चन्द्रदिने श्रार्ट-नचने स्थापितिर्मित भद्दत्त्वस्ता-माच-(1.3) पुत्र-रणमीह-धण-सीह्यं हावेता भ्राति-चिनकस्य सर्ग-मागं उत्पाटनार्थे सं-(1.4)सार-भय-भोतेन त्वनेव वर्ण-देव स्था-पितम् न वर्ण परं देवं न (1.5) च वर्णात्परं तपं न च वर्णत्परं तीर्थं विषु सोकेश विश्वतम् इ-(1.6) ति सत्यं महागोरी यन्येस् मं तत्रमाष्ट्रयात् इति श्रेयं भवतु सर्वेषं

CORRECTED READING.

श्री स्वस्ति: ॥ परमभद्दारजनम्बाराजाधिराज-परमेश्वर-श्रीमदासट-देव-राज्ये सम्बत् (1,2) १ माघ-श्र ति १३ चन्द्रदिन चार्द्रा-नज्जे स्थापित इति भद्द-स्ट्रात्मज-माच- (1,3) पुत्र-रणसीह-धण-सीहास्यां हास्यामितास्यां स्वातु-चिनकस्य स्वर्ग-मार्गात्पाटनार्थे सं-(1,4) मार-भय-भीतास्यां वरुण-देव: स्थापित: ॥ न वरुणात्परो देवो न (1,5) वरुणात्परं तप: ॥ न वरुणात्परं तीर्थ तिषु लोकेषु विश्वत: ॥ इति सत्यं महा-गोरि योन्यास् मो न्तमवाष्ट्रयात् ॥ इति श्रीयो भवतु सर्वेषाम् ॥

TRANSLATION.

Hail! In the reign of the supreme prince, the king of kings, the supreme lord, the illustrious Āsaṭa of divine descent, in the year 1, [the month of] Māgha, the bright fortnight, the lunar day 13, on Monday, at [the conjunction of the moon with] the lunar mansion Ārdrā has this fountain-stone (lit. Varuņa) been erected by Raṇasīha and Dhaṇasīha, the two sons of Māca, the son of Bhaṭṭa Rudra, fearing with the fear of existence, in order to open the way to heaven for their brother Canika.

No higher god than Varuna, no higher gain of penitence, no higher shrine than Varuna is heard of in the Universe. Therefore, in truth, Oh great Gaurī, he finds the end of human birth.

Thus may it be a blessing to all!

No. 28.—LUJ FOUNTAIN INSCRIPTION OF THE FIRST YEAR OF JĀSAŢA; ŚĀSTRA [41]81 (A.D. 1105-6).

(PLATES XXVII AND XXVIII.)

The hamlet of Luj is situated in Pangi, 1½ miles north of west from Dharvas (map Darvas) and at a short distance from the Padar border. Below the village

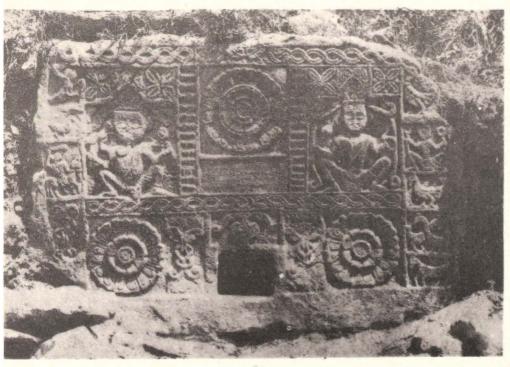
¹ The first akeara might be read ca, ba or va.

² The syllables tvenevam perhaps stand for tenaiva "even therefore" or for tvanenaiva "even by him." In the latter case, we should have the singular instead of the dual.

Siyā Fountain Stone.



Luj Fountain Stone.



is a place known as Phadya which is little frequented owing to the popular belief that it is haunted by the winter witch (Sit ki Budhi lit. "the old Woman of cold"). Here stands a quaintly carved fountain-stone measuring 4 in height and 6 in width. In its centre there is an inscribed tablet, \bar{b}_{3}^{*} " high and 15" wide, surmounted by a lotus-rosette. On each side is a sunk panel containing the clumsy figure of a squatting deity. The one to the proper right is Ganesa the god of prosperity, apparently four-armed and holding an axe and a conch-shell in his right hands and a thunderbolt (?) and a wheel in his left. These attributes, it will be seen, are far from orthodox. The other deity is most probably Varuna, the god of the waters. He wears a moustache and a sect-mark (or a frontal eye?), is two-armed and holds a mace or trident in his right and a rosary in his left hand. On both sides are coiling snakes which seem to issue from his diadem. The representation bears a close resemblance to the central figure of the Naghai fountain-stone.

Over each of these figures there runs a horizontal border, whilst the lotus in the middle is surmounted by a pair of birds, perhaps meant for peacocks. In the lower portion of the slab, separated from the upper part by a horizontal rope border, we have in the centre a vase (kalasa) and immediately beneath it a square opening to receive a water-spout. On both sides there is a curiously degenerated pilaster, the shafts having been replaced by scroll-work. On the capital of the one to the proper left there is a second inscription of three short lines almost entirely obliterated. At the sides of these pseudo-pilasters there is a lotus-rosette somewhat smaller in size than the central one and different in design. Both ends of the slab are occupied by a vertical row of panels which contain various figures representing birds, a horseman, a squatting figure, a pair of interlaced snakes and a non-descript quadruped.

Originally there was in front of the large slab a square cistern, formed by three smaller slabs which are still extant, but displaced. The front one is carved like one of the Naghai stones with three eight-petalled rosettes enclosed between five pilasters. It measures 1'7" in height and 6' in width.

The inscription, incised on the central panel, consists of five lines of about 14" in length and a short line 3" long written beneath the end of the fifth line. The aksaras measure from \frac{1}{2}" to \frac{3}{4}" in height and are deeply and clearly out in the stone, but owing to long exposure their outlines have become somewhat worn away. The language is a mixture of very corrupt Sanskrit and vernacular terms which are for the most part difficult to explain. It would seem that the stone was erected by an individual called Nāgarā, the son of Bhātalau and Bhatagirī. It does not appear from the inscription to what caste he belonged, but there is a local tradition that the fountain was constructed by an ancestor of the present likhnihārā (revenue officer) of Dharvās, who is a Brāhman by caste. The name, Nāgar, is still of common occurrence in Curāh. Bhātalau may be compared with the name, Batulo, borne by the wet-nurse of Rājā Pṛthvī Singh. The name, Bhatagirī, does not seem to be now in use; it is possible that the first member of the word is the caste-name Bhatt.

¹ Cf. above, pp. 138 f.

² The third line seems to read gahana. In the facsimile Plate XXVIII b the lines are numbered 7-9.

The main point of interest of the inscription is its date which enables us to determine the year of accession of Rājā Jāsaṭa (the inscription has Jāsaṭha) and thus yields the earliest fixed date in Chambā history.

The composition of the Luj inscription is extremely clumsy and points to its having been done by a person of very slight literary ability. We find the word thāpita (Skr. sthāpita) repeated three times and the word samutpanya twice. As to the meaning of the latter word, I presume that it is a corruption of Skr. samutpanna and that this past participle is used instead of the causative samutpādita. For the ending ya we may compare thāpyā (from Skr. sthāpita) in the Harsar image inscription (No. 49) which ends: Eh Mahādēv Adšare thāpyā. "This [image of] Mahādēv has been erected at Harsar." The sentence idam bhogya nānā bhokana samutpanya (ll. 3-4) is difficult to explain. The word bhogya is possibly a past participle of the root bhuj. If we take bhogya in the ordinary sense which it has in Sanskrit, it would mean "to be used, useful" which could be referred to the fountain. Instead of bhokana we may perhaps read bhojana (Skr. bhojana) which could also be applied to the benefit derived from the fountain. If so, I should propose to translate it: "This is to be used (or useful) and various $(n\bar{a}n\bar{a})$ enjoyment has been produced [by it]." But it is also possible that this sentence refers to the custom of providing a feast to the villagers on the occasion of the erection of a fountain slab. Local tradition asserts that such a custom did exist. This would also explain the word mahāprajā, used twice in the inscription, as referring to the inhabitants of the village at large, who took part in the construction of the fountain and in the feast of consecration. At the end of the inscription we find, moreover, that grain (? dhānikam; Skr. dhānya?) was provided (samutpanya), presumably for the same purpose. The word joda preceding dhānikam I cannot explain. The following expression mul dra 29 (or 30), I suppose, indicates the quantity of grain supplied by the donor on the occasion of his consecration feast. The syllable dra I take to be an abbreviation of dramma which in the Baijnath prasasti (II, 30)1 occurs as the name of a piece of money or monetary value.

राजानकीन चास्मै लक्ष्मणचन्द्रेण वैद्यनाथाय। मण्डपिकोत्पत्तिधानाइ[त्ताष् ष] ट्रात्यहं द्रमा॥

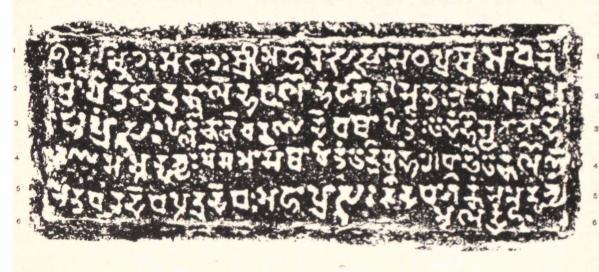
"And daily six drammas of the money collected in the custom-house have been allotted by Rājānaka Laksmana-candra to this Vaidvanātha."

The word dramma is derived from Greek $\Delta \rho a \chi \mu \dot{\eta}$; it must originally have denoted the silver coins of the Indo-Bactrians.

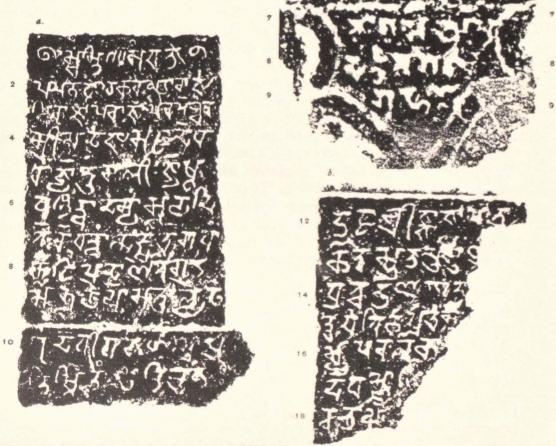
It deserves notice that we find δa (perhaps pronounced as sa) substituted for sa in $var\delta a$ (l. 1)² and in $Po\delta a$ (l. 4; Skr. Pausa). The visarga is used throughout as a sign of punctuation. In my transcript I have replaced it by the single stroke, for which it stands. Once (l. 4) we find it combined with the double stroke. Medial i is indicated by a short curve over the aksara, and medial u by a hook slanting downwards, except in δu (l. 4) where the curve is used. Medial e is expressed by a horizontal stroke and medial o by a flourish, both placed over the consonant.

¹ Ep. Ind. Vol. I, pp. 114 and 117. Cf. Ind. Ant. Vol. XVII, p. 37.

² Cf. beneath No. 35, l. 1, varšānam.



Loh-Tikri Fountain Inscription.



TEXT.

चौं खिस्ति: । सं <१ । त्री-महाराजा-जासठ-प्रथम-वर्ष (l. 2) द्यापित । तत्र काले भाटली-भटगिरी-सुत । नागरा । स-(l. 3) हाप्रजा । पर्लीकार्थे । वहण-देव द्यापितं । दर्द भोग्य नाना भो-(l. 4) कण समुत्पन्य । पोश-मासे द्यापितं इति शुभं ॥ बाढोई कंलोचे (l. 5) सतथर देव-पुत्र-देव । महाप्रजा । जोद धानिकं समुत्पन्य(l. 6) मुख दू २० (or ३०)

TRANSLATION.

Hail! Erected in the year 81, in the first year of the illustrious Mahārājā Jāsaṭa. At that time Nāgarā, the son of Bhātalau and Bhaṭagirī [and the] people [of the village?] [have] erected a fountain-stone (lit. god Varuṇa) for the sake of the next world. This is to be used (or useful?); various enjoyments (or foods?) have been provided (?) Erected in the month of Pośa (Skr. Pauṣa). Thus [may it be] blessed! The carpenter (?)² Kamlone, the stone mason³ Deva, the son of Deva, [and the] people [of the village?] Grain (?) has been supplied (?). Price 20 (or 30) drammas.

No. 29.—LÖH-ŢIKRĪ FOUNTAIN INSCRIPTION OF THE 9TH YEAR OF JĀSAṬA (A.D. 1114).—(Plates XXVIII and XXXVII b).

Löh-Tikri is the head-quarters of a parganā of the same name, in which the ancient parganās of Baghai and Cānju have been included, and which thus comprises the whole of the right bank of the Cānju Nālā. At a short distance below the $k\bar{o}th\bar{s}$ a fountain-slab was found in the summer of 1905, which has since been brought to Chambā Town and deposited in the State Museum (Cat. No. A, 8) The lower portion, the proper left end, and the upper right corner of the stone are broken off; the remaining portion measures 2' $8\frac{1}{2}$ " in width and 1' $8\frac{1}{2}$ " in height.

The inscription is distributed over two panels separated by a lotus-rosette which must have occupied the centre of the stone, when entire. Both the lotus and the inscribed panels are enclosed within three ornamental borders, the innermost a bend border, the middle one a leaf border and the outer one a double rope border. Of the two panels that to the proper right, containing the first half of the inscription, is entire. It measures 10" in height by $5\frac{1}{2}$ " in width, and contains eleven lines of writing. Of the proper left panel only a portion is preserved, 7" high and $5\frac{1}{2}$ " wide, containing seven lines of which only the first one is complete. The letters, though rather shallow and irregular in shape, are legible throughout; their average size is $\frac{1}{2}$ ". The language is Sanskrit of the corrupt type generally found in fountaininscriptions.

The right hand panel contains the date and a stanza in the Anustubh metre. The second part of the inscription, incised on the proper left side, mentions the name of the founder who belonged to the Brahmanical caste of the Bhatts which has still its representatives in Chamba.

¹ This stands of course for प्रजीकार्य.

² बाढोई may be a local form for बढ़ाइ.

³ सत्तवा I suppose to stand for घ्रापा the term commonly used to denote the artisau employed in carving the stone. Cf. beneath No. 30, l. 2, No. 33, l. 3, and No. 35, l. 4. Cf. also p. 207.

⁴ The word "Lôh" which is added to distinguish this Tikri from a place of the same name in Bhatti (commonly called Bhatti-Tikri) is said to refer to the existence of iron ore in that pargana.

The inscription is dated in the 9th year and in the reign of Jāsaṭa (spelled Jāsaṭa). The question arises whether the year mentioned is a regnal one or refers to the Śāstra era. In the latter case it could correspond only to A.D. 1133. To this assumption there are two objections. Kalhana mentions Udaya-varman as Rājā of Chambā on the occasion of the siege of Śrīnagar in A.D. 1122. In the second place, Jyestha bati 12 of Śāstra 9 (A.D. 1133) fell on a Wednesday (May 3), whereas the day of the week of our inscription is Sunday. If, on the other hand, we assume the year to be a regnal one, both the day of the week and the nakṣatra will be found to agree. The Luj fountain-inscription (No. 28) has yielded Śāstra 81, i.e., A.D. 1105 as the first year of Jāsaṭa's reign, his 9th year must, therefore, have been A.D. 1114, and Jyestha bati 12 would correspond to the 3rd May of that year. This date fell on a Sunday and the moon stood in the lunar mansion Revatī.

TEXT.

यों स्वस्ति: ॥ संवत् ८ (l. 2) प[र*]म भटा (द्दा)रक-मद्दाराजा-(l. 3)धिराज¹- परमेश्वर(l. 4) श्रीमद (ज्)-जासद्द (ट)-देव-(l. 5)राज्ये कुश्वली³ ज्येष्ठ-(l. 6) वित द्वादश्यां सूर्यदि- (l. 7)
ने रेवत्यां नचने[।*]गवां (l. 8)कोटि-पद।णेन³ ग्रह[णे*] (l. 9)सो[म*]सूर्ययो [:।*]स[म*]तुल्य-फ
(l. 10) [लं] देवी वर्षणं यो प्र-(l. 11)तिष्ठितं[॥*] द्दित ग्रुमं [॥*]
(l. 12) भट्ट-श्री-ज्जज-पौच—(l. 13)कोन-सुत-सुगु[णु] — (l. 14) धुन्वतेन⁴ — —
(l. 15)तु⁵ चिनक-पुच-[ग्र]— — (l. 16) स्य परलोका[थें वर्षण-] (l. 17) देव[:*] स्था [पित: संसा] (l. 17) र-भय-भितेन]

TRANSLATION

Hail! In the year 9, in the reign of the supreme prince, the king of kings, the supreme lord, the illustrious Jāsata, of divine descent; in [the month of] Jyestha, the dark fortnight, the lunar day 12, on Sunday at [the conjunction of the moon with] the lunar mansion Revati. By a gift of ten million cows at an eclipse of the sun or moon an equal merit [is attained as by him] who erects [an image of] Devī or Varuṇa. Muśuṇu the son of —kona, and grandson of the Bhatt, the illustrious Jaja, together with his wife (?) has erected [this] fountain-stone (literally god Varuṇa) for the sake of [the bliss in] the next world of Ś..., the son of Canika and grandson (?) . . . , while fearing with the fear of existence.

Nos. 30-32.—DĒVĪ-RĪ-KŌṬHĪ INSCRIPTIONS.

(PLATES XXIX AND XXX.)

Dêvî-rî-köthî (map Debri Koti) a village of the Bera (map Baira) pargaṇā of the Curāh wazārat is situated at an elevation of 7,705' on the western slope of the Khablāh Nālā, a side-valley of the Berā Nālā. The place is named after a temple of

i Between the words महाराजाधिराज and परमेश्वर three aksaras पराज have been wrongly inserted.

^{*} The word जुशली which is regularly found in copper-plate grants after the donor's name, is meaningless here. I have left it untranslated.

³ This corrupt &loka occurs also in inscriptions Nos. 23, 41 and 43.

^{&#}x27; Perhaps [य] ध्वन्यितन is meant.

[•] Possibly [पौ]च.

the goddess Cāmuṇḍā (modern Coṇḍā) Devī. The present building, decorated with quaint frescoes and curious carvings in deodār and ahīsham wood, was erected in A.D. 1754 by Rājā Umēd Singh, as appears from the following Ṭākarī inscription cut on two wooden boards on both sides of the entrance.

TEXT

सं १० भद्रो प २१ नगभत भव जे सी-माइरजे छमेद सीधे सी-देवो चमुंडा दा दैचार पाव देचारे दा सीरदार सी-मीच बीसन सीघ दाजरी नील्डेडी घया सुमझास अम्बद्ध चख्य गुदेव अस्टा बटैडिड हेलु देवु गठीर दास पोड प २८ सवत सीस्थ सुभ

CORRECTED READING.

सं २० भादी प्र २१ लगायत षय ने श्री-महाराने समेद सिंवे श्री-देवी चामुंडा दा देहरा पया। देहरे दा सरदार श्री-मियां विसन सिंघ। हाज़री निल्वेडी घंयां सुगझास भगडु। पखाप गुरदेव भंडा। बटेहड़ा हैतु देव गठीर खाल! पोह प्र २८ संवत् लिखा। ग्रम॥

TRANSLATION.

"In the year 30 [the month of] Bhādrō 21, on that date the illustrious Mahārājā Umēd Singh has built the temple of the goddess Cāmuṇḍā. The Superintendent (sardār) of the temple the illustrious Miyān Bisan Singh; the stewards, Ghamyām the Nilhērī and Jhagru of Sungaļ¹; the carpenters Gurdēv and Jhaṇḍā, the stone masons Dēbu of Hail and the cēlā (?) Dyāl. Written on the 29th of Pôh. Bliss!"

There are, however, at Dēvī-rī-kōṭhī remains of much greater antiquity. The village contains, besides a small linga shrine, the ruins of a large building now overgrown with vegetation, which by local tradition is said to have been the castle of a Rāṇā or Ṭhākur (Cf. above fig. 18). That this tradition is founded on fact, is borne out by three epigraphical records, which belong to a fountain enclosure to the north-east of the village, on the road leading to Sāc in Pāngī by the Cēnī (map Chaia) Pass and by the villages of Caṇḍru and Hail.

No. 30.—NĀRĀYAŅA IMAGE INSCRIPTION OF RĀJĀNAKA NĀGA-PĀLA.—(Plate XXIX.)

In the centre of the back-wall of this fountain-enclosure there was a stone figure (height $14\frac{1}{2}$ "; width $8\frac{3}{4}$ ") of Viṣṇu-Nārāyaṇa, which has now been deposited in the State Museum (Cat. No. A, 9). It is three-faced, the side faces being respectively those of a boar and a lion, and shows the god seated on Garuḍa, clasping Lakṣmī in his left arm, and holding a mace in his right hand. Evidently the image was originally four-armed. The whole sculpture is much defaced. On the base is the inscription in two lines $7\frac{3}{4}$ " and 5" long. It is clearly cut and well-preserved, except for the two first akṣaras of the second line, which are lost but can be restored with certainty. The average size of the letters is $\frac{1}{4}$ ".

¹ Cf. above, pp. 11 f. and 164 ff.

TEXT.

भी। स्वस्ति राजानक-महाश्री-नगपालीन नारायण-देव घटापिता सूत्र-(1. 2)[धार]-छट्-सत-सभगेण घटितं इति ग्रभः

CORRECTED READING.

भौ स्वस्ति । राजानक-महाश्री-नागपालेन नारायण-देवः घाटितः सूत्र-ा. 2)धारोदसुत-सभगेन घटितः । दति श्रभम् ।

TRANSLATION.

Hail! By the Rāṇā, the very illustrious Nāga-pāla [this image of] god Nārāyaṇa [was] caused to be made; [it was] made by the artisan' Sabhaga, the son of Uda.

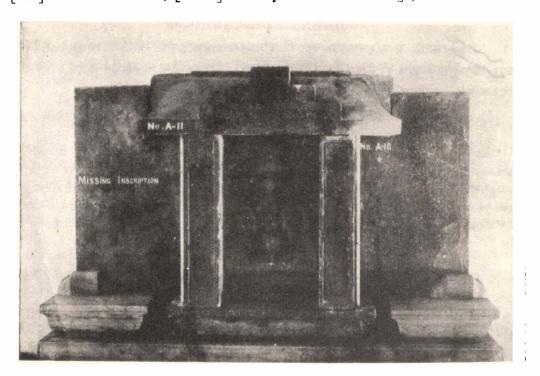


Fig. 25. Devi-ri-kothi inscriptions refixed.

No. 31.—STONE INSCRIPTION OF RANA-PALA OF THE YEAR 2.2 (PLATE XXIX.)

The Visnu image just described is enclosed between two upright slabs, each $2\frac{3}{4}''$ wide. A large stone (1'9" wide, $5\frac{3}{4}''$ high) overlaps the three. It has two round mortices $\frac{3}{4}''$ in diameter placed at a distance of 14" apart and corresponding to two similar holes in the stone on which the image rests. They were evidently meant to receive bars which kept the image in position, as their distance nearly agrees with the width of the image and the two adjoining slabs $(8\frac{1}{4}''+2\times2\frac{3}{4}''=13\frac{3}{4}'')$. On the face of the surmounting stone the second inscription is found. It consists of four

¹ Grammatically the word sūtradhāra may just as well belong to Uda, but in a country where the son invariably followed the trade of his father, this comes practically to the same thing.

² On the date of this inscription of, above, p. 75.

त्मिभुग्यस्य इत्यक्षम् इ त्रिष्ण रूपार्य स्वाःसी सम् यञ्च स्वीष रूट्या है। वर्मणः स्व इे ३ इ स्व १ देव व किलः

SCALE 0-65



SCALE 0 65

lines 7" in length; the average size of the letters is $\frac{1}{2}$ ". It is well-preserved and its execution is excellent. The stone is now preserved in the State Museum (Cat. No. A, 11).

TEXT.

चौं खिस्तः। परमभद्दारक-महा-(l, 2) राजाधिराज-परमेश्वरः श्रोमद्रण-(l, 3) पास-देव-विजय-राज्ये । वर्तमाणे (l, 4) संवत् २ चाश्व वित = बुधिदिणेः

CORRECTED READING.

षो स्वस्तिः । परमभद्दारक-मद्या- $(l.\ 2)$ राजाधिराज-परमेश्वर-त्रोमद्रण-पास-देव-विसय-राज्ये वर्तमान-संवत् २ षाश्विन वित ५ बुधिदिने ॥

TRANSLATION.

Hail! In the victorious reign of the supreme prince, the king of kings, the supreme lord, the illustrious Rana-pala of divine descent, in the current year 2 [the month of] Āśvina, the dark fortnight, the lunar day 8, on Wednesday.

No. 32.—FOUNTAIN INSCRIPTION OF RAJANAKA NAGA-PALA OF THE 17TH YEAR OF LALITA-VARMAN. (A.D. 1159-61).

(PLATE XXX.)

The last and most important of the three Devi-ri-kothi inscriptions is carved on a stone slab $(18\frac{1}{2}" \text{ high}, 10\frac{1}{2}" \text{ wide})$ which originally must have stood to the proper left of the Nārāyaṇa image and is now preserved in the State Museum (Cat. No. A, 10). In its upper proper right corner a rectangular piece $(4" \times 3\frac{3}{4}")$ is cut away so as to make the slab fit into the overlapping top-stone which bears the second inscription (No. 31). The latter shows a groove $1\frac{1}{2}"$ wide which is exactly the thickness of the slab under discussion (cf. fig. 25).

The inscription consists of twenty-five lines and is composed in Sanskrit poetry. From the fact that the numbering of the stanzas begins with 10 it is evident that the slab contains only the second half of the praéasti. According to local tradition, there existed another inscribed slab of the same size which stood on the proper right side of the Viṣṇu image. It is said to have been removed by a lama some forty years ago and carried off to Pāṅgī across the Cēnī Pass. Whether this be true or not, the stone is no longer in situ. This is the more to be deplored, as the inscription is both of literary and historical interest. The remaining slab, moreover, which contains the second half of the inscription is badly damaged, the surface having peeled off, more or less, all along the edge of the stone. In this manner the first line has half disappeared. The marginal portions of lines 7-25 are lost, the number of missing syllables varying from three to about twenty. The end of lines 17-25 also is completely destroyed, so that of the last two lines only a few syllables in the centre are still traceable.

The greater part of the inscription is composed in poetry, which circumstance enables us to restore to a certain extent the missing syllables. The stanzas are numbered from 10 to 17. The metres used are the following:—St. 10 Sikharini, 11 Upajāti, 12 Mālini. 13 Vasantatilaka, 14 Upajāti, 15 Mālini, 16 Prihoi and

17 Aryā. The concluding three and a half lines of the inscription are apparently in prose.

The Davi-ri-kôthi inscription possesses great literary merit. The poet has freely used rhetorical ornaments, but in such a manner that they bring out the sense, instead of obscuring it. The description of the pious works done by Balhā after the death of her husband is very fine. The poet indulges in the use of rhyming words with great melodious effect. Verse 15 with its reference to the instability of this world is worthy of the best poets of ancient India. We can only deplore the fact that no literary productions of the poet and Rājaguru Kamala-lānchana have been bequeathed to us, except this sadly mutilated eulogy.

The only mistakes to be noticed are $p\bar{a}pajalma$ -(l. 6) for $p\bar{a}paj\bar{a}la$ which is evidently due to the stone-mason, and perhaps $avabuddhy\bar{a}^{\circ}$ (l. 16) for $avabudhy\bar{a}^{\circ}$, if my restoration of verse 15 is correct. In l. 24 we find $sth\bar{a}pat\bar{\imath}$ which apparently stands for $sthapat\bar{\imath}$. The visargas in this and the last line can hardly be correct, but unfortunately this part of the inscription is almost wholly destroyed. The use of the uncommon word utpumsita in lines 5-6 should be noted.

As regards spelling, we notice that the final sibilant is retained before an initial sibilant, e.g. $^{\circ}j\bar{a}la\hat{s}=\hat{S}r\hat{i}^{\circ}$ (l. 6) and $^{\circ}\acute{s}okas=sapadi$ (l. 7). Final nasals before mutæ are rendered by the anusvāra. In this respect the present inscription differs from that of Sarāhan (No. 13), where the nasals are retained. We find the upadhmānīya used in ll. 2 and 17.

The skill of the stone-mason who carved the inscription is no less remarkable than that of the poet who composed it. The lettering is clear and distinct. The use of wedges and angular forms produces a pleasing effect. The inscription is undoubtedly the best specimen of that later Śāradā which we find also used in the Baijnāth praśastis. The angular forms of pa and dha, the sloping base-lines of ca, ma and va and the peculiar shape of kha deserve special notice. The medial vowels e, ai, o and au are rendered throughout by the superscribed signs. It will be seen that the o mark has the same appearance as in the Baijnāth inscriptions. Where m is provided with a virāma (ll. 8, 12, 13, 14, 15 and 17) the full aksara is found (Cf. above, No. 13.)

As to the contents of the inscription, verse 11 contains a eulogy of Nāga-pāla who may be safely identified with the Rājānaka Nāga-pāla of the Nārāyana inscription (No. 30), and must have been the local Rāṇā of the time. The preceding stanza evidently was devoted to the praise of his mother, Balhā. We may assume that on the lost slab, containing the first half of the inscription, the history of Nāga-pāla's family was given. In verse 12 we find the interesting statement that Nāga-pāla, after the death of his father, prevented his mother from following him, i.e. from becoming satī, and in the following verse we are told that she devoted the rest of her life to the upbringing of her two sons, and to works of piety and religion. Verse 14 records the no less important fact that king Lalita conferred on Nāga-pāla the title of Rājānaka. It will be seen that the word expressing the title is lost, but

^{&#}x27;The mesculine form Balha occurs as the name of a Yuvarāja of Trigarta (Kāngrā) is the Rājat. VIII, 540, trausl. Stein, Vol. II. p. 44. Cf. above p. 105.

it must have consisted of four syllables — — — , and we may safely restore it as rājānaka, the title which Nāga-pāla bears in the Nārāyaņa image inscription. In verse 15 we find the purport of the inscription expressed in exquisite language; namely the construction of a water-tank by Balhā in memory of her deceased husband. Verse 16 contains the date of the inscription, reckoned from the accession of Lalita-varman, and the name of its author Kamala-lāfichana the gurs of the Rājā just mentioned. This, at least, is the purport of the last portion of this stanza, if my restoration of the missing syllables is correct. The last verse is a benedictory stanza which concludes the prašasti proper. The remaining three and a half prose lines must have contained the date expressed in the Śāstra-kāla, and the names of the overseers and workmen connected with the construction of the tank referred to in the inscription.

This part of the epigraph, as remarked above, is almost entirely destroyed. Of the date only the syllables Sāstrī- are preserved. Fortunately the data contained in verse 16 enable us to fix the time at which the inscription was composed. There the date is said to be the year of Lalita-varman indicated by the words "Sage" (muni) and "moon" (vidhu). As the numerical value of these words is 7 and 1, respectively, the inscription must date from the 17th year of Lalita-varman. The name of this Rājā is not only found in the Vaintāvalī (Sloka 86), but occurs also in the Sālhī fountain inscription (No. 33) to be discussed later on. The latter document enables us to fix his accession in the year A.D. 1143 or 44. The Dēvī-rī-kōṭhī prašastī must, therefore, be assigned to the year A.D. 1159-60 or 1160-61 and the corresponding Sāstra year would be 35-6 or 36-7.

TEXT.

∪ — — — — — ∪ ∪ ∪ ∪ ∪(l. 2)वाबाटुकविषिं विधातुं वा तस्वाҲप(l. 3)रिझि• तमिरोचं गुचनिषे: ॥१०॥

(1. 4)तस्वासभूदस्य ग्रमेकशासो गुर्व-(1· 5)विद्यासो रिप्रसोय-वास:[1°] धर्म्यक्रियोर्त्युसि-(1. 6) त-पापजस्य स्त्रीभानपासो रक्सीम्बदास:[1११॥]

(1. 7) [पितरि पर] मुपेते खोकमस्तोकशोकखपदि पतिविद्योगा-(1. 8) [क्यूर्किता मातरं] सान् [1. 9]

चनुनमन-विधानाहारयामास खच्चाख नय-(1. 9)[विनयशासी बास]केनानुचेन॥१२॥ संज्ञामवाध्य सततं नि-(1. 10) [यतोपवा] स-तीववर्तीर्नज-तनं तनुतां नयन्ती। हिंचं नि-(1. 11) [नाय व] रदानमसी सुती च दोने द्यां च सुरवैरिच (1. 12) [चैव] भक्तिम् ॥१३॥

तं नागपानं सस्ति-जितोगवकार (l. 13) [राजानक-1] मध्दवाचम् [। *] धकाच्छ-वस्त्रवासन्दक्ष-चक्ष-होर्ट-(l. 14) [छ-काला] सि-विस्वक्रितारिम् ॥ १४ ॥

¹ Read पापजाच.

The aktore ava is still traceable on the back of the estampage.

³ The akeara bha is broken, but is still recognisable.

^{*} The last alegars of this word is partly preserved.

TRANSLATION.11

speech and a vessel of virtue. She bore him [a son] the illustrious Nāgapāla, the sole abode of grace, great by his virtues, the destroyer of his foes, he who by his righteous works had swept away the web of sin, not [acting] like a child in the forefront of the battle. After his father had gone to the next world, he—that abode of good deportment and modesty—overwhelmed with grief, with difficulty and through his younger brother [who was still] an infant held back from following him [into death] his mother, instantly fainting at the separation from her lord. She recovered consciousness and henceforth, whilst by rigid vows of constant fasts she reduced her body to meagreness, she brought up her sons and increased her charity, her compassion for the poor and her devotion to Kṛṣṇa. On this Nāga-pāla king Lalita conformed the title of Rāṇā, on him who with his deadly sword and rod-like arm—fierce like the suddenly flashing rod of Death—had torn asunder his foes.

But Balhā [his mother], who at every step had conceived the world of the living to be unstable like the crescent reflected in a garland of waves, restless and trembling with the fleeting breeze, had this *cistern* made for the sake of the bliss of her lord.

In the year shown by [the words] "seer" and "moon" of [the reign of] the great Lalita-varman—who solely performs good works and whose sport is the

¹ The aksara $m\tilde{a}$ is traceable; the wedge indicating \tilde{a} is distinct.

[े] Read बन्ध्या.

³ The aksara ra is slightly damaged.

⁴ The ta is traceable on the back of the estampage.

⁵ The lower portion of pra is preserved.

⁶ The aksara ntu is practically certain.

⁷ The first six aksaras of line 23 are defaced, but their outlines and vowel marks are still visible.

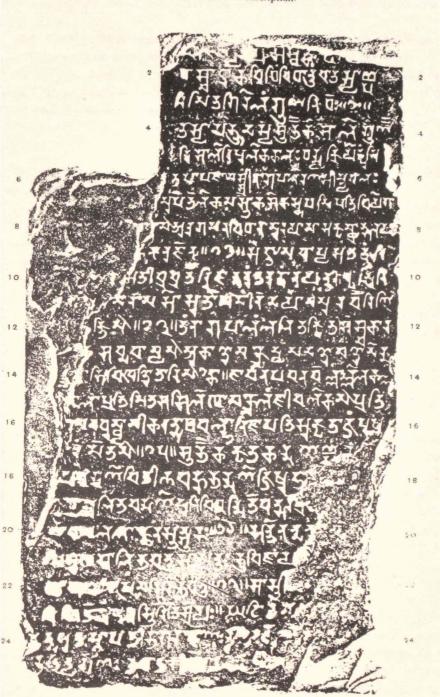
[•] The akearas of this word are worn, but still recognisable. Cf. above, No. 30, 1. 2 Udasuter-.

⁹ Read कापति-भागराजिन.

¹⁰ The aksaras of line 25 are all indistinct; the reading is therefore doubtful.

[&]quot;Words in italies represent the missing portions of the inscription which have been restored. Words between a square brackets are not expressed in the original and have been added for the sake of clearness.

Devi-ri-kôthi Fountain Inscription.



misfortune of the wives of his enemies, who has leut much support to the needy and baffled the joy of his rivals—Kamala-lanchana his spiritual guide composed this eulogy.

May the righteous ever rejoice and the world be full of happiness; may the baron Nāga-pāla be victorious on earth and may this cistern be stable.

In the year 35-6(?) of the Sastra era was this eulogy composed. May it be blessed. This cistern was constructed by Master Bhagaraja the son of Udda . . .

. by the mason, Tyaga, by the mason Bhagira

NOTES.

In support of the proposed restorations of incomplete or missing syllables the following is to be noted:

- (L. 6.) Of the two syllables which I read $j\bar{a}la$ the first is clearly ja without the \bar{a} stroke, which is always attached to the end of the central slanting stroke; the second syllable presents the appearance of lma. But on account of the preceding $p\bar{a}pa$ and the past participle utpumsita, there can be little doubt that $j\bar{a}la$ is the correct reading. It should also be noticed that the poet makes all the epithets of Naga-pala rhyme with his name.
- (L. 7.) The restoration of the five missing syllables at the beginning of this line may be regarded as correct. Evidently the death of Naga-pala's father was mentioned here; otherwise the main sentence would be unintelligible.¹
- (L. 8.) Here also the proposed restoration of the first six syllables is necessitated by the context, the word $m\bar{u}rchit\bar{a}\dot{m}$ by the expression $samj\bar{n}\bar{a}m$ avapya in the beginning of the next stanza, and the word $m\bar{a}tara\bar{m}$ by the immediately following $sv\bar{a}m$. Of this word the first aksara $sv\bar{a}$ is still traceable.
- (Ll. 10-12.) As in verse 13 the words tanutām and vrddhim are placed in opposition to each other, it is evident that after vrddhim also a form of the verb nayati is required. The syllable ni preserved at the end of line 10 enables us to restore nināya. Of the following word varadānam the second syllable ra can still be traced. The first syllable of the word bhaktim at the end of the stanza is extant in outline.
- (L. 13.) The restoration of the word rājānaka has already been discussed. The last syllable, it will be seen, is partly preserved.

¹ Cf. पितरि दिवम्पेते in the Bhitari pillar inscription of Skanda-gapta (l. 12) Gupta Inser., p. 54.

- (L. 15.) Of the two missing syllables at the beginning of this line the first must be la to complete the word kallola. The other I at first felt inclined to read ve; but as there are traces of an \bar{a} stroke, the syllable to be substituted can only be $m\bar{a}$. The expression $kallola-m\bar{a}l\bar{a}$ is not uncommon in Sanskrit literature.
- (L. 16.) An objection which could be raised to my restoring the missing syllables of line 16 in the manner suggested above is that the inscription clearly has buddhyā and not budhyā. But the substitution of ddhy for dhy in gerunds (which is evidently due to some confusion with the past participle and the nomen actionis) is by no means uncommon in epigraphical records. In the same way we find suddhyate instead of sudhyate in the copper-plate inscription of Yugakara (No. 14, l. 18.) Moreover, the preceding ava forbids us to regard buddhya as a noun. By the proposed emendation the relation between the two halves of the distich is established, and its meaning becomes perfectly clear. It is evident that the object of the verb acīkarat cannot be the preceding jīvalokam, but that it must have stood at the end of the stanza. It was evidently a masculine noun, as appears from its attribute etam. It must have signified a water-tank, and must have consisted of five syllables answering to the metrical scheme $- \cup - - \cup$. The first two of these syllables are found at the end of line 16. One is clearly pu and as here a long syllable is required, the next aksara must contain a compound consonant. As the preserved upper portion represents s, it is obviously right to restore the aksara as ska and the whole word as puskarādhāram, a synonym of the more common expression puskarinį which etymologically means "a lotus-pond" (from puskera, a blue lotus) but is regularly used in the sense of "an artificial tank." The letter r and the preceding mark for medial \tilde{a} can still be distinguished at the beginning of line 17.
- (Id. 17-20.) The 16th stanza contains the name of Lalita-varman in the genitive case combined with a series of compound epithets, each of which has a word rhyming with -varman as its last member. We have met with an instance of this alamkāra in verse 11 of the inscription under discussion. Bearing this in mind, we shall be able to restore this stanza, notwithstanding its mutilated state. The first epithet śubhaika-kṛta-karmanaḥ is complete. Of the next one, most of the syllables are either indistinct or lost. The conjectural reading para-vadhū-vipan-narmaṇo, suggested to me by Paṇḍit Daya Ram Sahni, is based on the following considerations. As the preceding word ends in an upadhmānīya, the initial consonant must be either p or ph. If we have to choose between the two, the probability is in favour of p as the more common one. In the beginning of the following line we have the four alsaras pannarmano which form the end of the adjective compound. The syllables pa and nna, though somewhat defaced, can still be read. The epithet, as restored expresses a thought often met with in panegyrics of royal personages, though hardly complimentary according to modern ideas.

¹ Cf. Bhāminīvilāsa (Lombay) Act I, v. 59.

² Cf. the Pathyar rock-inscription edited Ep. Ind. Vol. VII, No. 16, pp. 116 ff.

³ Cf. also Jonarāja v. 27 and Baijnāth prasasti II, v. 11.

⁴ Cf. the pillar-inscription of Vissla-deva (Ind. Aut. Vol. XIX p. 218) which commences: "Tears for sooth are in the eves of (thine) enemy's consort."

The third adjective, ending in bharman which is entire, is to be connected with the following 'rthisu. Of the next epithet, consequently, no more than the first aksara which is ha, remains, and the proposed restoration is necessarily doubtful. Considering, however, that the last member of the compound must rhyme with varman and that karman, bharman and narman have already been used, our choice for the ending word is restricted to a few expressions. It may also be noticed that the second aksara ta can be recognized on the back of the estampage, so that only the second member of the compound can be said to be arbitrary, except as far as its form is determined by metrical exigencies. The third syllable of line 19 is certainly lla. The traces which remain of the first two aksaras support the proposed reading brha, which suits the metre and yields good sense.

Finally, it remains to discover in what connection Kamala-länchana (the first two syllables are practically certain) "the guru of him," i.e. of Lalita-varman is mentioned at the end of the stanza. Naturally we expect to find the name of its author in the concluding portion of the inscription. The Rājaguru who is bound to be a Sanskrit scholar would be a fit person to compose a prasasti. Our conclusion is that Kamala-länchana composed the Dévi-ri-kōthi inscription, and by supplying the missing syllables in the proposed manner, this has been expressed in the simplest possible way. It will be seen that of the first syllable of the word prasastim in line 19 the lower portion is still extant. The initial syllable of the next line preserves roughly the outline of the akeara mām.

(Ll. 20-22). As verse 17 is evidently composed in the Aryā metre, and the quantity of the lost syllables, therefore, cannot be fixed, the restoration of the missing portions is attended with some difficulty. From what remains it is manifest that this stanza has the same benedictory purport as the concluding verse of the Sarāhan praśasti (No. 13), which is composed in the same metre. In both cases the pious patron is specially commemorated, for there can be no doub' that the sāmantaḥ in 1. 21 of the Dēvī-rī-kōthī inscription is no other than Rājānaka Nāgapāla previously mentioned. The adjective sukhāśāli in the same line cannot, of course, be connected with the word sāmantaḥ, but must belong to a neuter nonn which has become lost at the end of line 20. This noun I suppose to be jagad which with the following api (pi, the first akṣara of line 21, is legible) makes the fourth foot of the first half-verse. To complete the third foot, a short and a long syllable are supplied by the word sadā. Thus the first half verse is restored.

The second half-verse I propose to restore in the following fashion suggested to me by Pandit Hirananda. We may complete the syllables jaya as jayatu and supply the name of $N\bar{a}ga$ - $p\bar{a}la$ who, as just stated, is the samanta mentioned at the end of the first half-verse. It is also possible that the missing word was an adjective like $vipula-k\bar{v}rti$. As no trace of any letters remains, the restoration is necessarily conjectural. Of the remaining five feet we have eas ca ath ro bhavatu. The initial e with its peculiar shape and the ea, though both broken, may be regarded as

¹ Cf. Baijnāth pratani, 1. 38. गृहार-भृतको यस्य पितरो पुरुवाचिनी। संप्रविकासी एक राम-नाम-करीवरः॥

certain. From what remains it is evident that the verse is an $\bar{a}ry\bar{a}$ stanza of the udgiti variety. We require, therefore, besides the fourth foot, only one short syllable to complete the fifth foot. We may safely assume that the object for the stability of which the poet prays is the cistern which supplied the subject of his poem.\(^1\) We require, therefore, a masculine noun, meaning a water-tank, which will fit the metre. The word toy\(\alpha\sigma ay a\) meets the case. It will be seen that the defaced three aksaras at the beginning of line 22 may quite well have been $y\alpha$, σa and ya. The first has traces of the \(\alpha\) mark, the second shows a distinct vertical and the third one has retained its shape so as to be still recognisable.

The first syllables of line 23, though somewhat defaced, can be read. The last two lines, which contain the names of the workmen, it is, of course, impossible to restore. It seems probable that Udda mentioned in the beginning of line 24 is the same individual as the sūtradhāra Uda, whose son, Sabhaga (Subhāga?), carved the Nārāyaṇa image (cf. above, p. 208). The latter would consequently be a brother of Bhāgarāja, unless we are to assume that both names indicate the same person.

No. 33.—SÄLHĪ FOUNTAIN INSCRIPTION OF RÄJÄNAKA LUDRA-PÄLA OF THE 27th YEAR OF LALITA-VARMAN; ŚĀSTRA [42] 46 (A.D. 1170).—(PLATES XXXI AND XXXII.)

This inscription is found in Pāngī at the village of Sālhī (map Sauli), some seven miles from Sāc (map Sauch) in the romantic Sēcu glen (fig. 1) which debouches into the Candrabhāgā valley near the latter place. It may be noticed here that an ancient route connecting Pāngī and Lahul leads up the Sēcu Nāiā, and, after crossing the Ghōr-Dhār (map Gurdhar) Pass, descends by the Maiyār Nālā to the Candrabhāgā valley which it rejoins at Markulā or Udaipur (map Odapur). Starting from Sāc, the stages are Sēcu (map Saichu; height 8,412'), Baṭor (map Bataor; height 11,638'), Singhmarh (height 13,000'), Maiyār (map Miyar; height 10,215') and Cimrat. This road, notwithstanding the pass, is said to be shorter and easier than that which follows the Candrabhāgā. It is practicable for hill-ponies which circumstance perbaps accounts for the name of the pass.²

The inscription is incised on an enormous fountain-slab (6' high; 7' wide), the largest of its kind yet seen, covered with the figures of various deities. These are arranged in three horizontal rows, the upper and central row each containing five, and the lowermost row four figures. The place of the central panel of this row is pierced by a square hole, through which an ornamental water-spout is passed. The spring which once fed it has either dried up or changed its course. Unfortunately the stone has at some-time been thrown down by an avalanche,

अयतु हिमरश्मिश्रेखर पावसुपश्चेदमसु द्वकुलन्। प्रख्यातनमञ्जयतु च पृथीं शौमात्यकिसप्रकलाम्॥

or the last stanza of the Sarban well inscription :

इंन्ट्रप्रस्थ-प्रतिगर्थं वासे सारवले चतुः

¹ We may compare the concluding verse of the Sarahan prasasti :

विरं तिष्ठतु कूपीयं कारकथ सर्वाधव: ॥

- It is also possible to connect the name with the word ghoff which in the Cambiyali dialect means "a rock, builder."

whereby its lower portion was partly destroyed, and the upper, proper right corner broken off. For the rest, the stone is very well preserved. In excavating the distern in front of the slab, we recovered some fragments of the missing portion, which had been used to support the slab at the time it was re-crected.

It is a point of considerable interest that in addition to the long inscription which records the erection of the slab, each of the figures carved on it is provided with a short epigraph containing its name. This, we shall see, is also the case with the Sai fountain inscription (No. 35). But, whereas at Sai the figures portray both deities and mortals, we find in the present instance only beings of the higher order. The figures are placed in sunk panels separated by slim pilasters.

The five figures of the upper row are all four-armed and seated in the same fashion: the right leg drawn up and the left placed on the ground. It is the position which in Buddhist art is peculiar to Bodhisattvas, and is known as the Mahārājalīlā or Lalitāsana attitude. Each figure has its vehicle (vāhana) reclining at its feet. The centre of the upper row is occupied by Siva seated on his bull Nandi. He is three-faced and four-armed and wears a crescent in his head-dress. His right hands hold a trident and a rosary; the attributes in his left hands seem to be a knife and some kind of fruit. A defaced inscription in two lines at the side of his head calls him Lokapāla Iśāna. Siva, who is also called Iśa or Iśāna "the Lord," figures, that is to say, as one of the eight Lokapālas or World-protectors, his region being that of the north-east (Skr. aiśānī scil. diś).

To his right we find a deity seated on an animal presumably meant for a horse or mule. His four hands are provided with an elephant hook (ankuśa) and a lotus-flower (padma) to the right, and with a club (gada) and a conch-shell (śankha) to the left. The inscription next to his head marks him as $Lokapāla\ Varu[na]$, i.e. "the World-protector Varuṇa," in other words the god of the waters in whose honour the slab was erected. His region is the West. I may note parenthetically that the aspect of Varuṇa in this sculpture is very uncommon. Mr. Cousens informs me that his effigy occurs among the deities on the great tower of Chitōr. Here he holds a snare and a rosary in his two right hands and a lotus and a water-pot in his left hands. The figure is inscribed: $\vec{Sri-Varuṇa-mūrtih}$. The vehicle of Varuṇa is invariably the makara. On this animal he is seated as guardian of the west in the asṭadikpāla ceilings of the Western Presidency.

On the other side of Siva we find, in the terms of the inscription, Lokapāla devarāja Indra, i.e. "the World-protector, the king of the gods, Indra," who, having been from Vedic times the agent of rain and thunder, has very appropriately obtained a prominent place on our fountain-slab. Among the Lokapālas he is the guardian of the eastern region. He is four-armed, his right hands holding a club and his typical attribute the thunderbolt (vajra), his left hands an elephant hook and what appears to be a mace or sword. The ancient thundergod is shown seated on his elephant Airāvata or Airāvaṇa, in whom we may recognize the dark-coloured

¹ Cf. Foucher, Etude sur l'iconographie bouddhique de l' Inde (Paris, 1900) p. 67. n. 4.

² It should be remembered that Śiva's seat is Mount Kailāsa located in the Himālaya.

¹ Cf. J. I. A. Vol. II. pl. opp. p. 50.

rain-carrying thunder-cloud. In Sanskrit poetry the clouds are often compared to elephants, e. g., in the following stanza from "The Little Clay Cart":

"It seems as if the sky would take the guise
Of some fierce elephant to service bred;
The lightning like a waving streamer flies,
And white cranes serve to deck his mighty head."

It is interesting that Airāvata is also the name of a Nāga king, which by popular etymology has become changed into Elāpātra.

The two remaining figures of the upper row are both deities of the Saiva Pantheon. At the proper right end we recognize the familiar shape of Ganeśa with a single-tusked elephant's head. He has exchanged his ordinary vehicle, the rat, for a lion possibly borrowed from the lion-seat (Skr. $simh\bar{a}sana$) on which we find him often enthroned in older examples.² One of his right hands holds a rosary which, strange to say, is shown upright, the other some indefinite object. His left hands hold an axe and a vessel of sweet-meats, to which he has applied his trunk. The sculptor has thought it necessary to label even this most popular member of the Hindū Pantheon. The inscription, the first syllable of which is lost, runs $[Ga]n\bar{a}-dhipati$.

The proper left end of the upper row is assigned to Siva's other son, Skanda, Kārttikeya or, as the inscription incised on his breast names him, Kumāra-deva "the divine Prince." He is seated on his vehicle the peacock, and has his usual number of faces, whence his epithet Sanmukha or Ṣadānana "the six-faced One." His attributes are a trident, similar to that of Siva, and a rosary in his two right hands, and another trident of different shape and a bird in his two left hands. In the second trident we may recognize a spear—Kārttikeya's typical attribute.

The bird in the second left hand bears a very close resemblance to a parrot, but is more probably meant for a cock. This bird, at least, is mentioned as one of Kumāra's attributes in the following dhyāna which I have found on a miniature representing that deity:

सिन्दूरावणमिन्दुकान्तिवदनं नेयूरङ्कारादिभि दिव्यैराभरणे विभूषिततनं स्वर्गस्य सीख्यप्रदम्। पन्भोजाभययात्तिकुकुटधरं दिव्याङ्करागीज्युनं सुब्रह्मस्यसुपास्मन्ने प्रणमतामिष्टार्थसिडिपदम्॥

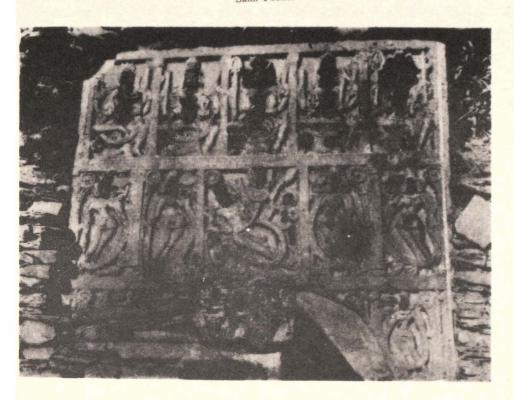
"We worship the minium-red one, moonshine-faced, whose body is adorned with bracelets, garlands and other celestial ornaments, the giver of the joy of Paradise, who, beaming with heavenly ointment, bears a water-born lotus, protection, a spear and a cock, and, very kind to Brāhmans, gives the attainment of their desired objects to those who bow down before him."

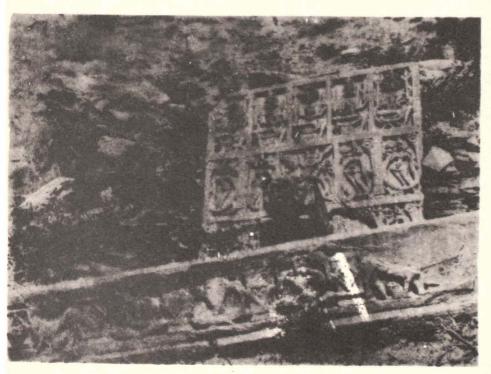
¹ The Little Clay Cart (Mrcchakațikā) transl. by A. W. Ryder (Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1905), p. 83.

² Cf. above, p. 139 f.

³ In the third act of The Little Clay Cart, the Brahman-burglar Sarvilaka speaks of his Patron Karttikeya as "the Lord of the Golden Lance."

One of Karttikeya's right hands makes the gesture expressing "protection" (Skr. abhaya-mudrā) scil. it is mised with the open palm at the level of the shoulder.





HEIGHT 6'6"

In the centre of the middle row, right over the spout opening, we recognize the well-known scene of Visnu's sleep, a symbolisation of the sun's disappearance during the season of the rains, and, therefore, very appropriate in the present instance. The subject is commonly found on the fountain-stones of Brahmor and Chatrarbi and is always treated in the same conventional manner. I have noticed it also on spring enclosures in Mandi State. On our sculpture we see Visnu reclining rather awkwardly on the Naga Sesa, who joins his hands in adoration (namaskāra). It will be noticed that the Naga does not wear the usual hood of snakeheads, but the lower part of his body is that of a serpent. Visnu himself is threefaced, the right and left faces being those of a lion and a boar, respectively. This peculiar feature, not unfrequently found on Visnu images in the Western Himalaya, he has in common with the Buddhist goddess, Mārīcī or Vajra-varāhī. He is four-armed and holds his ordinary attributes—the lotus (padma) and the wheel (cakra) to the right; and the conch-shell ($\sin kha$) and the mace (gada) to the left. From his navel springs a lotus-flower on which Brahma, likewise four-armed and carrying his usual emblems, is seated. In front of Visnu stands Laksmi fanning her lord with a fly-whisk (cāmara). The inscription over his head runs Sīsa-śayi (read Sesa-śāyī) Viṣṇu which means "Viṣṇu resting on Sesa." The substitution of ī for e is a peculiarity of Sanskrit pronunciation in Kaśmir, and seems to point to the author of the inscription having come from that country.

On both sides of the sleeping Visnu there are two panels, each of which contains a female deity standing facing the centre, and holding a well-shaped watervase in one hand, while the other clasps a lotus-stalk. The four figures are identical, but the vase is always in the hand next to the centre. They are, moreover, accompanied by different animals. Though from their attitude and attributes it is evident at once that these figures represent river-goddesses, it would have been impossible in every instance to fix their names solely by means of these more or less phantastical vahanas. To remove our doubts, the sculptor has cut their names on the vases, which, in the Indian fashion, they hold raised to the level of their shoulders. Those names, in some cases, are given neither in Sanskrit nor in the modern vernacular, but in an intermediate form which probably corresponded to that in use at the time of the inscription. The two figures immediately to the right and left of Vișpu are the personifications of the sacred twin rivers, Ganga and Jamna, readily recognizable from their vehicles--the crocodile in its conventional shape as makara, and the tortoise. They are, moreover, marked by inscriptions as Gangā and Jamuņā. The latter name is an intermediate form between Sanskrit Yamunā and the modern $Jamn\bar{a}$. The lingual n is evidently due to the propensity for cerebralisation of dentals, peculiar to the Cambiyālī dialect. The occurrence of Gangā and Jamna at the entrance of temples has been noticed above (pp. 143 f.)

I may mention here that, according to information received from Mr. Cousens we find the three river-goddesses Gangā, Yamunā and Sarasvatī portrayed among the deities on the tower of Chitor. The vāhana of Sarasvatī is a fish. In the Elura Caves in the courtyard of Kailāsa, there are three standing life-size images of these

¹ I am using the indigenous appellation of the chief river of India in preference to the unmelodious form which Europe inherited from Greece.

same three. While Ganga and Yamuna stand upon the makara and the tortoise respectively, Sarasvatī stands upon a lotus.

The figure adjoining Gangā on our sculpture has a fish as vāhana and is called Veth¹ in the inscription. This name we may safely interpret as a derivative of Sanskrit Vitastā signifying the westernmost of "the five rivers," famous both as the Hydaspes of Alexander's battle and Horace's melodious ode, and as the Vyath which waters the Happy Valley. If we remember the tanks, teeming with fish, of Vērnāg, Anantanāg and other sacred springs of Kaśmīr, the vehicle assigned here to the river which they feed, will seem most appropriate. It is hardly necessary to add that the Vyath of Kaśmīr is the same river as the Jēhlam of the Plains.

Next to the Jamna we meet a river-goddess with a dragon. She represents the Indus, named in the inscription by its old Indian appellation $Sindhu^3$ (the modern Sindh), whence originated the name by which the whole Indian continent has become known to the West.

The Chinese pilgrim Hiuen Tsiang, when crossing the Indus at U-to-kia-han-cha, the ancient Udakabhāṇḍa or Udakhāṇḍa (modern Und or Ohind) speaks of "poisonous Nāgas and hurtful beasts" occupying the caverns and clefts along its banks. This may perhaps account for the vehicle which here distinguishes that river.

The third or lower-most row of deities is, as has been remarked above, partly missing; but enough remains to show that it contained four figures identical with those just described, but somewhat smaller in size. Of these four Naiads, that at the proper right end is the only one, the vāhana of which is preserved. It presents the appearance of a hippocamp such as frequently occurs on Græco-Buddhist sculptures. The inscription leaves no doubt that the river personified here is the Biās (or Byās according to the legend), the Vedic Vipās[ā] and the Hyphasis of Alexander's historians.

Of the figure at the opposite end the value is lost, but the vase resting on its right hand retains the epigraph Sataludra, evidently an older form of the name Satluj (vulgo Sutlej) derived from the Vedic Sutudri. An intermediate form Satadru occurs in Sanskrit literature.

The two inner figures of this row are almost completely gone, but they must have been similar to the others. We may safely assume that they represented the rivers Rāvī and Candrabhāgā; for it is not very probable that the two rivers of Chambā should have been omitted. Thus, besides the two sacred rivers Gangā and Jampā, and the not less important Sindh, we have the five great tributaries of the latter, which from ancient times have given to the country which they water its name "the land of the five rivers."

¹ It would seem at first sight that there were two strokes over the initial consonant, but one of these belongs to the ornamentation of the vase on which the inscription is written.

² In the epigraph the word Sindhu is apparently spelled with lingual n and dental dh. We may compare the form Canpaka (for Canpaka) of the copper-plates, in which, however, the second consonant is a labial.

Si-yu-bi (transt. Beal), Vol. I, p. 136.

^{*} Cf. Foucher, L'art gréco-bouddhique au Gandhara, fig. 121.

Cf. Jonarija, Rājat. 439; also Pālam well inser. v. 14 in Delhi Museum Cat., p. 24. In Chambs I have neard the name of the Satluj pronounced as "Satludr."

We have mentioned above that in front of the carved fountain-slab justdescribed there is a cistern meant to receive the water, but now filled with earth. It is rectangular in shape and measures 12' 3" by 5' 8". The front slab, 12' 6" wide, 1'8" high and 1'3" thick, is also decorated with carvings. Though much defaced, they allow us to recognize three crouching male figures, seated cross-legged and, separated by dwarf pilasters, the shafts of which bear lozenge-shaped ornaments. The whole device can be traced back to the Græco-Buddhist art of Gaudhara, where it is commonly applied to decorate the bases of stupas.1 Of the three figures the central one has his hands resting on his knees, in the attitude of an Atlant, though in reality there is nothing for him to support. It is equally strange that the two remaining figures are provided with fly-whisks, which would have been more appropriate if the central figure had been a deity. At the two ends of the slab there is a lion standing with its head turned outward. This indicates that the scheme of the decoration here exhibited was borrowed from the simhasana of some image. That the fountain-slab, when seen in perspective, would, as it were, surmount the front stone may have suggested this form of ornamentation.

The inscription² is cut along the raised rim between the upper and central row of figures, and consists of three lines of unequal length. Lines 1 and 2 cover the whole width of the stone and measure 6' $6\frac{1}{2}$ " in length; the third line is 5' $7\frac{1}{2}$ " long. The letters, which are on the average $\frac{1}{2}$ " high, are well engraved, but in places the surface of the stone has disintegrated so as to make their shape indistinct. A more serious difficulty in dealing with this inscription is the circumstance that sometimes syllables have been left out. The language, moreover, is as defective as in other similar records. Long and short vowels are frequently interchanged. We find n instead of n in bhuvana (l. 1) and $\bar{a}r\bar{a}dhane$ (l. 3). The anusvāra is regularly found over any vowels which are followed by a preconsonantic nasal, and the visarga is freely placed at the end of words to separate them, as it were, from each other (Cf. above No. 28).

The first line contains three benedictory stanzas. The first composed in the Puspitāgrā metre is also found in the beginning of the copper-plate of Soma-varman (No. 24) and that of Soma-varman and Āsata (No. 25), so that we can easily restore its very corrupt reading. The second and third stanzas composed in the Anustubh metre are addressed to Siva. For the correction of the second verse I am indebted to Professor Kielhorn. The third verse in which several syllables are missing has been restored by Pandit Daya Ram Sahni.

The first half of the second line contains the date of the inscription: the twenty-seventh year of the reign of Lalita-varman or the forty-sixth year of the Śāstra era. The name of Lalita-varman occurs in the Vamśāvalī (śl. 85) immediately after Udaya-varman who assisted Sussala of Kaśmīr in the defence of Śrīnagara in A.D. 1122. The year of our inscription must, therefore, be 1170 A.D. Unfortunately the other particulars of the date do not agree. Professor Kielhorn has arrived at the conclusion that most probably the month of Śrāvana has been erroneously

¹ Cf. Foucher, op. cit. 208, figs. 84-87.

² Plate XXXII. It will be noticed that the estampage has been cut into four for reproduction.

³ Rajat, VIII, 1083; transl. Stein, Vol. II, p. 86.

substituted for Asadha in which case the corresponding date of the Christian era would be Sunday, the 28th June, A.D. 1170.1

The rest of the second line is of unusual interest, as it contains the designations and names of the local officials. It will be seen that two of them bear the title segāna or segāna which is certainly not Indian. Mr. A. H. Francke has suggested to me that the word is possibly a corruption of Tibetan sogampa meaning "a custom-house officer or tax-collector." This explanation seems very plausible and would point to a period of Tibetan rule in Pāngī previous to its conquest by the Rājās of Chambā. I may add that the vowel in the first syllable may perhaps be read o which would make the word still more similar to the Tibetan sogampa.

The first mentioned Segāṇa Kāluka was evidently the chief-official of Pāngī, which is here called Pāngatī. It will be noticed that, though his title may be of Tibetan origin, his name "Kālu" is certainly Indian. The next official named Neṇu(ka), has the designation of pratihāra (read pratīhāra) which occurs also on the Sai fountain-slab (No. 35). Next comes Kutu(ka), the daṇḍavāsika, a title, also found on copper-plates, which probably denotes a police officer. The lastnamed official Siri(ka) who, like the one first-mentioned, bears the title segāṇa was evidently in charge of the kōṭhī (Sanskrit koṣṭhika cf. koṣṭhāgāra No. 25, l. 21).

The last line of the inscription records the erection of the fountain-stone (Varuna) by Rāṇī Delhā, the wife of the Rāṇā Ludra-pāla. The name Ludra-pāla which evidently stands for Rudra-pāla, seems to point to Kaśmīr influence. We find the shrine of Jyeṣṭha-rudra on the Takht-i-Sulaimān near Śrīnagar designated as Jiṣṭha-ludra in an inscription of A.D. 1484. It is not a little curious that up to the present day the house adjoining the Sālhī fountain-stone is inhabited by a family of Rāṇās (now simple agriculturists) who claim descent from the Ludra-pāla of our inscription (cf. fig. 21).

After a short sentence in praise of the water of the fountain, the inscription ends with the name of the writer, Kāyastha Sekha, and of the two stone-masons (Skr. $s\bar{u}tradh\bar{a}ra$), Sahaja and Gagga. The latter certainly deserve more praise for their craft than the former for his knowledge of Sanskrit.

TEXT.

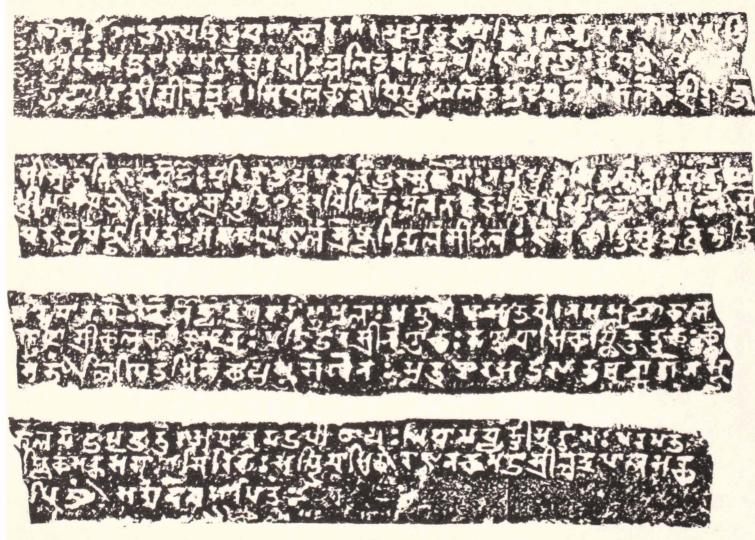
श्रों सितः । श्रों जयित भुवण-कारणं । स्वयंभुर्जयित पुरनन्द-पुरारीः जयित श्रोमुता-निरुष्ठ देशेः दुरिताभय-पहारो हरस्र देवाः नमसुङ्गश्रिर-शुक्तिः चंन्द्र-चामर-चारवेः चैलीक्यानगरा-रंभ-मूलः [स्त] भामप शभवे । नमस्ययाकास्न कालदेहमहातुः श्रपान-दह-पीठायः सिवाम व्यक्तीसृत्तसः परम-भ (1.2) टारक-महाराज-परमेश्वर-श्रीमञ्जलित-वर्म-देव-विजय-राज्येः संवत् २०शास्त्रीय-संवत् ४६ श्रा श्रु ति १३ रिविदिनेः मृल-नचचेः तिथि चयीदथ्याः पाङ्गत्याम् श्रेगाण-श्रीकालुक वर्तमानेः प्रति-हार-श्रीनेश्वकः दंग्डवासिक श्विकुतुकः कोष्ठिक-सत्क-सेगाण-श्रिरिकः सिन्ह-वासित् राजानक-महाश्री-सुद्रपाल-भत्क-(1.3) मर्या। राज्ञी-श्री-देन्हेन । श्रिव-लोकार्थं विश्व-परलोक-श्रारधाणे सर्गलोकः

¹ The date has been fully discussed above, pp. 74 f.

² For a discussion of the functions of these officials cf. above, pp. 134 f.

³ Cf. J. H. Marshall, Note on archaeological work in Kashmir, p. 18.

⁴ The last two aksaras are indistinct, but cf. No. 42, 1. 12.



क्रीडार्चे वर्णं-देव स्थापितं: सरावण-जलं श्रेष्ठ-निर्मल-शोतलः जग्न-कोर्ति-शृतार्थं इति शुभम् लिखितसिदं कायस्य-सेखेनः सूत्रधार-सङ्का तथा गगेन स्थापितंम् सत्यमेव स्वापितंः

CORRECTED READING.

षों स्वस्तिः । षों जयित भुवन-कारणं स्वयंभूर्जयित पुरन्दर-नन्दनो मुरारिः । जयित गिरि-सृता-निरुद्व-देष्ठो दुरित-भयापष्टरो इरस्र देवः ॥ नमस्तुष्क गिरसुन्धि-चन्द्र-चामर-चारवे । त्रैलोक्य-नगरारम्थ-मूल-स्तभाय शक्षवे ॥ नमस्तस्य कलाधर्ते काल-देष्ठ-प्रश्वारिणे । स्वपानदेश-पोठाय गिवाय व्यक्ति-स्तये ॥ परमभ-(1. 2) द्वारक-मश्वाराजाधिराज-परमेश्वर-श्रीमक्कलितवर्म-देव-विजय-राज्ये संवत् २० शास्त्रोय-संवत् ४६ श्वाः श्वः तिः १३ रविदिने मूल-नज्ञते तिथो त्रयोदश्यां पाष्ट्रत्यां शेगाण-श्री-कालुके वर्तमाने प्रतीश्वार-श्वी-नेणुके दण्डवासिक-श्वी-कृतुके कोष्ठिक-सत्त्व-सेगाण-गिरिके साल्ही-वासि-राजानक-मश्वाशी-लुद्रपाल-सत्त्व-(1. 3) भार्यया राज्ञी-श्वी-देल्ह्या श्विवलोकार्ये विष्णु-परलोकाराधनाय स्वर्ग-लोक-क्रीडार्थे वरुण-देवः स्थापितः । स्वण्-जलं श्रेष्ठ-निर्मल-ग्रीतलं यशः-क्षोतिः-ग्रुभार्थ । दित शुभम् । लिखितमिदं कायस्य-सेखेन । स्त्रधार-सङ्जेन तथा गमोन स्थापितम् ॥

TRANSLATION.

Hail! Victorious is the Cause of the world, the Self-existent (Brahmā). Victorious is the son of the Destroyer of castles (Siva or Indra), the enemy of Mura (Kṛṣṇa). Victorious is He whose body is held by the Mountain-daughter (Durgā), He who removes distress and danger—Hara, the god.

Reverence to Sambhu (Siva) the beautiful, whose lofty head is touched (lit. kissed) by the moon as by a chowrie, [and] who is the beginning, the root and the support of the town of the Universe.

Reverence to Him, the Crescent-carrier, who strikes the body of Kāla [and] whose seat is the region of Apāna^s—Śiva, the creator of the manifested world.

In the year 27 in the reign of victory of the supreme prince, the king of kings, the supreme lord, the illustrious Lalita-varman of divine descent, in the Sastra year 46, [the month of] Śrāvaṇa, the bright fortnight, the lunar day 13, on Sunday, at [the conjunction of the moon with] the lunar mansion Mūla, on the thirteenth lunar day—when in Pāṇgatī there was the Śegāṇa the illustrious Kālu(ka); the pratīhāra, the illustrious Neṇu(ka); the daṇḍavāsika the illustrious Kutu(ka); and Segāṇa Śiri(ka) in charge of the Kōthī—[at that time] the wife of the Rāṇā, the very illustrious Ludra-pāla of Sālhī, the queen, the illustrious Delhā has erected a fountainslab (lit. Varuṇa-deva) for the sake of Śiva's heaven, in order to gain the other heaven of Viṣṇu [and] for the sake of the joy of Paradise.

^{&#}x27; The aktura which I rend kri has apparently both the i and the r vowel signs.

[&]quot; The n is written under the line.

³ Perhaps Lenuka is to be read; the first syllable is doubtful.

⁴ As all the proper names in this passage except Sirika are preceded by the word Śri, it is probable that the syllable cchi is also to be read as such.

⁵ I presume that $Dclh\bar{a}$ is the true form of the name (cf. above, p. 210 Balhā) which erroneously was provided with the instrumental termination of the masculine.

⁶ The form jasa is due to vernacular influence.

⁷ Perhaps Guggena is to be read. Cf. above, p. 138.

^{*} Prana and Apana are the two breath currents in the human body according to the Yoga system.

[This] flowing water [is] excellent, pure and cool [and] causes glory, fame and grace. Thus may it be blessed. This is written by the writer of legal documents. Sekha. It was set up by the stone-mason Sahaja and by Gagga—truly set up.

No. 34.—MÜL-KIHÄR FOUNTAIN INSCRIPTION. (PLATE XXXIII.)

At a distance of about 3 miles to the north-west of Dyūhr (map Duire), the headquarters of the parganā of the same name, lies the hamlet of Mūl-Kihār. The name seems to indicate that it was originally the chief place of the Kihār parganā. The present Kihār kōthā is situated some 4 or 5 miles further to the west at the village of Digi. On a spur above the village of Mūl-Kihār there are the remnants of ancient walls which evidently once belonged to a building of considerable size. Local tradition holds that this was the site of a Rāṇā's castle, and the inscription presently to be discussed leaves no doubt as to the correctness of this tradition.

On the site I found a defaced piece of soulpture, I' 9" high and I' 3" wide, representing a goddess standing between two female attendants. Each of these figures wears the usual ornaments and is placed on a conventional lotus. The central one shown in a dancing posture, is four-armed. Two arms seem to swing a snake over its head, the other two are in front of the body, but the attributes which they once held are lost. The two attendants, of somewhat smaller size and in the usual contorted posture, were presumably provided with fly-whisks (Skr. cāmara). The attendant to the left of the main figure with her right hand raised above the head has the typical attitude of a chowrie bearer. The two pilasters shown at the sides of the figures, indicate that these were supposed to be enshrined in a chapel. It is not clear what architectural member these pilasters are supporting, as the upper portion of the sculpture is totally effaced. The cusped arch, partly preserved at the back and over the heads of the figures, seems to be developed from a trefoil halo.

A more important relic of the past is a ruined fountain at the side of the Dyūhr-Kihār road in the immediate proximity of the site just noticed. The destruction of this eistern is locally ascribed to the Basōhlī people. In the reign of Rāj Singh, about A.D. 1774, Chambā was invaded by the Basōhlī Rājā Amṛt Pāl at the instigation of Ranjīt Dēv of Jammū. Rāj Singh repelled the invader with the assistance of the Rāmgarhiā Sardārs and in his turn invaded and conquered Basōhlī in A.D. 1782. Again in the reign of his son and successor Jīt Singh bands of Basōhlī troops made inroads in Chambā territory under their chief Bijai Pāl. In A.D. 1800, the Chambā Rājā retaliated by invading and conquering Basōhlī. The traveller George Forster who travelled through Basōhlī territory in April 1783 gives a graphic account of the destruction caused by the invasion of Rāj Singh of Chambā.

^{.&#}x27; The name of the last Rana of Mul-Kihar is said to have been Gulab Singh and that of his Rana Kanani. I am told that one of his descendants, Mahtab Singh by name, still lives at Bhadravah.

² Cf. Chambā Gazetteer, pp. 99 ff. The date of the copper-plate referred to in the footnote is Vikrama 1831, Saka 1696, Vaisākha pūrņimā, Vran pra. 15 corresponding to Wednesday the 25th May, A.D. 1774.;

³ Poreter, Journey, Vol. I, pp. 270 f.



Fig. 26. Ruined fountain at Mul-Kihar.

The Mul-Kibar cistern is of a type entirely different from that of the ordinary panhiyars in which the large back-slab with its carvings and inscriptions is the most striking feature. In the present instance we find only a curiously sculptured water-spout, the mouth of which seems to represent the head of some phantastical animal, perhaps meant for a makara. Some more carved stones of considerable size are found on the spot, but their original position cannot now be ascertained.

The inscription which contains the record of the foundation of this cistern is carved on a large slab (2' 5" by 1' 10" by 11") which is no longer in situ. It has shared the fate of the monument to which it belonged and is now in a deplorable state of mutilation. The inscribed surface is 2' in width by 1' 6" in height; but a large portion of the epigraph has disappeared with the proper left end of the stone. The missing part of the inscribed surface has the shape of a rectangular triangle, the hypotenuse being marked by the fractured edge. The upper lines have suffered the greatest loss, probably some twenty-two syllables each, whilst at the end of the lower lines of the inscription only a few aksaras seem to be missing. Of the remainder most of the letters along the top and proper right side of the stone are entirely effaced; the surface has peeled off in places, especially in the lower portion of the record, and everywhere separate letters are found damaged or destroyed.

The mutilation of this inscription is the more to be regretted, as evidently it was a document of considerable interest, both historical and literary. It seems to have consisted of twenty-six lines and to have contained no less than thirty-one stanzas of very fine Sanskrit poetry, composed in a great variety of metres. The metres used are $\tilde{Sardūlavikridita}$ in verse 2; $Rathoddhat\bar{a}$ in verses 3, 4 and 15;

Vasantatilaka in verses 5, 10, 12, 13, 18, and 27; Mālinī in verses 6 and 16; An-u stubh in verses 7 (?), 9, 14, 20-24, 26 (?), and 29; Upajāti in verses 8, 19 and 30; Mandākrāntā in verse 11; Šikharinī in verses 17 and 25 and Drutavilambita(?) in verse 28. At present not a single verse is entire, but a few can be conjecturally restored. Enough remains to make out the chief contents of the inscription. It may be divided into three parts. The first part consists of benedictory stanzas and invocations to various deities; the second part contains the genealogy of the local Rāṇā to whose piety the fountain ewed its origin, and the final portion gives an account of the pious foundation itself.

Let us now attempt, as far as the fragmentary state of the document allows, to consider its contents more in detail. The first stanza, apparently preceded by the usual mangala in prose, is almost entirely destroyed. Presumably it contained, like the following stanzas, an invocation to some deity, perhaps Varuna, the god of the waters, who, as we have had frequent occasion to notice, takes a prominent place both in the carvings and inscriptions on monuments of this kind. Of the second stanza the concluding portion is still legible; it ends with the name of Siva whose protection it was apparently meant to implore. The third stanza had evidently a similar purport, but the name of the deity invoked is lost. Stanzas 4 to 6 are addressed to Kāma (Madana) the god of love, to the Sun-god Sūrya, here called Tarani, and to Siva's son Kumāra or Kārttikeya, the god of war. The seventh verse begins with the word śreyah, from which we may infer that, like the preceding six stanzas, it was intended to secure the blessing of some deity.

The second genealogical portion of the inscription is on the whole somewhat better preserved than the beginning and concluding parts, but unfortunately most of the names are lost. Of the first of the Rana's ancestors, mentioned in verse 8, the name certainly ended in -pala(ka); the first member of the name is perhaps gaya. He bears the title of Rājānaka, i.e. Rāņā and is said to belong to the house (gotra) of the muni Kāśyapa. In stanzas 9 and 10 it is related that he married, and a child was born to him, but the names of both his wife and his son are lost. In the next two verses (11-12) this son marries in his turn and begets a son whose name is likewise missing. This grandson of Rana Gaya-pala marries a lady, Suramati by name, who is praised for her generosity (verse 13). Several sons are born by her, the names of the eldest being Syamalu, Laksmana, Golhana and Chinnu² (verse 14), and also a daughter Bhappikā whose beauty is described in an elegant line of poetry (verse 15). The following passage (verses 16-18) consists of an account of the death of Suramati and of the lamentations of her relatives, told in exquisite language. Verses 19-24 eulogize the water, which quenches the fire of grief and allays even the torments of hell. These stanzas, all composed in the Anustubh metre, seem to be a quotation, as may also be inferred from the following Iti śrutvā, but I have not been able to ascertain from what work they are borrowed.

The concluding portion of the inscription relates, how a cistern of clear water was constructed, evidently in memory of the deceased Sūramati. In verse 25 the founder is named Goga, but it is not apparent whether her husband is indicated by

¹ Cf. Ibbetson, Outline of Punjab Ethnography, § 421.

² The female personal name Chinna occurs in the Baijnath prafasti, I, 27.

this name or one of her sons. In the latter case Goga might be a pet-name for Golhana mentioned in verse 4. It seems, however, more natural that it was the husband of the deceased lady who had the fountain made. The whole passage is too much mutilated to allow us to arrive at any definite conclusion. So much is certain that in verse 30 the date of the inscription is expressed in the regnal year of some Rājā of Chambā, whose name I propose to read Vijayeśvara. Unfortunately the first syllable is lost, and the second uncertain. If my conjecture is correct, "the lord Vijaya" of our inscription may be identified with Vijaya-varman, who in the Vamśāvalī (śl. 85) figures as the son and successor of Lalita-varman. As we know that the latter became Rājā in A.D. 1143 and was still ruling in 1170, the date of Vijaya-varman's reign must fall about the end of the 12th century. This conclusion well agrees with the palæographical evidence afforded by the Mūl-Kihār inscription. It follows, moreover, from verse 30 that the Rāṇās of Mūl-Kihār owed allegiance to the Rājās of Chambā.

Another point of considerable interest is whether Rājānaka Gaya-pāla mentioned in verse 8 of our inscription can be the same person as the Thakkura Gaya-pāla who, according to the Rājataranginī (VIII, 548-9) collected a force to restore the pretender, Bhikṣācara, to the throne of Kaśmīr, but was treacherously murdered by his own relatives before he could give effect to his design. Chronologically the identification might well be maintained. The Gaya-pāla of the Kaśmīr Chronicle lived in the reign of Jāsaṭa of Chambā, at whose court Bhikṣācara found a refuge for several years. We saw that the Rāṇā who founded the Mūl-Kihār cistern lived at the time of Vijaya-varman, i.e., about the last quarter of the 12th century. His grandfather may, therefore, quite well have been a contemporary of Jāsaṭa who ruled in Chambā in the first quarter of that century.

On the other hand, it would seem from the wording of Kalhana's account that his Thakkura Gaya-pāla was a feudatory of Padmaka, the Rājā of Vallāpura, whose daughter Bhikṣācara married. This, however, is not a very serious objection. We can hardly expect absolute accuracy in a narrative of events which happened at a considerable distance from Kaśmīr. Gaya-pāla the Rānā of Mūl-Kihār was most probably, like his grandson, a vassal of the Rājā of Chambā, but his castle stood almost on the border of Vallāpura territory and he could, therefore, conveniently collect the troops from both States. For it should be remembered that Jāsata of Chambā lent support to his kinsman Bhikṣācara, like his neighbour Padmaka of Vallāpura.

So far, therefore, the identification seems plausible enough, but it may be well to emphasize the fact that the reading of the name in the inscription is itself problematical. Only the last member of the compound is certain, and this unfortunately was the common cognomen of many royal and noble families of the period. The first part of the name must indeed have consisted of two short syllables, the first of which is still extant in outline and can hardly be anything but ga. The little that remains of the second aksara permits of its being read as ya, but this reading must of necessity be regarded as conjectural.

As far as the fragmentary state of the inscription allows us to judge, the record is composed in very pure and grammatically correct Sanskrit. The only error

occurring in the preserved portion is the substitution of r for ri in trdasapaticadhūnām (verse 16), a mistake of which we have met with instances elsewhere and which is evidently due to the pronunciation of <math>r sonans as ri. The author of the Mūl-Kibār inscription was not only a scholar, but a true poet whose good taste prevented him from indulging in the bombastic phraseology which so often disfigures the classical literature of India. His language is simple, and the rhetorical figures of speech are applied in such proportion as not to obscure but to elucidate the sense of each verse. The similes, if not original, are well chosen. If we compare verse 15, in which the charms of Śūramati's daughter are lauded, with numerous passages in Indian poetry devoted to the praise of female beauty—of which our Sarāhan prašasti (No. 13) affords a good example—we cannot but admire the chaste moderation of the writer.

TEXT. चिं स्वीस्तः। यो नम ----(1. 2) [सं] चार्य गरणागतस्य तृपतिर्य - - - -— — विदि-]सुद्धळानेष सफल-क्रोध-प्रसा[द]श्चिवः २ (1.3)— ∪ — ∪ ∪ ∪ − न धारय[त्व] ं ज्वार-ज्विम-गौर-[सु]ब्तः। (1. 4) [वन्दया]मि मदनं जगत्पते येन दन्ध-वव्षापि श्लि[न: 1] -- ∪ का[िन्ति] इरताम ∪ -- ∪ -- □ ∪ -- ∪ ∪ वघीक[तं मनः ४] [कत्या]ण-भूत-दु[र]तेश्वन-वीतिष्ठोत्रससंसा [र-सिन्ध्-] तरणिस्तरण × क्रियादः ५ विजित-विषय-भोगे-यत्न-वैफल्यसापुसुस जयति [रिपुवर्गे] ब्रह्मचारी कुमार: ६ बेरो - - - - - - - - - [9] गीने भवत्कार्यपः संज्ञकस्य महासुने [र्गा] ह 🔾 🗕 🔾 🗀 🖂 🖂 [रा]जानक्य त्री [गय]पालकाख्य 🔾 — 🔾 — — 🗸 🔾 🗀 _ _ _ _ _ _ _ (l. 8) सी _ _ _ _ ए - प्रियो। यथार्थ-नामा श्रग्रर-पितृ-पत्तोदय-प्रदा ८। तस्वामजायत सुतग् ग्रभ-कर्मणी स्थ — — ○ — ○ ○ ○ — ○ ○ — ○ □ । समूह: १०

¹ Cf. No. 9, 1. 2, asrtya for asritya and No. 15, 1. 24, asrta for asrita.

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तस्याप्यासीवदुगुष-गणा-सद्भता धर्भपत्नी
(l. 10) यस्त्राम् श्रुत्वा विनय [यम्भ] तत्वज्ञुस् सा[न] स्यास्
                                                                     सी[म]न्तिन्यो धरचि-वश्चये इप-सीभाष्यमण्रम् ११
तखाम[बायत] 🔾 — 🔾 🔾 — 🗸 — ---
                                                       — U सX परसुपेयमि[इस्त]नोनां
                                                                                       मार-व्यवानु[भ]व-भाच्यि घरीरकाचि १२
 (l. 12) — — U — U U — U U यो U यज्ञा यज्ञार्म-दत्त-वसुधाब- हिरस्त-
                                                                                                                                     वस्रा। १३
 ग्यामल्-सन्मण्-गोल्हण्-हिन्-प्रमुखास् स 🔾 ---।
                             arphi \cup arphi arphi \cup -- arphi [चात्म] (।. 13) [जा 🗶 प्रसुतास्तया । १४]
 क्र-क्डमल-दती सुमध्यमा पुत्र-पङ्क-मुखी पिक-खरा !
                                                       नील-नीरज-मभान-लोचना भणिकेत्यभवद[स्व चात्मवा ।१५]
 रूप-सीभाग्य-वृत्तिं।
  िनियतमव [निमाप्तामा] परित्यज्य जेत्ं विजित-मनुज-लोका खर्ग-भूमि[मवाष। १४]
  खलखैतिचित्ते निवसति [क]दा चिहत विधे [र्यया] दृष्टादृष्टावयति सम-वृत्त्वा यम-पुरीम। १७]
  — — → (l. 16) → → - नयनाभिरामामुखङ्गां प्रियतमां जनताभिनन्धाम।
  भर्त्तर्थ्यययुजदिमां विषम× क्रतान्त 🗶 पर्वात्ययम् मिमक्रतामिव [धर्मरस्रो:। १८]
   oxdot = -(	ext{l. }17) oldsymbol{oldsymbol{oldsymbol{\gamma}}} oldsymbol{oldsymbol{--}} वो म्निस् समान-दुoldsymbol{\mathsf{X}} स्वानुजoldsymbol{\mathsf{c}}_{oldsymbol{\mathsf{X}}} स्वoldsymbol{\mathsf{c}}_{oldsymbol{\mathsf{A}}} हो भी रोoldsymbol{\mathsf{c}}_{oldsymbol{\mathsf{A}}}
  तद्रोदनाश्वस्त्रुति-सिखमानश श्रनेश् श्रशम प्रिय-[बा] श्ववस्त । १८
  जलं दि जीवितं लोके जलमाला जलं व[यः।]
                                      	extstyle 	ex
  म् [र्हा-त्र]म-परीतानां शोकार्तानां विदाहिनाम्।
                                                                 तो 🖂 काम 🔾 — — 🔾 ज्वलन-पृष्ट-चेतसाम्। ११
    वियोगिनां रागिनां \hookrightarrow \hookrightarrow \hookrightarrow \hookrightarrow \circ ।
                                                               (1. 19) 👱 😕 [मञ्चा-]रौरवय मन्नापन्नय रौरव: [२)२
  तप्तवाल् [क-सं] चव ८ ८ ८ ८ ८ ८ − ८ − ।
                                                                         [सचन्य] तस्य किं कुर्युर्मनीन्तर्यस्य गीतलम् २३
  \P \sqcup \sqcup \sqcup \cup - - \sqcup (1.20) \sqcup \sqcup \sqcup \sqcup \cup  येन ता।
                                                                         येन दत्तेन तृष्यन्ति [सद्यो] लोकास् सनातनाः २४
  इति बु[त्वा] — — U U U U U — — U U U —
                                                                           [स्व]मुहिम्बा[नन्दं] पितरमिष्ठ गोगी स्व त[नयो।]
   व्यधासीयाधारं सुर-नर-पित्- प्रीति-जननम् २[४]
```

トトトト・ートトトト π π π π π π π π π π
arproptu ar
तस्थालाजेन पितु-[वाक्यमिव] व्यथायि तीयामयो यमि 🔾 — 🔾 🗸 — 🕳 —
यं वीच्च वीच्च ∪ ∪ − ∪ ∪ − ∪ −-
स्टि ∪ − ∪ ∪ ∪ − ∪ ∪ (1. 23) − ∪ − २७
भज ○ ─ ○ सुद्धा ○ ○ ─ ○
∪ — ∪ — ∪ ∪ — ∪ — ∪ — ∪ — ३६°
(l. 24) \vee \vee \vee \vee \vee \vee \vee \vee \vee \vee
(21) 프로프로 (프로프로 () () () () () () () () () (
छ छ छ छ छ छ छ छ छ छ छ छ छ छ। संवत्सरे चंग्पक-नामधेय-पुरी-पते[रर्क]-कुलोद्भवस्य।
· ·
— — — — [वि]जयेश्व [रख](l. 25) — — — — — — — •
TRANSLATION.3
Hail! Adoration
 [Lost.] Siva whose wrath and favour bear fruit with his foes and friends [may he
protect you
3. He whose splendour is white like snow—may he keep (you)
4. I praise Madana (i.e. Kama) who, though his body was reduced to
ashes, subdued the heart o
the Trident-holder (i.e. Siva)
5. Tarani (i.e. Sūrya) in whose fire th
misfortune of the righteous [is consumed] like fuel, he who is a boa
on the ocean of existence, may be render you [happy]. 6. The chaste Kumāra (i.e., Kārttikeya) conquers the host of enemies.
o. The chaste Rumata (v.e., Rattinkeya) conquers the host of elements.
7. [Lost.]
8. In the house of the great Sage whose name is Kāsyapa was born th
Rajanaka called the illustrious Gayapalaka
9. [He married a lady] who was appropriately s
named and who secured success to the factions of her father-in-la- and her father.
10. To him of noble deeds was born by her a son

. . . whom here the multitude of princes [praised] as the

champion of knighthood.

¹ The metro is uncertain. Judging from the space occupied by this verse, it seems to have been an Anustubh.

² The metre is uncertain. We have apparently a pada in the Drutavilambita metre, but some of the akşaras are lust.

³ Conjectural words are shown in italics. Words which are incoherent have been left untranslated.

ones within the circle of the earth yielded without complaint the utmost charm of their beauty. 12. By her [was born a son] [at the sight of whom] the bodies of the fair ones, feeling the pangs of Love, [attained] their highest aim. 13. His [spouse] is Suramati of spotless nature	11. He also had a lawful wife adorned with a multitude of virtues
utmost charm of their beauty. 12. By her [was born a son]	at the report of whose fame the fair
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and reached the abode of heaven, to transcend in heauty. loveliness and manners the women of the Chief of the gods.\\ 17	
and manners the women of the Chief of the gods.\\ 17	-
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that churl, who leads the righteous and unrighteous in the same manner to Yama's town. 18	
18	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
rated her—his most beloved, seated on his lap, the delight of his eyes, praised by all mankind—from her husband, even as the passing of the parvan [separates] the Moon sickle from the hot-rayed [Sun].* 19	_
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21. Of those who are overcome by faintness or fatigue, who are afflicted with grief or burning of those whose mind is singed by the fire [the hells]	
21. Of those who are overcome by faintness or fatigue, who are afflicted with grief or burning of those whose mind is singed by the fire	
with grief or burning of those whose mind is singed by the fire	
singed by the fire	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
22. Of lovers separated [the hells]	
·	singed by the fire
Mahāraurava, Mahāpadma and Baurava—	·
	Mahāraurava, Mahāpadma and Baurava—

¹ The Lord of the gods (Devendra) is Indra the thundergod. His celestial abode is inhabited by the Gandharvas and Apsaras. Suramati, the poet supposes, left the world to outshine the beauty of these heavenly nymphs in Indra's Paradise.

² Yama is the Indian Hades; he is the god of death and the lord of the lower regions.

³ The parvans are the changes of the moon. Here the New Moon is meant, when the same and the moon are in conjunction. When the parvan of the New Moon passes, they become separated. The same simile occurs in the Raghwamsa 7, 30.

11. He also had a lawful wife adorned with a multitude of virtues
ones within the circle of the earth yielded without complaint the
utmost charm of their beauty.
12. By her [was born a son] [at the sight of whom]
the bodies of the fair ones, feeling the pangs of Love, [attained] their highest aim.
13. His (spouse] is Śūramati of spotless nature
who bestowed land, food,
gold and clothes at sacrifices and on the afflicted.
14. She bore [him several] sons of whom the elder were Syamalu, Laksmana, Golhana and Chinnu
15. He had also a daughter, Bhappikā by name, with teeth like jasmine buds, a slender waist, a face like a full-blown lotus, the voice of a cuckoo and eyes resembling dark-blue water-lilies.
16. She (Suramati?) passed away. Certainly, having attained her wish and conquered the world of men, she left the earth and reached the abode of heaven, to transcend in beauty. loveliness and manners the women of the Chief of the gods.
17
18
19
20. For water is life in [this] world, water is breath, water is strength
21. Of those who are overcome by faintness or fatigue, who are afflicted with grief or burning of those whose mind is singed by the fire
22. Of lovers separated [the hells] Mahāraurava, Mahāpadma and Raurava—

¹ The Lord of the gods (Devendra) is Indra the thundergod. His oriestial abode is inhabited by the Gandharvas and Apsaras. Suramati, the poet supposes, left the world to outshine the beauty of these heavenly nymphs in Indra's Paradise.

² Yama is the Indian Hades; he is the god of death and the lord of the lower regions.

³ The parvans are the changes of the moon. Here the New Moon is meant, when the sun and the moon are in conjunction. When the parvan of the New Moon passes, they become separated. The same simile occurs in the Raghuvansa 7, 30.

2	3. And the one called Taptavaluka (Buraing Sand) ,
	what would they do to that being whose mind inside is cool.
2	4 with the gift
	of which the eternal world becomes at once satisfied.
2	5. When he had thus understood and exhorted
	Ananda his father, Goga his son made this
	cistern of very pure water which causes joy to gods, men and ances-
	tral spirits.
2	6. [Lost.]
	7. By his son this cistern was made here like the word of his father
	at the sight of which
2	8 [his] sons with their offspring. The chief protects
_	the land
9	9. Constructed by
	•
o	0. In the year [of the reign] of Prince Vijaya the scion of the Solar
	Race and lord of the town named Canpaka
3	1 glearning in the
	lotus-like heart of the wise

No. 35.—SAI FOUNTAIN INSCRIPTION OF THE REIGN OF AJAYA-PÁLA; ŚÁSTRA 1 (A.D. 1225?) OR KALI 4270 (A.D. 1169?).

(PLATES XXXIV AND XXXV.)

Sai is the head-quarters of the parganā of the same name which belongs to the Curāh wazārat. Near a fountain below the village there stands a carved stone of considerable size (3' 6" high; 4' 6" wide). In its centre is a square hole $(9'' \times 9\frac{1}{2}'')$ which once must have contained a water-spout. The spring apparently has changed its course. There are still two water-spouts with carved mouths beneath the fountain-slab, but these also have become dry.

Immediately over the square opening we notice a linga placed on a stand of the ordinary type. The symbol of procreation is being worshipped by two figures placed on either side of it. The one to its proper right is a bearded male figure seated cross-legged on an ornamental cushion, and holding a censer in his right and Between him and the linga there is a vessel presumably a bell in his left hand. intended for offerings (Hindi $bh\bar{o}g$). From an inscription placed immediately over this figure, it appears that it represents Ranautra Phahi, the person for whose sake the fountain-stone was erected. The figure on the other side is a female standing on a kind of stool. Round her head is a halo of trefoil shape. She wears a diadem from which a scarf (H. dupctta) floats down over both her shoulders, and also an ornamental petticoat. The upper part of her body is nude; her breasts are broken and her face slightly injured. Presumably this figure also was marked with an inscription; but the surface of the stone above it has peeled off. From its position we may presume that it represents the wife of Ranautra Phahi. In her right hand she holds a fly-whisk (Skr. camara; H. cauri, cauri; Anglo-Indice chowrie); with

It is doubtful whether the first akşara is to be read phā or dhā. The rounded shape of the letter lends me to assume that it is more probably phā though the curve of pha usually ends in a loop. For instances see above, p. 55.

her left hand she grasps the scarf of another female figure somewhat larger in size which stands behind her and is labelled: Dai Nagih. This personage wears the same kind of dress, though differing in design. She holds a water-vessel in her left hand; the right hand which is empty shows the attitude known in Indian iconography as the "gift-bestowing" (Skr. vara-mudrā). Beneath these two female figures we notice the effigy of a fish. The other end of the slab is occupied by a figure similar to the one last-described, but holding in each hand a lotus-flower. The inscription over this figure is destroyed except the last letter which is la. Beneath it is a quaint looking animal, presumably meant to represent a tortoise. There can be little doubt that in these two figures we may recognize the portraits of two ladies belonging to the household of Ranautra Phahi, for one of them is distinctly marked as dai, i.e. nurse. We know that even at the Mughal court the wetnurse of the heir-apparent had the title daī and was a lady of distinction. In Chambā we have the example of Dai Batlo, the wetnurse of Raja Prthvi Singh, who, according to popular tradition, saved the life of her nursling from the hands of Jagat Singh of Nurpur. She was the founder of two temples and the donor of gifts of land, the title-deeds of which are still extant among our copper-plates.1 Thus it can be no matter of surprise that the nurse of Ranautra Phahi was considered worthy of being portrayed on the stone. It is curious that the sculptor, in rendering this and the corresponding figure, evidently copied the river-goddesses, Gangā and Yamunā, commonly found on similar fountain-slabs. Invariably these Naiads are shown with a water-vessel in one hand and a lotus-flower in the other, and we notice that each of our two figures has preserved one of these attributes. Besides, the two animals beneath are clearly derived from the crocodile and the tortoise which are the vehicles of those two river-goddesses.

It is well known that Gangā and Yamunā are regularly represented on both sides of the entrance of ancient temples. They are distinguished by their vāhanas—the crocodile and the tortoise. Some noticeable instances are the temples of Mārtānd in Kaśmīr, of Nūrpur and Baijnāth in Kāngrā and of Bajaurā in Kuļū. And it is the same not only in the Western Himālaya but all over Northern India. But temples of a later period when the meaning of these figures was no longer understood often show those animals metamorphosed; the crocodile becomes a fish, the tortoise assumes the appearance of a goose. Such a development was not only favoured by the highly ornamental character which already at an earlier date the figures of the two animals had assumed, but seems the more natural in a region where both the crocodile and the tortoise are equally unknown.

Whereas the lower portion of the slab is thus reserved for mortals, we find the upper part occupied by beings of a higher order. Of the row of five deities, seated cross-legged and separated by pilasters, the central one, according to its inscription, is Varuna, the god of the waters, in whose honour the fountain-slab was erected. He has four arms which support a makara-staff and a rosary (Skr. aksamālā) on the right, and a snake and a water-vessel on the left.

¹ Cf. above, pp. 19 and 36, and Gatetteer, p. 93.

² Cf. Cole, Ancient buildings in Kashmir, pl. 16-18, A. R. A. S. for 1904-05, p. 118, Ep. Ind. Vol. 11, pp. 106 and 111 (l. 29), and Harcourt, Kooloo, pp. 350 f.

The deity to the right of the central figure is likewise four-armed. His right hands hold a trident and a rosary. Of the left hands one holds a conch-shell, and the other is broken. Unfortunately the name of this figure, which was inscribed on the pilaster to its right, is lost. As the sculptor has allowed himself so much license in iconographical matters, it would be risky to identify this figure from its attributes. The trident would suggest Siva, but we shall presently meet him under another name on the opposite side of the row.

The figure at the proper right end has its name, Baudha, marked on the corner pilaster at its side. As Baudha is the same as Budha, the personage represented here would be the Planet Mercury. But from its appearance it seems that the sculptor has confused Budha with Buddha. The figure is seated cross-legged, with the hands joined in front of the breast. The hair is bound up in a knot on the top of the head. It thus bears, in reality, the appearance of a representation of the Śākya-Sage in the attitude of expounding the law (Skr. dharmacakra-mudrā).

We should have some difficulty in recognizing Brahmā in the figure to the left of Varuna, were it not clearly indicated as such by the inscription over its nead. The figure is bearded, but has not the four faces which characterize the Creator of the four Vedas. He is four-armed, but his attributes are indistinct. The lower right hand seems to hold a rosary. In the somewhat phantastical animal beneath we must recognize a goose, the vehicle of Brahmā.

The last figure of the row it would have been still harder to identify, but for the inscription over its head which reads *Dhyāna-Maheśvara*, leaving no doubt that the deity represented here is Siva, in the period of his asceticism. He is seated crosslegged, the hands placed in the lap in that position which expresses meditation (Skr. dhyāna-mudrā).

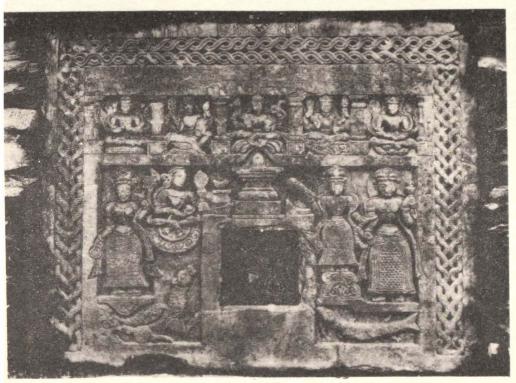
The whole of the sculptures just described are enclosed on three sides by ornamental borders, each of which consists of a double pair of interlaced snakes, a decorative device largely used on monuments in the Western Himālaya.² In the centre of the rim which runs above the uppermost of these borders there is a piece of ornamentation evidently the remnant of a projecting panel such as is found on other fountain stones (Cf. fig. 11). Between the upper scrpent border and the row of deities there is a space of 3'5" in width by $3\frac{1}{2}$ " high, which bears an inscription of four lines of unequal length. The inscription proper commences $2\frac{1}{2}$ " from the snake border to the proper right. In the intervening space we find a short epigraph in three lines which I read $Pratīhāra^3 \tilde{S}r\bar{\imath}$ -Ghaghuka. The space after the fourth line which measures only 1' $10\frac{1}{2}$ " is occupied by the two short epigraphs, $Brahm\bar{a}$ and $Dhy\bar{a}na$ -Maheśvara already noted; and the concluding phrase Iti &nbh[am]

¹ Sewel-Dikshit, Indian Calendar, p. 2.

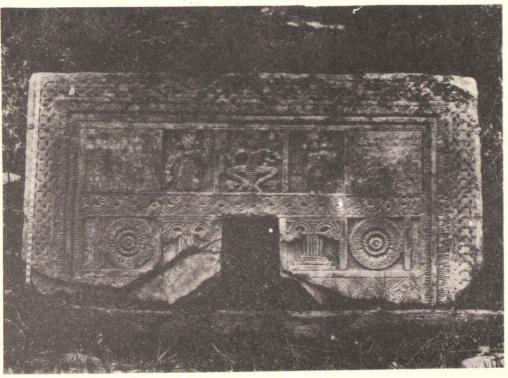
The supposition that this figure refers to the week-day is not borne out by the conclusions derived from the date of the inscription.

² Cf. above pp. 176, 179 and 201. In these instances the meaning of the ornament is lost, and only on the Sai stone the snakes can still be recognized.

³ The meaning of the word pratihara in Sanskit literature is "door-keeper," but here it denotes probably some local official who was in some way connected with the erection of the fountain-stone. The word occurs also in No. 33, 1.2. Cf. above, p. 135.



, HEIGHT 3' 6'
(δ) Bharārā Fountain Stone



HEIGHT 3' 14'

which stands between these two words, is thus separated from the end of the inscription proper by a distance of 7".

The letters are of fairly large size $(\frac{1}{2}"$ to $\frac{3}{4}")$ and well engraved; but in places the surface of the stone has peeled off, so that several of the aksaras are more or less damaged.

The pronounced angular type of the aksaras tha, dha, pa, va, and sa is a noticeable feature, which this inscription shares with the Dēvī-rī-kothī praśasti (No. 32). The rectangular, almost square dha is specially remarkable; this form I have not met with in any other Śāradā inscription. The kha with crooked front-stroke occurs also in the Dēvī-rī-kothī inscription. The la appears here both in the older form with a horizontal stroke representing the original base line (l. 3, bāladhāra), and in the later form with double curve (l. 1, kali). Medial i is sometimes rendered by a short curve above the akṣara (l. 1, vati, khasitam, l. 3, ghaṭāpitam) and sometimes the curve is continued at the side of the akṣara. It deserves special notice that the medial vowels e, ai, o and au are throughout expressed by the superscribed signs and never by a pṛṣṭhamātrā. The subscribed tha in the ligature sthā (l. 3) has also the secondary form. On the whole the Sai inscription exhibits the later type of Śāradā found in the inscriptions of the latter half of the 12th and the beginning of the 13th century. It also deserves notice that the anusvāra is used instead of the nasal consonant in setubamdhe (l. 3), anamtā (l. 4), pamthā° (l. 4).

The first two lines of the inscription are in prose. They record the erection of a "Varuna" by Rāja-pāla for the sake of Rāṇautra Phāhi. We have already met with this name as indicating the male figure seated at the side of the linga. The word Rāṇautra I believe to be a title derived from Rāṇāputra, and consequently designating the son of a Rāṇā. We may compare autar which, in the dialect of Chambā, denotes a sonless man and is clearly derived from Sanskrit aputra. The word rāṇautra would, therefore, have the same relationship to rāṇā as rājpūt to rājā. It may possibly be identified with the caste-name Rotar which occurs in Kaṣṭavāṛ. The Rotars who are a not numerous caste are said by local tradition to have held Kaṣṭavāṛ before it became the seat of a Rājā. There is also a tradition that on one occasion they ousted the Rājā and for a short time enjoyed their former independence. Their position was evidently the same as that of the Rāṇās in Chambā and other Hill tracts. It is interesting to note that in Kaṣṭavāṛ no Rāṇās are found.

The second half of the inscription contains two stanzas in the anustubh metre, numbered 1 and 2, in which the comparative merit of various pious works is contrasted. It will be observed that the climax of merit is not, as one would expect, the erection of a "Varuna," but the construction of a road, perhaps a gentle hint addressed to the local ruler of the time. As roads deserving of the name have become known in Chamba only during the last fifty years, it would appear that those in power had not shown themselves very anxious to acquire the endless merit, promised by the writer of our inscription. This poetical passage betrays a very indifferent knowledge of Sanskrit grammar.

¹ We may also compare mahaut which, according to Dr. Bloch, is derived from mahāputra, Z. D. M.G. V. LXII, p. 372.

TEXT.

षोम्। प्रास्तिये संवत् [१] चैचा वित दशम्यां किलगैतं वर्शाणां ४२७० खिसतं ४२७३० छभी किला- प्रमाणं ४३२००० परमः -भहारक-महारजाधिराज-परमेश्वरः श्रीमत-(1. 2) श्रजयपाल-देव- प्रवर्धमाण-किष्णाण-विजय-राज्ये संवत् ———— श्रीदेवसात्मः ज-श्री-राजपालेन राणीच-श्री-फाः हिन्हरणे वक्षणं स्थापितं (1. 3) सेतुबंधे परं धर्मः। दश्रगुणं त्वापिस्तथा। कुपे श्रतगुणं प्रोतं सहस्रं मठका- दने। १ श्रशुतं प्रभुनीरेण। लच्चं देउ [ल]-स्थापने कोटिं देव-प्रतिष्ठा च। (1. 4) श्रनंता पंथास्मार्णः। २ घटापितं श्री-बालधार-क् —— कीनः घटितं श्रीस्त्रधार-श्री-]—णेन —————— इति श्रभ्

The language of this inscription, as remarked above, is extremely corrupt. The date requires no further discussion, nor will it be necessary to point out mistakes like Caitrā for Caitra and varšānām for varsānām. The word khašitam (perhaps the true reading is khamsitam or khamsvitam) I am unable to explain; but the meaning is evidently "remaining, left." The vigraha after parameśvara is out of place; for śrimata read śrimat and pravardhamana instead of pravardhamana (l. 2). The term Devasātmaja, if grammatically correct, can only mean "the son of Devasa"; but I have a suspicion that here, as elsewhere, the writer has ignored the samdhi rules, and that the true reading would be either devātmaja or devasyātmaja, in which case deva would indicate Ajayapāla-deva who was reigning at the time. For Phāhinkarane I propose to read Phāhi-kārane. In other similar inscriptions we find the person mentioned, for whose sake the fountain-slab was erected. In the present case it was Ranautra Phabi, whose effigy is portrayed on the stone. The words Varuna and dharma in the next line have been treated as if they were neuter instead of masculine. The first word of line 3 must be setubandhe, the word following daśaquyam is uncertain; it seems to consist of three words tu-āpis-tathā; but what meritorious work is indicated by āpis I am unable to say. The u of kupe must be long. Of the compound matha-chādane, the first member matha means a hospice or rest-house for travellers, the modern dharmsālā.7 The meaning of chādana is "cover, screen, clothing"; but here it will have to be taken in the sense of "the providing of cover or clothing to the poor," in which case the whole expression may be regarded as a co-ordinative or dvandva compound. The word nira (=water) in the beginning of the second stanza is puzzling. It can hardly be connected with the preceding prabhu which I believe to stand for the vocative prabho. The first member of the compound deula-sthapane is evidently a form derived from the Sanskrit devakula "a temple." The word pratistha means "foundation," here to be taken as a nomen actionis. There can be little doubt that the word panthasmarana at the end of the second stanza is intended to mean "the construction of a road." though the literal meaning would be "remembrance of a road."

¹ The syllable *li* is partly traceable.

² The sign for ma is written in the top margin over the preceding aksara ra.

³ The lower portion of the syllable which I read tma is injured.

^{*} The value of this character is uncertain, perhaps it has to be read dha.

[•] The first syllable of sthapitam is effaced, the anuscara over the last syllable is lost.

The last syllable of the word ayutam is much damaged, but both the ta and anusvira over it can still be traced.

⁷ Cf. Stein, Rajat. index i.v. matha

Sai Fountain Inscription.

SCALE 0.35

Basuā Fountain Inscription.



Nal Fountain Inscription.



CALE 0.80

CORRECTED READING.

षोम्। प्राक्षीये सवत् [१] चैत्र-वित द्यम्यां कतिर्गत-वर्षाचि ४२७० खसितं (१) ४२००६० छभी किल-प्रमाणं ४२००० परमभद्दारक-महाराजाधिराज-परमेखर-त्रोमद-(1.2) जयपास-देव-प्रव-धंमान-कल्याण-विजय-राज्ये संवत् — — — — — त्री-देवसाक्षज-त्रीराजपात्रित राचीत्र-त्री॰ फाहि-कारणे वक्षः स्थापितः ॥ (1.3) सेतुबन्धे परो धर्मो द्यगुषस् त्वापिस्तया। कूपे प्रतगुषः प्रोक्तः सङ्ग्रं मठ-छादने (१)॥१॥ प्रयुतं प्रभो नीरेण लक्षं देवकुल¹- स्थापने। कोटि देव-प्रतिष्ठाया- (1.4) मनन्तः प्रत्यास्मारणम् (१)॥२॥ घाटितं त्री-बालधार-(१)-छ — — केन। घटितं त्री-सूत्र-धार-[त्री]—ण्वन। इति ग्रथम्॥

TRANSLATION.

In the Sastra year 1 (?), [the month of] Caitra, on the 10th day of the dark fortnight, when 4,270 years [of the Age] of Sin (Kali-yuga) had gone [and] 427,730 remained, the total [being] the duration [of the Age] of Sin 432,000² years [and] in the . . . year of the increasing fortunate reign of victory of the supreme prince, the king of kings, the supreme lord, the illustrious Ajaya-pāla of divine descent has [this] fountain-stone (lit. Varuṇa) been erected by the illustrious Rāja-pāla, the son of the illustrious Devasa (or Deva, viz., the king?) for the sake of Rāṇautra Phāhi [Verse] 1. It is declared that in the building of a bridge³ [lies] exceeding merit; ten-fold [that merit] in . . .; in [the digging of] a well an hundred-fold, thousand-fold in [the construction of] a hospice and [the providing of] covering. [Verse] 2. Ten-thousand-fold [that merit lies] in ; hundred-thousand-fold in the erection of a temple; ten-million-fold in the consecration of a god (i.e., a divine image), endless merit in the construction (?) of a road.

Caused to be made by the illustrious Bāladhāra⁴ Cha. k. Made by the illustrious artisan . . na. Thus may [it be] blessed!

No. 36.—BHARĀŖĀ FOUNTAIN INSCRIPTION. (PLATES XXXIV AND XXXVI).

The village of Bharārā (map Barara) is situated at the head of the Dukruṇḍ Nālā, which debouches into the Cāñju valley near Lōh-Tikrī, and at a distance of 3 miles from the latter place. The rivulet which waters the Dukruṇḍ ravine takes its origin from two springs. At the western source which rises near the first-mentioned village three sculptured slabs are found, besides a great number of rudely carved autar stones. The three slabs all bear inscriptions, but on two of them the lettering is so obliterated as to render deciphering impracticable. (Cf. fig. 19.)

The third slab, measuring 3' $1\frac{1}{2}$ " in height and 5' $11\frac{1}{2}$ " in width, shows over the spout hole a male figure scated on a low couch and holding in its right hand a trident

¹ By restoring the word devakula, we have one syllable in excess.

² The Kali yuga consists of 1200 years of the gods, each such year being equal to 360 years of man. On the date of above, pp. 76 f.

⁵ The word setu is still preserved in the Chamba dialect in the form seu, but now-a-days pul is the common expression.

⁴ The sūtradhāra (lit. thread-holder) seems here to be the man who actually carved the stone, whereas the title Bāladhāra (a word not found elsewhere) appears to dengte the overseer who superintended the work.

and in its left what looks like a club, but is presumably meant for a lotus-flower. This attribute we have already noticed in the hands of Varuna on other fountain stones; the figure on the Bharārā stone presumably represents the same deity. On both sides a female figure clad in an ornamental petticoat is standing with a water-vessel in each hand, the left being raised and the right stretched downward.

In the lower portion of the slab, separated from the upper part by a horizontal band of scrollwork, we find on each side of the spout opening a dwarf pilaster and a lotus-rosette. Over the latter and at the side of the female figures the inscription is cut, being distributed over two panels of equal size (10" high by 11" wide). The whole is comprised within various decorative borders.

The proper right hand panel contains nine lines of writing, and has, moreover, one word written vertically on the ledge next the female figure. The left panel has eight lines and a short ninth line. The letters are from $\frac{5}{8}''$ to $\frac{3}{4}''$ in size. Owing to long exposure, the inscribed surface has become considerably worn so that many of the aksaras have lost their original shape. Besides, the language of the document is as ungrammatical as in most inscriptions of the kind.

The inscription is dated in the 27th year of a Rājā: the first part of whose name is unfortunately lost. As the name ends in -varman, we may assume that he was a ruler of Chambā. The second portion of the epigraph records the erection of the fountain-slab. The name of the founder is lost The concluding portion consists of two stanzas of the usual kind.

TEXT.

भों स्वस्ति: ॥ प्रवर्धमाण-कल्याण श्री- (1,2) . . . वर्म-देव-पाद-विजय-रा- (1,3) ज्ये वर्तमाने संवत्तरे सप्तविङ्ग्र-(1,1) तमे इतः संवत् २७ भाद्रप-(1,5) द वित समावास्थां चंन्द्रदिने (1,6) इस्त-नज्ञने भटारक श्री-उ-(1,7) विकात्मज-श्री-महासेन भा- (1,8) र्या कन्निन कार्ये तथा सु-यं (1,9) कार्य महससुत श्री-ख . स्थेन (1,10) पितु-मातु-सभातेन परलोका-(1,11) र्थं वक्ण-देव स्थापित। न च (1,12) वक्णात्पर देव। न च वक्णा-(1,13) तपरं तपं। न च वक्णात्परं धर्म (1,14) तुग्र लोकेग्र विश्वतं। गवां कोटि-प्र-(1,15) दानेन प्रहण मोम-सूर्ययो। सम-(1,16) [तुन्य-फल] देवि। वक्णं यX प्रति-(1,17) हयेत् मिति श्रेयो स्तु: घट (1,18) ज . नीन्नकेन

CORRECTED READING.

TRANSLATION.

has erected [this] fountain-stone (lit. god Varuna) out of devotion to his parents [and] for the sake of the next world. No higher god than Varuna, no higher gain of penitence, no higher law than Varuna, is known in the three worlds. By a gift of ten million cows at an eclipse of the moon or sun an equal merit is attained as by him who erects an image of Devi or Varuna. Thus may it be blessed. Made by Ja—nilaka.

No. 37.—BASUĀ FOUNTAIN INSORIPTION. (PLATES XXXV AND XXXVII c.)

Basuā (map Baswa) is a village half a mile to the north of Bagōr (map Bagore) and belongs to the parganā of that name, which forms part of the Curāh wazārat. The stone on which the inscription is cut measures 2' $10\frac{1}{3}''$ in height and 2' 5'' in width. The proper right end is missing. The upper portion of the slab contains three panels with rudely carved figures. In the centre is Varuṇa with his trident and lotus-flower; to his left are the figures of a male and a female worshipping a linga and to his right a horseman. These three panels are separated from the lower portion by a horizontal border of irregular design with a pair of birds in the centre. These, as usual, are placed over the spout which is flanked by two clumsy pilasters. The whole is enclosed within a double serpent border.

The inscription consists of three lines of writing, of which two, measuring 1'10" and 1' $3\frac{1}{4}$ " respectively, are above and the third, 1' $6\frac{1}{4}$ " in length, beneath the figured panel. Presumably a few syllables are lost in the beginning of each line, where the stone is broken. The letters are so badly executed, as to render their meaning uncertain throughout. Most of them are indeed wholly unrecognisable, and only in places is it possible to recognize a few words. The first line seems to commence with parama-bhattāraka-mahārājādhirāja. The next five akṣaras must represent the Rājā's name, the second part of which is possibly deva. Then follows the word kalyāṇa after which we expect rājye. The word Varuna in the same line is still legible and is apparently followed by the past participle thāpitaḥ (for sthāpitaḥ) The remainder of the inscription is illegible. It does not seem to contain any date.

No. 33.—BAŢRŪŅDĪ FOUNTAIN INSCRIPTION. (PLATES XXXVIII d AND XXXVIII.)

Near the village of Baṭrūndī (map Baṭrund), $1\frac{1}{4}$ mile south-east of Lōh-Ṭikrī, a carved stone, evidently a fragment of a fountain-slab was found placed on a wall. The panhiyār to which it once belonged is asserted by local tradition to have been wilfully destroyed on the same occasion as the Mūl-Kihār one, namely, at the time

of the war with Basöhļī in the second half of the 18th century. At present the stone is preserved in the Chamba State Museum (Cat. No. A 12).

On the fragment, which measures 2' 2" in height and 5' 7" in width, two rows of rudely carved figures are partly preserved. The centre of the upper row is occupied by Varuna seated on a couch inside an ornamental chapel. On each side a female figure, probably a degenerated river goddess, is standing with a vessel in each hand. At the two ends of the row we find a clumsily carved horseman. Of that to the proper left only the head now remains.

Between the two rows of figures there runs a horizontal band, in the midst of which there are the two birds with interlaced necks commonly met on fountain stones. Immediately beneath, in the centre of the lower row, there is a partly broken figure of uncertain meaning, perhaps derived from an Atlant. On each side of it we find some six birds placed one over the other. The proper right portion of the lower row of figures consists of two panels, one with an archer and the other with two fighting soldiers armed with sword and shield. The left hand side which is missing presumably contained similar figures. The whole of these sculptures are enclosed within a double ornamental border.

panels measuring 1'1" in height by 4" in width. That to the proper right, containing fourteen lines of writing, is much obliterated; on that to the left only two lines can be traced. It is apparently dated in the 7th year of the reign of some Rājā, whose royal titles can still be traced in the first three lines but whose name is unfortunately lost. For the rest, only a few letters can be read. Judging from the carvings, the Batrūndī stone may be classed with the later type of fountain-slabs. It probably belongs to the 12th century.

TEXT.

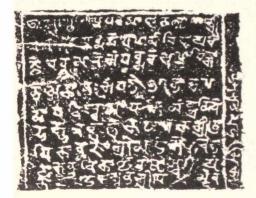
No. 39.—NĀĻ FOUNTAIN INSCRIPTION.

(PLATE XXXV.)

In the summer of 1906 a fragment of an inscribed fountain-slab was discovered on the wall of a field belonging to the Rāṭhī Phinhu at the village of Nāṭ immediately beneath Tīsā, the headquarters of the pargaṇā of the same name, which forms part of the Curāh wazārat. The stone probably belonged to a fountain a short distance above the field where it was found. Local tradition holds the place to have been the site of a Rāṇā's castle. The inscription is now placed in the State Museum (Cat. No. A, 17). The fragment, which measures 2' 6" in height and 2' in width, is evidently a portion of the proper left half of the original stone, which must have been of considerable size. It is carved with three rows of clumsy figures, separated by horizontal bands of decorative design. The figures are placed in sunk panels

¹ The same device occurs on a well preserved fountain-slab at Tepā, one mile north of Dēvī-rī-köṭbi. (Fig. 11).

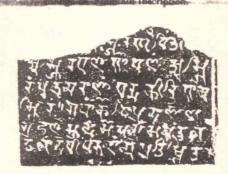
Bharāṛā Fountain Inscription.





Sīyā-Dudhār Fountain Inscription.





Bento-Puhālī Fountain Inscription.





Sukōi Fountain Inscription

SCALE 0-25

between dwarf pilasters. The carvings are very inferior in workmanship, and much defaced, owing to long exposure. In the upper row the figures of a horseman and a female are partly preserved. The central figure must have been Varuna seated on a couch of which one leg can still be traced to the right of the female figure. In the central row we have to the proper left two females carrying water-pots, with a child between them. The male figure to the right possibly represents an archer or swordsman. Of the lowermost row only the heads of three figures are extant. To the proper left runs a vertical serpent border.



Fig. 27. Fountain-stone of Nal.

The inscription consists of three lines incised on the horizontal rims which separate the rows of sculptures. The first halves of these three lines are lost with the proper right half of the stone. The preserved portions of the first two lines measure $16\frac{1}{2}$ ", that of the third line $11\frac{1}{2}$ ". The letters, which are $\frac{1}{2}$ " to $\frac{5}{6}$ " in height, are of a cursive type. The first line evidently contained the date, reckoned from the year of accession of the ruling prince, whose name is unfortunately lost. The remaining portion reads:—देव-प्रवर्धमान-कल्याण-वि[ज]य-राज्ये. In the second line we read प्रतीहार मृहणुक, apparently followed by the designation and name of another official. His name seems to be भागिक. Finally we have the word राण. The last line I am unable to interpret. From the concluding word घतितं we may infer that it contains the name(s) of the stone-mason(s) by whom the slab was carved.

No. 40.—SIYĀ-DUDHĀR FOUNTAIN INSCRIPTION. (Plate XXXVI.)

Siyā-Dudhār is the name of a locality about one mile above the village of Bāhņotā (map Banhota) belonging to the Lōh-Ṭikrī pargaṇā, and at a distance of about 2 miles north of the Lōh-Ṭikrī kōṭhā. The term dudhār indicates a piece of land newly taken up for cultivation. Siyā is the name of the ridge which separates the Lōh-Ṭikrī and Tīsā valleys. In the local dialect the name Sītā sometimes becomes Sīyā; possibly the ridge in question was originally called Sītā Dhār.

Siyā-Dudhār is about 2 miles below the ridge. While ploughing, two fragments of a large fountain-slab were discovered here about 1906. The two fragments, which measure 3'1" in height and 3'4" in width, have been refixed and are now placed in the State Museum (Cat. No. A, 14). They must have formed the proper left half of the slab. When entire, it may have measured 6' in width. A seated figure of Varuna, which is partly preserved over the square spout opening, must have occupied the centre of the stone. The rest is carved with ornamental bands and two lotus-rosettes placed one over the other. Between the upper rosette and the Varuna figure is an inscribed panel $9\frac{1}{2}$ " high and 9" wide. This, however, is only the second half of the inscription. The first half, incised on the corresponding panel to the proper right, is lost. This is the more to be regretted as it probably contained the date.

The preserved panel contains seven lines of writing, 8" to $8\frac{1}{2}$ " long, except the last line which is only $4\frac{9}{4}$. The size of the aksaras is about $\frac{3}{4}$ to $\frac{7}{8}$. By the breaking of the stone the second line has been cut into two, and a few of the letters have become destroyed. For the rest the lettering is distinct. The language of the inscription is very corrupt Sanskrit, such as is usually found in the fountain inscriptions of the Loh-Tikri valley. Apparently the writer had no real knowledge of Sanskrit, but merely copied some other inscription. The corrupt language renders the meaning partially obscure. Evidently the inscription records the erection of a "Varuna-deva" by four brothers of the Brahmanical caste of the Bhatts for the sake of their deceased brother Tyaga. Their names appear to be Phiri, Goga, Deva and Siha. It is, however, quite possible that two of these supposed names are in reality only one name. We meet with the name Tyaga in inscription No. 32, l. 25, with that of Phiri in No. 42, with that of Goga in inscription No. 34, 1. 20, with that of Deva in No. 28, and with that of Sina in the compounds, Ranasiha and Dhanasiha, in No. 27. It is of some interest that apparently the individuals mentioned in the present inscription belonged to the same family of Bhatts as the founders of the Sīyā stone (No. 27) which is found at no great distance from Sīyā-Dudhār. The Sīyā inscription speaks of Raņasīha and Dhaṇasīha, the sons of Māca, the son of Bhatta Rudra, and in the present case we have the sons of Dhanasiha, the grandson of Ludrauka. The latter name may quite well be another name for Rudra. It would, of course, be more natural to connect pautra with the names Phiri, Goga, Deva and Siha, but grammatically it can just as well belong to Dhanasiha. It should also be noted that between Dhanasiha and putra two or three syllables are lost. In case my conjecture is correct, the

^{&#}x27; The word siha is a Prakrit form of Sanskrit simha meaning " a lion."

Sīyā-Dudhār inscription would be a generation posterior to that of Sīyā and consequently belong to the beginning of the 12th century.

TEXT.

भट्ट-सुद्रीक-पीय-ध-(l. 2)वसीय ह्य-चि-(l. 3) रि-गोग-देव-सीय भातृ-(l. 4) साग तस्वार्थे वस् $[a:^{\bullet}]$ मृ-(l. 5) तं संसार-भय-भीतेन व-(l. 6) स्व-देव स्वापितं (l. 7) प्रति ग्रुशं ॥

CORRECTED READING.

भद्द-सुद्रीक-पौच-ध-(l. 2) चसीच . . . पुच-चि-(l. 3) रि-नोग-देव-सोचै भ्रांतृ-(l. 4) त्यागस्त्रार्थे वदच: कृ(l. 5) त: संसार-भय-भीतैर्व-(l. 6) क्च-देव: स्वाधित: । (l. 7) इति स्थमम् ॥

TRANSLATION.

Phiri, Goga, Deva, and Siha, the sons of Dhanasiha, the grandson(s) of Bhatta Ludrauka have made [this] fountain-stone (lit. Varuna) for the sake of their brother Tyaga, fearing with the fear of existence, they have erected [this] fountainstone (lit. god Varuna). Blessed be it.

No. 41.—MANGALOA FOUNTAIN INSCRIPTION. (PLATE XXXVI.).

The village of Mangalöä lies about 1 or 2 miles above the State kōthī of Lôh-Tikrī and belongs to the parganā of that name. An inscribed fragment of a fountain-slab was discovered in 1907 in the Mangalöä Nālā, at a distance of about 500' above the village. It measures 1' 2" in height and 2' 1" in width, and must have formed part of the proper left side of the stone. It is carved in the usual fashion; we notice part of a lotus-rosette and the upper portion of a dwarf pilaster. The stone, when entire, must have contained two inscribed panels. That on the proper right with the first half of the inscription has become lost.

The upper portion of the remaining panel is partly destroyed. The preserved part consists of seven lines; but of the first line only one aksara remains, and of the second line only five are entire. The lines are about $10\frac{1}{2}$ in length; the aksaras about $\frac{3}{4}$ to 1" in height. The inscription, as far as preserved, consists of two stanzas in extremely corrupt Sanskrit. The second stanza occurs in several other fountain inscriptions.

TEXT.

. \mathbf{a} (?) . . . (l. 2) . . . [च]िंकरं जीवित . . (l. 3) प्रस्तिर प्रण-जीवणं प्रसि- (l. 4) रं प्रच-दाराणां धर्म-कीर्ति-जग्र (l. 5) स्थिरं ॥ गवां कोटि-प्रदाणेण (l. 6) प्रचणे सूर्य- सोमयो समृत्स-(l. 7) फलं देवी वस्त्रं ये प्रतिष्ठित

TRANSLATION.

. . . Unstable are life and . . . ; unstable are wealth and youth; unstable is [the possession] of son and wife. Only the fame and glory of piety is stable. By a gift of ten millions of cows at an eclipse of the sun or moon an equal merit [is attained, as by him] who erects [an image of Devi or Varuna].

No. 42.—BENTO-PUHĀLĪ FOUNTAIN INSCRIPTION.

(PLATE XXXVI.)

Bento is the name of a puhālī or shepherd station (puhāl=shepherd), situated about two miles east of Kilār in Pāngī, on the road which, following the right side of the Malvahār Nālā, leads to Zangskar by the Śinkal Pass. The place is only inhabited by some herdsmen from Kilār during the months of Sāvan, Bhādon and Asuj. In the cattle-pen a few carved fountain-slabs, probably removed from some neighbouring spring, have been set up for worship. One of these bears a rudely incised inscription, distributed over two panels of equal size $(9"\times7")$, each containing seven short lines of writing. The letters which are very irregular and badly formed, measure from $\frac{1}{2}$ " to 1" in height. Of the proper right panel one of the lower corners is broken, causing the loss of the first three letters of the seventh line. The missing portion can be restored with certainty.

The inscription is evidently composed by some individual, who, without possessing any knowledge of Sanskrit, vaguely remembered certain expressions from official documents written in that language. These, wrongly spelled but still recognizable, he has used at random.

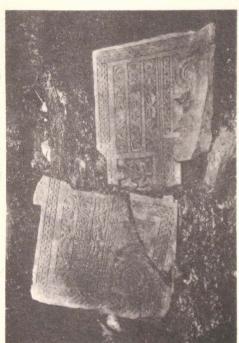
We must suppose that to its author the inscription did convey some meaning, but I have failed to gather it. In lines 5-8 we find the usual royal titles and in line 8 the word varma can be read, but it is preceded by only one syllable, which bears some resemblance to dha. The word kanya (?) at the end of the same line is perhaps meant for rājya and camāt in the beginning of the next line for samvat. The words vijāya, i.e. vijaya and kalyana, i.e. kalyāṇa, in lines 10-11 ought, in reversed order, to precede the word rājya. In lines 11-12 we read Lallita-deva, from which perhaps we may infer that the stone was erected in the reign of Lalita-varman of Chambā. If so, the date of the inscription would be about the third quarter of the 12th century. In lines 12-13 we find Pāṇgatya-manḍale, which confirms our conclusion that the ancient name of Pāṇgā, as mentioned in the Sālhī inscription, is Pāṇgatī. This, as far as I can see, is the only point of interest of the record under discussion.

TEXT.

भी खिस्त ॥ भी न-(1. 2) मी गणपतय (1. 3) नम श्री श्री-पर्म.-(1. 4) पूज्या पर्म वियक (1. 5) खज्ये पर्म-भट-(1. 6) रिक-महराजा (1. 7) [धिराज] पर्म-(1. 8) श्ररा-धवर्म कन्य (1. 9) चमात् नश्ररी (1. 10) नं विजाय-क-(1. 11) त्यन लिंबत-दे-(1. 12) व पंङ्गत्य-म-(1. 13) ग्रुले श्री श्रेण (1. 14) फिरिक-सुत-(?) ल

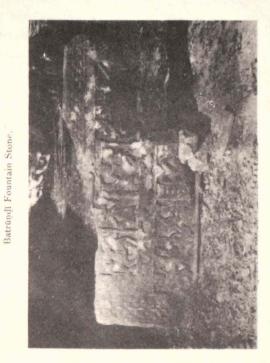
No. 43.—SUKOI FOUNTAIN INSCRIPTION. (Plate XXXVI).

In the village of Sukōi, half a mile south-east of Loh-Tikrī, the headquarters of the parganā of the same name, in the Cāñju valley, a fragment of an inscribed fountain slab was recovered in the summer of 1905 on the flat roof of a house Presumably its original site was at a fountain close by, over which another carved stone of inferior workmanship is now placed, an evident imitation of the Bharārā

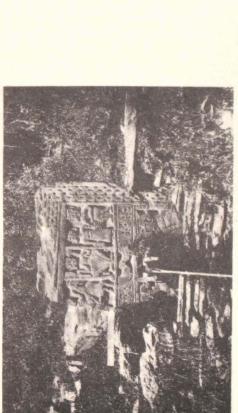


(c) Basua Fountain Stone,





HEIGHT P 81"



VEIGHT 2' 101

one (No. 38). It also exhibits the figure of Varuna seated on a low bench between two standing female figures, one of which is here accompanied by a child.

As to the inscribed fragment, it measures 1'8" in height and 2'3" in width. When entire, the stone was probably 2'6" high and 3'10" wide. The panel which contains the inscription $(8\frac{1}{2}"\times 9")$ must have stood immediately over the waterspout, and was flanked by two lotus-rosettes. That on the proper left side is lost, together with one-half of the inscribed panel and portions of the ornamental borders.

The inscription consists of eight lines, the first four or five syllables of each of which are lost. The missing portion can partly be restored with the aid of the Bharārā and Löh-Tikrī inscriptions which contain the same distich. Besides, the record must have mentioned the name and lineage of the founder of the "Varuna-deva," but here restoration is out of the question. It does not appear to have contained a date, but may be assigned to the 12th century, on account of its character. Medial e and o are expressed by a stroke and flourish, respectively, which are placed over the aksara. The Sukōi inscription cannot be far removed in date from the Löh-Tikrī one which was erected in A.D. 1114. The carving is superior to that of the Bharārā stone and the engraving of the letters too is more careful. Their size averages from $\frac{1}{2}$ " to $\frac{5}{8}$ ".

TEXT.

 \dots [ज] णाक-पौच-द्वा-(l. 2) र्या द्वा सिकेन । (l. 3) सिचकेन । पर-(l. 4) [जोकार्ष वक]ण-देव स्वापितं (l. 5) [ग]वां कोष्टि-प्रदाचे-(l. 6) [न ग्रद्वणे] सूर्य-सोमयु । सम-(l. 7) [तुस्व-फलं] दे[बी] । वक्ण ये (l. 8.) न [स्वापित: ।] दित ग्रभंम

No. 44.—BHAŢKĀRĀ FOUNTAIN INSCRIPTION.
(Plate XXXVIII.)

The hamlet of Bhatkārā is situated some three miles north-west of Löh-Tikrī on the read from that place to Tīsā between the villages Garhphri (map Garpari) and Ruṇḍāl (map Ruṇḍaul). Here a broken fountain-slab was discovered in the summer of 1905, which I took to Chambā and have since placed in the State Museum (Cat. No. A, 15). The stone, which measures 3'2" in height and 3'8" in width, is decorated with three lotus-rosettes, of which one is placed over the spouthole and two at the sides of it. Of the latter that to the proper left is missing. The inscription is cut on two nearly square panels on both sides of the upper lotus. That to the proper right, containing the first half of the record, is almost entirely defaced, only a few letters being still traceable. Of the left hand panel the first and last lines are partly destroyed and several of the remaining aksaras injured. Assuming that the number of the lines was the same on both panels, the inscription, when entire, would have consisted of twelve lines. The letters are rather shallow, but well-defined and good-sized (1' to 2").

The preserved portion of the epigraph does not contain a date; presumably it is lost with the first half of the inscription. On account of the character I am inclined to assign it to the 11th century. The h presents an early type and the ru

¹ In the last line I read the word sthe pitum.

is very similar to that of Vidagdha's copper-place grant (No. 15.) The n and s, on the contrary, have the later shape of the 11th and 12th centuries. The medial e is expressed by a stroke over the aksara. The na has a peculiar form which is also found in one of the Tur image inscriptions (No. 19).

The inscription records the erection of the fountain-slab on which it is incised. The name of the founder is apparently Dhana which may be an abbreviation of Dhananjaya.\(^1\) The word parma- (read parama) mahatmana which precedes the past participle sthapitam is merely an epithet. The expression samsāra-bhaya-bhī-runā is synonymous with the samsāra-bhaya-bhītena of the Dadvār and Bhakund fountain inscriptions (Nos. 20 and 21) with which one might group the epigraph under discussion, in the absence of any clear indication of its date.

TEXT.

. . [सु]त-धण-(l. 2.)पर्म-मञ्चात्मना (l. 3.) स्थापितं वक्णं-(l. 4) तेन संसार-भय- [l. 5. भोक्णा भार्या-धणे-[l. 6.] ण [सं] . .

CORRECTED READING.

. . . सुत-धण-(1. 2) परम-मज्ञाताना (1. 3) स्थापितो वक्ण-(1. 4)स्तेन संसार-भय-(1. 5) भीक्णा भार्या-धने-(1. 6) न सं . .

TRANSLATION.

This fountain-slab (lit. Varuna) has been erected by the son of , the very eminent Dhana, fearing with the fear of existence, with the money of his wife.

No. 45.--HUNDAN FOUNTAIN INSCRIPTION.

(PLATE XXXVIII.)

At Huṇḍāṇ, a village 5 miles east of Kilāṛ in Pāṇgī, there is a fragment of an inscribed fountain-slab, measuring 2' 10" in width and 1' 8" in height, which is held in great veneration by the people of the neighbourhood. The fragment which must have formed the proper right half of the stone, when entire, has no figures, but the usual decoration of conventional lotus-flowers. Evidently there were three lotus-rosettes, one placed over the spout and two at the sides of it. To the proper right of the central lotus we find an inscribed panel which measures 1' $3\frac{1}{2}$ " in width and $4\frac{1}{2}$ " in height. There is reason to suppose that the missing left hand portion of the stone contained a similar panel, so that the second half of the inscription is lost.

The preserved part consists of three lines of writing. The letters are on an average 1" in size, but owing to long exposure their sharp outlines are lost, so that it is often hard to establish their true value. The language, moreover, is by no means grammatically correct. The inscription contains merely a date, but as the figure of the tithi has been omitted it is useless for chronological purposes. It is dated in the 4th year of a ruler of the name of Salivikrama.

The name Dhananjaya (spelled Dhanañjaya) occurs in the copper-plate grant of Asata (No. 26, l. 15).

² That Dhans is the name of the founder follows from the preceding suta. The word is to be connected with the following paramamahātmanā, though the construction is hardly grammatical. We may compare in compounds like Lalitakṣitiṣa (No. 32, 1. 12) and Vijayeśwara (No. 34, 1. 24) in which the second member is a title.

Hundan Fountain Inscription.



SCALE 0.50

Batrūndī Fountain Inscription.



SCALE 0-25

Bhatkārā Fountain Inscription.



SCALE 0-25

Ghumsal Temple Inscription.



SCALE 0.50

TEXT.

चों स्वस्ति: । चों त्रो-सालिविक्रम-महायुति-विज-(l- 2)य-राज्ये संवत् [ज *]तुर्थे सित \times प χ च रितो य पि-(l- 3) चो । त्री-घाड-मासे गुरुवरे मजहरो च(?) । सं

CORRECTED READING.

भो खस्ति:। भो त्री-सालिविक्रम-महाद्युति-विज-(1.2) यराज्ये संवत् चतुर्धे सिते पच स्त्ती ग्री(1.3) थे। भाषाठ-मासे गुरुवारे (The remainder is unintelligible.)

No. 46.—GHUMSAL SIVALAYA INSCRIPTION.
(PLATE XXXVIII.)

The hamlet of Ghumsal is situated near Sutkar the main village of Trehta. It contains a small stone temple, 6' 6" high and 4' wide, which is dedicated to Siva.

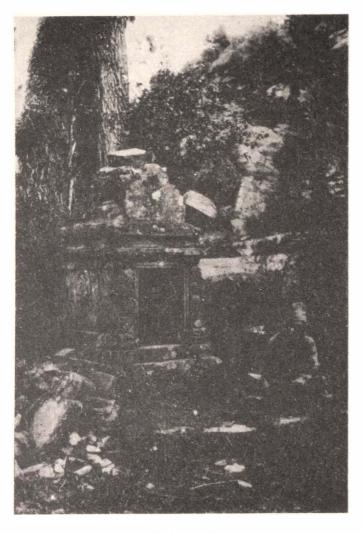


Fig. 28. Śivālaya at Ghumsāl.

The object of worship is a linga. The roof of the building was ruined in the earthquake of 4th April, 1905. On the linted over the entrance $(2\frac{1}{2}" \log and 3\frac{1}{2}" \log b)$ is an inscription in two lines, which measure 11" and 10" in length respectively. The letters are good-sized $(\frac{1}{2}" \log \frac{3}{4}")$ and distinct. The language is corrupt Sanskrit. In the first line we have to read sthānam instead of sthāna and in the second line kṛtam and sūtradhāra instead of karītavya and sutradhāra. The term pajiani I suppose to be a caste-name. Possibly the inscription belongs to the Muhammadan period, as some of the letters, especially the looped da and ra and the ligature tra with downward r-stroke to the right, exhibit a late type. It may belong to the 13th or 14th century.

TEXT.

न्त्री-पिजयणि-कुकदेव-स्थन (l. 2) करीतव्य सुत्रधर पजु गं[गु]

TRANSLATION.

The shrine (sthāna) of the illustrious Pajiaņi Kukadeva, made by the stone-masons Paju and Gangu.

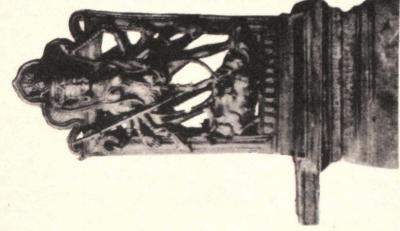
No. 47.—SĀHŌ IMAGE INSCRIPTION. (Plates XXXIX and XL.)

Opposite the temple of Candrasekh (Skr. Candra-śekhara) at Saho there is a small shrine (8' 11" by 8' 6" outside), containing an inscribed stone statuette of Visnu (height 1'8%). The god has three faces, the side ones being those of a lion and a boar, apparently an allusion to the Narasimha and Varāha avatāras. The halo is besmeared with Ganges-sand $(gangoth\bar{i})$. The deity is standing with two of his four hands resting on the heads of a pair of miniature chowrie carriers. Of the two remaining hands the right one holds a lotus-flower and the left one is broken. te bust of a female figurine, said to represent Laksmi, issues from the base between his feet. In most points the image resembles the inscribed brass statuette of Vișpu from Fatehpur, Kängrā district, now preserved in the Lahore Museum.1 Behind the chowrie bearers a second pair of attendants are visible. The rest of the slab is carved with miniature figures, all of which are more or less defaced. The two four-armed figurines seated on both sides of the head of Visnu appear to be Brahmā and Šiva, thus indicating him as the principal person of the Hindu Triad. The remaining figures I take to represent the ten incarnations of Visnu. To his right we distinguish the fish and the tortoise. Evidently the latter animal was not known to the artist by sight, as on the sculpture it looks curiously But we have met with another example of such a phantastical turtle in the Chambā sculpture.2 Above the halo we notice Rāma (?) and Buddha to the proper right and Parasurama and Kalki to the proper left. The other figures are too indistinct to be identified.

The base of this statuette, which is carved in three facets, the central one $5\frac{1}{3}$ " and the side ones $1\frac{1}{3}$ " wide by 2" high, bears an inscription of four lines. The

¹ Cf. A. R. A. S. for 1904-5, p. 109.

² Cf. above, p. 233, and plate XXXIV a.



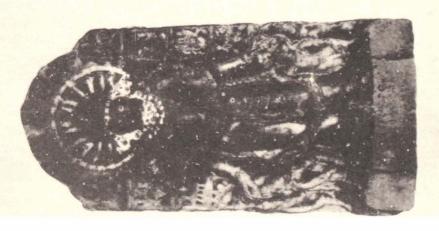
MEIGHT I' II'M.

HEIGHT 1. 180





MEIGHT 1' BA



(a) Iniage of Visnu at Sāhō.

(c) Image of Kāli at Markulā.

letters are small $\binom{3''}{8}$ and partly defaced, especially on the side facets. On that to the proper right the lettering has almost completely disappeared. The inscription was evidently dated in the regnal year of the ruling chief, as appears from the royal titles in the first line, but his name is unfortunately lost. The name of the donor of the statuette which I read $Ukuk\bar{a}na$ occurs in the third line, and accordingly the image itself is denoted as $Ukuk\bar{a}na$ -svāmin. It is interesting to find here an instance of the usage of naming an image after its founder, of which numerous examples can be quoted from the Rājatarangiṇī. Another point of interest is that the image is said to have been set up -Rudra-sahitā—which apparently means "at the temple of Rudra." This name no doubt indicates the temple of Candrasēkh, opposite which the Viṣnu image is enshrined. It thus affords another proof of the antiquity of that fane, as the Viṣnu statuette certainly goes back to the pre-Muhammadan period.

TEXT.

- — 「परम-] भहारक-महाराजाधिराज-परमेश्वर — — — (1.2) — — — [राज्य-] मंवत ६ — — — — — — — — — (1.3) — — [नि]क-श्वी-उकुकाणेन' उकुकाणस्त्राम -प्रति-(1.4)[मा प्रति हिता' रुट्ट-सहिता ॥

TRANSLATION.

In the 6th year of the reign of the supreme prince, the king of kings, the supreme lord [this] image of Ukukāṇa-svāmin was erected by . . . the illustrious Ukukāṇa near [the temple of] Rudra.

Nc. 48.—MARKULĀ IMAGE INSCRIPTION. (Plates XXXIX c and XL.)

One of the most famous temples of Chambā State is that of Kālī at the village of Markulā or Udaipur (map Odapur) in Lahul. The goddess is usually indicated as Markulā Dēvī from the name of the village. Mr. A. H. Francke informs me that the Buddhists of Lahul worship the goddess of Markulā as rDo-rje phag-mo (Skr. Vajra-varāhī). It is interesting to know that in Nepal also this goddess is identified with Bhavānī, the spouse of Bhava (Śiva). The idol worshipped in this temple is an insignificant and ugly brass statuette with eyes of silver, and is 2' high including the pedestal which is 6" in height. It represents the goddess standing on the prostrated Buffalo-demon (Mahiṣāsura) whom she pierces with her trident. On his body the heads and paws of no less than three lions are visible which are evidently assisting the goddess in destroying the Asura (Cf. above p. 151, plate XIII.) Beneath the Mahiṣāsura we notice a row of ten heads, probably the remains of other demons slain by the goddess.

¹ Cf. above, p. 172.

² This temple is referred to by the name of Mahārudra Candrašckk in a copper-plate of Rājā Balabhadra, dated Vikrama 1699 (1692?), Sāstra 11, Bhādrapada, Amāvāsyā. Cf. fig. 24.

³ The aksara which I read kā resembles ru, but is quite clear in the following Ukukāna-svāmi.

^{*} The ā stroke is apparently omitted.

⁶ Grünwedel, Mythologie des Buddhismus in Tibet und der Mangolei, p. 156. Cf. Jäschke, Tibetan-English Dictionary (London 1881), p. 289 s. v. rdo-rje-phag-mo.

The Dēvī has the usual number of eight arms. Two of her right hands hold a trident (Skr. triśūla) and a wheel (Skr. cakra). The third is stretched out in the gift-bestowing attitude (Skr. vara-mudrā), and the fourth clasps the tail of the Buffalo-demon. In her left hands she has the following objects: a mace (Skr. gadā), a thunderbolt (Skr. vajra), a strangling string (Skr. pāśa) slung round the neck of a demon, and a conch (Skr. śankha). The idol of Markulā Dēvī, though held in great veneration by the Lahulis and neighbouring hill people, is decidedly of very inferior workmanship. A comparison with the image of Lakṣaṇā Devī at Brahmor (plate VII), which is similar in subject, affords a striking illustration of the deterioration of Indian art during the intervening period.

On the base of the statuette there is an inscription in six lines $8\frac{1}{2}$ " to 10" long. The third line consists only of six aksaras occupying a space of 2". It will be noticed that the last two lines are more carefully engraved than the rest, though the lettering is not so deep. It seems as if this was the original inscription and that the upper four lines have been added. This is the more probable, as the fifth line begins with om svastih. There can be little doubt that lines 5 and 6 were written by the maker himself. The rest was probably added when the idol had reached its destination. First of all, we find the name of a Thākur Hīmapāla (either Himapāla or Hemapāla) who must have been the donor of the statuette. He was possibly an ancestor of the Thākurs of Trilōknāth.

At the end of the fifth line we find four figures 4645, preceded by the aksara sa (or $sa\dot{m}$?). The word $m\ddot{a}ly\ddot{a}$ in the same line would suggest that those figures refer to the cost of the image. It is, however, also possible that they indicate the year in which it was made. In the latter case the number 4645 could be referred either to the Sastra era or to the Kaliyuga, the corresponding year of the Christian era being 1569-70 or 1543-4 respectively. In either case the idol would belong to about the middle of the 16th century, and this conclusion fully agrees with its debased style.

The last line contains the name of the maker of the statuette. He calls himself Pañjamāṇaka Jīṇaka; the former word is probably a caste name. He appears further to have been a resident of the town of Bhadarvāh, called Bhadrāvakāṣā in the inscription. This form differs but slightly from the Sanskrit form Bhadrāvakāṣā, which is found in the Rājataraṅgiṇā and a derivation of which Bhadrāvakāṣ̄aya occurs in one of the Chambā copper-plate charters (No. 25, l. 17). The first word of line 6 Somadirāṣya stands perhaps for Somadirāṣṭra. The first member of the compound 1—pose to connect with the tribal name Saumaṭika which is found in two copper—inscriptions (No. 24, l. 3 and No. 25, l. 2) and may be derived from a form *Sumaṭa. There is reason to suppose that this name, which survives in the place-name Sumaṛtā, is the old designation of the Balor (Vallāpura) State. The Markulā inscription seems to confirm this conclusion, as Bhadarvāh was from old considered as a dependency of Balor.

The inscription is composed in very corrupt Sanskrit, so that most of it is unintelligible. The substitution of $\bar{\imath}$ for e in $\hat{sr}\bar{\imath}yo$, and perhaps in $H\bar{\imath}map\bar{a}la$ also, points to the author of the inscription having been a Kaśmiri. The fourth line contains the

· Sāhō Image Inscription.



SCALE 1.

Markula Image Inscription.

भू की योग का मा सामा में मुझे र पर भाषा करा है।

अस्ति सम्पर्धः सुन्ति सर्वत्रीतम् । याच्या स्पर्दश्रीतस्य स्यासम्बद्धस्य स्थानस्य सुन्ति । याच्या लाक्रा (१०६

SCALE .75

Harsar Image Inscription.

CALE .75

word Kaśmīra, but it is not clear in what connection. The character is a late type of Śāradā. On the whole it is more similar to the Devāśeṣa of the Muhammadan period than to the Śāradā proper. We notice the ta with cursive loop and the ra with triangular foot. It will also be seen that post-consonantic ra in Bhadrāvakāṣā is expressed by a downward stroke to the right. Judging from the script, I feel inclined to assign the inscription to the Muhammadan period.

TEXT.

घों ठकुर-महन्त्री-हीमपालन । त्रो-महादेवि-मकुन उदी (1.2) पित्रु: पुत्र-पौत्रेण सर्वकाल तिष्ठति देव . त्रीयो भवति । (1.3) तं म ग्रम क्षत्र (1.4) त्रो-कश्मीर यदवन्त । मार्रानरक्त मर्कुलदेवि उपनि (1.5) घों खस्ति: ॥ यस्य देवतीरोरि मूखा घटापने दी सहस्र ४६४५ (1.6) सोमिडिराच्य भट्टावकाषापुरी: पञ्चमाणक-जीणकेन घटिता

No. 49.—HARSAR IMAGE INSCRIPTION.

(PLATE XXXIX b AND XL)

The village of Harsar is situated 10 miles from Brahmor on the road leading into Lahul by the Kukti Pass. The village temple contains an inscribed brass image of Siva. The idol is remarkable in that it consists of a bust resting on a base. It is two-armed. The right hand holds a rosary and the left hand a fruit.

The inscription consists of two lines measuring $8\frac{7}{8}$ and $6\frac{1}{8}$ in length. It is dated in the Sastra year 58 and, judging from the character, must belong to the Muhammadan period. It will be noticed that ra as second member of ligatures is throughout rendered by a downward stroke to the right, even in the word $\acute{s}r\bar{\imath}$ in which the upward stroke to the left is usually preserved. The ja has lost its wedge and the sign for the cerebral sibilant with top-stroke is used to render the dental sibilant.

The language is the local vernacular in which we find the genitive case expressed by the termination $-r\tilde{a}$, $-r\tilde{\iota}$, $-r\tilde{\iota}$. The word $Bhagasy\tilde{a}n\tilde{\iota}$ in the first line is evidently a caste-name. Can it be derived from Bhagsu? In the second line we find the name of the village as Arsar.

TEXT.

भी श्री-संवत् भू प्रज्ञान्त प्रविष्ट १४ भगस्याणी नय रे पुत्रे गंग्-(1,2)ए तथा किसनुए । एइ सहादेव श्रास्था

TRANSLATION.

In the year of bliss 58 the 14th of Jyeth have the Bhagasyānī Nathu's sons Gangu and Kisanu erected this Mahādēv at Arsar.

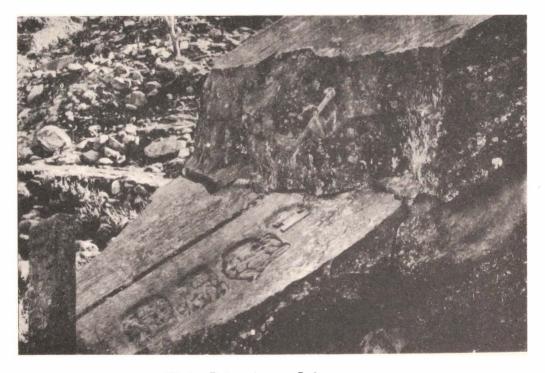
¹ The same attributes occur on the Salhi stone. Cf. above, p. 217.

² The stroke over to is evidently not meant for a vowel mark, but for a viramo.

Read जोस or जिस.

No. 50. - BRAHMOR ROCK INSCRIPTION.

About 1½ miles from Brahmor on the main road leading to Chamba by way of Khanī, a rivulet known by the name of Brahmānī Devi flows down the mountain slope and crosses the road. On a boulder at the side of this streamlet we notice some rock-cut lingas and three figures of deities. They represent the four-armed Devi slaving the buffalo-demon, Siva standing in front of his bull with a trident in one and a fruit in the other hand, and Ganesa holding in his four hands a rosary, a hatchet, a vessel of sweetmeats and some other object. It is interesting to note that these are exactly the three deities whose idols were erected at Brahmor by Meru-varman about A.D. 700 and are worshipped there up to the present day. (Cf. above p. 138). The lingus scattered among the Brahmor temples are also represented in these rock-carvings, but we find no representation of Narsingh whose temple is no less conspicuous than those of Šiva Maņimahēs and Lakṣaṇā Dēvī. We know from Yugākara's copper-plate grant (No. 14) that the idol of Narsingh was consecrated some two and a half centuries after the three just-mentioned. From its absence on the Brahmāṇi boulder I infer that these rock-cut figures date back to a time intervening between A.D. 700 and 950.



No. 29. Rock-carvings near Brahmor.

Over the figures, and separated from them by a deep horizontal groove, there is a Tibetan rock-inscription in one line, 3'10'' long, consisting of eleven large-sized letters from 3'' to $6\frac{1}{2}''$ in height. The letters are deeply cut and distinct, except the last one which is broken by a rent in the stone. Mr. A. H. Francke of the

Moravian Mission, has favoured me with the following transcript and translation of this inscription.

TEXT.

ETTTE JATTATA[N] Khyun-po-jo-nu-'phage-ba[s]

TRANSLATION

"The august younger prince of the Garuda Lords."



No. 30. Tibetan rock inscription near Brahmor.

Mr. Francke adds the following note:-

"A noble family called \(\begin{align*} \begin{ali

In a subsequent letter Mr. Francke explained that the article \(\frac{\pi}{2}\) or \(\frac{\pi}{2}\) for \(\frac{\pi}{2}\) only occurs in the oldest Tibetan inscriptions, belonging to the period A.D. 650-800. The Brahmor rock inscription may, therefore, quite well date back to the 11th or 12th century of our era. In any case, I feel inclined to assume that the inscription is later than the rock-cut figures. Over the inscription, however, there are some shallow and indistinct carvings apparently representing chortens (\(\frac{\pi}{2}\)\(\frac{\pi}{2}\)\(\frac{\pi}{2}\)\), which seem to be contemporaneous with the epigraph

I may note here that at the village of Gosan below Brahmor there are some more rock inscriptions in Tibetan. But these consist merely of the usual magic formulas (Skr. dhāranī), the endless repetition of which is a characteristic of the Buddhism of Tibet. One in large letters (8" to 1') is the well-known of Tibet. One in large letters (8" to 1') is the well-known of Tibet. One in large letters (8" to 1') is the well-known of Tibet. One in large letters (8" to 1') is the well-known of Tibet. When the jewel in the lotus, hum." Next we find an inscription of three aksaras measuring 2' to 3", which I read of W. They merely represent three sacred syllables. Finally we find in somewhat smaller letters the formula of three times repeated. It is an invocation to the Bodhisattva Vajra-sattva.

In the Candrabhāgā valley Tibetau inscriptions are more common, but in general they contain nothing but formulas like those just quoted. An epigraph¹ of historical interest was discovered in 1907 at Markulā by the late Miss J. E. Duncan. It speaks of a Mar-skul Monastery (ठाउँ पूर्व ५०००). From this it appears that at one time there existed at Markulā a lamaistic convent, though it may simply refer to the temple of Markulā Dēvī which is still indicated by that name. Mr. Francke informs me that the Buddhists of British Lahul perform pilgrimages to that place as well as to Trilōknāth. In his opinion the inscription referred to is not more than three hundred years old, and may be much more recent. It seems therefore that in lower Lahul Buddhism has had to recede before Hinduism.

Postscript.—Mr. A. H. Francke has favoured me with the following additional note on the Brahmor rock-inscription:—

"My researches last year have convinced me that the Brahmor inscription may be one of the most ancient (between 700 and 900) which we have in Tibetan. A prolonged study of Tibetan inscriptions has shown me that, although the forms of the Tibetan dBucan consonants have almost remained stable, the treatment of the vowel signs has undergone certain interesting changes.

In my article on a Lhasa inscription of 822 A.D. (prepared for the *Epigraphia Indica*), I made the following remark with regard to the o vowel sign: "The o vowel sign prefers the left upper end of the consonant base, with the exception of ch, kh, and y, where it is joined to the middle." In inscriptions and documents of the 11th century, we find the o vowel sign only in rare cases on the left upper corner, and in the 15th century it is joined to the right upper end of the consonant base. After that time, it is generally at some distance from the consonant base.

The *n* vowel sign.—From the 7th to the 14th century, the *n* vowel sign was joined to the right lower end of the consonant base. Now it is found at some distance below it.

The perpendicular position of the subjoined y below the kh is also in favour of my view that the Brahmor inscription is of early origin. This form of the y is found only in the most ancient Tibetan epigraphs. In the 11th century, the subjoined y is between perpendicular and horizontal, and from the 15th century onwards its position below the consonant base is horizontal.

To fix the date of a Tibetan inscription on paleographical grounds, it is of course safer, if the data required can be drawn from a long inscription. But, short as the Brahmor inscription is, its epigraphical peculiarities point distinctly to an ancient origin.

Then, what historical evidence can be adduced, to explain the existence of Tibetan princes in the valley of Brahmapura in early times? First of all, the Vamśāvalī (verse 48) of Chambā speaks of the conquest of Brahmor by Kīras, during the reign of Lakṣmī-varman, one of the early nistorical rulers of the country. I feel much inclined to identify the Kīras with the Tibetans whose kings were often designated by the word khri, throne. There was a dynasty of khri rGyal, later

A transcript and translation of this inscription by the Rev. A. H. Francke is given in Appendix III.

² cf above, pp. 86 and 92.

khri Sultans, in the Suru valley, there were whole dynastics of Khris among the ancient Tibetan kings, and some of the greatest Tibetan conquerors, Khri-srong-lde btsan, Khri-lde gtsug-mes ag-thsoms, and Khri-btsong lde-btsan, have the word khri in their names. This word is pronounced Khri, not Thi, by the nearest Tibetan neighbours of Chamba and Kashmir, the people of Suru and Purig. wars of those times, certain unspecified tracts of India are claimed by the Tibetan historians to have been conquered by their kings. Not only this, but the Chinese historians (Thangshu) when speaking of the Tibetan conquests of those times, mention a country of Polomen as having been held by the Tibetans. The word Polomen, which was identified with Brahman, was believed to signify India in general. I feel, however, more inclined to identify it with the Budhal valley, i.e. with the Brahmor district. I am fully convinced that Brahmapura, the ancient Chamba State, was known to the Chinese of the 7th and subsequent centuries. We not only find the name of the capital, Po-lo-hih-mo-pu-lo, Brahmapura, mentioned in Hiuen Tsang, but also in other works which describe the 'Empire of the Eastern women.' According to them, this empire was situated between Khotan, Tibet, Ladakh, and Brahmapura, and grave-finds in Eastern Ladakh testify to the correctness of this statement. This empire comprised Ruthog, Guge, and the eastern part of Ladakh.

The name Khyung-po, Garuda-Lord, points exactly to the same period of Tibetan history, when this Bonpo name was common among Tibetan officials.

That the Brahmor district was once in the hands of the Tibetans, is also testified to by the modern Tibetan inscriptions which were discovered by Dr. Vogel at Ghosan, in the vicinity of Brahmor. They were carved by Tibetan pilgrims who would not have come to this rather out-of-the-way place, if they had not some historical connection with it.

TEXT.

ত্যবৰ্ষ্ণ (three times.)
ত্যবৰ্ষণু বু

The first is an invocation of Vajra-sattva, as pointed out by Dr. Vogel, and the second is the ordinary Om mani padme hūm formula. What specially indicates the recent date of these inscriptions, in particular, is the elaborate treatment of the nasal signs above the o and u. They cannot be more than 200 years old at the utmost. But they are probably of more recent origin."

I Hiuen Tsiang (Si-yu-kî transl. Beal Vol. I. p. 198) locates Po-lo-hih-mo-pu-lo 300 li or about 50 miles north of Hardvär which would take us in the upper valley of the Jamnā. Brahmor lies about 250 miles or 1500 li to the northwest of Hardvär. It is possible that Hiuen Tsiang refers to Brahmapura in the Rāvī valley, but then it must be admitted that his distance and bearing are singularly inaccurate. Cunningham (Ancient Geography pp. 365 f.) identifies Po-lo-hih-mo-pu-lo with Gaphwāl and Kumaon, which lie east of Hardvär; but here no place of the name of Brahmor is known to exist.—[J. Ph. V.]

APPENDIX I

LIST OF ŚÁRADÁ INSCRIPTIONS.

(Excluding those found in Chamba.)

A.—Kāngṛā (Trigarta).

Two stone slab inscriptions in the temple of Baijnath at Baijnath (Kīragrāma). They are dated Saka-samvat 1126 and Sāstra-samvat 80 (A.D. 1204) Jyaistha śu. ti. 1, in the reign of Rājā Jayaccandra of Jālandhara (or Trigarta), and record the building of a temple dedicated to Siva Vaidyanātha. Cf. Cunningham, A. S. R., Vol. V, pp. 178 ff.; Bühler, Ep. Ind. Vol. I, pp. 97-118; Kielhorn, Ind. Ant. Vol. XX (1891) p. 154, and my notes J. R. A. S. for 1907, p. 405, and A. R. A. S., 1905-06, pp. 17 ff.

Stone slab inscription from the $p\bar{n}j\bar{a}ri^2s$ house in the temple of Baijnath at Baijnath, now Lahore Museum No. 163.

Defaced stone slab inscription in the temple of Sidhnath at Baijnath. Cunningham, A. S. R. Vol. V., pp. 179 f.

Pillar inscription in the temple of Sidhnath at Baijnath.

Jaina stone image inscription in the temple of Indresvar in Kangra City. It is dated Sastrasamvat 30. Cf. Cunningham, A. S. R., Vol. V., p. 164; and Bühler, Ep. Ind. Vol. I, p. 120.

Stone slab inscription in the temple of Vajreśvari or Mātā Dēvī in Bhavan, a suburb of Kāngrā City. Only the first two lines and part of the third line (viz., the mangala and the first stanza) are in Śāradā, the rest is in Nāgarī. It is dated in the reign of Rājā Sansār Cand, I (Śkr. Samsāra-candra) of Kāngrā and in that of Muhammad Sayyid, Emperor of Delhi (A.D. 1433-1446). Cf. Cunningham, A. S. R., Vol. V., pp. 167 f., and Bühler, Ep. Ind. Vol. I., pp. 190-195.

Brass Visnu statuette inscription from Fatchpur, Kängra District, now Lahore Museum. It is dated Sastra-samvat 23; the century cannot be determined. Cf. A. R. A. S. for 1904-05, p. 109.

Stone slab inscription from the Kangra Fort, now preserved in the Lahore Museum. Most of the lettering is obliterated. The date, if any, is lost. Cf. Cunningham, A. S. R., Vol. V, p. 164, and A. R. A. S. for 1905-06, p. 14. The date assigned to it by Cunningham is too early.

B .- Kulū (Kulūta).

Stone slab inscription at entrance of temple of Samdhyā Dēvī at Jagatsukh. It is dated Śāstra-samvat 4 (?) in the reign of Mahārājā Udhran (read Urdhan) Pāl. Cf. A. R. A. S. for 1903-04, pp. 264 f., and Harcourt, Kooloo, p. 201.

Wooden board inscription on the temple of Hidimbā or Hirmā Dēvī at Dhungrī near Manālī. It is dated Śāstra-samvat 29 (A.D. 1553), Jēth pra. 20 in the reign of Rājā Bahādur Singh of Kuļu and records the construction of that temple. Cf. A. R. A. S. for 1903-04, p. 264; and Harcourt, Kooloo, pp. 322 ff.

Copper-plate inscription in possession of Pandit Mohan Lal of Chambā, now on loan Bhuri Singh Museum, Chambā, B 16. It is dated Śāstra-samvat 35 (A.D. 1559), Kārttika śu. ti. 11, in the reign of Bahādur Singh of Kuļu and records a grant of land to Pandit Ramāpati, the son of Pandit Surānand and guru to the Rājā of Chambā Cf. A. R. A. S. for 1903-04, pp. 261 ff., plate LXXI.

Rock inscription in two (?) lines near the gate of the dharmeala of Nirmand on the Satluj. The character is doubtful.

C .- Mandi State.

Stone slab inscription in the temple of Triloknath in Old Mandi opposite Mandi City. It is dated Śaka-samvat 1442, Kali 4622 (A.D. 1520), Bhādrapada and records the foundation of that temple by Suratrana-Dēvī (Sultān Dēvī).

Satī pillar inscriptions at Maṇḍi City, the earliest dated Samvat 13 (A.D. 1637); they contain the dates of the death of the Rajās of Maṇḍi. Cf. Cunuingham, A. S. R. Vol. XIV, p. 123, pls. XXIX and XXX.

Copper statuette of Siva in the palace of the Raja in Mandi City. Undated.

D. - Kasmīr and Jammū.

Fragmentary stone inscription from Śrīnagar, now Lahore Museum No. 10. It is dated Sāstra-samvat 68 (A.D. 992-3) in the reign of queen Diddā.

Stone inscription (20" by 20" by 4½") from the house of a Brāhman at Arigōm (Skr. Hādigrāma), parganā Nāgām. It records the construction of a brick vihāra of Lokanātha (Avalokite-ávara) by Rāma-deva the son of Kulla-deva, in order to replace a wooden structure which had been burnt down by King [Jaya-]simha. It is dated [Śāstra]-samvat 73, Mārga śu. ti. 5 which, if referred to the 43rd century of the Lokakāla, would correspond to Sunday, the 16th November, A.D. 1197. Cf. Konow, Ep. Ind. Vol. IX, No. 46, pp. 300-302.

Stone inscription (20" by 20") at Srinagar in the wall of a merchant's house below the second bridge. 13th (?) century. Cf. Marshall, Note on archaeological work in Kashmir, p. 17.

Stone inscription at Śrinagar below the third bridge. Marshall, Note, p. 17.

Stone inscription at Khunmöh at the Bhuvaneśa spring. It is dated Kali 4530, Śāstra-samvat 4 (A.D. 1428), Mārgaśīrsa śu. ti. 5, Friday, in the reign of Sultān Zainu-l-'ābidīn and records the building of a hermitage (āśrama) which was consecrated on that date. Cf. Marshall, Note, pp. 18-20.

Stone inscription built in the wall of a tank outside the village of Khunmoh, dated [Śāstra-]-sam [vat] 34 (?), Phā [lguna] śu. ti. 7.

Stone inscription built in the wall of a tank outside the village of Khunmöh, dated [Sāstra-]-saṁ [vat] 39, Vai [sākha] śu. ti. 7.

Stone inscription on a grave in the cemetery surrounding the Ziyārat of Bahāu-d-dīn at Haraparbat near Śrīnagar dated Śaṁvat 60,2 Śrā[vaṇa] va. ti. pra. Friday, in the reign of Muḥammad Shāh of Kaśmīr (A.D. 1487-1537) and is the epitaph of Sa'īd Khān, the son of Sultān Ibrāhīm (of Jaunpur). Cf. Hultzsch, Z. D. M. G. Vol. XL, p. 9; Kielhorn, Ind. Ant. Vol. XX. p. 153, and Marshall, Note, p. 18.

Stone inscription from Vijbrör (Bij Bihāra) dated in the reign of Rāja Rāma-deva (A.D., 1252-73). Cf. Marshall, Note, pp. 20 f.

Stone inscription from Vijbrör (Bij Bihāra) dated [Šaka-(?)] samvat 58, Vaišākha šu. ti. 7 in the reign of Rājā Rāja-deva. Cf. Marshall, Note, p. 21.

Stone inscription from Vijbrör (Bij Bihāra) in the bath of the Ziyārat of Nasību-d-dīn Auliyā. It is dated samvat (?) Mārgašīrṣa śu. ti. 4. Cf. Marshall, Note, p. 21.

Stone inscription from Vijbrör (Bij Bihāra) in the northern wall of the mosque of Nasību-d-din Auliyā. It is dated Śāstra-samvat 53, Śrāvaṇa, śu. ti. 10 in the reign of Yaskara-deva. Cf. Marshall, Note, p. 22.

Cave inscription³ at Lodu not far from Sar. It consists of three lines and is undated. It mentions a sthapati-putra and ends hato aparah.

Stone inscription at Parepur, 7 miles from Krörus. It appears to be dated Samvat 526, Vai[śākha] śu. ti. 15.

Stone (?) image inscription at Lasițyāl, 1 mile from Krorus. It is dated Samvat 54, Vai-[śākha] św. ti. 3.

Stone inscription from a ruined temple at Babor (Skr. Babbāpura) 17 miles east of Jammů. The lettering is almost entirely obliterated. Cf. my note Babor; Babbāpura in J. R. A. S. for 1907, p. 405.

Defaced linga stand inscription at Kastavar or Kistvar (Skr. Kasthavata).

Two image slab inscriptions in a cave near Bhadarvāh (Skr. Bhadrāvakāša).

¹ It is uncertain whether this inscription is written in Sarada.

² According to Professor Kielhorn eaircat 60 stands for Saka 1406, in which case the date would correspond to Friday, the 9th July, A.D. 1484.

² For information regarding this and the following two inscriptions I am indebted to Dr. Konow, late Epigraphist to the Government of India.

E.-Ladakh.1

Rana image inscription near the village of Dras. It is undated and mentions the Bodhisattvas Lokesvara and Maitreya. It consists of seven lines. Cf. Vigne, Travels, Vol. II, p. 393; Cunningham, Ladak p. 381 and plate XXX; and Francke, History of Western Tibet (London, 1907), p. 52.

Maitreya (Byams-pa) image inscription² near the village of Dras. It is dated in the 7th year, probably of the Sastra era, and consists of fifteen lines partly obliterated. Cf. Cunningham, ibidem.

Sanskrit inscription in the hall of the Chigtan Monastery. Five lines. Cf. Francke, History of Western Tibet (London, 1907), p. 52.

Two rock inscriptions, containing only the word $Sr\bar{\iota}$, at the bridge near Khalatse. Cf. Francke, Z. D. M. G. for 1907, pp. 595 f.

F.—Lahul.

Stone image alab inscription at Chos-skor near Sisu in the Candra Valley (British Lahul).

G.-Gandhara,3

Rock inscription from Ghagai, north-east of Badwan in Swat, now Lahore Museum No. 94. It is dated [Sastra-]samvat 9 (A.D. 1033), Jyaistha, in the reign of Hammira' (?Mas'ūd, the son of Maḥmūd of Ghaznī).

Stone inscription from Dal Mahat on the Indus bank beyond Torbela, Hazara District, now Lahore Museum No. 108. It is dated [Śastra-]samvat 84, Śravana va. ti. 5.

Defaced stone inscription from Barikot in Upper Swat, now Lahore Museum No. 119. It is dated in the reign of Jaya-pāla.

Stone inscription from Ranigat (?) in Khudu'shel territory, now Lahore Museum No. 25 A.

Defaced rock inscription from Tarwara in Maidan Banda and not far from Kötä on the right bank of the Paujkörä, now Lahore Museum No. 76.

Defaced rock inscription from Jalalabad (?) in Afghanistan, now Lahore Museum No. 153.

H .- Panjāb Plains.

Fragmentary stone slab inscription from Sabz Pind, near the village of Miani, Shahpur District, now Lahore Museum No. 159.

Stone slab inscription from a well at the village of Pālam, 12 miles south-west of Delhi City, recovered at Bohar, Rohtak District. and now placed in the Delhi Museum of Archæology (Cat. No. B. S). Only the concluding vernacular portion of the inscription (part of line 21 and the whole of line 22) is in Śāradā. The rest, composed in Sanskrit, is in Nāgarī. The inscription is dated Vikrama-samvat, 1337, Śrāvaṇa va. ti. 13, Wednesday, corresponding either to the 26th June A. D. 1280 or to the 13th August A.D. 1281, in the reign of Sultān Ghiyāthu-d-din Balban. Cf. Athāru-s-sanādid. Cawnpur, 1904, last chapter, pp. 73 ff.; Thomas, Chronicles of the Pathan kings of Dehli, London, 1871, pp. 136 f.; J. A. S. B. Vol. XLIII (1374), Part I, pp. 104 ff. with facsimile, and Delhi Museum Catalogue, pp. 18 ff.

APPENDIX' II.

THE RĀJĀS OF BALOR (VALLĀPURA).

The following list is drawn from a Pedigree (A) or Bansaulī (Skr. vahšāvalī) in the possession of the descendant of the family priests of the Rājās of Balor, which I had copied at Basōhlī in October 1906. In some cases I have added between brackets the names as they occur in another

¹ In various places of Ladakh cremation tablets with the Buddhist creed in Śāradā have been found.

² A third stele curved on four sides has an inscription in five lines in a character which I am unable to identify.

Under this name are comprised the Peshawar district and surrounding Hill tracts.

⁴ Hammira (c.e. Amīr) is the title by which Mahmud of Ghaznī is indicated in the Rājutarangiņi, but it is also used for his successors. Ct. Stain, Rājat. VII 47, footnote.

Pedigree (B) obtained from the same source. The Bansaulī in question is in the vernacular, but appears to have been rendered—probably by an ignorant person—from an original in Sanskrit which has become lost. This I infer from such forms as Gunākhya and Trailokākhya in which the second member is evidently the word ākhyā (name). I have omitted the first portion of the pedigree which is mythological and derives the origin of the Balauriā Rājās from Arjuna the Pāndava. They belong, therefore, to the Lunar Race. The document gives in general the mere names out adds in a few cases particulars which will be noted beneath:—

- 1. Paitr Pal.
- 2. Mahī Pāl.
- 3. Gagan Pal.
- 4. Tribhuvan Pāl.
- 5. Kür Pāl.
- 6. Than Pal.
- 7. Bhog Pal.
- 8. Nāg Pāl.
- 9. Simbh (Simh?) Pāl.
- 10. Soj Pāl.
- 11. Satyādhik (Pāl). 2nd Rādhik.
- 12. Laksman (Pal).
- 13. Śakya Pāl.
- 14. Man Šakya (B. Man Sakat), 2nd Som Pal.
- 15. Dev Sakya (B. Dev Sakat).
- 16. Bhog Sakya.
- 17. Apar Śakya.
- 18. Gunākhya (B. Gun Rāy).
- 19. Trailokākhya (B. Trailo Rāy), c. 1028-9 and 1041 A.D.
- 20. Kalas Pal (or Kalas Rāy), c. 1087-88 A.D.
- 21. Tung Pal. 2nd Tos Pal.
- 22. Thakan Pal.
- 23. Mahī Pāl.
- 24. Arun Mal (B. Ran Mall), c. 1160 A.D.
- 25. Ajay Pāl (B. Ajē Pāl), c. 1169 A.D.
- 26. Prthvi Pal.
- 27. Mahipati Pāl (B. Mahi Pāl).
- 28. Hari Pāl.
- 29. Vini Pal.
- 30. Uday Pāl (B. Udē Pāl).
- 31. Siddh Pal (B. Sindhu Pal).
- 32. Bhag Singh (B. Bhagsi Pal).
- 33. Javarath Pal (B. Jumurt Pal).
- 34. Ancan Pal.
- 35. Bhuāl Pāl.
- 36. Daulat Pal.
- 37. Gajendar Pal.
- 38. Kṛṣṇa Pāl, 1595 A.D.
- 39. Kehar Pal.
- 40. Bhūpati Pāl (B. Bhauvat Pāl), 1598 A.D.
- 41. Sangrām Pāl, c. 1616, 1627 (?), 1640 (?), 1648 A.D.
- 42. Handal (or Hindol) Pal, brother of No. 41.
- 43. Kṛpāl Pāl, 1685 (?) A.D.
- 44. Dhīraj Pāl (B. Dhīryva Pāl), 1708 A.D.
- 45. Medini Pal.
- 46. Jit Pal.
- 47. Amrt Pal, 1774 A.D.
- 48. Bijai Pāl, 1782, 1789, 1791, 1796, 1806 (?) A.D.

- 49. Mahendar Pal, 1806 (?) A.D.
- 50. Bhupendar Pal.
- 51. Kalyan Pal, died about 1836 A.D.

It is definitely stated in the Bansauli that Paitr Pal was the first to assume the cognomen Pal. For this reason I start the list with him, though there is nothing to prove that either he or his seventeen successors were historical persons. The names ending on Sakya (14-17) look particularly suspicious.

It is said that Mahī Pāl, the son of Paitr Pāl, ruled at Māyāpurī near Haridvār and Almora. Than Pāl left Māyāpurī for Kuļū and Bhog Pāl settled at Balor, so that he was in reality the first of the Balauriā Rājās,

Satyādhik had a younger brother named Rādhik who established himself in Bhadarvāh. Som Pāl, the younger brother of Mān Śakya, settled at Sumartā and became the ancestor of the Sumariā Rājpūts. Mān Śakya himself is said to have removed his capital to Basōhļī (or Bisōli), after having killed a Rānā Bisō who apparently had been the ruler of that place.

So far the information has been drawn solely from the Bansauli and can, therefore, only be accepted with the greatest reserve. It is possible that originally the Rājās of Balor were related to the ancient rulers of Kuļū who likewise were distinguished by the cognomen Pāl. It is equally plausible that Bhadarvāh was at one time governed by a younger branch of the Balauriā house, as later on is also stated with regard to Bhadu. The mention of Sumartā and the Sumariā Rājpūts is of special interest, as we may connect those names with the Saumatikas mentioned in two of the Chambā copper-plate inscriptions (Nos. 24 and 25) among the opponents of Sāhillavarman. These references make it very probable that Sumartā was the ancient name of the Balor State. The locality is also mentioned in inscription No. 47 in connection with Bhadarvāh.

Next follow three names which we may assume to be historical, though their order requires correction. In the course of the present work (pp. 71 f.) I have pointed out that the Trailökäkhya of the list may be identified with a ruler Trailokya-deva in whose reign three Chamba fountain inscriptions (Nos. 20, 21 and 22) are dated and who must have lived in the second quarter of the 11th century. It may be inferred from those inscriptions that his rule extended over Curah.

Kalaś Pāl or Rāv (No. 20) whose name follows that of Trailōkya, must be the same as Kalaśa the son of Tukka who is twice mentioned in the Rājataranginī (VII, 220 and 588) and is called lord of Vallāpura. Ananta of Kaśmīr (1028-1063), while leading an expedition against him, appears owing to his rashness to have got into a difficult position from which he was saved by the cunning of his minister, Haladhara. (Cf. also VII 270.)

Apparently as a result of Ananta's expedition, the ruler of Vallāpura had to acknowledge the supremacy of Kaśmīr. For we find the same Kalaśa the son of Tukka mentioned among the hill chiefs who visited Śrīnagar in the winter of 1087-8 in the reign of Kalaśa of Kaśmīr. Elsewhere it is stated (Rājat. VII 685) that Harṣa the son of Kalaśa had married a granddaughter of king Tukka, named Sugalā, who endeavoured to poison her husband, when he had been thrown into prison by his father Kalaśa in A.D. 1088.

It follows that Kalaś Pāl lived in the second half of the 11th century which agrees well with the date found for Trailōkya. The question, however, arises why we do not find the name of Tukka as that of Kalaś Pāl's predecessor. This difficulty, I believe, can be removed by assuming that Tukka's name occurs in the Bansaulī as Tung Pāl (No. 21) immediately after Kalaś Pāl and that these two names have been reversed.

The Bansauli records that Tos Pāl, the younger brother of Tung Pāl, was the first ruler of Bhadu and consequently the first of the Bhaduvāl Rājās. The tradition that the little principality of Bhadu was ruled by a younger branch of the Balauriā house is most probably correct. It existed as a separate State till the end of the 18th contury.

We have pointed out (p. 75) that Arun or Ran Mall (No. 24) is probably the same as Ranapala mentioned in one of the Dēvī-rī-kōṭhī inscriptions (No. 31). Unfortunately its date cannot

¹ In B we find the names Karam Räi and Takht Räi between Trailökya and Kalas; but we may safely assume that they are due to interpolation.

² Cf. Forstor, Journey, pp. 272 and 280. The descendants of the Bhaduval Rajas live now at Tilokour in the Kangra district and receive a penaion from the Indian Government.

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be fixed, but it cannot be far removed from A.D. 1160. Ajay or Ajē Pāl I have proposed to 'identify with the Ajaya-pāla of the Sai fountain inscription (No. 35) which is dated in the Kali year 4270 corresponding to A.D. 1169. (Cf. above pp. 76 f.)

Here I may mention that the Rājataranginī gives the names of some other ancient rulers of Vallāpura, but none of them occurs in the Bansaulī. They are Padmaka and his son the Yuvarāja Ananda-rāja, who espoused the cause of the pretender Bhikṣācara-(VIII 539, 542 and 547; cf 622). Jajjala of Vallāpura, on the contrary, assisted Sussala in the defence of Śrīnagara in A.D. 1122 (VIII 1083, cf. above p. 108). Among the queens of Sussala who burnt themselves at his death we find Jajjalā from Vallāpura (VIII 1444). Finally it is stated (VIII 2452) that Sussala's son and successor Jayasimha deposed Vikrama-rāja' of Vallāpura and replaced him by Gulhana. These references, in any case, prove that the Lohara kings of Kaśmīr exercised considerable influence in the affairs of Balor.

As regards the Bansauli, it does not supply any additional information until we come to Daulat Pāl (No. 36). His name (Arabic daulat = wealth, fortune) indicates that we have now entered the Muhammadan period. About him it is stated that he had eight² sons who are all mentioned by name including one $Sart\bar{o}r\bar{a}$ by a woman of the Thakkur caste. The eldest son Gajāndar Pāl succeeded, and the seven others were presented with $j\bar{a}g\bar{a}rs$.

His grandson Kṛṣṇa Pāl is mentioned as "Rāi Krishan Balāuriyah" among the thirteen hill chiefs who were subdued by Zain-Khān Koka and appeared at Akbar's court with valuable presents in the 25th year of his reign (A.D. 1595).\(^3\) It will be seen that 426 years had then elapsed since 1169 the date of Ajay Pāl. For this period the Bansaulī has only twelve names which would give an average of 35½ years for each reign. This circumstance as well as the evidence of the Rājataranginī leaves no doubt that for this period the Bansaulī is incomplete. For the following two centuries, on the contrary, the Pedigree is reliable and contains a great deal more additional information than in the preceding part. Besides, several data are supplied by documents in the Chambā archives, and by copper-plates both in Chambā and in the former Balor (Basōhlī) State.

It is not known, when the capital was transferred from Balor to Basōhļī on the Rāvī. According to the Vamśāvalī this event took place several generations before Trailōkya and Kalaśa. This is clearly impossible, as in the Rājataraṅgiṇī the State is invariably referred to under the name of Vallāpura, i.e., Balor. We know, moreover, from Albērūnī that in his time (c. A.D. 1030) Balor was situated on the route from Kanauj to Kaśmīr. The ancient palace at Balor has architectural features (cusped arches) which show that it was built during the Muhammadan period. The gate and towers which remain of the old fortifications of the town are ascribed to Kṛṣṇa Pāl, who, as we have seen, was a contemporary of Akbar.

Above the palace there is a masonry tank which, to judge from the style of decoration, also dates back to the Mughal period. It was completely rebuilt some twenty years ago. It is said to have contained a Nagari inscription with a date expressed in the Śastra era, which was lost during repairs.

Balor possesses also a stone temple which, although very ruinous, is still used for worship. It is dedicated to Siva under the name Bilvakesvar or Harihar. The temple faces west and consists of a mandapa and a sanctum, the latter containing a stone linga. Of the mandapa only the north and part of the west wall are still standing. On the east side a rough low wall has been constructed of the old materials. Among these will be noticed a square slab with lotus rosette which must have been the central portion of the ceiling. Originally the roof of the mandapa was supported by four pillars with plain round shafts, of which only that on the north-east is still standing; of the other three the bases are still in situ.

Nothing is known about the history of this temple. It is ascribed to the Pandavas and is said to have been destroyed by the troops of Babar. But a cording to others, it collapsed some hundred and fifty years ago in the reign of Bhūpēndar Pāl. It is undoubtedly of great age.

¹ Banssuli R mentions a Vikramādit but places him between Kalas Rāi and Ran Mall.

[•] The text says that he had eighteen sons, but enumerates only eight.

⁵ Mo. äsiru-l-umara (Bibl. Ind.) Vol. II, p. 367 and Akbar-Namah (Cawnpore ed.) Vol. III, p. 390

⁴ India, Vol. I. p. 205.

[&]quot; On Balor, cf. lirew, Jumpioo, p. 84.

Bhūpati (or Bhauvat) Pal, the grandson of Kṛṣṇa Pal is said to have been an exceedingly brave and powerful man. In proof of his physical strength it is alleged that he was able to rub out the letters of a rupee with his fingers. He conquered Kaştvar and brought from there the lings of Nilakanth which is still worshipped at Basohli. He planted at Kaştvar "reversed cedars" which were still extant at the time when the Bansauli was written. It is stated that, owing to the back-biting of Jagat Singh of Nurpur, Bhupati Pal was kept a prisoner by the kings (patsah) of Delhi for eighteen years. On his return he made Basohli (or Bisoli) his capital, after having slain a Raṇa of the name of Bisō who held that place. The name Bisō is probably invented to account for the name Bisoli, but it is interesting to find here also a reference to a conflict between a Rājā and a Rāṇā, such as is met with in the history of every hill state of the Panjāb. The chronicler asserts that Bhupati Pal also plundered Nurpur which perhaps means that he joined the imperial troops in one of their expeditions against that principality.

Bhūpati Pāl had two sons, Sangrām Pāl and Handāl (B. Hindōl) Pāl. The chronicle says that Sangram Pal, like his father before him, was imprisoned at Delhi and even ordered to be killed in consequence of the slander of his neighbour Jagat Singh of Nurpur. Quite possibly the tradition in both cases is only based on a compulsory stay of the two Balauria Rajas at Delhi as hostages, according to the policy initiated by Akbar. It is explicitly stated that Sangram Pal's imprisonment took place when he was still young. In this connection the following anecdote is related. The bēgams, having heard the report of Sangrām's beauty, entreated the Emperor to allow him to enter the Harem so that they might be able to see him. The Emperor gave his permission on condition that he should be blind-folded. To this the begans objected as they wished to see his eyes also. The Emperor at last gave his consent and Sangram Pal was presented by the imperial ladies with jewels.

This account certainly does not point to a very rigorous confinement. The only pity is that exactly the same story is related of Prthyl Singh of Chamba, the contemporary of Samgram Pāl.2

The chronicle further records that Sangram Pal conquered Kastvar, Guler and Kahlur (i.e. Bilaspur on the Satluj) and that he "plucked their realm from the Chambials." We know that a controversy between Balor and Chamba did arise regarding the possession of the pargana of Bhalai. But this dispute was decided in favour of Chamba by an imperial delegate on the 5th March A.D. 1648,3 as appears from a Persian document in the Chamba archives. In another document, undated, we find that Sangram Pal had built a fort in Chamba territory which was made the cause of a complaint before the imperial authorities. We shall do well, therefore, not to accept too readily the account of Sangram Pal's victories related in the local chronicle. The same authority holds, that he fought twenty-two battles and married twenty-two times.

The Tuzuk-i-Jabangiri contains the following passage regarding one Sangram, undoubtedly Sangram Pal of Basohļi, for which I am indebted to Mr. William Irvine :-

"The news of the killing of Raja Man reached me (i.e. Jahangir) at this place. I had appointed him to head the army that had been sent against the fort of Kangra. When he arrived at Lahore, he heard that Sangram, one of the zamindars of the hill-country of the Panjab, had attacked his palace and taken possession of part of his province. Considering it of the first importance to drive him out, he went against him. As Sangram had not the power to oppose him, he left the country of which he had taken possession and took refuge in difficult hills and places. Rājā Mān pursued him there, and in his great pride, not looking to the means by which he himself

⁴ Tuzuk-i-Jahangiri translated by A. Rodgers, edited by H. Beveridge, p. 361. The event related here took place in

the 11th year from Jahangir's accession or A.D. 1615-16. Raja Man was perhaps Man Siagh of Guler.

¹ The same, as we saw above, is said of Man Sakya, but there is reason to assume that Balor was still the capital in the first part of the Muhammadan period.

² Chamba Gazetteer, p. 93.

³ Another date is supplied by a copper-plate issued by Sangram Pal apparently in the year 16 which would correspond to A.D. 1640. The reading, however, is uncertain. I may mention here that Mian Durga, a Balauria Rajput who lives at Balor, communicated to me the following dates said to be derived from copper-plate inscriptions. Bhupat Pal 74 (A.D. 1598), Sangram Pal 3 (A.D. 1627) and Krpal Pal 61 (A.D. 1685). I have not examined the charters from which these dates were obtained, but they fit in well with the established dates of their reigns. Mian Durga is descended from Channar Pal, a younger brother of Bhūpati Pāl.

could advance and retreat, came up to him with a small force. When Sangram saw that he had no way to flee by, in accordance with this couplet—1

'In time of need when no [way of] flight is left, The hand seizes the edge of the sharp sword.'

A fight took place, and according to what was decreed, a bullet struck Rājā Mān, and he delivered his soul to the Creator thereof. His men were defeated and a great number of them killed. The remainder, wounded, abandoned their horses and arms, and with a hundred alarms escaped half-dead."

Sangram Pal died without issue, and was succeeded by his younger brother Handal Pal. The latter's son and successor was Krpal Pal, who in his turn was succeeded by his son Dhīraj Pal. The Chamba archives contain a treaty in Tankarī between Dhīraj Pal and Udai Singh of Chamba. It is dated the 21st Asuj sambat 84 corresponding to A.D. 1708.

The Bansauli relates that Dhīraj Pāl's personal charm was so great that the daughter of Nawāb Dīna Bēg fell in love with him. But when the Nawāb, while in his kachahrī, ventured to mention the fact to the Rājā, the latter drew his sword and caused all present to turn pale. The story is of some interest as an illustration of a Balauriā Rājā's pretentions in matrimonial matters.

Dhīraj Pāl had two sons, Mēdinī Pāl and Ratan Pāl. The former who succeeded is mentioned in a Persian sanad dated in the 5th year of Ālamgīr II (A.D. 1758) and issued under the seal of Adīna Bēg. In this document it is said that the parganā of Jūndh with its seventeen castles was originally in the possession of Chambā, but had been made over to Mēdinī Pāl Balauriā owing to the unfaithfulness of Rājā Ugar Singh of Chambā. It was now restored to the Chambā Rājā Umēd Singh. It does not appear from the document whether Mēdinī Pāl was still alive at the time when it was issued.

Mēdinī Pāl had two sons, Jīt Pāl and Bikram Pāl. Jīt Pāl succeeded and was in his turn succeeded by his son Amṛt Pāl. From about the middle of the 18th century the Basōhlī State became more and more dependent on Jammū, then a rising power. It is interesting that this fact finds expression in the local chronicle which mentions that Jīt Pāl "used to assist" Mahārājā Dhrub Dēv of Jammū. Further on it says: "Amṛt Pāl reigned by the grace of the illustrious king of kings Raṇjīt Dēv [of Jammū]. Mahārājā Dhrub Dēv [and] Mahārājā Raṇjīt Dēv wrote with their own hand on a copper charter that it was a duty of their own house to maintain the rāj of the Balauriās, taking Gangā and Yamunā [the sacred rivers Ganges and Jamnā] as witnesses. It is not known whether the plate is still extant. Thus the Balauriās were from of old favoured (kṛpāpātra) by the Mahārājās of Jammū and obedient (tāba'dār) to them." Amṛt Pāl married a daughter of Mahārājā Raṇjīt Dēv who was the real founder of the modern Jammū State. It is further stated that Amṛt Pāl obtained Bhaḍu through the favour of Raṇjīt Dēv and also the pargaṇās of Jhūṇḍ and Bhalai from Chambā, and Kaṭhāṛ (?) and Basantpur from Bhadarvāh. Local tradition adds to this: Nūrpur as far as the Cakkī including Shāhpur, and a part of Jasrōṭā, namely, Lakhanpur, Basantpur (already mentioned) and Thāiṁ, all on the right bank of the Rāvī.

How far we may accept the account of Amrt Pāl's conquests, it is difficult to say. This much is certain that he invaded Chambā during the minority of Rājā Rāj Singh and for a time held a large portion of that State, apparently including the capital.² A copper-plate exists issued by him to the astrologer of the Chambā Rājā in the Vikrama year 1831, Śaka 1696 (A.D. 1774). Amrt Pāl's invasion of Chambā territory is also testified to by two of our inscriptions (Nos. 34 and 38) which were wantonly destroyed on that occasion.³

The Bansauli describes Amrt Pāl as an ideal ruler. "He protected his subjects like his own children. He made Brāhmans, Kṣatriyas, Pājpūts and Vaisyas persevere in their sandhyā prayers and persevered himself in sandhyā prayers, worship and sacred duty (dharm). The four castes took their food in the coukā. When the women came out of their houses and happened to meet a manthey at once turned their back to him." In this strain the chronicle praises his reign as the golden age.

¹ Quotation from Sa'adi's Gulistan, 1st story :--

Chamba Gazetteer, p. 99.

³ Cf. above, pp. 224 and 239 f. The exact date of the copper-plate now in possession of Jyötisi Chandarmani is Vikrama 1831, Saka 1696, Vaisakha pürnimä, Vṛṣa, pra. 15, corresponding to Wednesday, the 25th May A.D. 1774.

It appears indeed that the Basohli State enjoyed great prosperity in the days of Amrt Pal's sovereignty—a fact which, however, was probably less due to the uncommon virtues of that ruler than to political circumstances. It should be remembered that the authority of the kings of Delhi in the Panjāb, already weakened by the rise of the Sikhs, was crushed by Nādir Shāh's invasion in 1739. In the same year in which Nādir Shāh was assassinated (A.D. 1747) the Durānī king Ahmad Shāh, made his first inroad in the Panjāb. The Mughal emperor now lost all power in the Land of the Five Rivers, which henceforth became the scene of the deadly struggle between Afghān and Sikh which lasted till the end of the century.

The unsettled state of affairs in the Plains made traders to Kaśmir select the safer route through the lower Hills of the Panjab. The petty hill chiefs levied toll on the merchandise carried through their territory and it is to this circumstance that both Basōhļī and Jammū owe their rise about the middle of the 18th century.

The ruined palace of the Balauriā Rājās at Basōhlī-a building of a size excessive as compared with their limited territory and political power—still testifies to the prosperity they enjoyed in those days. It is ascribed to Amrt Pāl and indeed the debased Indo-Mughal style of the edifice points to the 18th century as the period of its construction. It is well described by Vigne² in the following lines: "Bissuli contains a large but slovenly-looking bazaar; and the place would hardly, as far as I could judge, be worth the traveller's notice, were it not for the baronial appearance of the palace of the old Rajahs, which I thought the very finest building of the kind that I had seen in the East. Its square turrets, open and embattled parapets, projecting windows, Chinese-roofed balconies, and moat-like tank in front, presented a general appearance which, without entering into specific detail, was sufficient to remind me of some of the most ancient red brick structures of my own country. When viewed at the distance of a few miles from the path to Jamu, it rises in relief from the dark masses of the lower range, with a grandeur that I thought not inferior to that of Heidelberg; whilst, with reference to more general effect, the line of snowy peaks which are seen peering over the mountains immediately around it, are sufficient to render its relative position incomparably superior."

The Bansauli ends the long account of Amrt Pal's piety by recording that, after an astrologer had foretold the day of his death, he made over his State to his son Bijai Pal and left in the midst of the Höli festival for Benares where he died at the age of thirty-two.

After his death the fortunes of Basöhlī declined. The Sikhs, not content with ravaging the Panjāb plains, now penetrated into the lower hills and blackmailed the petty Rājās whose prosperity doubtless had stimulated their cupidity. Ranjīt Dēv of Jammū managed for a time to save his State by his wise policy, but under his son and successor Brajrāj Dēv the town of Jammū was conquered and sacked by Hakīkat Singh Kanheya and Mahā Singh Sukarcakia.³

Basöhļī met a similar fate, but here it was Rāj Singh, the warlike chief of Chambā who took the leading part. He had to avenge the insult suffered at the hands of Amrt Pāl during his minority. He invaded and conquered Basöhļī in 1782, burnt the town, and restored the country only on payment of a lākh of rupees. The date of the conquest of Basöhļī is recorded on a stone let into the pavement in front of the temple of Lakṣmī-Nārāyaṇ at Chambā. It reads: Sah. 58 Cēt pra. 1 Basauhlī da shaher fata kīta, "On the 1st Cēt of the year 58 (A.D. 1782) the town of Basōhļī was conquered."

Shortly afterwards, the traveller George Forster passed Basohli on his journey through the lower hills which he performed in the disguise of a Muhammadan trader. He crossed the Ravi on the 10th April 1783. "In the ferry-boat," he says," "were two Sieques going to the fort of which a detachment they belonged to, had taken possession, in consequence of being called in to the assistance of the Bissouly [viz., Basohli] chief. Though this be the invariable result of every connection made with the Sieques, the infatuated mountaineers never fail to seek their aid when engaged in war. A brodering chief [Paj Singh of Chambā] had invaded the Bissouly districts, plundered the inhabitants, and burned their villages, before any opposition was made. The Sieques

* Journey, Vol. I, p. 235; 2nd ed. pp. 270 ff.

¹ Cf. Forster, Journey, Vol. I, pp. 218 and 283. Albērūnī, India, Vol. I, p. 205, mentions Ballāwar as situated on the road from Kapauj to Kaśmīr.

² Vigne, Travels, Vol. I, pp. 171 f.

Latif, History of the Panjab (Calcutta, 1891), pp. 342 f. Forster, Journey, pp. 286 ff.

were called in to repel the enemy, and defend the fort of Bissouly, but after performing the required service they became pleased with their new situation, and refused to relinquish it." On his further journey through Basōhlī territory Forster was painfully struck by the dismal appearance of the country owing to the recent war.

The bone of contention between Basöhlī and Chambā was the territory of Bhalai and Jūndh situated on the border of the two States. The Chambā archives contain a letter in Tānkarī in which Brajrāj Dēv of Jammū conveys to Rāj Singh, on condition of service, these two parganās together with Bhāndal, Kihār and Dyuhr which evidently had remained occupied by Basōhlī since Amṛt Pāl's invasion of Chambā. It is dated the 15th Bhādōn of the Śāstra year 57 (A.D. 1781). In another Tānkarī document of the 18th Bhādōn of the Śāstra year 59 (A.D. 1783) we find the same statement. A third letter from Brajrāj Dēv dated the 20th Sāvan of the same year enjoins the officials of the parganā of Jūndh to be obedient to Rājā Rāj Singh. From these documents it appears that in those days both Basōhlī and Chambā regarded Jammū as their suzerain.

Notwithstanding this, we find that after Rāj Singh's death in 1794 Bijai Pāl again made inroads into the frontier districts of Bhalai and Jūndh with the result that Jīt Singh of Chambā, who had succeeded his father, retaliated by invading Basōhlī and, after conquering the country, restored it on payment of war indemnity. A Ṭānkarī letter dated the 5th Sāvan, Śāstra 72 (A.D. 1796) in which Bijai Pāl promises Jīt Singh to pay by instalments the amount due to Chambā probably relates to the facts just mentioned.

In this connection I must also mention two copper-plate grants issued by "Vijayapāla, the son of Amrtapāla" and now preserved at Basōhļī. One is dated Vikrama 1846 or Šaka 1711 corresponding to A.D. 1789 and the other Vikrama 1848 corresponding to A.D. 1791. They are in the possession of Paṇḍit Hiru of Basōhļī.

Bijai Pāl was succeeded by his son Mahēndar Pāl who concluded a compact with Jīt Singh of Chambā in the Śāstra year 82 (A.D. 1806) which is preserved in the Chambā archives. It is noteworthy that in it the Basōhlī chief has only the title "Miān" which perhaps indicates that his father was then still alive.

He was succeeded by his son Bhūpēndar Pāl whose son and successor Kalyān Pāl—the last of the Balauriās—died childless at the age of twenty-two years. Vigne notes that, when he first passed through Basōhlī.¹ the Rājā was dead. One of his Rānīs, a Mankōṭī princess, who survived him, lived in the palace for thirty years after his death, receiving a pension of Rs. 1,500 a year from Jammū. The ancient Balor State was included in the jāgir of Sucēt Singh, the Rājā of Rāmnagar and younger brother of the Jammū Rājā Gulāb Singh. At present Basōhlī is the head-quarters of a Taḥṣīldār. The only monument of the by-gone glory of the Balauriā princes is the old palace which their rivals and final conquerors, the Rājās of Jammū, have allowed to fall into ruins. Sic transit gloria mundi!

In the collection of miniatures in the Lahore Museum the Balaurias are well represented, as it contains portraits of Bhūpati Pāl, Handāl Pāl, Kṛpāl Pāl, Mēdinī Pāl, Jīt Pāl, Amṛt Pāl, Mahēndar Pāl and Bhūpēndar Pāl.

¹ Travels, Vol. I, p. 172.

APPENDIX III.

MARKULA SLAB INSCRIPTION.1

BY THE REV. A. H. FRANCKE.

TEXT.

(PF)

- 1. अ। के सुद्दे। सुर्केद (मुद्दे) मुक्ष (स्र) मुक्ष सु दर्म दूर्म दूर्म हे महाराष्ट्र सामुक्ष
- 2. गुैस-द्वुत्य (कुर्)। युन्य हे सुर मुैस-द्वेत्य मुक्किस सुर रक्ष मुक्कित्य
- 3. द्यनात्रक्रभावे ।। दे से द क्रिंग (द्यम) यः दे नाद्याभा न व्यानिका
- 4. सुना तुना विषय (स्विश) सर्दर । वर्गे तुना वृद्धिर वर्ष मार्स वर्षे सर्दर सर्दर
- प्रतिविद्यासायाये स्थित स्थापिक विद्याले । विद्याले प्रतिकास क्रिक्त स्थापिक विद्याले । विद्याले विद्याले । विद्याले विद्याले । विद्याले विद्याले । विद्याले विद्याले । विद्याले विद्याले । विद्याले विद्याले । विद्याले विद्याले । विद्याले । विद्याले विद्याले ।
- त्यनाशःसः (सःसः) नृशःनाशुः कुयःवदिः स्थानः सर्केनः द्वनाकिन्देः नाञ्चनाशः क्षाः स्वानाशः कुन्। स्वानाशः कुनः देवः
- 7. चेर्रहें अचेर्रम्पायाई मुयायदे र्दे अमूवाई मार्रे अहें वायुना दर्जया वर्षे र
- 9. मार्शुःस्राहे सूटास्वामार्थस। स्रायमुराह्त्या यत्रास्यार्थि। स्रासाही। मान्स्यार
- 10. रे.स्वात्यवाश्यस्य स्राप्तात्रेश्यात्रेश्यात्रेश्याद्वर्यस्य स्राप्ति स्वाप्ति स्वापति स्वाप्ति स्वापति स्व
- 12. न्ने'दर्शत्र्ने''गुर्श्यदशःकुशःशुरःवेनः
- 13. वेनि'रम्'वेश।।

Notes.

1. 3. rgyon, instead of classical gyon; 1.2. the instrumental wrongly instead of the genitive case; 2. spyan, instead of ordinary can; 7. rtso instead of classical gtso; 11. Rephag, the name of the Trilöknäth temple, means 'high hope.'

No exact date can be given to this inscription; but it may be said for certain that it cannot be more than three centuries old

TRANSLA !! ION.

- 1. Hail! The peacock vestments of the gods are of white colour; Perfection is
- 2. the head ornament of Buddha. Look mercifully on [all] creatures! Reverence to
- 3. Avalokita! Clothed in purity, he sits on the lotus throne, one face,

The inscription which is cut on a slate slab is here edited from a rubbing and a hand-copy, both prepared by the late Miss J. E. Duncan. Doubtful readings are placed between brackets.

- 4. six hands, . . . feet Reverence to the image of the august [Avalokita] which arose of itself,1
- 5. and which draws upwards to heaven; the six kinds of creatures which are still performing the circuit [of transmigration].—To the victorious Vajravarāhī,
 - 6. the august great mother, the conqueress of the three times, of fierce form, to the lady
 - 7. who gives two-fold relief to all the dull, solitary, and insane, be reverence and praise!
 - 8. as an opportunity for virtue
- 9. nine thousand mani (Om mani padme hum) were raised (carved) on unchangeable stone. Well, besides these,
- 10. at the august Re-phag (Trilöknāth), and at Mar-skul, at both Maņi wheel
- 11. . . . raised. At the monastery of Mar-skul, a new monastery was raised (or 'was raised anew,' renovated).
 - 12. May all beings obtain Buddhahood quickly through this virtue!
 - 13. Hail!

APPENDIX IV.

SUPPOSED COIN OF ASATA OF CHAMBA.

Mr. V. A. Smith⁴ has advanced the hypothesis that a rare silver coin of a debased bull-and-horseman type might be ascribed to Asața, the chief of Campā.

Mr. R. Burn, I.C.S., has favoured me with the following note on the subject: "My suggestion is that for Asata we should read Amrta, and I would assign it to the Amrta-pala of the inscription found near Budaun (Budaun district, United Provinces). Smith's Catalogue of the Indian Museum, plate XXVI 6, shows a fair specimen."

"You will see that the first letter is clearly a not \bar{a} . The second letter might be read, at first sight, as $\hat{s}a$ or ma. Close examination shows that the right hand perpendicular line is curved at the bottom to the right. If you will compare this coin with No. 20 on the same plate, you will see that there is quite sufficient ground for taking the curve as the vowel r. For the symbol just above the quarters of the horse is universally admitted to be $Pr[thv\bar{i}]$. I would similarly read mr."

"Cunningham, Coins of Ancient India, says that these coins are rare, and Smith repeats this. As a matter of fact, the coins are fairly common between Meerut and Bareily. I have seen more than one find. One came from Meerut District, and the other from some place-in Robilkhand. Delmerick, who spent a long time at Budaun, said he considered the coins common. It was this circumstance which first led me to connect the coins with the line of rulers referred to in the inscription, and eventually to recognize the letters $m_{\tilde{t}}$, hitherto misread śa."

"Lastly, Smith does not account for the change from ta to ta, the clear reading on the coin."

"The inscription may reasonably be dated early in the 12th century, which would suit the coins."

¹ This refers to the belief that the marble image of Trilöknath is not made with hands but is self-created (Skr. sepyambhū). Cf. above p. 15.

² Gods (deva), men (purusa), demons (asura), beasts (tiryanc), tantalized spirits (preta) and denizens of hell (naraka), Cf. Waddell, Lamaism, p. 101.

Bere Kālī, the goddess of Markulā.

⁴ V. A. Smith, Catalogue of the Coine in the Indian Museum, Calcutta (Oxford, 1906), pp. 214 f. and p. 219, plate XXVI-6.

⁵ Ep. Ind. Vol. I, pp. 61 ff.

The correct spelling would be Badayun.