ANDHRA PRADESH GOVERNMENT ARCHAEOLOGICAL SERIES No. 8

THE SPECIAL OFFICE. FOR

THE TUNDI COPPER PLATE GRANT OF VISHNUKUNDIN KING VIKRAMENDRAVARMA

BY

Dr. R. SUBRAHMANYAM, M.A., Ph.D., Superintendent, Archaeological Survey of India, Madras.

General Editor:

Sri N. RAMESAN, M.A., I.A.S.
Joint Secretary to Government (P. W. D.)
and
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Government of Andhra Pradesh, Hyderabad.





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PREFACE

The fall of the imperial Śātavāhana Dynasty in the first quarter of the third century A. D. led to the rise of numerous petty and independent principalities in coastal Andhra. Hardly a hundred years later, the Krishna-Godavari doab became a veritable warring ground for the leaders of these petty dynasties who vied with each other for the establishment of paramountcy. Neighbouring kingdoms which were also eagerly awaiting for an opportunity to extend their influence into this fertile area did not let go a favourable chance.

Of these dynasties, the *Ikṣvaku*, the *Bṛihatphalāyanas*, the *Vasisṭas*, the *Ānandagōtrin* kings, the *Viṣṇukuṇḍins*, and the *Pallavas* figure prominently. Precious little is known about their achievements except the stray reference made in their copper plate inscriptions discovered in this area. Naturally a succinct chronological account of many of these petty dynasties could not be made available to the scholarly world so far. More and more new information has been coming out, thanks to the discoveries of new copper plate inscriptions and the growing historical sense amongst masses in Andhra in the post-independence period.

Naturally a revaluation of the known material about these dynasties in the light of new discoveries is felt necessary. One such discovery is the *Tundi* plates of *Viṣṇukuṇḍin-Vikramēndra Varman* which forms the subject matter of this small booklet. Though the inscription has very little to contribute to the known history of *Viṣṇukuṇḍins* its provenance and date rendered it possible to discuss afresh the chronology and genealogy of the *Viṣṇukundins*.

Incidentally opportunity was also taken by me to depict the dynastic history of the Visnukundins and the significant role played by them in the re-establishment of Vaidika Dharma besides pointing out their contributions for architecture and numismatics in Andhra.

I have dedicated this work to Jagadguru Śrī Śankarachārya of Śrī Kānchi Kāmakōṭi Pīṭham in my individual capacity, as a mark of my profound respects to His Holiness. I am deeply grateful, to His Holiness for having so kindly accepted this dedication of mine.

I express my gratitude to the Government of Andhra Pradesh and particularly to Shri N. Ramesan, M.A., I.A.S., Director of Archaeology, Hyderabad for publishing this booklet.

Madras - 9, 15th February 1962.

R. Subrahmanyam

FOREWORD

The present publication by Dr. R. Subrahmanyam, M.A., Ph.D., Superintendent, Archaeological Survey of India, Madras, is about the Tundi plates of the Viṣṇukuṇḍin king Vikramēndravarma. The author has taken this opportunity to discuss the genealogy and chronology of the Viṣṇukuṇḍin monarchs. He has also given at the end of the book full details of all other known copper plate grants of Viṣṇukuṇḍin kings and a very valuable appendix on the several yajñas like Asvamēdha, Purushamēdha, Vajpēya etc. He has also added an appendix on the Viṣṇukuṇḍin coins.

Dr. R. Subrahmanyam, M.A., Ph.D., is well-known in Andhra as a scholar in history. He was till recently engaged in the monumental excavations at Nagarjunakonda, undertaken by the Archaeological Survey of India. This pamphlet from his pen is an useful addition to the Visnukundin history and will be widely welcomed by all students and scholars. I express my gratitude and thanks to Dr. R. Subrahmanyam for the trouble he has undertaken to prepare this pamphlet for the Department of Archaeology, Government of Andhra Pradesh.

The Ajanta Printers, who have been printing a number of our publications, have, as usual with them, done the printing in an exemplary manner and my thanks are due to them for it.

15-2-1962 N. Ramesan

Dedicated to

Jagadguru Śrī Chandraśēkharēndra Saraswati Swāmi of Śrī Kānchi Kāma Kōti Pīṭham

as a mark of my profound respects to His Holiness

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TUŅŅI PLATES OF VIŞŅUKUŅŅIN VIKRAMĒNDRA BHATTĀRAKA VARMA

This set of five copper plates' fastened together by means of a ring both ends of which were secured in a circular seal was accidentally discovered by Sri Boppana Narasimhamurti garu, landlord, Kandulapalem village while digging in his field for $p\bar{a}ti$ earth. Kandulapalem is a small village situated near $Dr\bar{a}k\bar{s}\bar{a}r\bar{a}ma$, the famous Saivite centre in Godavari District of Andhra Pradesh. These plates were later obtained by Vidwan Sri D. Venkataramanasastry garu, Department of Telugu, Andhra University, Waltair who was pleased to pass them on to me for decipherment and publication early in 1950. There has been inordinate delay in the publication of these inscriptions for which I express my regrets. The discovery of the plates was reported by me to the Government Epigraphist and the same has been noticed by the Government Epigraphist in his Annual Report².

The plates are small in size and compare very well in every respect with the Ipuru plates of Mādhavavarma, already noticed and published. The first plate measures 6.2"×1.7". the second $6'' \times 1.65''$, the third $6.4'' \times 1.725''$, the fourth $6.4'' \times 1.75''$ and the fifth $5.95'' \times 1.75''$. The plates without the ring and seal weigh 38.5 tolas. The ring 0.3" thick has a diameter of 2.5" and runs through a hole, 0.45" in diameter. The seal with ring weighs 18 tolas. The inscription is very well preserved except for the last line (line 35), and it begins on the second side of the first plate with four lines of writing on each plate. The letters are deeply incised and though the ends of the plates were not raised into rims, the inscription is in a state of perfect preservation. The second side of the fifth plate betrays the attempts at defacement of the inscription perhaps by later people; luckily no serious damage was however caused to the record. Only six or seven letters containing the name of the scribe were obliterated. On the second side of the 4th plate below line 28, there are six letters which were perhaps omitted by the scribe while engraving the record by mistake and who inserted them later after completely engraving the text, as the palaeography of the inserted letters would suggest. Indications of the attempts made to number the leaves or pages of this record serially are also not wanting. At the right hand corner of the first

^{1.} The original set was misplaced by me while transferring my personal effects and it was subsequently found lost. The inscription is being deciphered and edited from the impressions taken by me earlier.

^{2.} Indian Archaeology - A Review, 1957-58.

^{3.} Epigraphia Indica. Vol. XVII, p. 33.

plate near the hole for inserting the ring we have the numerical symbol 1 while at the same place on plate III we have numerical symbol 3. The other plates, however, are not numbered. The seal of the plates is circular and seems to bear some legend and representation of some animal-bull or lion (?), - on its counter-sunk surface. In view of its completely obliterated condition it was not possible for me to decipher the legend or identify the animal.

The inscription runs for 35 lines, and excepting for the two imprecatory and benedictory verses at the end, it is all in prose. The regnal year of the king (Samvatsara) is denoted by numerals in ligatures 10 and 4, as is generally done in the records of this period, while the actual day on which the grant was made as well as the part of the season of the year and Pakṣa are mentioned in words.

About the orthographical peculiarities of the grant the following points deserve mention. This is perhaps one of the few inscriptions that are found engraved without faults. Sandhi and Samāsa rules have been very carefully observed. Doubling of the consonants, when they preceded 'ra' have been followed as a rule. Except for few scribal errors like marking a vertical line in places of Visarga, interchange of the letters 'da' and 'dha', dropping of ā mātras in words like Yajinah, Medhavapta (line 3), Svarajyasya (line 4) Viniryyapita (line 19), writing of the letter 'Va' instead of 'Da' Dāyavasya (line 15), the inscription can be said to be faultless.

The record commences with a long Prasasti of the Viṣṇukuṇḍin family (line 1 to 24) and three generations in the pedigree of the donor are given. The great grandfather of the donor Mahārāja Śrī Mādhava Varma has been described as a worshipper at the feet of Śrīparvata-Svāmi (Bhagavacchrīparvata Svāmi Pādānudhyātah). He is said to have performed eleven Asvamēdhas, and took his 'purificatory' bath thereby cleansing the 'kalmaṣa' of the world in this Kali age (Avabhṛithā-vadhauta-jagat-kalmaṣasya). He is also said to have performed one thousand Agniṣṭomas (Kratusahasrayājinah), eleven bahusuvarṇas, eleven Pauṇḍarikas (by which he acquired the occult power of achieving anything he desired 'prāptasarvārthah' etc.) and a Puruṣamēdha besides numerous other sacrifices by which he became a Paramēṣṭhi and Dēvādideva. His son Vikramēndra Bhaṭṭārakavarma is described as an ornament to the family of Viṣṇukuṇḍins and Vākāṭakas (whose offspring he is) and by virtue of his valour he demanded submission of Sāmantas or subordinate chiefs who bowed at his feet thereby making his feet glow in the lustre of the crest jewels fitted into their head-dresses. His son Indravarma has been described as a valorous person who, by dint of his valour not only upheld the position and prestige of the family but also took

^{1.} The Chikkulla plates of Vikramendrabhattaraka Varma son of Indrabhattaraka Varma, who appears to be identical with the donor of the record under review, has a circular seal measuring 1.3/8" in diameter bearing in relief on a slightly countersunk surface a well executed lion which stands to the proper right, raises the right forepaw, opens the mouth, and apparently has a double tail,—Dr. Keilhorn Ep. Ind., Vol., IV., p. 193 ff.

part in a number of battles in which he obtained victory (Anekacaturddantasamarasanghatta vijayinah). He is said to have overcome all his rival claimants (dāyādah) to the throne and kingdom. The phraseology in the record Mātritrasta-Kāndisībhūta Visīrnna pra nastāsesa dāyādasya is very interesting. If we are to believe the assertion made in the epigraph on behalf of this king, he is said to have driven some of his Dāyādins into the laps of their mothers (considering them as infants); few he drove to far off regions, while others he had completely annihilated. This seems to imply that Indravarma's succession to the kingdom and throne of the Visnukundins was not a peaceful one and he had to fight his way to the throne braving a war of succession. He has been described as a Parama Māhēsvara and Parama Brāhmanya and as an establisher of a number of Ghatikas or Brāhmana 'Agrahāras' or seats of learning. He has been described as a Dharma Vijayin, or one who had conquered numerous countries just to proclaim his prowess but allowed the vanquished rulers to rule over their respective territories without annexing them to his own. His son, the donor of the grant Vikramēndra Bhattāraka Varma is mentioned as the crest jewel (cūdāmani) of the family of Visnukundins, a great warrior unrivalled in personal strength and prowess like Hara, possessed of all the noble qualities (Mahānīyagunāh) and a veritable Mahēndra of the earth (Mahīmahēndrah).

The record registers the order of $Mah\bar{a}r\bar{a}ja\ Vikram\bar{e}ndra\ Bhattaraka\ Varma\ donating$ the village Tundi located on the bank of $Cheyyeru\ (Ceyyerakar\bar{e})$ and belonging to the king, exempting it from all taxes $(Sarvab\bar{a}dh\bar{a}parih\bar{a}r\bar{e}na)$ to the $Br\bar{a}hmana\ Sw\bar{a}mi\ Sarma$ son of Rudrasarma belonging to $Kaundinyasag\bar{o}tra$ and $\bar{A}pastamba\ S\bar{u}tra$ and a resident of $\bar{A}ki$. The king himself is said to be the $\bar{a}j\bar{n}apti$ or the executor of the grant $(Svamukham\bar{e}va)$. It is dated on the 1st day (Pratipad) of the $Gr\bar{i}sma\ paksa$ in the 14th regnal year of the king. $Gr\bar{i}sma$ or summer season starts during the months of $Jy\bar{e}sta$ and $As\bar{a}dha$, that is, from the middle of May to the middle of July. The first day of the first Paksa of the $Gr\bar{i}sma$ should therefore have to be dated sometime in the middle of May. The purpose for which this grant was made is not specifically mentioned but from the circumstancial evidence, viz., the issue of the order from the army camp $(cham\bar{u}pura)$ renders it possible to presume that the king might have made this gift for the success of his arms.

At the end of the record usual imprecations of sins that would befall to the violators of this sacred gift of land (Bhūmiharatah Śasanānkitam) and the Vyāsagīta which extols the merits that would occur to the donors of pious gifts of land and to those that maintain such gifts without violations are enumerated.

The village Tundi, which was gifted by $Mah\bar{a}r\bar{a}ja\ Vikram\bar{e}ndrabhattaraka\ Varma$, appears to be modern Tuni in the East Godavari District of Andhra Pradesh, while $\bar{A}ki$ the place from where the donee hailed might be the ancient name of $\bar{A}kiv\bar{i}du$ another village in the West Godavari District.

Vikramendravarma-II, the donor of the grant under review is known to us from another copper plate grant discovered in Godavari District dated in the 10th regnal year, and issued from Lendulūruvāsaka, i.e., modern Dendulūru near Pedavēgi of West Godavari District, recording the King's dedication of a village to Lord Sōmagirīśvaranātha. But the script of that record is of a more developed veriety, and Dr. Kielhorn who edited that record, based on the style of the inscriptions and the employment of numerical symbols to denote the date, assigned it to the end of 8th century A.D. It is, however, difficult to accept this dating of Dr. Kielhorn.

TEXT 1

FIRST PLATE, SECOND SIDE

- 1. Svasti Bhagavacchriparvvatasvāmi Pādānuddhyātasya Viņņukuṇḍinā(m) 2
- 2. Ēkādasāsvamēdhāvabhritāvadhauta-jagat-kalma
- 3. Şasya-kratusahasra-yajinah³ Sarvvamedh-avapta-sarvvabhūta ⁴
- 4. Svārājyasya-bahusuvarnnaikādasakayāiina(h)

SECOND PLATE, FIRST SIDE

- 5. Ekādasa pauņdarīka prāptasarvvārddhah yadhavidyanu
- 6. Sthita-rājasya yopapādit-ādhirjāyasya tada
- 7. nu puruşamēdhādyaseşakratvanuşthānajani
- 8. taparamēṣṭhyasya dēvātidēvasya mahārāja

SECOND PLATE, SECOND SIDE

- 9. Śrī Mādhavavarmmaņah priyasunorvvisņukuņdivā
- 10. kāṭaka-vaṃsa-dvay-ālankṛita-janmanā (h) pratāpō
- 11. panata-sakala-sāmanta-manjarī-pinjarita
- 12. caraṇa-kamala-yugalasya mahārāja

THIRD PLATE, FIRST SIDE

- 13. Śrī Vikramēndra bhattārakavarmmanah priyassunor vvi sņukundi
- 14. kulatilakasya samāghrāta-mātritrasta kāndi
- 15. sībhūta-visīrnna-pranastāsēsadāyavasya sva
- 16. dak şinaikabāhu-sahā yyōccaurnitas vayam sakramāga
- 1. From the impressions,
- 2. At the end of the line the sign appears to denote final 'm'.
- 3. Read Yājinah.
- 4. Read Mēdhāvāpta, the meaning of the passage is not quite intelligible.
- 5. Read dāyādasya

THIRD PLATE, SECOND SIDE

- 17. t-ādhirā jyasya-Anēkacāturddanta-samara-sanghatta-vijayina
- 18. paramamāhēs vāras ya-parama-brāhman yas ya Yathāvidhi
- 19. viniryyapita i ghatik-āvāpta puņya samcayasya
- 20. Dharma vijayinō-mahārāiēndra bhattārakavarmmana (h)

FOURTH PLATE, FIRST SIDE

- 21. priyaputra (h) Śrī Vişnukundy-ānvaya makuta cūlāmani
- 22. Hara iv-āpratihataprabhāva (h)-sakala bhuvanarakṣā
- 23. bharaikāsraya (h) mahanīyagunō-ma
- 24. hīmāhēndrah Vikramēndra-bhattārakavarmma cyeyyerakarē

FOURTH PLATE, SECOND SIDE

- 25. Tūṇḍi nāmadhēya gramēyakā y (n) ēvam-ājñāpaya
- 26. ti yath-asmin Ākivāstavyāya kaundinya-
- 27. sa gōtrāya Āpastamba sūtra pāra (m) gatāya
- 28. Rudrasarmmanah putrāya svāmisarmmanē Tūndi gram.
- 28a. camūpurapa (sca?)

FIFTH PLATE, FIRST SIDE

- 29. ōsmabhir-ddatta (n) sarvva bādhāparihārēņa datta Ityāṣā jña
- 30. pana Ājñaptasvamukham-ēva imānica-pātākani
- 31. vilēpayan Vighnatām mātrigōvipra-bālayō-
- 32. şi-tapasvinah-yagatih sabhavet-vritti haratan sasanaskita

FIFTH PLATE, SECOND SIDE

- 33. Bahubhir-vvasudhā-dattā bahubhiscānupālitā
- 34. yasya-yasya-yadābhūmi-tasyatasya tadāphalam
- 35. samva 10-4 pratipadi

Despite recent attempts of numerous scholars at estalishing a convincing chronology and genealogy of the Visnukundins a number of problems, particularly the origins of Visnukundins, their early home and exact dominions over which they held sway, and the final extinction of their power etc., are still matters of conjecture and awaiting further investigation in the light of recent discoveries. A brief resume of the achievement of the Visnukundin dynasty, their genealogy and chronology etc., may not therefore, be out of place here.

^{1.} Read vininyvapita

The origins of the family of Visnukundins is shrouded in mystery like that of many other dynasties that ruled over Andhra. Nothing is known about the founder of the dynasty. So far, only six copper plate records and one stone inscription pertaining to this dynasty have been discovered. They supply us some interesting data about the different rulers of this family, their achievements, the sacrifices performed by them, their relations marital and otherwise, with the contemporary ruling dynasties etc., besides the benefactions made by them in favour of learned brahmins and temples for which these records were obviously meant. The provenance of the records so far discovered would indicate that their dominion extended over the modern Visākhapaṭnam, the two Godāvaris, Kṛiṣṇa and Guntur Districts, though it is difficult to fix exactly their original home or their capital. The copper plates referred to above have been issued from different places. The Chikkulla plates' were issued from Vijaya Lendulūru Vāsaka which had been identified by Sri Jayanti Ramayya Pantulu with Denduluru, a small and insignificant village near Ellore in West Godavari District. The Rāmatīrtham plates2 were issued from 'Puranisamgama Vāsaka' while the Ipūr plates refer to Amarapura, as the seat of the king. The Pulombūru and Tundi plates were issued from army camps or while the king was marching with his armies (Prāgdigjigīṣayā Prasthitah etc.). The name Viṣṇukuṇḍi however seems to suggest that they were originally people of the area round about Vinukonda in Guntur District. Their affiliations to Śrīparvatasvāmi6 i.e., Lord Mallikārjuna of Śrīsailam, which is not away from Vinukonda lends further support to our above surmise.

If Vinukonda was the original home of the Visnukundins, when did they rise to power? The inscriptions of Visnukundin kings so far discovered are all dated in their regnal year without reference to any specifically known era and render it difficult to precisely fix their period of rule of this dynasty. However, on the synchronism afforded by the

^{1.} Epi. Ind., Vol. IV, p. 193 ff.

^{2.} Epi. Ind., Vol. XII, p. 133 ff.

^{3.} Epi. Ind., Vol. XVII, p. 337 ff.

^{4.} J.A.H.R.S., Vol VI, p. 17 ff.

^{5.} Writing about the name 'Viṣṇukuṇḍin', D. F. Keilborn had observed as follows. "The name Viṣṇukuṇḍin has not so far as I know, been met with in other epigraphical records. Considering the locality where these plates come from, as well as the facts that the written vernacular was Telugu and that the donor worshipped the lord of Śrīparvata which I take to be the sacred Śrīśaila in the Kurnool District of a hill fort and town in the Krishna District, about 60 miles east of Śrīśaila.....and that this Vinukonḍa which is reported to be a place of great antiquity was really the capital of Viṣṇukuṇḍins". Epi, Ind., Vol. IV, p. 194-195.

^{6.} Inscriptions of 3rd Cent. A.D. from Nagarjunakonda in the Palnad Taluq of Guntur District (Epi. Ind., Vol. XX.) however, refer to that place as Siri Pavvata. But this place is known more for its Buddhist antiquities and associations with the name of \overline{Acarya} Nagarjuna, the founder of the 'Madhyamika' school of Mahayana Buddhism. Recent excavations conducted at the site have revealed contemporary shrines dedicated to Siva also but they have been called in the records by the names 'Puṣpabhadra' and 'Sarvadēva'. Hence the appellation Śrīparvatasvāmi found in the Viṣnukunḍin records may have to be identified with Mallikārjuna of Śrīśailam, the famous centre of Śaivism in Andhra.

copper plate records it is possible for us to fix at least the terminal date with reasonable precision. The Pulombūru plates of Visnkundin Mādhavavarma which register the gift of the village to the brahmin Sivasarma was later on renewed on the 5th regnal year of Jayasimha-I of the Eastern Chālukyan dynasty, who succeeded the Visnukundins as the overlords of Vēngi and Guddavadi Visaya. From other records of the Eastern Cālukyan ruler, we know Jayasimha-I son of Visnuvardhana-I ruled between 641-73 A.D. Considerable difference of opinion exists between scholars about the date of conquest and occupation of Vēngi region by the Chālukyas. The Aihole inscription of Pulakēsin-II refers to the Chālukyan conquest of coastal Telugu country while the Kopparam plates' of the same monarch allude to the grant of Vēngi to Visnuvardhana and his lineage. The date of this latter grant was discussed by R. Sewell at Dr. Hultzsch's request, and he assigns it to Thursday, October 10, 631 A.D. This when read with the contents of the Aihole inscription of Pulakesin-II, makes it possible to infer that the coastal Telugu country went under the Chālukvas sometime before 630 A.D. or to be more exact in 624 A.D.4 We further learn from the Kātlaparru⁵ grant of Gunaga Vijayāditya and the Paindipāka grant of Chālukya Bhīma-I⁶ that Satyāṣraya's brother Visnuvardhana destroyed the Durjayas and obtained Vēngi country for the first time and made it his own. Who this Durjava king from whom Visnuvardhana wrested Vēngi kingdom is not however mentioned in the inscription. Dr. N. Venkataramanayya surmises that he might probably be Prithvīmahārā ja of the Tandivāda plates or his immediate successor. The Edēru grant⁸ of Amma-I also refers to a certain Daddara with an irresistable army (Durdharsa balam) whom Kālakampa the niyōgādhikrita of Kubjavisnu had slain in battle and appropriated his insignia. As such Daddara might be connected with the Durjayas' from whom Vengi was conquered. Be it as it may, it clearly establishes the fact that Vēngi was under the authority of Durjayas and not Visnukundins when it was conquered by Kubjavisnu and as such the end of Visnukundin

^{1.} Dr. N. Venkataramanayya, 'The Eastern Chāļukyas of Vēngi' p. 64 ff.

^{2.} Epi. Ind., Vol. VI, p. 4 ff.

^{3.} Epi. Ind., Vol. XVIII, p. 260 ff.

^{4.} Adivāsaka grant of Jayasimha-I dated in his 18th year, and Koniki grant of the same ruler dated in his 30th year. See also Sri M. Somasekhara Sarma's view about the date of foundation of Vēngi kingdom; Dr. N. Venkataramanayya, 'The Eastern Chāļukyas of Vēngi', p. 55.

^{5.} Manual of Sri Tirumala Venkata Narasimha Charlu, Hindu High School, *Pentapādu* 1939-40, p. 22 quoted by Dr. N. Venkataramanayya in his 'The Eastern *Chālukyas* of *Vēngi*' p. 18.

^{6.} Madras Government Oriental RSSS-Lib. (Elliot's Collection 15-6-26, pp. 185-91 ff.

^{7.} The Eastern Chālukyas of Vēngi, p. 60.

^{8.} S. Ind. Inscription 1, No. 36, p. 42.

^{9.} See in this connection, the Chipurupalli plates of Viṣṇuvardhana-1 (I-Ant. XIX, p. 15) where in Ajñpati of the records is mentioned to be one 'Aṭavi Durjaya' of the Mastya family which incidentally furnishes in the informations that the Oḍḍādi and Chīpurupalli areas in themodern Viśākhapaṭnam District were also conquered by Kubjaviṣṇu in this same campaign.

authority over Vēngi may have to be dated earlier, probably to the last quarter of the 6th Century A. D.

Let us now examine the genealogy of the Visnukundin dynasty, total number of years of their rule and see if we can fix their initial date.

The subjoined tabulated statement¹ of Viṣṇukuṇḍin records contain all the relevent information needed for the reconstruction of the genealogy of the dynasty and this subject had been studied by many eminent scholars like Kielhorn², Hultzsch³, Sewell⁴, K. V. Lakshmanarao⁵, Prof. J. Dubreuil⁶, M. Somasekhara Sarma⁷, R. Subbarao⁶, B.V. Krishna Rao⁵, Dr. D. C. Sircar¹⁰, V. S. Ramachandramurthy¹¹ and Prof. K.A. Nilakantha Sastry¹². Still no satisfactory and agreeable genealogy of Viṣṇukuṇḍin dynasty has been formulated so far.

Basing on the palaeography of the inscriptions, Prof. Hultzsch had identified Mādhavavarma of Ipur plates with the ruler of same name mentioned in Chikkulla plates. As regards Mādhavavarma-II, the issuer of Ipur plates II, the same scholar felt that the script belonged to an earlier type than that of the first set and concluded that Mādhavavarma son of Gōvindavarma of Ipur (Set I) is the grandson of Mādhavavarma-II of Ipur (Set II). This identification was questioned by subsequent scholars. Prof. R Subbarao formulated the scheme of Visnukundin genealogy as follows:

Chikkulla	Ramatīrtham	ipur I	Ipur II	Polombūr u	Tuṇḍi
Mādhavavarma Vikramēndra Indrabhaṭṭārakavarma Eldest son of Vikramēndravarma 10th	Mādhavavarma Vikramēndra Indravarma 27th year	Gövindavarma Mādhavavarma 37th year Manehanne Bhatṭāraka	Mādhavavarma Dēvavarma Mādhavavarma 47th year	Vikramêndra Gövindavarma Mādhavavarma 48th year	Mādhavavarma Vikramēndra Bhattāraka Indravarma Vikramēndra Bhattāraka 14th year

1. Chart showing the pedigree of Visnukundin kings from their copper plate grants.

- 2. Epi. Ind., Vol. IV, p. 193 ff.
- 3. Epi. Ind., Vol. XII, p. 193 ff, Vol. XVI, p. 334 ff., Ibid, p. 337 ff.
- 4. History of Southern India, p. 404.
- 5. Journal of the Dept. of Letters, Calcutta University, Vol. XI, p. 131.
- 6. Ancient History of Deccan
- 7. Bharati, Sept., 1930, & Feb., 1931; see also J.A.H.R.S. Vol. V., p. 185.
- 8. J.A.H.R.S. Vol. VI, p. 17 ff.
- 9. Bharati 1934-35 and Early Dynasty of Andhra Desa.
- 10. Successors of Sāiavāhanas, p. 97 ff.
- 11. J.A.H.R.S., Vol. X, p. 187 ff.
- 12. History of Indian People.

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Mādhava-I (Probably ruled about 400 A.D.)

Dēvavarma

Mādhavavarma-II (Donor of Ipur plates [Set I])

Gōvindavarma

Mādhavavarma-III (Donor of Ipur plates [Set II] 37th year)

Vikramēndravarma-I

Indrabhaṭṭāraka or Indravarma (Donor of Ramatīrtham plates.
27th year. Probably ruled from 525-555 A.D.).

Vikramēndravarma-II (Donar of Chikkulla Plates. 10th year)
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This was, however, questioned by Sri M. Somasekhara Sarma, who re-examined the case in detail and hazarded the following arrangement of their pedigree:

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Mādhavavarma-I (400 A.D.)

Dēvavarma (400-425 A.D.)

Mādhavavarma-II (425-462)

Gōvindavarma (462-487 A.D.)

Mādhavavarma-III (487-535 A.D.)

Vikramēndravarma-I (535-560)

Indrabhattārakavarma (560-587 A.D.)

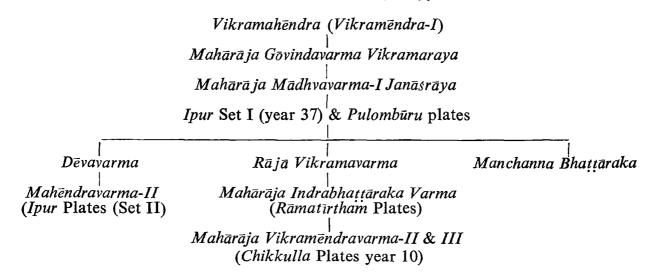
Vikramēndravarma-II (587-612 A.D.)
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The identification of Prof. Hultzsch was also disputed by Dr. D. C. Sircar, who on the basis of internal evidence of the grant itself argued that $M\bar{a}dhavavarma$ -I, the grandfather of the issuer of the Ipur plates (set II) is described as ' $\bar{e}k\bar{a}das$ - $\bar{a}svam\bar{e}dh\bar{a}vabhrit$ - $\bar{a}vadhauta$ -jagat-kalmaṣasy-agniṣtoma-sahasra- $yājin\bar{o}$ - $n\bar{e}ka$ - $s\bar{a}mantamakuṭa$ - $k\bar{u}ṭa$ -maṇi-khacita-caraṇayugala-kamalasya- $mah\bar{a}r\bar{a}jasya$ - $\dot{S}r\bar{\iota}$ - $M\bar{a}dhava$ Varmaṇah' is almost identical with the corresponding description in Ipur (set I), and therefore $M\bar{a}dhavavarma$ -I of Ipur (set II) is identical with $M\bar{a}dhavavarma$ -I of Ipur (set I) and $M\bar{a}dhavavarma$ mentioned in Chikkulla plates. The discovery of $Pulomb\bar{u}ru$ plates which gave the genealogy of Viṣṇukundins viz.,

Vikramēndra
|
Gōvindavarma
|
Mahārāja Mādhavavarma (40th year)

further disproved the theory of Prof. Hultzsch that Mādhavavarma, son of Gōvindavarma is described as the grandson of Vikramēndra Varma and not Mādhavavarma, while the epithets applied to Mahārāja Mādhavavarma in both Ipur (set I) and Pulombūru plates are identical. He was mentioned as the son of Mahārāja Gōvindavarma alias Vikramāsraya, a 'Hiraṇyagarbha Prasūta' and 'Trivaranagara-bhavanāgata-parama-yuvatījana-viharaṇa-rati' (Pulombūru) and 'Trivaranagara-bhavanāgata-Yuvatī-hridayanandanah' Ipur (set I).

Dr. D. C. Sircar, after carefully analysing the titles and their implications in different records, finally formulated the genealogy of the Visnukundins as—



These arrangements of Viṣṇukuṇḍin genealogy by Messrs. M.S. Sarma and Dr. Sircar were questioned by Sri V.S. Ramachandra Murthy, who found it difficult to agree with the identification of Mādhavavarma-II of Ipur (Set II) with Mādhavavarma of Rāmatīrtham and Chikkulla plates for the following reasons.

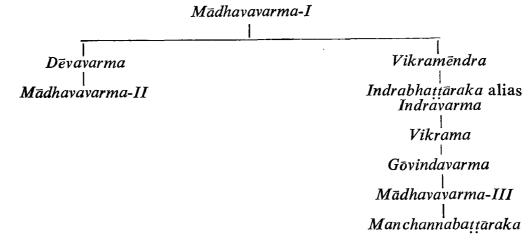
- 1. Mādhavavarma-II never performed any Asvamēdhas while Mahārā ja Mādhavavarma of Rāmatīrtham and Chikkulla plates each performed eleven Asvamēdhas etc.
- 2. Mādhavavarma-II calls himself 'Trikūta Malayādhipati' which title is absent in the case of Mādhavavarma of Rāmatīrtham and Chikkulla plates.
- 3. Mādhavavarma-II of Ipur (Set I) was not a Mahārā ja while his namesake in Chikkulla and Rāmatīrtham record was a Mahārā ja.

He then refuted the argument of Dr. Sircar saying that his identification of Mādhava-varma of Pulombūru and Ipur (Set I) with Mādhavavarma of other plates as 'not warranted

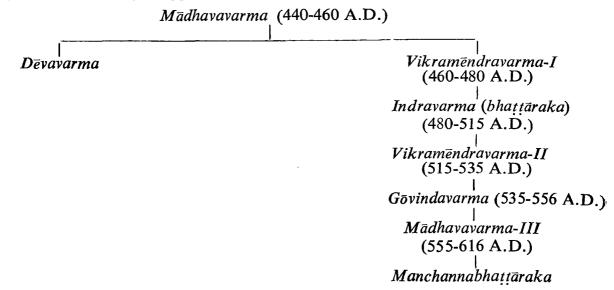
by facts'. He cited the following significant epithets which are conspicuously absent for Mādhavavarma the Asvamēdhayā jin of Ipur (Set II), Rāmatīrtham and Chikkulla records.

- 1. Trivaranagara bhavanāgata parama yuvatī jana viharaņa ratih.
- 2. Hiranyagarbha prasūtah
- 3. The title 'janāśraya'
- 4. 'Avasita Vividha divyah'
- 5. The references to qualities like dayā dāna māna etc.

Finally he arranged the genealogy of the dynasty as:



The arrangement hazarded by Dr. D. C. Sircar was also questioned by Prof. K. A. Nilakanta Sastry in his recent note contributed to the 'History and Culture of the Indian people'. His scheme is identical with that proposed by Mr. V. S. Ramachandra Murthy, but he adopts the chronology suggested by late Sri B. V. Krishna Rao, as follows:



I am inclined to accept the arrangements of genealogy suggested by Prof. K. A. Nilakanta Sastry though I beg to differ with him with regard to the initial date of Visnukundin ascendency. From the genealogy it is clear that there were nine rulers in all and from the regnal years supplied by their records it is evident that those rulers invariably had long periods of rule. It may not be unreasonable if we presume that this dynasty of nine members ruled \overline{Andhra} for over two centuries. We have already seen that they were ousted by the Durjayas in the first decade of the 7th century and if we are assigning two centuries of rule for the dynasty then we may have to assign the beginnings of their rule to the first quarter of the 5th century or slightly earlier.

We know that after the fall of Mauryan Empire there followed in $\overline{A}ndhra$ the rule of Satavahanas which lasted for nearly four and a half centuries from about 230 B.C. Their empire extended over the whole of Daksinapatha but by about the middle of the 3rd Century A.D., their power was considerably weakened due to their wars with Sakas etc., and with their fall, numerous independent dynasties rose to prominence like the Salankayanas in the Vengi region, the Iksinaparas in Sriparvata area (ie., modern Nalgonda Salankayanas in the Salankayanas in

The territory over which Visnukundins claimed overlordship was actually under the rule of Iksvākus in the 3rd Century A.D. This short lived dynasty of Ikshvākus was founded by Chāmtamūla-I, in or about the year 227 A.D. and it was further strengthened by his son Virapurusadatta who entered into matrimonial alliance with the neighbouring contemporary rulers like the Chutu Śātakarnis of Vanavāsa, the Kṣātrapas of Ujjain, the Dhanakas, the Pukiyas etc.2 His son and successor Ehuvala Chāmtamūla, abler than his father, had a long and prosperous rule but at the end of his reign, he had to face invasions from all sides like The Pallavas: from the East and South, the Anandagotrin kings: from the West etc. One of the Iksvaku generals claims for his king and himself a grand victory in an inscription, found during the recent excavations at Nāgārjunakonda. But the trend of later events seems to show that the power of Iksvākus was considerably weakened, and during the reign of Ehuvala, and his son and successor Rudrapurusadatta, the Iksvāku power suffered a complete collapse. One of the recently discovered records 5 dated in the 30th year (Chedi or Kālachuri era?) refers to an Ābhīra king Vasusēna along with numerous other sovereigns hailing from Ujjain, Vanavāsa, Sanjayapuri etc., conjointly effecting some donation to the temple of Astabhujasvāmi at Nāgārjunakonda. The significance of their presence at the capital

^{1.} History of Indian People.

^{2.} Epi. Ind., Vol. XX.

^{3.} Bhandarkar, 'History of Deccan'.

^{4.} Epi. Ind., Vol V.

^{5.} Astabhujasvāmi Temple Inscription—Nagarjunakonda (Indian Archaeology—A Review 1959-60).

of Iksvākus is difficult to conjecture. Since the record is not dated in the regnal years of Iksvāku king, the local ruler, but in the reign of the Abhīra king, it has to be inferred that temporarily the Abhīras gained control over the Śrīparvata area. This incident should have taken place some time between 300 and 310 A.D. It is just the period when the Pallavas also were making their power felt in this region. During this period of confusion, the Visnukundins who were round about Vinukonda area also made a bid for establishing their power, but they had to lie low before the superior strength of the rising Pallavas. However, an opportunity soon offered itself. The invasion of the Gupta monarch, Samudragupta to the South, and his professed victory over the confederacy of South Indian rulers-the Sālankāyana Hastivarma of Vēngi, Visnugōpa of Kānchi etc., shook the power of Sālankāyanas to their foundations. Pallavas also were compelled to concentrate their exploits to the region round about Kānchi. After Samudragupta's return (380 A.D.), Mādhavavarma, the first illustrious ruler of Visnukundin dynasty should have successfully annexed the regions to the South of Krisna and marched with his army against the lingering Sālankāyana power, which failed against his advances. In commemoration of his victory, he might have performed the Asvamedha sacrifice. It was perhaps during the course of this northern march, that he come into contact and conflict with the Vākāṭaka power who were also just then busy expanding their territories. He entered into a matrimonial alliance with the Vākāṭaka who not only strengthed Visnukundin power but also enhanced the prestige of that dynasty.

MADHAVAVARMA-I

The greatest of Visnukundin kings is Mādhavavarma-I. Ipur plates (Set II) which is perhaps the earlier of their records credits him with the performance of eleven Asvamedhas and one thousand Agnistomas. The Prasasti of this monarch, presumably the founder, had increased in length, as the power of Visnukundins spread over large areas. The Rāmatīrtham plates of Indravarma, his grandson, speaks of him as a famous monarch, a conqueror of many kingdoms, whose head was sanctified by the sacred waters poured on him at the culmination of eleven Aśvamēdhas and one thousand Agnistomas. The Chikkulla plates of his great grandson Vikramendra, further enlarges the lists of sacrifices performed by this grand emperor. He was credited with not only the performance of eleven Asvamēdhas but also with Bahusuvarna, Paundarīka, Purusamēdha, Vājapēya, 16 Rājasūyas, Prādhirājya and Prājāpatya sacrifices by virtue of which he attained the status of 'Paramesthi' while the Tundi plates under review specifies the number of Bahusuvarna and Paundarikas as eleven. He is invariably described in the records as a devout worshipper of the feet of 'Sriparvatasvāmi'. Since the early records refer to 'Amarapura' as the seat of Visnukundin power we may not be far from truth if we identify 'Amarapura' with 'Amarāvati', famous for its Amarēswara Linga (Śiva) situated on the banks of river Krisna at a distance of 22 miles

from Guntur. This surmise seems to find confirmation in the legends and traditions that have grown round the name of $M\bar{a}dhavavarma$, and current in Telugu country, but belonging to later periods.

Though it is difficult to accept the achievements enumerated in the prasasti of Mādhavavarma to be literally true, there is no reason to doubt that Mādhavavarma was the first powerful ruler of Viṣṇukuṇḍin dynasty. He was responsible for carving out an independent principality of his own in the Guntur District of Andhra Pradesh (Trikūṭamalaya region) perhaps drove out the Sālankāyanas from the region to the south of river Kṛiṣṇa and even thereatened to invade and conquer their very capital Vēngi. It is also quite likely that Viṣṇukuṇḍins might have served as officers under Vākāṭakas. We know Vākāṭaka Pṛithvīṣēna (C. 284-344) claims for himself among others, conquest of Andhra. Viṣṇukuṇḍins might have recognised him as overlord and obtained the necessary help for laying the foundations for independent rule. Inscriptions from Amarāvati datable to the period C. 150 B.C. to 300 A.D. refer to Vākāṭakas thereby indicating the latter's contacts with Andhra Desa. The significant reference to the founder of the dynasty 'Śrī Viṣṇukuṇ-dinam Mahārājasya Śrī Mādhavavarma in the Ipur plates of Mādhavavarma-II, a style of reference typical to the Vākāṭakas of the period further lends support to our above surmise.

Thus Mādhavavarma-I, though we do not have any record of his time, should have established Visnukundin power.

The beginnings of $S\bar{a}lank\bar{a}yana$ rule has been fixed differently by different scholars. Prof. H. C. Roychoudhary, basing on the geography of Ptolemy places $S\bar{a}lank\bar{a}yana$ of $V\bar{e}ngi$ in 140 A.D., while Prof. Dubreuil reckons their rule between 350 and 450 A.D. Dr. Burnel on Palaeographical grounds assigns Nandivarma of this dynasty to 4th Century A.D. However, on the contemporaneity of Hastivarma of $V\bar{e}ngi$ with Samudragupta, we can confidently fix the rule of $S\bar{a}lank\bar{a}yanas$ between 300 and 370 A.D.²

The power of the Sālankāyana dynasty was considerably weakened by the invasion of the Gupta monarch Samudragupta. Hastivarma of Vēngi though he managed to form a strong confederacy of all South Indian powers to stem the tide of Gupta invasion, if the Allahabad Prasasti is to be believed, was not successful in his endeavour. He was permitted by the Gupta overlord to retain his kingdom but his power was so badly shattered that it became an easy prey to the onslaughts of Viṣṇukuṇḍins. Hastivarma's successors Nandivarma and Chandavarma were no match to Mādhavavarma, who easily vanquished them in battle and

^{1.} Ep. Ind., Vol. XV, p. 257, No. 27; Recent Excavations conducted by the author at the $St\bar{u}pa$ site near Amarāvati have yielded numerous sculptured slabs. Many of them refer to the $V\bar{a}k\bar{a}taka$ or 'Pahātaka' as the donor of those pieces to the $St\bar{u}pa$ complex.

^{2.} There were several rulers belonging to Sālankāyana dynasty Dēvavarma (320-345 A.D.), Hastivarma (340-370) A.D.), Nandivarma-II (420-425 A.D.), Skandhavarma (445-470 A.D.)—D. C. Sircar, Successors of Sātavāhanas' p. 78.

assumed for himself the high-sounding title 'Anēka Sāmanta makuṭakūṭa maṇikhacita caraṇa yugalah'. In commemoration of his grand victories, and strictly in accordance with the spirit of the age he performed not one but eleven Asvamēdha sacrifices.

DĒVAVARMA

Mādhavavarma's son and successor Dēvavarma is described in Ipur plates as a great warrior who took great delight in defeating the contemporary Kṣatriya rulers (Kṣatriya-vaskanda pravartitā pratima vikhyāta parākramasya Śrī Dēvavarma). Since he was not mentioned as a Mahārāja in any of the records, it has to be presumed that he never assumed the titles of Royalty, and that he only helped his father in his numerous campaigns and distinguished himself as a great soldier.

MADHAVAVARMA-II

Mādhavavarma-II succeeded to the throne of his grandfather since his father Devavarma had predeceased his father. His Ipur plates dated in his 47th year describe him as 'trikūtamalayādhipati' and residing at Amarapura'. He was said to be a devout worshipper of 'Śrīparvatasvāmi' and possessed of all the noble qualities - 'nayavinayasatya sampannah'. He also like his illustrious grandfather had a long and fruitful career of more than forty-seven years, while the Chikkulla grant of Vikramēndravarma supplies us the list of Vedic sacrifices performed by this illustrious monarch.

Though the records of his sons and successors claim for this monarch great victories, and annexations of territories, the extent of Visnukundin power remained the same, as we find in $V\bar{e}ngi$ region, the $S\bar{a}lank\bar{a}yanas$ still ruling during this period.

VIKRAMĒNDRAVARMA-I

His son Vikramēndravarma through the Vākāṭaka princess, has been considered to have predeceased his father by scholars like late B. V. Krishna Rao, etc., perhaps basing on the tradition of Mallesvara temple inscription and the simple reference to him in the records as an ornament of the family of Viṣṇukuṇḍins and Vākāṭakas (Ubhaya Vaṁsātma-jālaṅkāra bhūtah) and was a devoted son of his father. But the Tuṇḍi plates under review clearly styles him as 'Mahārāja', a ruling king and extols his exploits as a great warrior and ruler whose feet were brightened by the diadems bedecked in the headgears of vanquished rulers etc. Naturally as a scion of the Vākāṭaka family which was still powerful then, Vikramēndra must have commanded great respect and weilded a lot of power, as against other sons of Mādhavavarma-II.

^{1.} Amarapura has been taken to be the earlier name of Vinukonda the original home of Viṣṇukuṇḍins by Sri B. V. Krishna Rao (History of Viṣṇukuṇḍins-Bharati p. 414). I am unable to agree with his suggestions because the name Vinukoṇḍa survives to this day. At no date in history after the fall of Viṣṇukuṇḍins, Vinukoṇḍa was referred to as 'Amarapura', while the territory over which Viṣṇukuṇḍins claimed authority, Trikūṭamalaya correctly identified by the same author at the modern Narasaraopet - Kotappakonda region was known in subsequent records as 'Kṛiṣṇaveṇṇa dakṣiṇa ṣaṭṣahaṣrāvani' and its rulers had their head quarters at Amarāvati (Dhānyakaṭaka) (ref. Kota chiefs of Aamarāvati etc, in this connection).

INDRABHATTARAKA

Vikramēndravarma-I's son Indrabhaṭṭāraka Varma succeeded to the throne early in the beggining of the 6th century. By then the political set up in the coastal Āndhra had considerably changed and that needed a reorientation of the policy of the Viṣṇukuṇḍin ruler. In the south the Pallavas at Kānchi had consolidated their gains and were ready to launch an offence to extend their territories. In the west, the Kadambas with their capital at Banavāsi were equally eager to make their power felt in the eastern direction. The Sālankāyanas were completely wiped out from Vēngi, and their kingdom became a happy hunting ground for adventurers like the Māṭharas of Piṣṭapura, the early 'Varman' kings of Kalinga and even the Vākāṭakas.

Indrabhaṭṭārakavarma had naturally to deal with all these forces for maintaining his hold over his ancestral dominions. The inscriptions of the period seem to throw some light on the confused state of affairs that were flourishing and the determined efforts of Indrabhaṭṭāraka at maintaining his hold, but all shrouded in allegorical statements.

His was not a peaceful successor to the throne. He had to fight with his kinsmen to establish his own rights. Mādhavavarma-II seems to have had sons other than Vikramēndra-I, and naturally the progeny of those, who felt that they had equal claims for the kingdom and throne, might have made common cause against Indrabhaṭṭāraka. The Rāmatīrtham record is curiously silent about it but we get references like—"bhrūbhṛingākara vinirdhūta samagra dāyādasya" in Chikkulla plates, and "samāghrāta matṛitrasta kāndisībhūta-visīrṇa-prāṇāstasēṣa dāyādasya"—in the Tuṇḍi plates which are quite significant in this context. Indrabhaṭṭāraka with his superior wisdom, skill and prowess proved himself to be more than a match to all of them. He succeeded in wiping out all those 'dāyādas' who gave him trouble and established himself strongly on the throne of his father.

He was a very successful soldier who could lead his armies to distant lands bringing under subjection the rulers of those regions.

We have a record of this monarch dated in his 27th year at Rāmatīrtham near Vizianagaram in the distant Visakhapatnam District, where we find the king himself ordering the gift of the village Peruvaṭaka in the Plaki rāṣṭra to a Brāhmaṇa, named Nagnasarma so that merit might accrue to himself. This clearly indicates that the king was just then busy conquering and annexing southern Kalinga.

Kalinga was also overrun by the Gupta monarch Samudragupta in his southward march when numerous petty chieftains like Vyāghrarāja of Mahākāntāra, Damana of Airandapalli, Mahēndra of Pistapura etc. were all routed. Closely following the Gupta invasion, we learn from the copper plate records discovered in this area that a new dynasty named Mātharas styling themselves as Kalingādhipatis were ruling from Pistapura. The

Ragōlū plates¹ mention the name of Śaktivarma, while Ananta Śaktivarma, the successor of Śaktivarma is known to us from his Andhavaram record.² The latter was ousted from his ancestral dominions and was actually driven to the north in the course of which this Andhavaram record was issued from a military camp (Mahāhastysvaskandhāvārāt). The power that was responsible for driving him out of Piṣṭapura (modern Piṭāpuram in Godavari District) is not specifically mentioned. In this connection, the information supplied by the Tandivāda grant of Prithvīmahārāja issued from Piṣṭapura seems to help us. This Prthvīmahārāja is said to belong to Rāmakāsyapasagōtra and is described as a grandson of Mahārāja Raṇadurjaya and son of Vikramēndra. This record is dated in his 46th year. This family of Durjaya of Piṣṭapura might have played the role of aggressors either on their own behalf or on behalf of Viṣṇakuṇḍins whose power was then in the ascendancy. The latter seems to be more probable. Raṇadurjaya might have served as an officer under the Viṣṇakuṇḍin king Vikramēndra, who in token of recognition of the services rendered might have allowed him to rule Piṣṭapura as a vassal, and he in his turn, exhibited his loyalty and affection to his overlord by naming his son after his overlord.

The Rāmatīrtham plates describe Indrabhaṭṭāraka as a Paramamāhēsvara and 'ānēka caturḍanta samara sata sahasra saṅghaṭṭa vijayī'. This same epithet is applied to him in the Chikkulla plates of his son Vikramēndravarma-II. These references naturally imply that he had waged numerous wars with the possessors of elephants and achieved victories. 'Caturddanta' is properly the epithet of Indra's Airāvata, the elephant of the East. The reference therefore implies that Indrābhaṭṭāraka fought with the ruler of the East or Kalinga from which corner there should have been trouble.

Two copper plate grants were discovered one at the place called Siripuram, near Chīpurupalli and the other near Sringavarapukōṭa, in the Visākhapaṭnam district. They record gifts of villages located in the area now covered by Jeypore and Bastar estates to Brāhmaṇas well versed in $V\bar{e}das$. These records are palaeographically datable to the 6th Century A.D. The script of Siripuram plates resembles very much the script of Ramatīrtham plates of Indravarma.

These records refer to a family of rulers of at least three generations, belonging to Vasiṣṭagōtra, who style themselves 'Mahārāja' and rulers of Dēvarāsṭra (modern Visakhapatnam Jeypore regions) viz. Mahārā ja Guṇavarma, his son Mahārā ja Prabhaṅjanavarmā-II, his son Mahārāja Anantavarma. The last mentioned king issued a grant in his 13th regnal year

^{1.} Epi. Indica Vol. XII p. 1-3

^{2.} Epi. Indica Vol. XXIX

^{3.} Siripuram copper plate record: Bharati, Prajotpatti Bhadrapada 451-458, Kindoppa copper plate inscription of Anantavarma. These two records were edited by Sri Manda Narasimham Pantulu of Srikakulam. His dating of the record as 86 A.D. is difficult to accept as the palaeography of the inscription would clearly show that they are later and belong to 6th Century A.D.

from 'Piṣṭapurādhiṣṭhāna'. He also bore the title 'Kalingādhipati' and is described as a valiant king who acquired lands by his own strength (Sva bala vikramōpārjita bhūh).

We have seen earlier that Piṣṭapura was brought under the sway of Viṣṇukuṇḍins during the reign of Vikramēndravarma-I and the tract was given to Pṛithvīmahārāja. The copper plates, which refer to the dynasty of Vasiṣṭas, however, seem to suggest that Anantavarma, had conquered the region round about Piṣṭapura and while camping at that place issued the land grant of Kindoppa. If we are to believe the information contained in the Ramatīrtham plates of Indrabhaṭṭāraka it has to be surmised that this occupation of Piṣṭapura and Dēvarāṣṭra by the rulers of Vasiṣṭakula was not only resisted by Indrabhaṭṭāraka who after defeating them in many a battle (Anēka caturddanta samara saṃghaṭṭa vijayī) leading his victorious armies himself, penetrated into the heart of Dēvarāṣṭra in his 27th year and reestablished his authority over these regions.

But this success of Indravarma over the Kalingādhipati was only short lived. Soon danger loomed large to the kingdom of Visnukundins from different directions. The kinsman of Indrabhattaraka whom he had banished from his kingdom earlier seems to have started fomenting trouble from outside by inciting neighbouring rulers to invade Visnukundin territories. A distant echo of this we find in the boast recorded by Hastibhoja, the minister of Vākātaka king Harisena in his Ajanta inscription. Even the political successors of Vākātakas in their dominions seem to have attacked Andhra. But the worst attack came from the east. The early Gangas of Kalinga who were just then emerging out as a strong power, seem to have launched an attack on the Visnukundin territories enlisting the support of all the petty rulers, who were earlier defeated by Indrabhattāraka. The jirjingi plates 2 of Indravarma Ganga dated in his 39th year refer to his victory in 'Caturddanta samaras'. This incident is also recorded in greater detail in the Godavari plates of Prithvīmūla dated in the 25th year of Prithvīmula as follows: "avāpta cāturddantasangrāmavijayasya Mitāvarmmanah priyatanayēna sarabhasam Indrabhattārakasamutpātanābhilāsa samudita pramuditāśēsanripatikrita tumula samarādhirūdha Supratīkānēkapābhimukha samada Kumudadviradanipātanādhigatabhuvanatala-vitala-vipula-visuddha yasasā Śrīmad-Indrādhirājēna' etc.4

The identification of Adhirāja Indra has been differently done by different scholars. Dr. Fleet who edited the inscription basing on the palaeography and locality from where the inscriptions came, opined that 'The Adhirā ja Indra' at whose request the grant was made is mentioned as having fought in company with other chiefs who united to overthrow a

^{1.} Arch. Surv. of West. Ind., Vol. IV, p. 124.

^{2.} J.A.H.R.S. Vol. III P. 1.

^{3.} J.B.B.R.A.S. Vol. XVI P. 114.

^{4.} J.B.B.R.A.S. Vol. XIII, P. 117 Text-Lines 15-21.

^{5.} Ibid.

certain 'Indrabhaṭṭāraka' is identical with the Eastern Chalukya king of the name, and brother of Jayasimhā-I. This has been proved to be incorrect by subsequent writers and the entire allegorical references is to the fight between Viṣṇukuṇḍin Indrabhaṭṭāraka and Eastern Gānga king Indravarma, the Kalingādhipati Indrabhaṭṭāraka was completely routed in the battle by that strong confederacy and even seems to have lost his life.

Indrabhaṭṭāraka was not only a great conqueror but also an accomplished monarch. He is said to have taken pleasure in distributing his riches, establishing schools and propogating Vaidika-dharma. The Chikkulla plates describe him as "yadhāvidhi-viniryāpita-ghatikāvāpta-puṇya-saṅcayasya, satata bhūmi - go-kanyā-hiraṇya - pradāna - pratilabdha-puṇya - jīvitōpabhōgasya, parama-māhēsvarasya" etc. Ghaṭika is a Vidyāsthāna and the procedure with regard to the establishment of 'Ghaṭikas' is propounded by Udanka in Sāma Vēda. The early reference to the existence of 'Ghaṭikas' in Telugu country we find only in the Viṣnu-kundin records.

VIKRAMĒNDRAVARMA-II

Indrabhaṭṭāraka was succeeded by his eldest son Vikramēndra. We have a record of this king dated in his 10th regnal year, wherein he has been described as 'priya jyēṣṭa putra' of Indrabhaṭṭāraka who was blessed with the noble qualities required for a king, and well-acquainted with statecraft, even from childhood. (Saisava ēva sakala nṛipaguṇālankṛitasya = samyagadhyā-rōpita sakala rājya bhārah etc.).

With the defeat and death of *Indrabhaṭṭāraka* at the hands of *Indravarma Gānga*, the *Viṣṇukuṇḍin* power suffered a severe setback. Their authority was not recognised in the Godavari and Visakhapatnam districts and naturally the conditions in the state were not quite congenial when *Vikramēndra-II* succeeded to the throne. His first task was to stabilise his position. This task, he seems to have achieved quite well as is indicated by the epithets given to him in the *Pulombūru* plates - 'apratihata śāsanasya'. He seems to have made some efforts at resuscitating the fallen glories but did not achieve any substantial success, in that direction. On the contrary, the kingdom became a prey to the invasions of *Maukhari* kings of *Kanauj* at whose hands the *Viṣṇukuṇḍin* monarch appears to have suffered a defeat. In the *Harha* inscription dated 554 A.D., the *Maukhari* king *Iṣānavarma* claims victory over an *Āndhra nṛipati*, who is none else but the *Viṣṇukuṇḍin* monarch.¹

His Chikkulla inscription is issued from Lendulūruvāsaka. This place has been identified with Dendulūru, a village very near Ellore in West Godavari district. This shifting of his capital from Bezwāda to Lenduluru might have been done by this monarch to facilitate the defence of the country from the depredations of Gāngas and other rulers of eastern regions. Inspite of his set back, Indrabhaṭṭāraka seems to have been undisputed ruler over the regions to the south of Krishna River, as is indicated by his grant of the Rēgonra village

^{1.} Political History of Ancient India. p. 373; see also Corpus. Ins. Ind. Vol. III, p. 230 ff.

to Lord Triyambaka alias Somagirīsvaranātha as a Dēvabhoga. Since his Tuṇḍi plates are dated in his 14th year we can safely presume that he ruled for about fifteen years.

GOVIND AV ARMA

Vikramēndra-II was succeeded by his son Gōvindavarma alias Vikramāsraya. Times needed a strong man, and Gōvindavarma, a reputed soldier that he was, tried his best to maintain the glory of Viṣṇukuṇḍin family. He has been described in very laudable terms aparimita balaparākramasya-paramadhārmikasya-praṇata sakala sāmantasya etc., both in the Pulombūru and Ipur records. The kingdom, as has been mentioned already, became a prey to the attacks from Gāngas of Kalinga, Pallavas of Kānchi, and the rising power of Chālukyas. No wonder if Gōvindavarma had to spend his entire life fighting—anēka samara saṅghaṭṭa vijayinah. He had only succeeded in maintaining the integrity of the kingdom inherited by him and bequeathed the same to his son and successor Mādhavavarma-III.

MADHAVAVARMA-III JANAŚRAYA

Mādhavavarma-III is the last important ruler of this illustrious family. He succeeded to the throne of his father at a pretty early age and had the unique fortune of ruling the kingdom for more than half a century. The Ipur record dated in his 37th year describes him as smriti mati bala satya, dhairya, vīrya vinaya sampannah, sakala mahīmaṇdala manujapati pratipūjita sāsanah, Trivara nagara bhavanagata yuvatī hridaya nandanah, svabhujabala vijita sakala sāmantakula bala vinaya naya niyama satya sampannah - agnistōma sahasryājī hiranya garbha prasūtah, ekādasa asvamēdhāvabhridhāvadhauta jagatkalamasah susthira karma mahārājah etc. while his Pulombūru records further lengthen his prasasti by adding the epithets - dasasata sakala dharanitala narapatih avasita nividha divyah, sarvabhūta pariraksnacuncuh vidvadvijagum vriddha tapasvi janāsraya etc. All these epithets need not necessarily be taken as mere empty boasts as suggested by some. We know that when he ascended the throne Visnukundin power had received severe set back and his authority was confined to Vēngi region only. This is perhaps indicated by his title 'dasasata sakala dharanītala nripati'. Mr. M. Somasekhara Sarma has rightly identified 'dasasata sakala dharanītala' with Vengi country.' Presumably during the early years of his reign Mādhavavarma-III was compelled to stabilise his position at home and that was perhaps the reason why he did not launch an attack on the neighbouring rulers till late in his reign. This was also necessitated by practical considerations. The inter-statal set up just then was not quite congenial for taking up any campaign. In the west the Chālukyas under Pulakēsin-I (540-566 A.D.) and his sons Kīrtivarma (566-590) and Mangalēsa were making their power felt while in the South the Pallavas under Simhavarma and his successor Simhavisnu and Mahendravarma were already at the height of their power, fighting with the Chālukyas for supremacy over Deccan and South India. In Kalinga, the early Gangas with their capitals at Dantapura and Vijaya Kalinganagara under Hasti-

^{1.} Journal of Oriental Research a note on 'Daśasata sakala dharanītala' by Sri M. Somasekhara Sarma.

varma and Indravarma, were busy building up their power, while in the north-west beyond Godavari, the Nalas under Bhāvadatta and Arthapati, made themselves masters of Jaipur-Bastar regions. In the face of such mighty and powerful rivals, Mādhavavarma-III, the prudent ruler that he was, correctly assessed his own strength, and spent his early years well in consolidating his position.

In the later part of his reign he felt himself quite strong to launch an attack against the Gāngas. His Ipur record was issued from a Skandhāvāra or army camp when the king's son Manchannabhaṭṭāraka was also present, while his Pulombūru grant was given when the king was actually crossing the river Godavari with the desire of conquering the Eastern regions. This latter record is dated in his 48th year.

From these inscriptions, it is clear that Mādhavavarma was busy fighting between his 35th and 48th regnal years. Both those records mention the epithets 'Trivaranagara bhavanagata parama yuvatī hridayanandanah', which is suggestive of his marriage with the princess of Trivaranagara. Trivarangara has been identified by some with Tewar, the capital of Kālachuris of Chēdi. The Kālachuris became powerfull after the fall of Vākāṭakas and claimed descent from the Haihaya king Arjuna son of Kritavīrya and ruler of Māhişmati. They became powerful in the second half of sixth century when they are found in occupation of northern Maharashtra, Gujarat and parts of Malwa. They have adopted an era A.D. 248-249-which came to be known as the Kālachuri era. About the close of the 6th century, the Chālukyas of Bādāmi attacked the kingdom of Kālachuris from the south during which period the latter were compelled to move towards the east and settle in Jubbalpore area. Of these early Kālachuris Sankaragaṇa and his son Buddharāja are famous. Sankaragaṇa is said to have acquired royal fortune by the prowess of his arms and is credited with reinstating many kings who lost their thrones. His son Buddharāja was put to flight by Chālukya Mangalēsa (C. 597-610 A.D.).

It is not therefore, very clear with which $K\bar{a}lachuri$ king $M\bar{a}dhavavarma$ entered into marital alliance and so far there is no evidence forthcoming to help us in solving this problem.

Numerous interesting anecdotes are told about Mādhavavarma and his noble qualities of head and heart in the Telugu country. One of the records in the temple of Mallēśwara at Bezwada refers to a king named Mādhavavarma reigning in Saka (year 514, (Śakābhdi sasi sayaka sammite) who sentenced his son to death, to meet the ends of justice on the latter's killing the child of a beggar woman, who eked out her livelihood by selling tamarind (tintrinī jīvini). On seeing this God Mallēśvara was pleased and rained on him a shower of gold and brought back to life the deceased prince and the child of the beggar woman. Thus god Mallēśvara established the fame of king Mādhavavarma in this world. Though

^{1.} S.I.I., Vol. VI. No.

the dynasty to which this Mādhavavarma belonged is not specifically mentioned in the inscriptions, since no other king with the name Madhavavarma, known from any other source, had ruled from Bezwada, it is reasonable to presume that the reference was to the Vișnukundin king Mādhavavarma. Daggupalli Dugganna's Nacikētopakhyāna, a literary work of 15th century records the same story about Mādhavavarma' in greater detail. Besides these, numerous pretty ruling dynasties of a later date (after 12th century) claimed their descent from Mādhavavarma. Of these Mahāmandalēsvara Uggravādi Mēlarasu a subordinate of Kākatīyas who mentions himself to be a descendant of Mādhavavarma is interesting since that seems to indicate the extent to which the fame and authority of Mādhavavarma had spread towards the interior of Telangāna.2

Distant echos of Mādhavavarma's wars with Kalinga rulers we find in the late Telugu literature.3

The contemporary Kalinga rulers of the Ganga family are Hastivarma Rajasimha, the donor of Urlam plates and his successor Indravarma who issued Achyutapuram record of G.E. 87, Santabommili Parlākimidi and Narsingapalli copper plates. The Prasasti of Hastivarma of Urlam plates contains some significant epithets, which seem to throw some light on the affairs of Kalinga during the period under review. He claims for himself the credit of successful conquest and establishing the Ganga Kula after waging many fierce battles. 'Svasidhara parispandhigata sakala Kalingādhirā jyasya and Gāngāmalakula pratistah' etc. If these claims are not mere boasts then Hastivarma must have fought with the neighbouring rulers to establish for himself, the overlordship over 'sakala kalinga'. we have seen earlier the lower Kalinga comprising of Dēvarāṣṭra (modern Visakhapatnam Dt.) and Pistapura, were under Visnukundins while the western regions comprising of Bastar and $J\bar{e}ypur$ areas were under the Nala chiefs. It is reasonable, therefore, to presume that by about 578 A.D. Hastivarma came into conflict with Visnukundins when he made efforts to retrieve Dēvarāstra and that necessitated Mādhavavarma-III, to move with his armies to the eastern region. The fight seems to be a protracted one for more than ten years, but ultimately Mādhavavarma seems to have been successful as we have his record donating lands. in Gudāvāda Visaya which area has been located by Sri B. V. Krishna Rao in the western regions of modern Visakhapatnam District.

But this success of Mādhavavarma proved to be a purely temporary one. When his armies were completely tired out with that protracted Kalinga campaign, he was compelled

^{1.} S. K. Ayyangar, Sources for the History of Vijayanagar. See also Bhārati, Article by Sri M. Somasekhara Sarma.

^{2.} Ep. Ind. Vol. IX, p. 256.

^{3.} Dubagunta Narayanakavi, 'Panchatantram'.

^{4. &#}x27;Kalıngadēśa Charitra', R. Subba Rao, p. 31, E. 1. Vol.

^{5. &#}x27;Kalingadēśa Charitra', R. Subba Rao, p. 35, E. 1, Vol. III, No. 20-127-130.

^{6. &#}x27;Kalingadēśa Charitra', p. 43, JAHRS, Vol. IV, P to I & II.
7. Ind. Ant. Vol. 16, p. 131-134.

to defend his frontiers from the attack of Chālukyas.

It is wellknown that the authentic history of Chālukyas begins with Jayasimhavallabha, the founder of the family. But little is known of him and his son Ranaraga who ruled from Bādāmi. Chālukvans came to be reckoned as a power only from the time of Pulakēśin-I son of Ranaraga. He is said to have performed an Asvamedha sacrifice and built the strong fortress of Vātāpi in 543-4 A.D. This small principality soon developed into a mighty power under his son Kirtivarma. The latter's exploits are recounted in the records of later rulers. Of these, the Mahākūta pillar inscription of Mangalēśa, the younger brother of Kīrtivarma credits him with the conquest of Vānga, Anga, Vattura, Magadha, Mādraka, Kērala, Ganga, Mūsaka, Pāndya, Dramila, Chōla, Alūka and Vaijayanti, while the Aihole inscription of his son Pulakēsin-II, adds Nalas, the Mauryas and the Kadambas to the list. Kīrtivarma died in 578-79 A.D. was succeeded by his brother Mangalesa, who ruled over thirty years. He was a powerful warrior and a great conquerer. We have already seen that he had put an end of the Kālachurīs by driving out Buddharāja and declared himself the unquestioned master of entire western and northern Deccan. But soon dissension rose in the ranks with the revolt headed by his nephew Pulakesin-II, who opposed Mangalesa and killed him after defeating him in battle. Pulakēsin-II proved to be an abler ruler and conqueror. He succeeded in establishing his authority over all his ancestral dominion and celebrated his coronation in 609-10 A.D. Pulakēsin-II was an ambitious monarch and followed a vigorous policy of aggression. His Aihole inscription graphically describes all his achievements. This policy of aggression brought him into conflict with Harsa, who was then trying to push his conquest to the South. In a battle that was fought on the banks of Reva, Harsa was defeated and was compelled to abandon all his designs for territories in Deccan.

To the East of $Mah\bar{a}r\bar{a}stra$ lay the kingdom of $K\bar{o}sala$ and Kalinga. $Pulak\bar{e}sin-II's$ ambition was further kindled with his grand victory over Harsa. He therefore set out to conquer all the kingdoms and to make himself paramount sovereign of the whole of Deccan. He overpowered $K\bar{o}sala$ and Kalinga with ease and turning South West proceeded towards the coast and attacked Pistapura and the island of Kunala.

It was perhaps to defend his frontiers while the *Chālukyan* armies were busy in *Ksōala* and *Kalinga* that *Mādhavarma-III*, crossed Godavari, with his armies in his 48th year. Though he claims complete victory for himself, as indicated by the trend of later events, the *Viṣṇukuṇḍin* power was completely annihilated, and the *Viṣṇukuṇḍin* monarch was perhaps killed in action.

The Aihole inscription of Pulakesin-II graphically describes the battle. Pistapura was reduced to powder, while the waters of Kunala (Kolleru lake area) was coloured with the blood of men killed with many weapons, and the land within it overspread with arrays

of elephants was like the cloud-covered sky in which the red evening-twilight has risen. In this task of conquest of the East, $Pulak\bar{e}sin-II$ was helped by Kubjavisnnu, his brother. The emperor in token of his appreciation of services of his brother gave the newly conquered territories in the east as a gift to Kubjavisnu who started his independent dynasty with $V\bar{e}ngi$ as his capital. This, he must have achieved sometime before 624 A.D. driving out the then ruling dynasty.

The exact period upto which Manchanabhaṭṭāraka the son of Mādhavavarma ruled is rather difficult to fix precisely. Since the Chālukyan conquest of Vēngi and its annexation was not accomplished before 624 A.D., it is reasonable to presume that there was a semblance of Viṣṇukuṇḍin authority over Vēngi Maṇḍala between 610 and 624 A.D. During this period Manchanabhaṭṭāraka must have strived to maintain his hold over his ancestral dominion. However, fortune did not favour him. His own vassals seemed to have tried to take advantage of the disturbed condition by asserting their independence.

If the information supplied by Katlaparru grant of Guṇaga Vijayāditya can be relied upon, then Satyāsraya's younger brother Viṣṇuvardhana destroyed the Durjayas and obtained Vēngi Maṇḍala. The Pamdipāka grant of Chāļukya Bhīma is more specific about these incidents. The Durjayas are said to have occupied Vēngi Viṣaya, presumably ousting their overlords, the Viṣṇukuṇḍins.

Thus ended the glory of Visnukundin family in $V\bar{e}ngi$ country. Nothing is heard of $Manchannabhatt\bar{a}raka$ or his successors till about the 12th and 13th centuries 2 and the country passed under the $Ch\bar{a}lukyas$ of $V\bar{e}ngi$.

Viṣnukuṇḍins were not only great conquerors but also great patrons of literature and art. Learned Brāhmaṇas were encouraged by gift of lands and ghaṭikāsthānas which were established for the propogation of Vaidika studies. We get references to Vedic scholars like Śivasarma of Kauśika Gōtra, a native of Kuṇluru in Karmaraṣṭra (Medikondur in Guntur District?) who is described as 'Veda chatuṣṭaya-samāmnāt-avadat-ananye svakarmānuṣṭana arāya etc., (Polomburu plates line 25-26) and Agnisarma and Īsvarasarma who were said to be 'yama niyama svādhyāya sampannābhyam' etc. which speak highly about the achievements of Brāhmanas and their devotion to Vaidika studies and Karmānuṣṭāna, ordained for them in the Vedas. This, they could follow, because the rulers were also great believers in the efficacy of Sanātanadharma. The rulers not only strived to pursue the dharmas but also patronised those that believed and practised them, thereby earning for themselves the title 'Vidva-dvija, guru, viprā Vṛiddha, Tapasvī Janāśrayah', etc.

They were staunch believers in Brahmanical Hindusim who took delight in performances of Vedic sacrifices like Agnistoma, Vajapēya, Asvamēdha and even Purusa

^{1.} Aihole inscription of Pulakēšin-II, V-26-28, Ep. Ind Vol., IV, P. 11.

^{2.} Bharathi M. S. Sarma.

mēdha. They also observed the Mahādānas which are enumerated in detail in their records. They were themselves great believers in Vaidika Dharma and took pride in styling themselves as 'susthira karma mahārā jah'.

The family of Viṣṇukuṇḍins appears to be worshippers of Śiva. This is borne out by their records which invariably start with the salutations to Śiva-the Lord of Śrīparvata-i.e. Mallikārjuna of Śrīsailam. Their partiality towards Śiva is also made clear from the grant made by Vikramēndra Varma in favour of Triambaka alias Sōmagirīsvaranātha Śiva on the banks of Kṛiṣṇa. This need not necessarily, be construed that they were sectarian in their outlook. They seem to have allowed absolute freedom for the followers of other creeds particularly, Buddhism.

Andhra during the early centuries of Christian era. It was favoured by the Śātavāhanas, who built numerous edifices to the religion of Gautama at Dhānyakaṭaka (modern Amarāvati near Guntur) and at Vijayapuri (modern Nāgārjunakoṇḍa). Ikṣvākus, the political successors of Śātavāhanās in Śrīparvata area also continued the high traditions of their erstwhile overlords renovating and enriching Buddhist institutions at Vijayapuri, their capital. Buddhism thrived and flourished in Andhra because of their active patronage. Though the successors of Ikṣvākus were not Buddhists, they did not seem to have done anything which endangered the cause of Buddhism. The same policy seems to have been followed by Viṣṇukuṇḍins also. One of the stone inscriptions found at Amarāvati refers to a certain Simhavarma, ruler of Kānchi, his visit to Dhānyakataka, Buddhist monastery, when he was ordained as a Buddhist.

This king is said to have installed an image of Buddha studded with precious stones in the Vihāra. This visit of a Pallava king to the monastery at Dhānyakaṭaka took place during the Viṣṇukuṇdin rule. At a slightly later period in the middle of 7th Century, Huen Tsang not only visited Dhānyakaṭaka but stayed there in that Vihāra for a sufficiently long period.

Viṣṇukuṇḍin period was also famous, as has been alluded to earlier, for their rock cut architecture. The cave temples in and around Bezwada, the Akkanna Mādanna group in the Indrakīla hill, the Śiva Tāṇḍava, Durga and other group at Mogalrā japuram and even the rock cut cave of Uṇḍavalli owe their existence to the helping hand of Viṣṇukuṇḍin monarchs.

IPUR PLATES OF GÖVINDAVARMA'S SON MADHAVAVARMA

Epigraphia Indica Vol. XVII, p. 334 Prof. E. Hultzsch, Ph.D.

Owner: Brindavanam Gopalacharlu, Ipur, Tenali Taluk, Guntur District.

Measurement: $6\frac{3}{4}'' \times 1\frac{3}{4}''$

Seal: Divided into 2 halves, lower part contains the legend "Śrī Mādhavavarma" and the the other half seems to contain a figure of Lakshmi or a Svastika on a pedestal, flanked by two lampstands (it looks more like a trident or 'Nandipāda' than a Svastikā or seated Lakshmi).

The language particularly in the dating portion betrays *Prakrit* influences (Saptatrise: gimha or grīṣma etc.)

Subject matter of the grant: Registering the gift of a village of Vilembali in the Guddādī-vishaya to the Brāhmaṇa Agnisarma of Vatsa gōtra for the increase of the prosperity of the family.

(Asmadvamsa vibhūtyartham).

Donor: ..bhagavacchrīparvvatasvāmipādānuddhyātasya Viṣṇukuṇḍināmāparimitabalaparākramasya paramadhārmmikasya pranatasākalasāmantasyā-nēka gōhiraṇya bhūmi pradānasya mahārājasya Śrī Gōvindavarmmaṇah putrah srutimatibalasatvadhairyyavīryyavinayasampannah sakalamahīmaṇḍa (la) ma (nu) japati (pra) tipūjitasāsanah
Trivaranagarabhavangatayuvatihṛidayanandanah sva (na) yabalamvijitasakalasāmantātulabala-vinaya-naya-niyama satva sampannah sakalajagadavanipatipratipūjitāśāsanah agniṣṭōmasahasrayājī hi(ra) ṇyagarbbhaprasūtah ēkādasāsvamēdhāvabhruthāvādhūtajagatkalmaṣaḥ susthirakarmma (-) mahārājasrī Mādhavavarmma.....

Place of issue: Vijayaskandhāvārāt

Kudavāda Vāsaka in Gudda Visaya

Date of issue: 37th year of the reign 15th day of the 7th fortnight of grīsma.

 $\overline{A}j\widetilde{n}apati$ or the executor of the grant is the king's dear son Manchaannabhattaraka.

General Remarks:

The alphabet is of an earlier type than that of Rāmatīrtham and Chikkulla plates,

APPENDIX I - DETAILS OF THE COPPER PLATE GRANTS OF VISNUKUNDIN KINGS

IPUR PLATES OF MADHAVAVARMA-II

Epigraphia Indica, Vol. XVII, p. 337 Prof. E. Hultzsch, Ph. D.

Owner: Brindavanam Gopalacharlu, Ipur, Tenali Taluk, Guntur District.

Size of the Plates: $7'' \times 1\frac{1}{2}''$ (three plates)

Weight: 30 tolas.

Seal: Contains the legend Śrī Mādhavavarma.

The language of the record is Sankrit but Prakrit form of some words like vasa (for varşa) have been retained.

Subject of the grant: Grant of the village, the name of which is uncertain to Agnisarma and Indrasarma etc.

Donor: ēkādasāsvamēdhāvabhruthāvadhauta-jagatkalma (ṣa) syāgnistōmasahasrayājinōnēka-sāmantamakuṭamaṇikhacitacaraṇayugaļa - kamalasya mahārājasya Śrī Mādhava-varmmaṇah priyanaptā kṣattriyāvaskandapra (vartti) tāpratimavi (khyā) taparākra-masya Śrī Dēvavarmmaṇah priyaputtras-Trikūṭamalayādhipatirnnayavinaya-satvasam-pannō bhagavacchrīparvvatasvāmipādānuddhyātō Viṣṇu — Śrī (M) ādha (vava)rmma.

Donee: Illegible.

Date: Sam 40+7 Va. P. 7 Di-7

General: The inscription is badly worn out and the letters defaced. The extant portions of the alphabet resemble the script of the British Museum plates of *Chārudēvi*. (Epigraphia Indica Volume VIII, Page 143) and appear to be earlier than that of the *Ipur* plates of *Mādhavavarma*, son of *Gōvindavarma*.

Trikūṭa Malaya: Has been understood by Prof. Hultzsch as the name of the mountain Trikūta and Malaya—mountains in Bombay and Western Ghats respectively.

Sri B. V. Krishna Rao has identified this $Trik\bar{u}$ ta Malaya with $K\bar{o}$ tappakonda in Narasaraopet Taluk of Guntur District.

RAMATIRTHAM PLATES OF INDRAVARMA

Epigraphia Indica, Vol. XII, p. 133. Prof. E. Hultzsch, Ph.D.

Owners: A family of pandits of Rameti near Vijayanagaram in Visakhapatnam Dt.

Measurements of plates: $8\frac{1}{4}$ " × 2" (3 in number).

Seal: Oval in shape, measures $1\frac{1}{2}'' \times 1\frac{3}{6}''$ in diameter and contains a representation of an advancing lion (facing the proper right) with its left forepaw raised, neck erect, mouth wide open, and the tail raised above the back so as to end in a loop.

The language of the record is Śanskrit-prose with four verses of Vyāsa and Manu quoted at the end.

Subject: The inscription records that the king (rājan) Indravarma granted to a brāhmaņa the village of Pēruvāḍaka in the Palakirāṣṭra - Palakirāṣṭra - Pēruvāḍakagrāma.

Place of issue: Puraņi Sangamēvāsaka Puraņisamgamavāsakāt'.

Donor:bhagacchrīparvvatasvāmi padānuddhyāta (h) sakalamahīmaṇḍalāvanatasāmantama-kūṭamaṇikiraṇāvalīdhacharaṇayugō vikhyātayasah srīmanmahārāja Mādhavavarma (1) tasyorjjitasrīviṣṇukuṇḍipārtthivōditōditānvayatilakasamudbhūtaikadasāsvamēdhāvabhṛitāvadhauta-jagatkalmaṣakratusahasray(ā) jinah snānapuṇyōdakapavitrīkṛita sirasah sratputrō matrīpitṛipādānudhyatōbhayavaṁsātmajālaṅkārabhūtah srīmān - Vikkramēndrākhya rājāsyapi chānēka-chaturddantasamarasatasahasrasaṅghattavijayī priyasūnuh chaturudadhinripatimakuṭamaṇimayukhavich-chhuritapādāmburuhah paramamāhēsvarah srīma-Nindravarmmākhya rāja....

Donee: "Maṇdirasagōtrāya Nagnasarmmaṇe Taittirīyakabrāhmaṇayāchandratārakamagra-harikṛityasarvakarabharavipramukuto...."

Date of the grant: $mat\bar{o}r\bar{a}jyak(\bar{a})lah$ Varssanindravarmmaṇah saptavimsatikam $jyestham\bar{a}sa$ suklapaksasaptamyām datto grāmam".

General: The alphabet resembles that of 'Chikkulla plates of Vikramadēva Varma' (Ep. Ind. Vol. IV, No. 25).

CHIKKULLA PLATES OF VIKRAMENDRAVARMA-II

Epigrahia Indica, Vol. IV. p. 193.

Prof. F. Kielhorn, Ph. D, LL.D., C.I.E., Gottingen.

Owner: Pindi Nammayya of Uppargudem, a hamlet of Amalapuram in Golugonda taluk of the Vizagapatam District, who got this while excavating the earth at the Atikavani tank in the Chikkulla agrahāra of the Tuni division of the Godavari. These were later secured by late Jayanti Ramayya Pantulu.

Measurements of plates: $7\frac{1}{8}'' \times 2\frac{1}{4}''$ (five plates)

Seal: Circular, 13/4" in diameter, bears a lion with a raised right forepaw opened mouth and appearently double tail.

The characters belong to the southern class of alphabets and closely resemble those of the Godavari plates of $R\bar{a}ja\ Prithv\bar{\imath}m\bar{u}la$ (J.B.A.S. Vol. XVI, p. 116 ff.). The language is Sankrit mixed with Prakrit words.

Subject: Records the gift of village of Regonram south-east of the village of Ravireva on the bank of Krishnapenna in the Natripāṭi Viṣaya to the Sōmagirīsvaranātha (temple) of Tryambaka (Śiva).

Place of issue: Vijaya hendulūruvāsakāt (Dendulūru near Eluru).

Donar:Śrīparvvataswāmi-padānuddhyātō Visnuknndināmm = ēkādas-āsvamēdha āvabhritā-vadhauta-jagadka (tka) lmasasya kratu-sahasrayājina (h) sarvvamēdh-āvāptasarvvabhūta-svārājyasya bahusuvarnna - paundarīka - purusamēdha - vājapēya-yūdhya (?)-sōdaśi-rājasūya-prādhirājya-pr (ā)jāpaty-ā-dy-anēka-vividha-prithu-guru-varasata-sahasra-yājina (h) kratuvar-ānusthatādhisthā-pratisthita-paramēsthitvasya mahārājasya sakala-jaganmandala-vimala-guru-pri (pri) thu-ksitipati-makutamani-ga(na) (n)ikar - āvanata - pādayugalasya Mādhavavarmana (h) pranaptā ViśnukundiVākāta-vamsa-dvay - ālankrita - janmanah sri-Vikramēndravarmmana (h) priyanaptā spu (sphu) ran-nisita-nistrimsa-prabh-āvabhāvi (si)t-āsēṣa-jaganmaṇda-lādhistti (shthi) tasya bhr(ū) bhangakara-vinirdhūta - samagra - dāyādasya anēka-chaturddantasamara - sanghatta - dvirada - gana - vipula - vijayasya yathāvidhi-viniryyāpita-ghatikāvāpta-punya - samchayasya satata-bh (ū) mi-gō-kanyā-hiranya - pradāna-pratilabdhapunya - jīvit-ōpabhōgasya parama (mā) hēśvarasya mahār (ā) jasya śrī-Indrabhaṭṭārakavarmmana (h) priya (jyē) stha-putrō garista (shthah) saisava ēva sakala-nripagunālamkritasya samyagadhy (ā) ropita-sakala-rajyabhāra (h) paramamahēsvaro maha $r\bar{a}ja(h)$ $sr\bar{i}(sr\bar{i})$ $m\bar{a}n = V\bar{i}kram\bar{e}ndravarmm\bar{a}$ $\bar{e}vam = \bar{a}j\tilde{n}apayati...$

Date of issue: Vijayarajya Samvatsarambul 10, Māsapakhan 8, gimha 5.

Prof. Hultzch assigns the record to the 8th Century A. D.

PULOMBÜRU PLATES OF MADHAVAVARMA

R. Subbarao, J. A. H. R. S. Volume VI, Page 17.

Owner: Pendyala Subrahmanya Sastry of Pithapuram discovered these along with the grant of Jayasimha-I, the Eastern Chālukyan ruler at Polamūru beside the river

Tulyabhāga in Ramachandrapuram Taluk of East Godavari Dist.

Size: Plates (4) $6\frac{1}{2}'' \times 2\frac{1}{2}''$.

Seal: Missing.

Subject: Mahārāja Mādhavavarma alias Janāśraya granted the village Polombūru on the banks of Daliyavavi as well as four Nivartanas of land in Mayindavātika a in Guddavādi Visaya to Vēdic scholar Sivasarmā native of Kunrūru in Kammarāstra, on the occasion of lunar eclipse, after crossing River Godāvari with the desire of conquering the Eastern Region.

....Bhagavat Śrīparvatasvāmi pādānudhyātasya Visnukundinām apratihata śāsa-Donor: nasya svapratāpopanata sāmanta manujapati mandalasya virahitaripusadvargasya vidhīmdupavitratrivarggasya vibudhapati sāddhya sara vīra vibhava bala parākramasya Śrī Vikramahēndrasya sūnō anēka samara sanghatta vijayinah paranarapati makuta manimayūkhāvadhūta ca(ra)nayugalasya vikramāsrayasya Śrī Gōvindavarmanah priyatanayah atula (ba) la parākrama yasōdāna vinaya sampannō dasasata sakala dharanītala narapatir avasita vividhadivyas Trivaranagarabhavanagataparamayuvatījana viharanaratir ananya nripati sādhārana dāna māna dayā dharma dhriti mati ksānti kānti sauryaudāryya gāmbhīryya prabhrityanēkaguna sampajjanita rayasamutthita bhūmandala vyāpi vipulayasōh kratu sāhasrayāji hiranyagarbhapprasūtah ēkādasāsvamēdhāvabhritha snānavigatajagadēnaskah sarvabhūta pariraksana cuncūh vidvaddvija guru vriddha tapasvi Janāsrayō Māharājah Śrī Madhavavarmā apica niyamaūsanasam satvam kaisavam kānti maindavīm udvahannurubhāh bhāti vikramā dāpta bhūribhūh asyasaumahītala nripati bhāskarah Paramabrahmanyō Mātāpiṭṛ pādānudhyātah Janāsraya Mahārājah.

... Vēdavēdangavidō Rudrasarammanō napptrē svapituradhikagunādhyāsita tanōh Donees: Dāmasarmmanah putrāya Śivasarmmanē Gautamasagotraya Kammarāstra Kuņrūra vāstavvāva taittirika sabrahmacārinē Vēdacatustayā samāmnātāvadātānanāya svakarmānusthānaparāya phālgunya paurnamāsyām somarāhusagraha nimittē Janāsraya dattyām.

APPENDIX 11

HIRANYAGARBHA

Mentioned in the scriptural list of mahādānas ' (great gifts), the Hiraṇyagarbha ritual is considered as a very meritorious rite by the performence of which even sins like the mahāpātakas could be got absolved, - (Matsya Purāṇa, Chapt. 274). The term Hiraṇyagarbha actually refers to Brahmā, and the origin of this Mahādāna is connected with the Vaidika mantra:

हिरण्यगर्भः समवर्ततां मृतस्य जातः पतिरेक आसीत्। (RG. X 121, 1-10.)

Detailed descriptions of the rite are available in *Matsya* (Chapt- 275) and *Linga Purāṇas* (Chapt. II 29). The ceremony is to be performed in a *maṇḍapa* specially erected for the purpose, as is also done in the case of other *maḥādānas*.²

The main part of this $mah\bar{a}d\bar{a}na$ includes the setting of golden kunda (basin), 72 angulas in height and 48 angulas in width, of the shape of a muraja (tabor) resembling to the interior of an eight-petalled golden lotus. This object, symbolising the Hiranyagarbha (golden womb) should be placed over a heap of sesame along with other articles like $\bar{a}jya$, $k\bar{s}\bar{\imath}ra$, etc.

द्वासप्तत्यङ्गुरुन्छ्यहेमपङ्कजगर्भवत् । त्रिभागहीनं विस्तारमाज्यक्षीराभिपूरितम् ॥ (Matsya, Chapt. 275)

कनकार्वतिला नागा दासीरथ महीगृहा:

कन्या च किपला धेनुर्महादानानि वै दश।।

(Agni Chapt, 209, 23-24)

It cannot be definitely said that how many of these $mah\bar{a}d\bar{a}nas$, in their specific form are of Vaidika association, but certainly they have in certain cases their origin in pre-christian era as indicated by certain inscriptions. With the beginning of Pauranika Hinduism the $mah\bar{a}d\bar{a}nas$, probably became more popular amongst the kings.

^{1.} Certain types of expensive donation-ceremonies which are specified as mahādānas include 16 kinds of gifts (vide Matsya Purāna, Chapt. 294-289, Agni. Chapt. 210, and Linga Purāna, II Chapt. 28 ff.). They are Tulāpuruṣa Hiranyagarbha, Brahmānda, Kalpavṛikṣa, Gōsahasra, Kāmadhēnu, Hiranyaśvaratha (or Aśvaratha); Hēmahastiratha (or Hastiratha), Panchalāngala, Dharādāna (or Haimadharādāna), Viśvachakra, Kalpalata (or Mahākalpa). Saptasāgara, Ratnadhēnu, Mahābhūtaghaṭa. An earlier list in Agni Purāna, however refers to only 10 mahādānas.

^{2.} Such mandapas can be of different sizes with four doors and a Vēdi containing nine or five kundas (sacrificial pits).

Thereafter the golden basin with the chanting of the mantras is identified with the Hiranyagarbha i.e. the creator. Matsya Purāna gives the following stuti in this connection.

> नमो हिरण्यगर्भाय हिरण्यकवचाय च । सप्तलोकसराध्यक्ष्यजगद्धात्रे नमो नमः॥ भूलोकप्रमुखा देवास्तवगर्भे व्यवस्थिताः । ब्रह्मादयस्तथा देवा नमस्ते विश्वधारिणे ॥ नमस्ते अवनाधार! नमस्ते अवनाश्रय! नमो हिरण्यगर्भाय गर्भे यस्य पितामह: ॥ यतस्त्वमेव भूतात्मा भूते भूते व्यवस्थितः। तस्मा न्मामुद्धराशेषदुःखसंसारसागरात् ॥ (Matsya, Chapt. 295)

The performer then should enter the golden basin and sit there facing north, carrying in his hand images of Dharmarāja and Brahma for five breaths. He should place his head between his knees 1

> जानुमध्ये शिरः कृत्वातिष्ठेत श्वासपश्चकम् ॥ (Matsya, Chapt. 275)

Next the Purohita chants the mantras of the first four samskaras viz., Garbhadana, Pumsavana and Simantonnayana, all suggesting a symbolic rebirth. The donor then with the permission of the Guru or Purohita comes out of the golden basin to the accompaniment of auspicious music.

Matsva Purāna says

गर्भाधानं प्संवनं सीमन्तोन्नयनं तथा। कुर्य्युहिरण्यगर्भस्य ततस्ते द्विजपुङ्गव॥ गीतमङ्गलघोषेण गुरुरुतथापयेत् ततः । जातकम्मीदिकाः कुर्यात् क्रियाः षोडश चापराः ॥ (Chapt. 275)

The remaining twelve samskaras are to be performed symbolically by the donor while chanting the hymns to Hiranyagarbha ("formerly I was born from my mother but only as a mortal, now being born of you, I shall assume a divine body"):

> मात्राहं जनितः पृथ्वं मर्त्यधर्मा सरोत्तम । त्वद्वभसम्भवादेष दिव्यदेहो भवाम्यहम् ॥

> > (Matsya Chapt. 275)

^{1.} This resembles the position of the infant in mother's womb. The purpose of this ceremony is to symbolise a new (pure and divine) birth.

After this, the donor takes a ceremonial bath (Avabhritha) sitting on a golden seat and distributes the golden vessel among the Guru and other priests.

SŌDAŚIN

Sōdasin is one of the seven forms of $S\bar{o}ma$ sacrifice according to $S\bar{u}tras$. Persons desirous to attain vigour (prowess) perform this sacrifice (Ap. XIV. 1.2). In some respects it is more elaborate than Ukthya, another $S\bar{o}ma$ sacrifice. In it a $st\bar{o}tra$ for $S\bar{o}dasin$ cup, made from Khadira wood, sung about the sunset, after the adhvaryu gives a piece of gold to $S\bar{a}ma$ -singer. Purchase of $S\bar{o}ma$ is done in exchange for a short-sized cow with red ears. A goat is then slaughtered as sacrifice to Indra in addition to others in this ritual. A reddish-brown horse or a female mule is generally prescribed as daksina.

AŚVAMĒDHA

This celebrated traditional sacrifice has a very ancient, though obscure origin. It finds mention in $Rig\ V\bar{e}da$ wherein details (Hymns No. 162-163 in the 1 maṇḍala of $Rig\ V\bar{e}da$) about placing of the goat in front of the horse (Rig. 162-2-3 and 163-12), decoration of the sacrificial animal smearing it with $svaru\ (Rig$. I 162-9), and its perambulations round the fire (Rig. I. 162-4) covering the body of the dead horse with a golden mantle (Rig. I, 162, 16), description of Rig in which the flesh of the sacrificed horse was cooked (Rig. I, 162, 13) and the offering of horse's flesh Rig in Rig in

In later Vedic age, however, with the growing ritualism this rite also seems to have gained popularity. At one place the Tait. Br. (III. 8.9.) identified the Asvamēdha with the kingdom or nation (राष्ट्रं वा अश्वमेश:)-and says प्रा वा एष सिच्यते योऽवलोऽश्वमेशेन यजते यदमित्रा अश्वं विन्देरन् हन्येतास्य यज्ञ: (he, who is weak, offers an Asvamēdha indeed is thrown away (split away). If the enemies (of the sacrificer) were to secure the horse, the sacrifice would be destroyed.)

This ritual should be performed by a Sārvabhauma (paramount sovereign) or by a crowned king who is not a Sārvabhauma (Lāṭ. IX, 10, 17). According to Āśv. X, 6, I, Ap. XXI, 1, one who desires to secure all the objects, to win all the victories and to attain all prosperity may perform the Aśvamēdha. सर्वान कामानाप्स्यन सर्वा विजितीविजिगीषमाणः सर्वा व्युष्टीव्यिशीष्यञ्चश्वमेधेन यजेत । Mahābhārata says that Aśvamēdha purifies a person of all sins 'अश्वमेधो हि राजेन्द्र पावनः सर्वपापमनाम्।' (Chapt. 71, 16).

Asvamēdha should begin on the 8th or 9th day of Sukla Pakṣa of Phālguṇa or on same days of $Jy\bar{e}siha$ or $\bar{A}s\bar{a}dha$ according to certain text ($K\bar{a}t$. XX, 1, 2-3 $L\bar{a}t$. IX, 9, 6-7). But $\bar{A}p$, prescribes the full moon day of Chaitra (XX, 1-4) as the day of its commencement. Bramaudana (rice) from four vessels, four anjalis and four handfuls cooked and then smeared with ghee are given to four principal priests with one thousand cows each and

gold weighing one hundred berries ($K\bar{a}t$. XX 1-4-6, $L\bar{a}t$. 9.8). The istis are performed for Agni-Mūrdhanvan and $P\bar{u}san$ ($\bar{A}sv$. X 6.2-5 $K\bar{a}t$. XX. 1.25). The yajamāna cuts off his hair, pares his nails, brushes his teeth, bathes and wears new $c\bar{v}varas$ and a gold ornament (niska) and observe silene (Tait. $Br\bar{a}$. III 8,) (Ap. XX.4.9.14). His four queens beautifully adorned and wearing (niskas) come near the king; the crowned (principal) queen with princesses, the second one ($V\bar{a}v\bar{a}t\bar{a}$, the favourite queen) with daughters of Ksatriyas, the third (Parivrikti, discarded queen), with daughters of $s\bar{u}tas$ and village headmen and the fourth ($P\bar{a}t\bar{a}gali$, of low origin) with daughters of Ksattris (Chamberlains) and Sangrahitris. Entering the fire-hall, the yajamāna takes his seat to the West of $g\bar{u}rhapatya$ with his face to north.

The Horse (Sat. Br. XIII 4.2-4, Kat. XX 1.29-35 Lat. IX. 9-4) should be all white with dark circular spots and of a great speed or should be with front part of the body as dark and remaining part as white or it may have a tuft of dark-blue hair.

Four principal priests standing in four directions each (from the east), respectively, surrounded by a hundred princes, by a hundred ugras who are not kings, by sūtas and village headmen and by chamberlains and Sangrahitris, sprinkle sacred water on the horse (Ap. XX 4 Sat. 1. 31). A dog with four eyes (two natural and two depressions above eyes) is killed by a man of ayogava caste or by a voluptuary with the pestle of Śrīdharaka wood. Then the horse is made to enter the waters and the corpse of the dog is made to float under it with a loop of reeds (Ap. XX 3.6-13 Kat. XX 1.38 PP. Sat. XIV 1.30-34). The horse is brought near the fire and offerings are made thereon till the water ceases to drip down from its body (Kāt. XX. 2.3.5). A girdle of munja grass or darbhas, 12 or 13 aratnis long and smeared with ajya, that remains after being poured over the brahmundana, is invoked with the mantra-imām agribhnam rasanām ritasya' (Tait. S. IV. I. 2.1., Vā j. S. 22, 22) and the horse is bounded with it after taking the permission of the brahma priest. Subsequent to the sprinkling of water on the horse and repetition in its right ear several appellations for a horse by the performer, it is let off to roam over in the company of 400 guards with mantra 'O gods, the guardians of quarters protect this horse, (Vā i. S. 19 and Taitt. S. VII. 1. 12. 1). During the period of one year the horse is allowed not to go back and is prevented from associating with mares or plunging into water (Kat. XX 2, 12-13.). Each day during the absence of the horse three istis are affered to Savitri in morning, mid-day and evening under three different names, respectively, Satyaprasava, Prasavitri, Asavitri $(\bar{A} \le v. \times 6-8, L\bar{a}t. \times 10, K\bar{a}t. \times 2.6)$. When the prayāja offerings are made, a brāhmana (other than the priests) with a Vina recites three laudatory githas composed by himself in the honour of the king stating—"you denoted this, performed such and such sacrifice and prepared food for distribution." This is done thrice a day after each isti to Sāvitri (Sat. Br. XIII, 4. 2. 8. 14, Taitt. Br. III 9. 14). A ksatriya lute player also chanted three laudatory verses referring to the battles fought and victories achieved by the sacrificer (Sat. Br. XIII, 1. 5. 6, Ap. XX 6. 14).

For a year every day after the *iṣṭi* to $S\bar{a}vitri$ is finished, the $h\bar{o}tri$ sitting on a golden cushion to the south of $\bar{a}havan\bar{\imath}ya$ fire recites to the crowned king surrounded by his sons and ministers the narrative, called Pariplava (revolving legends). At the beginning of Pariplava the hotri summons the adhvaryu and he sitting on golden seat then responds with 'hotr' (Asv. X. 6-10-13). Others attending this part of the ceremonial besides the priests occupying cushions or boards include bands of singers holding lutes who sing the good deeds of the king and his ancestors (Ap. XX 31-2).

During the period of the ceremony the adhvaryu becomes the king with the declaration of the performer '0 brāhmaṇas and nobles this adhvaryu is your king, whatever honour you (usually pay to me) should be paid to him. May whatever he does he regarded as done by me $(\bar{A} \pm v. X. 7, 1-10)$. Each day for a year in $\bar{a} havan\bar{v}$ fire four oblations are made in the evening (Kat. XX. 3. 4). (Ap. XX. 6. 5, Kat. XX. 27) Fortynine hōmas called Prakramas are to be done in the $dak \pm in\bar{a}$ fire on the first day commencing with \bar{a} falter that $(V\bar{a}j, 5. XXII-7-5)$. During this entire period the sacrificer has to keep observances as in $R\bar{a}jas\bar{u}$ (Lāt. IX 9. 14) and huge fees are to be paid to hotṛi, adhvaryu and singers (Lat. XI. 9. 12-13 and Kat. XX. 3. 7)

With the return of the horse after a year when it is brought to a stable, the sacrificer is to undergo a $d\bar{\imath}k\bar{\imath}a$ (initiation). There are $12\ d\bar{\imath}k\bar{\imath}as$, $12\ upasads$ and $3\ sutya$ ($S\bar{o}ma$, pressing) days ($Sat.\ Br.\ XIII\ 4.\ 4.\ 3,\ \bar{A}\dot{s}v.\ X.\ 8.\ 1,\ L\bar{a}t.\ IX.\ 9.\ 17$). When the $d\bar{\imath}k\bar{\imath}a$ is over, the yajamāna is sung as on par with gods and on the pressing days, at the time of avabhrithaudayan $\bar{\imath}ya$ isti the anubandhya and the $udv\bar{\imath}san\bar{\imath}ya$ he is spoken as on a par with Prajapati

विसृष्टवाची यजमाने सम्प्रेष्यति वीणागणिकनोदैवरियं यजमानं संगायतेति । एवं सदौपवसथात् । प्रजापितना सुत्यास्तवभृधोदयनी यान्वन्ध्योदवसानीयास्विति ।

 $(\bar{A}p. XX 7. 14-16)$

There are 21 $y\bar{u}pas$ (stakes) each with a height of 21 aratnis (cubits) of different trees, some of them being Rajjudala (central $y\bar{u}pa$), pine, Bilva, Khadira and Palāsa (Tait. Br. III, 8, 9. Sat. Br. XIII. 4. 4. 5, $\bar{A}p$. XX 9. 6. 8, $K\bar{a}t$. XX. 4-16-20). Large number of the animals tied at all these stakes are slaughtered. $V\bar{a}j$. S. gives a list of 100 animals, out of which

^{1.} Pariplava consists of several cycles of 10 days covering the whole year, in each cycle certain prescribed texts are recited one after the other in an order, and this continues for the whole year. The following gives the idea of Pariplava recital:

प्रथमेऽहिन मनुवैवस्वतस्तस्य मनुष्या विशस्त इम आसत इति गृहमेधिन उपसमानीताः स्युस्तानुपत्यृचो वेदः सोऽयिमिति सूक्तं निगदेत्। द्वितीयेऽहिन यमो वैवस्वतस्तस्य पितरो विशस्त इम आसत इति स्थिवरा उपसमानीताः स्युस्तानुपिद्शिति यज्ञुवैदो वेदः सोयिमत्यनुवाकं निगदेत्।

those from Kapinjalala onwards (Vāi. S. XXIV. 20 FP) are let off after carrying fire around them (Kāt. XX 69 Ap. XX 17. 5). The horse to be sacrificed is yoked along with three horses to a ratha, and the adhvaryu and yajamāna who occupy it take it to a lake or water reservoir and push the horse inside the water (Kāt. XX 5. 11-14). On its return to yajña-bhūmi it is anointed with clarified butter, respectively on its front, middle and hind part by the crowned, favourite and discarded queens, who also respectively put 101 golden beads on the head, mane and tail with bhuh, bhuvah, svah (अञ्चरमानान्मणीसीवर्णानेकशतमेकशतं केशपुच्छेषु आवयन्ति भूभुव: स्विति [Kat 23-8] Commentrator adds भूतितमिह्षी अश्वस्य शिरोरोमसु भुव इति वावाता प्रीवारोमसु स्वितिपरिश्वता पुच्छरोमसुः'] They give remnants of last night's offering to the horse (Vag. S. XXIII 8). Near the yūpa certain ceremonial dialogue take place between hotr and Brāhmaṇa priest. The horse is praised repeatedly.

SACRIFICE OF THE HORSE

A piece of cloth is spread over the grass on which are placed a mantle and piece of gold and finally thereon is kept the body of the sacrificed horse. The queens go around thrice the dead body of the horse from left to right with 'ganānāmtva', thrice from right to left with 'priyaṇāmtvā' and again thrice from left with nidhīnāmtva. They fan the dead horse with their garments while braiding their hairs of right side, loosening the hairs of the left and hit their left thighs with their right hand. The crowned queen unites with the dead horse by lying along its side, and both are covered with mantle already referred to. Thereafter, according to (Kāt. XX. 6. 18) obscene abusive-dialogue takes place between the queens and four principal priests with chamberlains and according to Asva (X. 8. 10. 13) between the crowned queen and $h\bar{o}tr$, and the brahma priest and favourite queen also indulge in a similar dialogue. The attendant princesses raise the queen from near the horse with "dadhikravnno". The horse is cut up with golden, silver and iron needles by three queens respectively ($V\bar{a}^i$. S. XXIII, 33-38). They take out the fat of the horse. The blood of the horse is cooked and offered at the end of other offerings to Svistakrit. Prior to the offering of the animal's meat for Prajāpati, there is theological dialogue (brahmōdya) between priests and sadas.

Offerings of vapa of all the slaughtered animals are made to different dieties of whom the Prajāpati is the last. Thereafter the king sits on a lion or tiger skin and a piece of gold is placed on his head (Rig. I. 90. I) and over his head is spread a bull's hide. He is sprinkled with the remaining part (samsrāva) of the offerings called as mahiman. Offerings are also made to all the seasons and months. The final purificatory bath by the sacrificer is performed on the third pressing day. At the end of avabhritha iṣṭi an offering (3 according to Ap. XX. 22. 6) is made on the head of a bald headed man suffering from white-leprosy with yellowish eye balls, and prominent teeth with the words to Jumbakāyasvāhā. (Vāj. S. XXV. 9). He should belong to Atri-gōtra and should enter-

such deep water that it should reach his mouth, according to Kāt. XX 8. 16 San. XXI. 18 18 and Sat. XIV. 5. 4). The āhuti to Jumbaka (Varuṇa), is the last in Asvamēdha (Taitt. Br. III 9. 5). This man is given 100 cows and cart yoked with bulls. After the yajamāna comes out of the waters, that water is considered as the purest and persons guilty of grave sins (mahāpātakas) like the muder of a brāhmaṇa become purified by taking a dip in it without necessary penance.

IN HISTORICAL TIMES

In history in the present state of our knowledge Pushyamitra of the Sunga dynasty is known to us as the earliest performer of Asvamēdha. The subsequent performers are the Andhra-Śātavāhanas (Nānaghat Inscription), the Bharasivas (performed 10 horse-sacrifices), King Sīlavarma (4th Cent. A.D.) of Varṣagaṇa gōtra, (celebrated four Asvamēdhas), Ikṣvākus and Viṣṇukuṇḍins, Pallavas, Kadambas, Vākāṭakas, Guptas (Samudragupta and Kumāragupta) and Chālukyan king Pulakēsin (Ins. of A.D. 757 refers). The most keen performer of this great Vaidika sacrifice was probably king Jayasingh (Sawāī) of Jaipur in 18th century.

PURUSAM EDHA

Puruṣamēdha is a kind of Sōma sacrifice and it is to be completed in five days. According to Sat. Bra., however, it may be extended to forty days. The performers of Puruṣamēdha can only be either a Brāhmaṇa or a Kṣatriya (ब्राह्मणो राजन्यो वा यजेत्। Āp. Sraut. XX, 24. 2). The procedure of Puruṣamēdha is said to be similar to that of Aṣvamēdha पुरुषमेथोऽश्वमेथवत्। (Vait. Śr. VII. 37. 10). The sacrifice comprises of 23 dīkṣas, 12 upasads and 5 sutyās (or Sōma-days) त्रयो विशंतिदक्षिः। द्वाद्शोपसदः। पश्चसुत्याः। (Sat. Śraut. XIV. 6.3). Of it the Agniṣṭōma is the first day, an ukthya the second, an Atirātra the third, another ukthya the fourth, and another Agniṣṭōma the fifth day. Its principal rite is the central Atirātra, and the main victims of Puruṣamēdha are to be sacrificed on that day. Though analogous to Aṣva-

mēdha, the procedure of this sacrifice has certain additions in the case of preliminary rites. In the beginning the offerings are to be made to Agnikāma (desire), Agnidātṛi (the giver) and Agnipathikṛit (the path-maker) (San. Śraut. XVI-10,4-8 and Vait. Srau. VII, 37. 12). The victim, a Brāhmaṇa or a Kṣatriya should be purchased for 1000 cows and 100 horses. According to text, one who intends to offer himself for this purpose may come forward and accept the fixed price of the cows and horses. In case none of the subjects of the king gets ready, the nearest enemy should be conquered and caught as the victim. The said price may be given to the relations of the person to be sacrificed. The proposed victim being bathed and adorned is set free for one year. During this period he is not supposed to commit any breach of chastity. Offering to Anumati, Pathyāsvasti and Aditi are made for the entire year. (अथानुमयते पथ्याये खलायेऽदितय इति सम्बत्सरं इवींषि।) (Śankhyāyana Śraut XVI. 10-11)

Three daily oblations to Savițri according to Sānk. Śraut should also be performed in the reverse order. Animal offering at the end of year should be made to Indra Pūṣan. (ऐन्द्रा पौच्पायञ्च: (Vait. Śra. VII, 3-721).

The number of $y\bar{u}pas$ in most of the texts is prescribed as 11 but $S\bar{a}nk$ Śraut refers to 25 $y\bar{u}pas$ each of which should be 25 cubits long. The $Vait\bar{a}na$ Śraut. states the number as one, but Śatapatha $Br\bar{a}hmana$ and certain other texts mention the slaughter of 11 victims, sacred to Agni and Soma, on 11 stakes on the upavasatha day. Sank Śraut-gives the number of victims as 25. The Śat. $Br\bar{a}$. further lays down that on the $suty\bar{a}$ days there should be $Savan\bar{\imath}ya$ victims of the set of 11 $y\bar{u}pas$.

The most important part of the sacrifice takes place on $Atir\bar{a}tra$ (third) day. According to S. Bra. the human victims should be distributed thus over $11 \ y\bar{u}pas$; 48 victims to central stake and 11 to each of the remaining $10 \ y\bar{u}pas$ and besides this 8 victims for $Praj\bar{a}pati$ are also taken for sacrifice. The total number of the victims thus is 166. However, the number differs in various texts.

Fire is carried around the victims (human) (तत्वर्ध्यिमकृता: पश्चोबभू बुरसंज्ञप्ता:,) (S. B. XIII. 6-2-12)

who are bound to yūpas, but they are not slaughtered. Many human victims are let off after the rite called *Paryagnikaraṇa*, and only 11 victims are slaughtered (S. B. XIII, 6-2-15).

The last rite of Puruṣamēdha consists of the sacrifice of 11 barren cows sacred to Mitra, Varuṇa and Bṛihaspati according to S. B. and Satyā. Śrau., or to Prajāpati and Visvadēvah according to Āpastamba. The latter also points out that Abhiṣēka in this yajña is like that of Asvamēdha (एताइन्यस्मिन्नेवाधश्वमेधवद्भिषेत:। Ap. Srauta Sūtra XX. 24-14).

The sacrificial victims to *Prajānati* according to Śānkhyāyana include a man, a gomṛiga and a hornless he-goat. To each of the 25 yūpas, 25 victims are slaughtered in the honour

of the seasonal gods (पुरुषोगोमृगोऽजस्तूपरस्ते प्राजापत्या!.....पशचस्य पञ्चविंशति पञ्चविंशतये चातुर्मास्य देवताभ्य:।)
(San. Srau. XVI 12-14).

For the victims are spread out a garment of Kusa grass, a cloth of tripa bark and a red silk garment, At the time of the slaughter the Sāma addressed to yama is recited by the Udgāṭri, and the Puruṣa-Nārāyaṇa hymn by Hotṛ. Next the yajamāna who has caused the slaughter of man is healed up by means of four hymns (अथ यजमानं भिषज्यन्ति San. Sraut. XVI. 13-3)

As in Asvamēdha, the chief consort of the sacrificer lies with the dead body of the human victim and both are covered with upper garment. Theological discussion on the sadas should also take place. After certain other rites are done, some more victims are sacrificed for the seasons.

Kātyāyana, Āpastamba and Satyāṣāḍha state that the gift (dakṣiṇa) of Puruṣa-mēdha does not vary from that of Asvamēdha. But in Śatapatha Brā. we find that besides the land and other property, the people of eastern, southern, western and northern quarters of the kingdom are given respectively to Hotri, Brahma, Adhvaryu and Udgātri priests, including the Hotrikas (मध्यम्प्रतिराष्ट्रस्य यदन्यद् भूमेश्च ब्राह्मणस्य च वित्तात्सपुरुषम्प्राचीदिग्धोतुईक्षिणा ब्रह्मणः प्रतीच्यध्यर्थिह्दीच्युद्गातुस्तदेव होतृकाऽन्वाभक्ताः।) (S. B. XIII 6. 2. 19)

The same text further says that if the performer is a Brāhmaṇa, he should bestow all his property for acquiring the fullest merit.

After performing *Puruṣamēdha*, the *yajamāna* takes (inhales) the two fires (their heat or smoke) inside, and worships sun with *Uttaranārāyaṇa* hymn and proceeds to forest; if he intends to stay in the village he may do so with the repetition of the rites referred to above.

The evidence of Puruṣamēdha is available in many texts which belong to post-Vaidika period. These besides the Brahmanical scriptures are the Buddhist and Jaina texts. It appears from the Buddhist writings that till the time of Buddhaghōṣa the tradition of Puruṣamēdha was in vogue, for he gives first hand information of the ritual in his commentary. It is, however, interesting that Bhāgavata Purāṇa condemns this ritual and states that the performer of Puruṣamēdha goes to hell. This perhaps reflects the changed outlook of the followers of Purāṇika form of Brahmanism in later times.

The evidence of the performance of *Purusamēdha* has been recently discovered in *Kausāmbi* Excavations and the available data suggests its date about 2nd Century B.C. About the 5th-6th century A.D., some of the *Viṣṇukuṇḍin* rulers of Andhra also claim to have performed *Puruṣamēdha*.

Outside India the Cho-Pinh Rock epigraphs of *Champa* bear evidence of the celebration of this yajña.

^{1.} G. R. Sharma, Excavations at Kauśāmbi 1957-59, p. 118 ff.

VĀJAPĒYA

A complicated ritual, the $V\bar{a}jap\bar{e}ya$ can be performed by $Br\bar{a}hmana$ or $K_{\bar{s}}atriya$ for the attainment of the position of most learned or prosperous man or $sv\bar{a}r\bar{a}jya$ (position of Indra) respectively. This is supposed to be a variety of $Jy\bar{o}tist\bar{o}ma$. Its procedure is analogous to that of $S\bar{o}dasin$ (Ap. XVIII I. 4) though it has many special features of its own.

Number 17 plays in it the most important part. There are 17 stotras, 17 sacrificial animals, 17 cubits long stake, 17 objects as fee, 17 pieces of cloth to cover the $y\bar{u}pa$. It lasts for 17 days, and has 17 $d\bar{\imath}k\bar{\imath}as$, 17 cups of wine, 17 cups of $S\bar{o}ma$, 17 raths and 17 drums to be beaten on a particular occasion. The $V\bar{a}jap\bar{e}ya$ should be performed during autumn.

The attractive elements of this sacrifice are race of the chariots, drinking bout of 17 cups and climbing on the $y\bar{u}pa$ by the sacrificer.

The sacrificer, his wife and all the priests are to put on golden chains. The chain worn by the Hotr bears 100 lotus-like-pendants studded with precious stones. These chains are to be given as a part of dakṣiṇa to each priest. There are special arrangements prescribed for setting the wine and Sōma cups. A cup made of gold containing honey is also to be placed centrally with wine cups. Wine or the material for preparing it, should be taken in exchange for lead from a long-haired man at the time when Sōma stalks are purchased. After it is brought inside from southern door it is boiled on dakṣiṇa fire (Kat. XIV. 1. 14-17). The animals to be sacrificed in Vājapēya are a ram (for Indra), a barren cow (for Maruts) an ewe (for Sarasvati) and 17 hornless, youthful and virile goats of one colour (for Prajāpati. (Ap. XVIII 2. 12-13 and Kat. XIV 2-11-13).

The race of the 17 chariots which starts with the midday is an interesting ritual of the ceremony. The ratha of the yajamāna is yoked with 3 horses while others have four horses each. The chariots are made to stand to the east of āhāvanīya with their yokes to east or north-east. The goal of the race is marked with the shooting of an arrow seventeen times by a kṣatriya (rājaputra) from a spot between cātvāla and utkara onwards. The brahmā priest fixes a wheel (made of udumbara wood) of chariot with 16 spokes between cātvāla and the utkara and climbs on it. When the wheel is turned from left to right (it is revolved thrice) the brahmā recites Vājisāman. According to Lat. (V. 12-13) the brahma priest only touches the arms of the wheel. The adhvaryu also occupies the chariot with yajamāna and chants mantras. He directs the sacrificer with regard to the recitation of mantras. Drums are beaten when the race starts and the horses are made to smell nivāra caru, cooked in 17 pots. The ratha of the sacrificer leads the race. The yajamāna utters the formulae of victory 'agnirēkākṣarēṇa' (Vaj. S. VIII, 31. 34). After reaching the goal, the chariots return to the sacrificial ground and the horses are again made to smell the

caru. A hōma is offered for discharging the drums (dundubhi- $vim\bar{o}cana$ - $h\bar{o}ma$). Each rider of the chariots is given a berry (krisnal, gold of that weight) which is taken back afterwards and is offered to brahma who also takes the golden honey jar.

Thereafter the adhvavyu initiates the $S\bar{o}ma$ drinking and he is followed by other priests. Simultaneously the pratiprasthatri drinks the main wine cup and other 16 cups are taken by the 16 riders of chariots. $K\bar{a}t$. (XIV 3.20, and 4.16), however says that the $K\bar{s}atriya$ or Vaisya who occupies one of the rathas gets all the wine cups.

At the time of chanting of Mahēndra stōtra, the nestri makes a request to wife of yajamāna to put a short undergarment of darbha. The sacrificer puts on a silken garment $(t\bar{a}rpyam)$ inside the clothes he wears as a $d\bar{\imath}ksita$. Then the yajamāna with the help of a ladder climbs the yūpa and a dialogue ensues between him and his wife. The yajamāna says to his wife 'let us ascend to heaven', the wife repeats 'let us ascend'. (Kat. XIV 5.8) mentions that both of them climb to the top of the $y\bar{u}pa$ but according to $\bar{A}p$. (XVIII 4.12) only the husband goes to the top. Reaching the summit of the $y\bar{u}pa$ he touches the chasāla of wheatflour and utters 'we reached the heaven, the gods' (Tait. S. I. 7.9.2. Vaj. S. IX, 21). From there he looks around and says 'may I stay long with my children'. At this time vaisyas (referred to as yajamāna's children in commentary on Kātyayana) throw 17 bags of salt or saltish earth to him. But (Ap. XVIII 5. 18-16) lays down that the four chief priests with chanting of mantra should arrange the bags in a particular way and the yajamāna should descend after receiving them. He sits on a couch which is kept on the west of uttaravēdi after performing the rite of standing on the hide of a goat. Animals to various gods are offered, and offerings of nivāra-caru is made to Brihaspati. During the mid-day pressing, animals are offered to Prajāpati. Offering of different kinds of food, of 17 or more type of grains except one (which the yajamāna should not take afterwards in his life) is put in a pot of udumbara wood containing water and milk. Offerings 7 in number are made with a sruva and the remaining is sprinkled on yajamana. The adhvaryu then announces that by performing Vajapeya such and such has acquired the status of samrāt, and he is entitled to use a white parasol. According to the rules of conduct prescribed for a performer of Vā japeva he should act like a Ksatriva and should not rise to receive or do abhiyādana. He should also not sit on the same seat with one whohas not performed the sacrifice.

The adhvaryu gets in $dak \sin \bar{a}$ the chariot occupied by $yajam\bar{a}na$, and 16 pieces of cloth which served as the cover of the $y\bar{u}pa$. Various texts express different opinions with regard to other fees.

PRAJAPATY A

It is $Pr\bar{a}yascitta$ rite prescribed for a ksatriya to get absolved of serious sins like $agamy\bar{a}gamana$ (cohabiting with a lady with whom it is prohibited), taking wine and beaf.

अगम्यागमनं कृत्वा मद्यगोमांसमक्षणम् । शुध्येचान्द्रायणाद् विप्रः प्राजापत्येन भूमिपः ॥

(Garuda Purāṇa, Chapt. 226)

The ritual is composed of a series of observances which are to be continued for 12 days. For the first 3 days the performer should take his meals only in the night (or only in the evening) in 26 morsels. The other three days he is to take unbegged (ayācita) food consisting of only 24 morsels. During the last three days the performer must observe complete fast.

RĀJASŪYA

It is the most elaborate of the royal sacrifices, and according to scriptural rules it is to be celebrated after the performance of $V\bar{a}jpa\bar{e}ya$. The performer of this $yaj\bar{n}a$ obtains the title of a king $(R\bar{a}jan)$. It could be performed only by $K_{\bar{s}}atriya$. According to a view $(K\bar{a}t. XV. 1. 2)$ its celebrator should be one who has not performed $V\bar{a}jap\bar{e}ya$.

In strict sense it is not a $S\bar{o}ma$ sacrifice though it includes $S\bar{o}ma$ -y $\bar{a}gas$ like Pavitra. The ritual continues for a very long period.

The yajamāna is consecrated for Pavitra sacrifice on the first day of the bright half of Phālguṇa. In the next five days following the Pavitra sacrifice, five offerings are made, one on each day. On the full-moon day an iṣṭi to Anumati takes place (purodāsa is offered) offering to Nirṛiti is made out of the grain particles fallen to west from the millstone during the preparation of Purodāsa. On the full-moon day of Phālguṇa Cāturmāsyas are commenced. This continues for full one year. Full-moon and new-moon sacrifices take place between the parvans of Cāturmāsyas. After one year many rites viz. Pañcavāṭīya, the Apāmārgahōma etc. are performed. For next 12 days offering named as Ratnināṃ havimṣi are done in the jewel-houses (stores) of the king (sacrificer), the army-commander, the purōhita, the crowned-queen, the sūta (minister), grāmaṇī (village-head), the kṣattri (Chamberlain), saṃgrahitṛi (treasurer), akṣvāpa (Superintendent of gambling), govikartana (hunter) dūta or pātāgala (Courier) and discarded queen. The deities to whom homage is paid by 12 participants (beginning with yajamāna) are Indra, Agni, Bṛihaspati, Aditi, Varuṇa, Marut, Savitṛi, Aśvins, Rudra (for both akṣavepa and govikartana) Agni and Nirṛiti.

Then is performed the Abhiṣēcanīya ceremony, the principal rite of $R\bar{a}$ jasūya, which lasts for five days. These five days consist of $d\bar{\imath}k$ ṣā (for one day), upasads (for three days) and sutyā or pressing of $S\bar{o}ma$ (for one day). The ceremonial procedure in this case is the same as that of ukthya. On the southern part of the sacrificial ground takes place the $d\bar{\imath}k$ ṣa, whereas the Dasapēya is performed on the northern one. The abhiṣēcanīya and Dasapēya rites must have the hotri of Bhrigugōtra only, For Dasapēya half of the Sōma brought for abhiṣēcanīya is stored in the house of brahma priest. Next caru is offered to Sāvitri, Agni, Gṛahapati, Sōma. Vanaspati, Bṛihaspati, Indra, Rudra, Mitra and Varuṇa. Then brahma

priest proclaims in the following words to the Ratnis that the yajamāna is their king, and he also refers to the people of the country in it.

अथैनं रात्नेभ्य आवेदयत्येष वो भरता राजेति । एष वः कुरवो राजेति कौरव्यम् । एष वः पञ्चाला राजेति पाञ्चालम् । एष वः कुरुपञ्चाला राजेति वा कुरुपञ्चालान् । एष वो जनता राजेत्यन्यान् राज्ञः । सोमोऽस्माकं ब्राह्मणानां राजेति ब्रह्मा जपित । (Āp. XVIII. 12. 7-9)

Different kinds of waters are brought in 17 udumbara jars, viz., water of Sarasvati, flowing water of a river, water from the ripples (created by the entrance of man or animal), water from a river drawn against its current, water of sea, ocean waves of whirl-pools of deep and steady reservoirs, rain water in sunshine, of a lake, well and frost. These are collected into big jar of some wood kept near the seat of Maitrāvaruṇa. Later on when the Marutvatīya cup is offered in ukthya rite, a tiger skin is spread on the east of water vessel and lead is placed on its western end. Six hōmas are performed. The water is then cleansed with the help of the kusa blades tied with piece of gold, and it is then distributed in four jars of Palāsa, Udumbara, Nyagrodha and Asvatha. The sacrificer wearing a silken cloth, white turban and a mantle chants the āvid-formulae "Āvinnagni-grihapatirāvinna Indro.....āvinne dyāvāprithivi dhritavrate āvinnādevyaititir-visvarūpyāvinnoyamsāvāmūṣyāyanosyām visyāsminraṣtre mahate kṣatrāya, mahatādhipatyāya mahate jānarājyāyaiṣa vo bharatā rājā sōmosmākaṃ brāhmanānām rājā". (Taitt. S. I. 8. 12. 2).

The advaryu gives a strung bow and three arrows to yajamāna who for averting evil puts a copper piece in the mouth of a long-haired man. ($V\bar{a}j$. S. X. 10). The sacrificer, before standing on the tiger skin with a golden fillet on his head and a piece of gold under his foot, treads the lead and brushes it away. He then strides over the four quarters. The adhvaryu and other three principal priests sprinkle water from four vessels. In addition, the king's brother or another kṣatriya, a friendly kṣatriya, a vaisya, another vaisya (from behind the king) and a friend of the common people also sprinkle the water. During the sprinkling of water the king rules over his whole body with the horn of an antelope. A dice game is also played about this time and before or after that hotri priest occupying a golden seat recites the story of Śunaḥsepha. Dakṣinā of a 100 or 1000 cows and golden seats they were occupylng is given to adhvaryu and hotri. The king takes three strides (visnukrama) on the tiger skin. The remaining water (used in anointing) is handed over to his son by the king. Two homas known as namavyatisan janiya are offered wherein first the son is declared to be the father of his father, but the relationship is put correctly afterwards (\overline{Ap}) . XVIII. 16. 14-15). It is followed by a symbolic march for the plunder of cows by the king. He as in Vājāpeya marches on a four-horsed chariot to north of āvahanīya fire in midst of numerous cows belonging to his kinsmen. He touches them with string of his bow and proclaims that he has seized them. Then he returns to sacrificial ground. He later on restores these cows to the owners and makes offering called rathavimochanīya. According to another text ($K\bar{a}t$. 6, 13-23) the cows as well as other kinds of wealth of his kinsmen is seized by the king. One-third of this is given to the priests, one-third is distributed to worthy $br\bar{a}hman$ as at the time of $Dasap\bar{e}ya$, while the remaining one third is returned to the kinsmen who thereafter gain the status of rajanyas or noblemen.

The king after getting down from the ratha sits on a seat of Khadira wood which is kept in front of agnīdhrīya shed; the ratnis and brāhmaṇās also sit around him. The brahmā priest (the adhvaryu or purōhita according to Kat.) presents sphya to the king, thence it passes on to king's brother, sūta, sthapati, village-headman and kinsmen. A quadrangular hut is built for the game of dice. Five dice are given to king who is lightly struck by the priests with sticks of sacrificial trees. Players are the king and his kinsmen, and according to the arrangements of the play, the best throw comes to king and worst to his kinsmen.

A cake of rice and barley (baked on 12 potsherds) is offered to *Indra* and *Viṣṇu* after offering anubandhyā cow and performance udvasanīya iṣṭi is over. Offerings, one on each day are to be made following the Abhiṣēchanīya for 10 days, to Saviṭri, Sarasvati, Tvaṣṭri, Pūṣan, Indra, Bṛihaspati, Varuṇa, Agni, Sōma and Viṣṇu. On each of the 10 iṣṭis the king presents to priests a golden or ordinary lotus, and on the last day he wears a garland of those flowers. This is to be treated as his dīksā for next rite called Daśapēya.

Dasapēya: The rite Dasapēya (ten drinks) owes its name to 10 cups of Sōma which are taken by 10 brāhmaṇas. The brāhmaṇas besides the 10 ritviks include 90 others with special type of qualifications. The king has to observe for a year certain rules after the avabhritha bath in Dasapēya viz., he should not plunge for daily bath in the water and should only rub his body with water, should always brush his teeth, pare his nails, should not cut his hair and should sleep in the sacrificial fire-shed on a tiger skin. He should use shoes whenever he goes outside. The subjects of the kings with the exception of Brāhmaṇas also should not cut their hair for a year.

Certain minor offerings are also made during this part of the ritual.

Another rite denominated as kesavapānīya has the same procedure as that of Atirātra ceremony. In this ceremony the hair grown for a year is cut off. There is difference of opinion with regard to its actual date of celebration in various texts. Thereafter take place two rites called Vyuṣṭi-dvīrātra (an Agniṣṭoma and an Atirātra performed with the interval of one month). After the second Vyuṣṭi-dvirātra a rite known as Kṣatra-dhṛiti takes place. About the end of Rājasūya, according to the information of Śat. Brā., the iṣṭi called Traidhatavi is performed. A barley and rice mixed cake is offered. After one month of this iṣṭi, another iṣṭi called sautramani is performed.

The $dak \sin \bar{a}$ in $Abhi \sin \bar{e} chan \sin a$ is estimated as 24000 cows (Asv. IX. 4. 2. ff). In $Dasap \bar{e} ya$ the number has been given as 1000. But besides the cows, many other animals, gold and silver articles, carts etc., are also donated in $Dasap \bar{e} ya$.

APPENDIX III

ROCK CUT CAVES OF THE VIŞNUKUNDIN PERIOD

As has been mentioned already the Visnukundins were great devotees of Siva, and they seem to have been responsible for the construction of number of temples dedicated to Siva. In and around Vijayawada in the Krishna district of Andhra Pradesh, numerous cave temples have been discovered and they are being protected and maintained by the Department of Archaeology, Government of India as ancient monuments of National importance. Of these the five-storied rock cut cave at Undavalli, the Akkanna Mādanna group of caves in the Indrakila hill, the solitary cave temple near the Radio Station, and the group of caves in the hills near the village Mogalrājapuram are important. Of these the Mogulrājapuram group and the Undavalli caves are very interesting as they contain fine sculptures within a well laid out temple plan. The latter is a five storied rock-cut cave which is partly unfinished and contains a huge image of Visnu in the reclining form.

The dating and identification of these caves have been a disputed question. Mr. Longhurst who described these caves in his book on Pallava Architecture¹ considered them on stylistic grounds as Pallava caves and assigned them to the period of Mahēndravarma Pallava (c. 610-640 A.D.) But his dating as well as identification of the sculptures are open to doubt. Sri K. R. Srinivasan² who is now conducting a systematic survey of South Indian temples in his report on Indian Archaeology, 1959-60, while agreeing with Mr. Longhurst with regard to the Pallava influence in the plan and execution of these caves temples however expressed the opinion, on epigraphical evidence that these cave temples particularly Undavalli and Akkanna Mādanna might be the creations of the Eastern Chālukyas of Vēngi and therefore they belong to the period some time about 700 A.D. In the north and north-eastern region of Pallava country in what formed the early Chālukyas dominion, he

^{1.} A. H. Longhurst: Memories of the Archaeological survey of India No. 17, Pallava Architecture p. 24 ff.

^{2.} Indian Archaeology, 1959-60, A Review. p. 83 ff.

discovered a series of four cave temples at Adavi Sōmanapalli in the Manthena taluk of Karimnagar district. This is said to be identical in type with the Bhōkardān cave temple in the Aurangabad district of Maharashtra. The latter cave contains an inscription in archaic Telugu-Kanarese script reading 'Utpatti Pidugu'. A similar inscription is also found on the facade of Undavalli and Akkanna Mādanna caves, near Vijayawada. Hence these two sets of cave temples namely the Vijayawada group and the Bhōkardān cave seem to have some connection or perhaps owe their origins to the munificence of the same ruler. It is quite likely that Chālukyas who conquered coastal Andhra by about 630 A.D., might have given the final touch to those cave temples which have been started earlier. We know from the inscriptions of the Chālukyas that they were worshippers of Viṣṇu (Bhagavannārā-yaṇa, prasāda samāsādita vara Varāhalānchana etc.) and naturally they could be expected to build temples for Viṣṇu and it wasin the fitness of things that they completed and beautified the Anantasayana cave at Unḍavalli.

The group of caves at *Mogalrājapuram* bear a different character. They are mostly dedicated to the Hindu triad, but the principal diety was always *Śiva*, a feature which is perhaps a manifestation of the creed professed by the builder or benefactor. The ruling dynasties of these localities that favoured *Śaivism* were the *Pallavas* and *Viṣnukunḍins*. Since these cave temples are said to bear close resemblance to the rock cut architecture of *Mahēndravarman* period they have to be dated in the first part of the 7th century. During that period the *Viṣnukunḍin* were the masters of these tracts round about Vijayawada and not the *Pallavas*. As such these should have been the creations of the *Viṣnukunḍin* monarchs.

Of these caves at *Mogalrajpuram* near Vijayawada two are prominent for their architecture and sculpture and it may not be out of place to describe them here in greater detail.

DURGA CAVE (Pl. 1)

This cave temple consists of a rock-cut hall measuring $12^i \times 9^i \times 15^i$ with the cubical pillar in front dividing it into three openings. Mr. Longhurst who described them says that it has a heavy curved projecting cornice decorated with the dormer window ornament the latter having spade shaped finials above and at the back of the conic are the horizontal pillars. Excavated into the back wall is a shrine $6^i \times 6^i$ containing a bas-relief of the diety in whose honour this cave temple has been excavated. Mr. Longhurst calls it a relief figure of Durga. But a closer examination of this figure has revealed that the identification made by Longhurst was not quite correct. The figure has certain peculiar features which are worthy of study. It has two hands on the right side and only one on the left. The right leg is bent and

kept on a lotus pedestal. One of the right hands is resting on the thigh of the right leg while on the other hand there is an axe or *Parasu* with a twisted $n\bar{a}ga$ decortion. The left hand seems to be holding some round object. Behind the figure is a crude representation of a lion. Sri M. Somasekhara Sarma has identified this figure as an image of *Ardhanārīsvara* and it is perhaps the earliest known icon of that god in Andhra Pradesh. In the same cave four feet long and 2 high niche was also made to ensrhine the relief images of *Brahma*, *Visnu* and *Siva*. They are now in a very much decayed condition.

2. ŚIVA TĀNDAVA CAVE (PLATE 2)

The other interesting temple in the Mogalrājapuram group is the Śiva Tāndava cave which is located to the right of the road leading to the village of Mogalrājapuram from Vijayawada. Next to Undavalli cave this is perhaps the most richly carved of these cave temples. Unfortunately it has been a victim of wholesale damage by quarrymen who blasted this hill for building materials and road metal. Today very little of that huge mass of hill on the slopes of which this cave was originally excavated remains. The portions of the hill containing the cave has been isolated and the rest of the hill has been completely quarried by the local people. Due to the vibrations caused in the course of blasting operations much of the sculpture work has suffered irrepairable damage.

The cave proper consits of a hall $31^{\circ}-4^{\circ\prime\prime} \times 15^{\circ}-3^{\circ\prime\prime}$. Along the back wall are excavated three shrines, the central one measuring $6^{\circ}\times6^{\circ}$. This triple celled shrine must have been dedicated to the Hindu trinity, the central chamber relegated to \dot{Siva} in the shape of a linga on the yonipitha flanked by Brahma and Viṣṇu. There are four cubical pillars dividing the temple into three equal parts. When Mr. Longhurst inspected these caves the pillars contained on the underside of the capitals, the roll ornament while the upper cubical sections of the front pillar, circular medallions filled with bas-relief ornament similar to those found at Amaravati. Those medallions as well as the sculptural detail on those have disappeared now and the pillar which was in a most decayed condition has been restored by the Archaeological Department.

The most attractive feature of this shrine is its ornamental facade. At either end of this facade are niches containg large size figures of *Dwārapāla* with lofty head dresses decorated with bull horns, standing akimbo, with one hand resting on the hip and holding a huge club with the other hand. These figures have also suffered badly due to the blasting operations and therefore very little of the facial features could be made out. The figure portrayed in the dormer windows or *chaitya* arches on the cornice are still well preserved. Above the cornice there is a frieze of animals lions with lashing tails attacking elephants

^{1.} Vijnana Sarvasvamu, Telugu Samskriti Part 3, p, 119 ff.

with uplifted tusks which is very interesting. More than all these, above the facade carved on the face of the rock is a huge representation of Siva in his dancing pose. The image has four hands, and is trampling the $Apasm\bar{a}ra\ purusa$ with one leg, probably in the attitude of $k\bar{a}lik\bar{a}\ t\bar{a}ndava$. Like most other sculptures, this has also suffered during blasting operations. Even by that time it was inspected by Mr. Longhurst the middle part of the figure was missing. Today nothing remains except the part of the leg on the dwarf demon.

The little that remains of these lofty edifices, speak volumes about the acme of perfection reached by the artist of that age in rock cut architecture and the pious zeal of the ruling dynasty that was mainly responsible for these creations.

APPENDIX IV

VISNUKUNDIN COINS

In the course of my study and exploration tours particularly in the villages of Andhra, I was able to procure from villagers a number of stray coins and sometimes small hoards from private owners for purposes of study and publication. From the village of \overline{A} durru in the East Godavari district I collected some copper coins with a lot of encrustations over them. Similarly from Gurzāla in the Palnad Taluk and Amarāvati, the famous seat of Buddhist stūpa in Guntur district I had also secured some coins. The Gurzāla hoard is an interesting collection of copper coins, the types of which were never studied by any scholar so far. Since I felt that these belonged to the Viṣṇukuṇḍin family, sixteen of these copper coins are being described and illustrated here.

These coins are invariably circular in shape measuring about $\frac{1}{2}''$ in diameter and probably form one of the smaller series in ancient Indian coinage. The weight of these coins varies between 15 to 25 grains though a few of them also weigh 13 grains. This variation is probably due to wear and tear in circulation. The craftsmanship is somewhat crude and the depiction of symbols on all coins both on the obverse and as well as on the reverse is very poor. On a majority of these the delineation of the symbols is not quite clear and after cleaning the heavy encrustrations very little has survived. On some of them one or two letters in $Br\bar{a}hmi$ script pertaining to the legend are discernible. Generally these coins seem to bear on the obverse standing but sometimes seated or couchant bull with a prominent hump, within a circle bearing a dotted border and on the reverse within a rayed circle three staff-like objects which appear to be similar to a $s\bar{u}la$ or danda flanked by two lamps with long and curved handles which are crossed horizontally by two short lines to indicate the mouldings near the top.

Similar coins have also been found at Kondāpur² and certain other places in Andhra Pradesh, but they have drawn little attention so far. One coin which is analogous to the present variety to some extent has been illustrated by Mr. Vincent Smith as a Pallava coin in his Oxford History of India.³ However no detailed description, or rendering of the

^{1.} \overline{Adurru} is a small village in the Amalapuram Taluk, situated on the banks of $Vainat\bar{e}ya$ branch of Godavari. This place is full of antiquarian remains and the ruins of a Buddhist $st\bar{u}pa$ partially explored and excavated by the author are very interesting.

^{2.} In the course of excavations at Kondapur Sri Khwaja Ahmad of the Dept. of Arch. of Hyderabad found some coins of this type. They have been identified and illustrated in his report.

^{3.} Oxford History of India. p. 207.

fragmentary legend on the coin has been attempted by that scholar. The coin has on the obverse a lion (?) with a twisted tail. The reverse shows a ghata (jar) flanked by two lampstands. We do not know as to why it has been regarded as a *Pallava* coin by Smith. He has not adduced any evidence in support of his identification. As far as the general features of these coins are concerned that can be classed as a sub-variety or the further development of the type under study.

Coins of the type under study are generally confined to the territory which was once ruled by Visnukundins, and their provenance seems to lend support to their identification as the coinage of that dynasty. The bull and $s\bar{u}la$ symbols found on the coins indicate their Saivite association. In this connection an examination of the representation of symbols on the seal Fig. 1 of the Ipur Plates of $G\bar{v}vindavarman$'s son $M\bar{u}dhavavarman$ seem to be quite relevant. Professor Hultzsh who edited that record, described that the seal is divided by a cross line into two sections; in the lower section the legend $Sr\bar{u}$ $M\bar{u}$ dhavavarma in two lines, is very faintly visible. Above the line there seems to be a figure of Lakshmi or a Svastika on a pedestal, flanked by the lamp-stands surrounded by the sun (?) and the crescent of the moon. A closer examination of the symbols on the seal however seem to suggest that the symbol is not of a seated Lakshmi or a Svastika but a double trident or $Nandip\bar{u}da$. These symbols bear close resemblance to the symbols on the coins under study and are invariably attributes of Siva.

Viṣnukuṇḍins describe themselves in their inscriptions as the devotees of the Lord of Śriparvata (Śriparvatasvāmi) i.e. Śiva as Mallikārjuna at Śrīsailam. The few extant letters forming the marginal legend on these coins paleographically are datable to 5th - 6th century A.D. which is the time of Viṣṇukuṇḍin rule in Andhra and it is quite likely that letters which look like ma or vi occurring therein may perhaps form part of the legends containing the names of the kings Mādhavavarma and Vikramēndra Varma. However, in view of the absolutely fragmentary nature of the legend on these coins it is difficult to fix precisely their authenticity. This attribution cannot be confirmed unless some more dependable evidence is forth-coming, and therefore, whatever has been hazarded here is of a purely tentative character.

It is interesting to note that similar type of coinage was also issued by the Chālukyas also who were the political successors of Viṣṇukuṇḍins in their dominions. Smith has published a coin resembling this type with the legend Viṣamasiddhi whom he identified with Viṣamasiddhi Kubja Viṣṇuvardhana of the Chālukyas of Vēngi (A.D. 615-33). But he describes the animal on the obverse as a crude lion, which may have to be taken as a bull.

^{1.} Epi. Ind. Vol. XVII p. 134.

^{2.} Epi Ind. Vol. XVII P. 134

^{3.} Smith. Cat. of Coins in the Indian Museum, Calcutta. Vol. I. (2906-Oxford) P. 322.

I have also discovered a coin almost identical in fabric like the coins under study bearing the legend in $V\bar{e}ngi$ characters reading "Visamasiddhi" at $Amar\bar{a}vati$. It is not therefore quite unlikely that the $Ch\bar{a}lukyas$ might have reissued the same coinage as a mark of their victory over the Visnukundins stamping their own name on that. This practice is not at all strange when viewed against the practice of the early south Indian rulers. Gautamiputra had restruck and issued $Nahap\bar{a}na$'s coins as a mark of his victory over the $Ks\bar{a}trapas$ and annexation of their territories, the $Iksv\bar{a}kus$ of $Sr\bar{a}parvata$ Vijayapuri appropriating the 'Elephant Symbol' of the later $S\bar{a}tav\bar{a}hanas$ etc.

DESCRIPTION

1. WEIGHT 17 GRAINS

Obverse: Standing bull facing right. Two letters pertaining to the legend visible above the bull reading Kra and ma. Other letters very much defaced and illegible. The hind part of the bull and encircling border are also damaged.

Reverse: Lower half of the coin is somewhat blurred. The central staff (danda or sūla) and the lamp-stand on the right can be identified. Faint traces of rayed-circle along the lower-border.

2. WEIGHT 19 GRAINS

Obverse: Bull standing (?) with face portions faintly visible and the front part of the body mutilated. Surrounding circle almost clear. Traces of the indistinct letters (ra and ba or ma) above the bull are discernible.

Reverse: Central sūla slightly visible with lamp stand flanking on the right. Whole face badly damaged.

3. WEIGHT 18 GRAINS

Obverse: Couchant bull to the right with faintly visible legs particularly those of hinder part, inside a beaded circle which is complete.

Reverse: Rayed-circle covering 1/3 of the border. Central sūla visible clearly but depiction of the flanks has become somewhat indistinct.

4. WEIGHT 15 GRAINS

Obverse: Complete beaded circle, only very faint outline of the upper part of the humped-bull can be traced.

Reverse: Rayed circle on the side and the slightly flattened sūla in the centre

5. WEIGHT 20 GRAINS

Obverse: Very much multilated. Only a faint outline of the body including hump can be traced. Tail completely damaged.

^{1.} Rapson: Catalogue of Indian coins Andhra, W. Kṣātrapas etc. Introduction p. CXX - Jogalthambi hoard of coins of Nahapāna restruck by Gautamī putra Śātākarņi. See also Rev. H. R. Scott. J.B.B.R.A.S. 1907.

Reverse: Except lightly struck central sūla and rayed-border on the side this face shows

no traceable detail.

6. WEIGHT 19 GRAINS

Obverse: Except beaded border the details of the obverse are beyond recognition.

Reverse: Within rayed-circle sūla flanked by lamp stands with curved handle.

7. WEIGHT 19 GRAINS

Obverse: Bull standing to right, slightly blurred within beaded border.

Reverse: Traces of the rayed-border and central sūla.

8. WEIGHT 16 GRAINS

Obverse: Within beaded border can be traced bull standing to the right. Details almost

damaged.

Reverse: Central sūla and few traces of border.

9. WEIGHT 23 GRAINS

Obverse: Bull standing to the right, hind part slightly damaged within beaded border.

Reverse: Almost blurred, only outline of the sula is traceable.

10. WEIGHT 13 GRAINS

Obverse: Bull standing to the right faintly visible, except the hip portion.

Reverse: Blurred, sūla traceable.

11. WEIGHT 25 GRAINS

Obverse: Couchant bull, details not very clear within the border.

Reverse: Blurred, faintly traceable sūla.

12. WEIGHT 16 GRAINS

Obverse: Faintly visible bull facing to the right within beaded border.

Reverse: Śūla and its flanks somewhat blurred.

13. WEIGHT 15 GRAINS

Obverse: Totally blurred, only the hind portion of the body can be traced.

Reverse: Entirely blurred, only a portion of rayed border on the left is traceable.

14. WEIGHT 20 GRAINS

Obverse: Couchant bull, details clumsy, torso of the bull is traceable within the circle.

Reverse: Śūla flanks lightly visible. Rayed border on one side.

15. WEIGHT 16 GRAINS

Obverse: Within beaded border, bull facing to the right; legs not clear. Indistinct traces

of legend above the bull.

Reverse: Śūla and flanks, faintly visible.

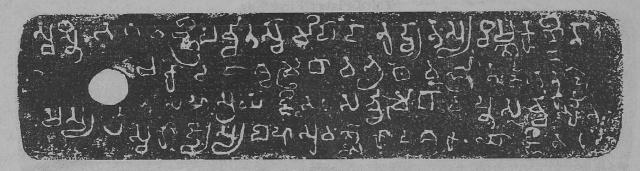
16. WEIGHT 15 GRAINS

Obverse: Totally blurred details. Few traces of beaded border.

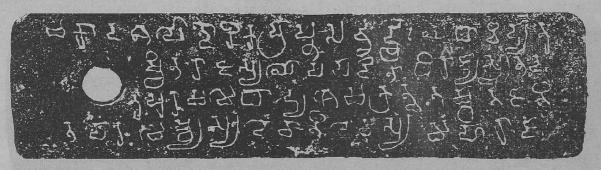
Reverse: Clearly distinct central sūla, flanks have grown slightly faint within rayed border.

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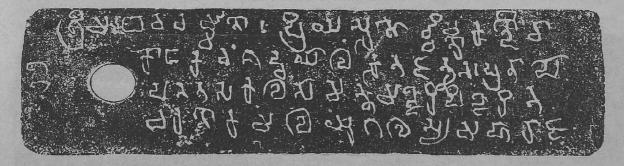
First Plate: Second Side



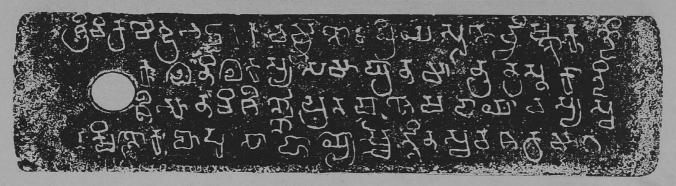
Second Plate: First Side



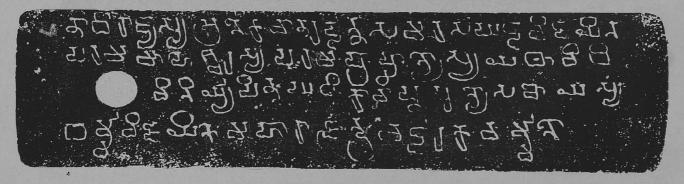
Second Plate: Second Side



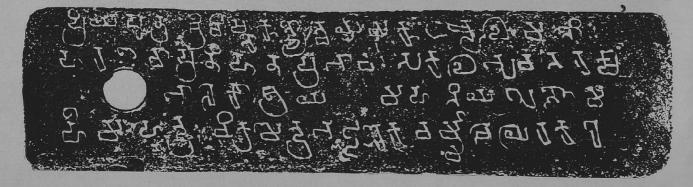
Third Plate: First Side



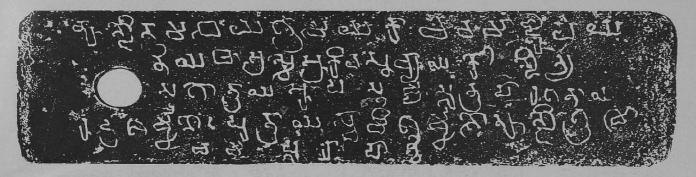
Third Plate: Second Side



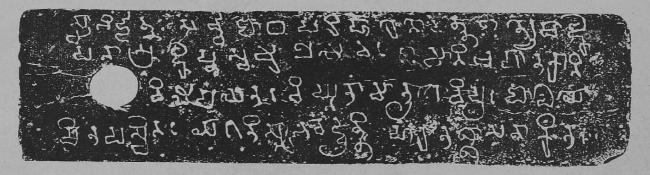
Fourth Plate: First Side



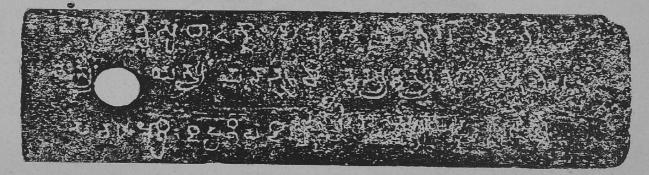
Fourth Plate: Second Side



Fifth Plate: First Side



Fifth Plate: Second Side









Enlarged representation of the symbols on the Coin

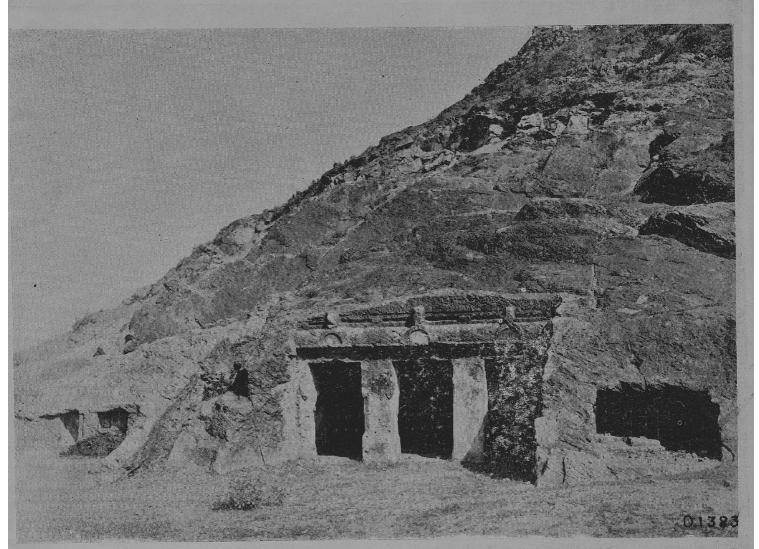
Figure B



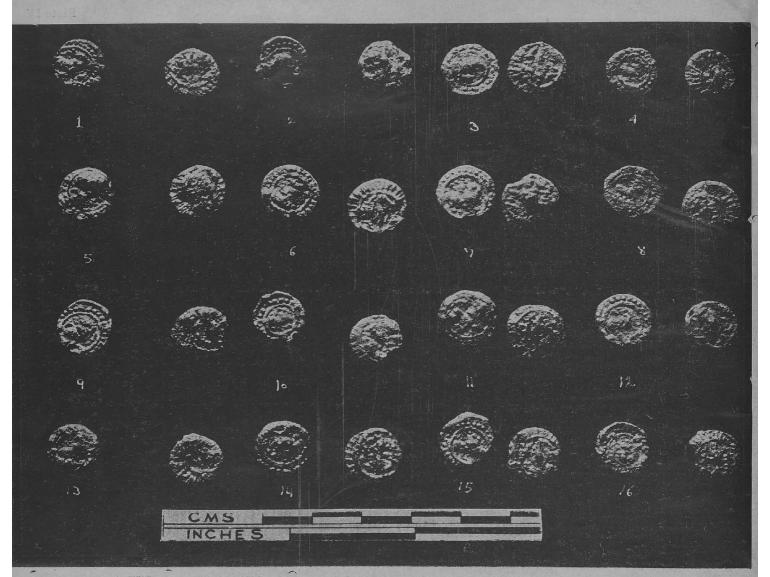
Seal of Mādhavavarma



Triple shrined rock-cut Śiva Temple, Mogalrajapuram, Krishna Dt.



Rock-cut Durga Temple, Mogalrajapuram, Krishna Dt.



VI snukundin Coins

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