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ASPECTS OF EARLY JAINISM

[As known from the Epigraphs]

by JAI PRAKASH SINGH

BANARAS HINDU UNIVERSITY VARANASI—5 1972

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

	•
A. Su.	Āchārāmga Sūtra
Arch. Sur. Refts.	Archaeological Survey Reports
C. H. I.	Cambridge History of India
Corb. Ins. Ind.	Cor us Incriptionum Indicarum
C. I. I.	
E. H V. S.	Early History of the Vaishnva Sect
Ep. Ind.	Epigraphia Indica
E C.	See Ep. Car.
Ep. Car.	Epigraphia Carnatica
E. R. E.	Encyclopaelia of Religion and Ethics
G. J. I.	Gorakhhur Janapada Kā Itihāsa
I. A.	Indian Antiquary
I. S. J.	Indian Sect of the Jainas
\mathcal{J} . A. S. B.	Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal
J. B. B. R. A. S.	
J. B. O. R. S.	Jour sal of Bih r and Orissa Research Society
J. K. C.	Jainism and Karnataka Culture
J. N. I.	Jainism in North India
J. R. A. S.	Journal of the Koyal Asiatic Society
J. S. I.	Jainism in South India and some Jaina Epigraphs
J. S. S.	Jaina Silalekha Sangraha
L. A. I.	L fe in Ancient India As Depictel in Jaina Canons
M. H. S.	Manimekhilai in its Historical Setting
M. J. M. M. C.	Metreval Jainism Mathura Museun Catalogue
P. H. A. I.	Post cal Histor of Ancient India
S. B. E.	Sacred Boots of the East
S. B. J.	Sa red Books of the Jaina
S. I. S. I. I.	Se'e t Inscriptions South Indian Inscriptions
S. J. G.	Singhi Jaina Grathimala
S. S. J. L.	Schoos and Sects in the Jaina Literature
V. T. K.	Vividhtirthikulpa Outlines of laivism
0. J. 0. J. P.	Outines of Jainism Outines of Jainism Outines of Jaina Philosophy
T. Rājavārttika.	Tattvārttharājavarttika

PREFACE

This monograph which is divided into seven chapters deals with some Aspects of Early Jainism as revealed mainly from the epigraphical records—from earliest times to about 600 A.D. I will not be justified in claiming it to be a new piece of research. It was, however, thought appropriate to study Jainism in the context of the epigraphical references and the same has been attempted here. Besides the seven chapters this monograph contains a conclusion and three appendices, the first two of which supplement the chapter on Pantheon. A discussion with regard to the material of the appendices has deliberately been avoided. An errata is given at the end in which some of the mistakes are corrected. But there may be others which could not be included in it. I crave the indulgence of the reader for all such mistakes of commission and omission.

It is a pleasure to admit my indebtedness to the great galaxy of Jainologists and others whose works have considerably been used by me in this work. They are properly referred to in the footnotes.

This study was taken up at the suggestion of new late Dr. R. B. Pandey, then Professor and Head of the department of Ancient Indian History, Culture and Archaeology, and Principal, College of Indology, Banaras Hindu University, in 1958, in completion of the M. A. Final examination. Dr. Pandey was a constant source of inspiration to me and he supervised the major part of the work. I am deeply indebted to him. I am thankful to Dr. R. S. Misra, Reader in the Deptt. of Indian Religion and Philosophy, who later supervised this work.

This work was selected by Dr. A. K. Narain about two years back for being published as a monograph of the Depart-

ment. I am highly grateful to him. I am especially grateful to Dr. K. K. Sinha who expedited its publication, went through the whole manuscript and made several useful suggestions. I am thankful to Shri P. K. Agrawala, my colleague, for his help in the publication of this monograph. Thanks are also due to my wife Usha for the preparation of the index and reading the proofs at times.

B. H. U. 6-3-72.

J. P. S.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Jainism is one of the living and yet one of the most ancient¹ religions of our country. The contributions of the Jainas in the various fields of Indian culture are manifold. As a system of faith, its importance has never been in doubt; but it has not received sufficient attention from the scholars.

This lacunae has been sought to be filled up by some of the recent works like *History of Jaina Monachism* by S. B.Deo and *Studies in Jaina Art* by U. P. Shah.

The present work seeks to study the idea of historical growth and development of the Jaina church and thought mainly on the basis of a study of Jaina epigraphy. It is not contended here that there will be some new information which has not been hitherto noticed in the religious texts. By their very nature, the epigraphs are contemporary records while the same cannot be said of the religious texts. The main purpose of attempting the present study was, therefore, to elicit such information from the inscriptions about the Jaina church and thought that could serve as a sort of historical framework for the evidence in the religious texts.

It will not be inappropriate to give in brief an introduction of the epigraphs. For the sake of brevity and convenience, I am inclined to classify the inscriptions under three main heads viz. (i) The early epigraphs, (ii) the Mathura epigraphs, and (iii) the later epigraphs.

The first of these or the earliest epigraphs comprise the Badli record (Pandey, *Indian Palaeography*, p. 19), the Delhi-Topara record of Asoka (Sircar, S. I., Book 1. No. 30. p. 67), and the cave epigraphs of Asoka and Dasaratha (Sircar,

^{1.} Mukerjee, R. K., Hindu Civilisation, p. 21

Select Inscriptions, Book 1. No. 33, 40 and 41-43), the inscriptions of the Chedis of Kalinga (Sircar, Ibid, Nos. 91 and 92, pp. 206 ff, and 213) and the inscription of king Lalāka (J. A. S. B., Vol. VI, p. 1074). Asoka showed a tolerant attitude towards all the sects of the time. Similarly the Chedi king Khāravela, though a Jaina by faith, extended his patronage towards all the sects.

The justification for making the second group namely-the Mathura epigraphs-is that a very large number of inscriptions on the subject have been recovered from Mathura. These are very helpful for reconstructing the history of the development of the Jaina religious organisations.

The inscriptions of the third group belong to the kings of the Kadamba dynasty, the Cheras and the Chalyukyas etc. from Devagiri, Halsi, Altem etc. Under this group namely the later epigraphs we have also included the Kahaum inscription of 141 G. E. of the reign of King Skandagupta. The importance of these epigraphs often lies in providing information about hitherto unknown sects. One such instance is provided by a set of inscriptions which refer to the sect of Kürchakas, otherwise rather unknown. Similarly attention has been drawn to an inscription from Sravana Belagola¹ in an attempt to testify to the much repeated Bhadrabāhu-Chandragupta Maurya tradition of the Jainas.

During the course of the present work, we shall examine aspects of Jainism as borne out by the available inscriptions. The inscriptional material, however, is too brief, therefore, literature has been used to elucidate it wherever found necessary. The inscriptional informations as specified above, are dealt with in corroboration of the religious texts and sometimes priority has been given to the later epigraphic records, for they have been often regarded as more historical than many of the prevailing literary traditions.

Narasimhāchar, Ep. Car., vol. II, No. 1.

CHAPTER TWO

PANTHEON

The widespread popularity of the Jaina faith and the development of its doctrines presuppose the evolution of a pantheon of its own which included many Hindu or Brahmanic divinities. These divinities were accorded a status very much inferior to their own Tirthankaras, twenty four in number. The Tirthankaras of the Jainas represent the highest order of the Jaina divinities.

The Jaina literary traditions provide even the minutest of the details regarding the various important events of the lives of their Tirthankaras in Avasarpini or the present age. In these traditional records we come across the names of the parents of the Tirthankaras, their ages, stations, complexions, attendants and cognizances or Länchhanas. Their images are generally placed on ornamented and sculptured thrones and surrounded by other smaller attendant figures.

In 1890 Fuhrer discovered from the excavations at Mathura some 80 Jaina images² both inscribed and uninscribed mostly of the Jaina perfected beings. Besides, we have epigraphic mentions of the Tirthankaras by way of salutation and invocation to them and the Arhats. Here we propose to discuss mainly the evidence on the Jaina pantheon as gleaned from the inscriptions. Unfortunately this epigraphic material is very scanty. However, the details regarding the lives of the Tirtkankaras known from literary sources are collected for comparison in Appendix I.

Ādinātha, the first Tirthankara, is known from a few

Burgess, J., Jaina Mythology in I. S. J., p. 62; for details about the Tirthankaras see Appendix I.

Buhler, V. O. J., Vol. 4th, p. 168.

short epigraphs1 which offer salutation to him. An inscription, dated in Gupta Year 141 (A.D.460) of the time of Skandagupta mentions Adinatha as one of the Five Adikartrs2, others being Santinatha, Neminatha, Parsvanatha, and Mahavira. Another inscription also uses a similar expression, probably meaning the Creator of the World3. Rice has pointed out that in an inscription from Tumkur, the Jina is designated as the Supreme Spirit, and the same as Siva, Dhatr, Sugata, and Vișņu.4 Rșabha or Ādinātha is traditionally assigned to the beginning of Creation and hence the attempt of A. K. Mazumdar to assign him to 29th century B. C.5 does not seem to be correct. Jainism hardly believed in a supreme entity who created this material world. Sambhavanātha, the 3rd Tirthankara has also an epigraphic existence. We know that the images of Arhat Santinatha, the 16th Tirthankara. were dedicated, whose records are preserved in the forms of inscriptions.7 So we know the 18th Tirthankara also from the inscriptions.8 Next to him, we have again such mention

Buhler, Ep. Ind, Vol. I, Nos. XIV, VIII; Ep. Ind., II, "Mathura Jaina Inscriptions," No. XXVIII; J. S. S., II, Nos. 23, 56, 82, 93.

Arhatāmādikartrn pañchendrān sthāpavitvā..., Fleet, C. I. I., Vol. III, No. 15, pp. 65-68; I. A., Vol. X, pp. 125-126; Sircar, No. 26, p. 308; Pandey, G.J.I., pp. 171-2; J. S. S., II, No. 93, p. 59.

^{3.} Srsterādeḥkartā, Fleet; I. A., Vol. VII. "Old Sanskrit & Kanareese inscriptions," p. 106.

^{4.} Rice, Mysore and Coorg from Inscriptions, p. 203, Tumkur, 9.

^{5.} Mazumdar, A. K., H. H., p. 263.

⁶ Sircar, D. C., S. I., No. 53, p. 151.

Buhler, Ep. Ind., I, No. 3; C.I.I., Vol. III, No. 15, pp. 65 ff.; J.S.S., Vol. II, Nos. 29, 93.

Buhler, Ep. Ind., II, 'Mathura Jaina inscriptions'. No. XX;
 J.S.S., Vol. II, No. 59.

of Neminātha¹ and Pārsvanātha.² Mahāvīra is also mentioned in inscriptions. We have discussed elsewhere³ that the largest epigraphic mention of Mahāvīra probably proves his historicity. This historical character is still confirmed by the testimony of the Baḍli inscription⁴ dated in the 84th year of (Mahā) Vīra (527-81=44³ B. C.). An inscription from Śrāvaṇa Belagola speaks that Arhat Vardhamāna established 'the holy faith', and became a Tīrthankara.⁵ The 8th and 9th Tīrthankaras, namely Chandraprabha and Pushpadanta are mentioned in three image inscriptions from Vidisa⁶. The images are said to have been made at the instance of the supposed Gupta king, mihārājādhirāja Ramagupta.

All the Tirthankaras are related by their birth to the Ikshvāku race except Muni Suvrata and Neminātha who were scions of the Harivaṃśa race. All of them were initiated at their birth places and obtained Kaivalya there as well, excepting Rshabhanātha, Neminātha and Mahāvīra who attained the Kevalahood at Purimatāl, Girnar and on the banks of the Rijupālikā river respectively. Twenty of the Tirthankaras got liberated at the mount Sameta Śikhara in west Bengal; but Ādinātha, Vāsupūjya, Nemi and Mahāvīra died at Aṣṭapada, Champāpurī, Girnar and Pāvāpurī respectively.

The Tirthankaras though supposed to have been persons of flesh and blood, got themselves disinterested from all attachments, became Siddhas and obtained divinity. The

^{1.} Buhler, Ep. Ind., Vol. II, No. 14; J.S.S., Vo. II, No. 28.

^{2.} Ibid, No. XXIX; I.A., Vol. X, pp. 125-26; Vol. XI, p. 310; J.S.S., Vol. II, Nos. 83, 91, 93.

^{3.} See Chapter, VII,.

Pandey, R. B., Indian Palacography, p. 19; Ojha, G. H., Prāchīna Lipimālā, pp. 2-3.

Narsimhachar, E.C., Vol. II, No. I; J.S.S. Vol. I, No. 1.

^{6.} Journal of the Oriental Institute, Baroda, Vol.XVIII, No. 3, pp. 250-51.

siddhas are divided into fifteen classes. But the Jaina gods on the other hand are divisible into four types. The gods of the Jainas, have mostly a life of unimaginable duration and are mortal irrespective of their type. But unfortunately none of all these informations are reflected in our inscriptions.

The Tirthankara gods are like the kings, Sāmānikas their preceptors, the Trāyastriṃśa gods are their ministers, Pāriṣadas are courtiers, Ātmarakshas are body guards, Lokapālas are officers, Anikas are soldiers, Prakirṇakas are subjects, Abhiyogas are servants and the Kilviṣakas are their feudatories.⁴

The references to other deities, which formed an important part of the Jaina pantheon are meagre. Only a few dedicatory epigraphs of Mathura record dedications or installations of their images. The first deity of this type is Nemesa (Naigameșa), who is known from a mutilated Mathura inscription. The stone engraved with the inscription appears to conform to a Jaina tradition according to which, Harinegameși changed on orders of his master Sakra, the embryo of Brāhmanī Devanandā to that of Kṣatrānī Triśalā. In the Kalpasūtra Harinegameși is described to

Titthasiddha, Atitthasiddha, Titthagarasiddha, Atitthagarasiddha, Sāyambuddhasiddha, Patyeyabuddhasiddha, Buddhabohiyasiddha, Thilingasiddha, Purisalingasiddha, Napumsakalingasiddha, Salingasiddha, Annalingasiddha, Gihilingasiddha, Egasiddha and Anegasiddha, See Lalitavistara, p. 55 and I. S. J., p. 72.

^{2.} Devāścaturnīkāyāḥ, Tattvārthādhigamasūtra, 4.1.; See Appendix II.

³· I. S. J. p. 74.

^{4.} S. B. J., Vol. I, Appendix B.

^{5.} Ep. Ind., Vol. II, 'Mathura Jaina inscriptions', No. 6; I. S. S., II, No. 13, p. 16.

^{6.} Kalpasùtra, p. 227.

have been a 'divine general of the foot troops.' But originally he seems to have been the presiding deity of child birth. Several images from Mathura are said to portray the Harinegamesi of the Jaina tradition, and the images of his female counterpart have also been identified.

In several stone sculptures of Mathura this male deity is shown as having the face or head of a deer, which was probably due to an 'effect of a wrong etymology.'

In Sanskrit literature, the deity is mentioned as Naigmeșa or Nejameșa. This name occurs in the Gṛḥyasūtras and the medical Saṃhitās to denote a god with a ram's head and dangerous to children. Nemesa, Harinaigemeșin and Naigmeșa appear to be the names of the same deity.

Naigameya, a deity of similar sort is as well known from the Brahmanic sources. He too was conceived off as dangerous to children and a companion of Skanda. Here too he is attributed with a goat-head like the Nemeso of sculptures. Buhler holds on this ground that originally the deity was taken as one having a goat face, but later on it was made deer headed and the name Harinaigmesi⁶ was popularised. The existence of the worship of Nemesa leads one to infer the inclusion of Sakra even in the popular Jaina pantheon, who was the master of the former.

Sarasvati was another deity which enjoyed an important place in the Jaina pantheon. An installation of her image is known from a record from Mathura. The adoption of

^{1.} Ibid.

²· Agrawala, V.S., M.M.C., Pt. III, No.E1; 2482; pp. 32, 35.

^{3.} Ibid, Nos. E2, E3, E4, E5, etc., p. 33.

^{4.} Jacobi, Kalpasutra, S.B.E., Vol. XXII, p. 227, n.i.

Buhler, Ep. Ind., Vol. II, 'Specimens of Jaina Sculptures from Mathura', p. 316.

[•] Ibid, p. 316.

^{7.} Buhler, Ep. Ind., Vol. I, No. 21; J.S.S., Vol. II, no. 55.

Sarasvati in the Jaina pantheon took place somewhere before the beginning of the Christian era. She is still worshipped among the Jainas. Sarssai devi (Sarasvati) is described to have been a worshipper of Arhat Mahāvīra.

It appears likely that the deities like Sakra, Naigamesa, Sarasvati and many others that are not known from our inscriptions were definitely borrowed from the Brahmanical pantheon. The Jainas retained their divine status but portrayed them in their mythology and literature as devotees of their Tirthankaras. This ascription of an inferior status to the Brahmanical deities was intended to publicize the Supreme Divine status of the Tirthankaras over the popular mind and to play down the rival sect of the Brahmanas.

The Jaina Pantheon seems to have included even a serpent deity. It becomes clear from the evidence of an inscription from Mathura which has been dealt with by Buhler as a Bhāgavat incription. But it seems to have really been a Jaina record since it was discovered from the pavements of the excavated Jaina edifices at Mathura, as Buhler³ himself has noted. The inscription records the consecration of the stone slab, on which it is inscribed, in the temple of Bhagvato Nāgendra (the worshipful king of Nagas) named Dadhikarana.⁴ The association of Dharnedra or Nāgendra with Pārśva, the 23rd Tīrthankara is a very old concept;⁵ accordingly the figures of Pārśva, are shown with a canopy of snakehoods.⁶ Thus it seems to be a Jaina epigraph and its Nāgendra a Jaina deity, the attendant spirit of Pārśvanātha. Fergusson

¹. Buhler, V.O.J., Vol. IV, pp. 313-331.

Weber. Indische Studien, Vol. XVI, p.424, n. 1 (as quoted by Buhler in V. O. J., Vol. IV., pp. 313-331).

^{3.} Buhler, Ep. Ind., Vol. I, p. 380.

^{4.} Buhler, Ibid., No. 18.

^{5.} Uttarapurāna, Ch. 73rd, p. 438; and I.S J., pp. 63-64.

^{6.} Agrawala, V.S, M.M.C., Pt. III, No. B.71, B70, B62, B67, B68, B69. B72.

accepts serpent worship among the Jainas. It is possible perhaps to suggest that the Jainas also adopted certain elements of folk cults in their religion to attract people following them toward their sect.

The Jainas as well evolved a series of Hells or Narakas, which though not known from our epigraphs, are seven in number² where evil persons were to live after death.

^{1. &}quot;The Naga is almost always to be found in Jaina temples, and placed where it evidently was intended to be an object of worship" though inferior in status to the presiding deity of the temple; Fergusson, Tree and Serpent Worship, p. 76.

Ratnaprabhā, Śarkarāprabhā, Vālukāprabhā, Pańkaprabhā, Dhūmaprabhā, Tamaprabhā, Tamātamaprabhā, See Ratnasagara, bh. II, p. 607.

CHAPTER THREE SCHOOLS IN THE JAINA CHURCH

Our inscriptions do not contain anything regarding the various schisms and schools in the Jaina Church. However, it is possible to deduce the existence of some of the important schools from their mention in the inscriptions. However: they appear to be quite ignorant of the existence of the seven Ninhagas¹ (Skt. Ninhava) or the schisms of Jāmīlī, Tīsagutta, Āṣādha, Assamitta, Gaṅga, Chalne, and Gotthamahila.² None of these sects was so harmful to the growth and development of the Jaina order as was the sect of the Ājīvikas, supposed to have been founded by Mankhaliputta Gōśāla.³

The early existence of the Ājīvikas is known from our inscriptions. The earliest epigraphs are from Barābar hill caves near Gayā. The caves were donated by king Aśōka to the sect of the Ājīvikas. Two of these records are dated in c. 258 B. C. and the third in c. 251 B. C. Another mention of the Ājīvikas occurs in the 7th P. E. of king Aśōka which is dated in c. 243 B. C. 5

^{1.} Haribhadrasūri, Āvašyak isūtra (Āgamodaya Samiti. Bombay), V. 778, p. 311.

For details see Jain, J. C., L.A I. pp. 25-26; Sen. A. C., S. S. J. L. pp. 43-45.

He was the 'son of a professional mendicant. Mankhali and his wife Bhaddā'; Bannerji Śāstri. J. B. O. R. S., XII, p. 55. And as he was born in the cowshed of a Brahmin at Sāvatthī he was known as Gōśāla, Hoernle, E. R. E., Vol. I.

Sircar, D. C., S. I, pp. 78-79; Cf. Hultzsch, C. I. I., Vol. I pp. 181 ff.; Senart, I. A., XX, pp. 168 ff.

⁸. Ibid, pp. 65-69; Hultzsch, C.I I., pp. 130 ff. Buhler, E.I. Vol. II, pp. 245 ff.

Thereafter, the Ājīvikas¹ are once more referred to in Nāgārjunī Hill cave inscriptions of Daśaratha (c. 220 B. C.). The epigraphs contain the dedication of the caves in favour of the monks of Ājīvika persuasion, by king Daśaratha, in the year of his consecreation (Sircar. D. C., S. I., Vol. I. pp. 79 ff.; Buhler, I. A., Vol. XX, pp. 364 ff.).

This is possibly the last mention of the Ājīvikas in the north Indian epigraphs. Not only this, they are for a time not known from literature as well. Vārāhamihira² (the middle of 6th century A. D.) mentions the Ājīvikas, as one of the seven classes of religious mendicants.

The term Ājīvika in Sanskrit means 'mode of life' or occupation of a set or a class of people, whether they be householders or mendicant friars. Ājīvika is a derivative term of Ajīva, which according to Hoernle means, 'one who observes the mode of living appropriate to his class.' He continues that, 'Gōśāla held peculiar views as to the Ājīva of a mendicant who was truly liberated from the fetters of Kar-

^{1.} In some cases the word Ājīvikēhi has been chiselled off. That it was a delibrate act is evident from the fact that none of the other word in the inscription seems to have been touched even (see, Shah, C.J., J. N. I., p. 66). Some scholors have regarded it as an act of Kharavela (Bannerji Šāstri, J.B.O.R.S., XII, p. 310). But the Hāthīgumphā inscription mentions the religious tolerance of Kharavela by describing him 'Sava pāsamdapūjakò, and the performer of a Rājasūya sacrifice (Jayaswal, & Banerji, Ep. Ind., XX, pp. 72ff.). Hence the conclusion of Šāstri does not seem plausible. To Hultzsch it was the work of Maukhari Anantavarman, who donated one Barābar cave to Kṛṣṇa and two Nāgārjunī caves to Siva and Pārvatī (Ins. of Aśōka, Int., p. XXVIII). D.C. Sircar is in agreement with Hultzsch (S.I., p. 80, n. 2.).

^{2.} Vrihajjātaka, XV. I., Laghujjātaka, IX. I.

^{3.} Hoernle, E. R. E., vol. I. p. 259.

ma. It was probably for this reason that he and his adherents came to be known as Ājīvikas or men who held the peculiar doctrine of Ajīva." Gōśāla practised religious mendicancy as a proffession, to earn livelihood. And hence the term 'Ājīvika was originally meant to stigmatise Gōśāla and his followers as professionals," though later on it became the proper designation of that order.

The Ājīvikas have been referred to in the canonical works of both the Jainas and the Buddists. "In the seventh Anga... a man, Saddālaputta, is said to have been recieved by Gōśāla into the Ājīvika community, and the Bhagawatīsūtra, the fifth Anga, gives us an account of the life of Gōśāla as the acknowledged head of the community. Though the Buddhist scriptures...also frequently mention Gōśāla Mankhaliputta as one of the leaders of the six religious mendicant communities whom Buddha singles out for special animadversion, they never explicitly connect him with the Ājīvikas, or state that he was their leader. But that on this point the Buddhist tradition did not really differ from the Jaina is shown by the fact that both attribute to him the holding of the religio-philosophical doctrine of the negation of the free will and moral responsibility.3"

The Ājīvikas have variously been identified with the Vaishnavas⁴, the Saivas⁵ and the Jainas. The identification

^{1.} Ibid. 2. Ibid. 3. Ibid.

The identification of the Ājīvikas with the Bhāgavatas or Vaishnavas was first suggested by Kern, Buhler too accepted (I. A., Vol. XX, pp. 361ff and Ep. Ind. Vol. II, pp. 274ff and J. R. A. S., 1911, p. 960. It was however rejected by Bhandarkar (J.B.B.R.A.S., Vol. 21, pp. 339 ff; I. A., vol. 41, pp. 90 & 286ff) who believed in the existence of two distinct Ajīvika orders, the one being Brahmanic and the other non-Brahmanic. the eaters and non eaters of fish (cf. Aśōka pp. 155-6) Bhandarkar was refuted by Barua (Inscriptions of Aśōka).

^{5.} The term Ekadandin led Silānka to hold the Ajīvikas, the same as the worshippers of Lord Siva (Hoernle, E. R. E., I, p. 266). Hoernle rejects the identification of the Ajīvikas with either Vaishnavites or Saiviţes.

of the Ajivikas with the Jainas is mostly accepted by a majority of scholars, like Hoernle¹ Smith². Rice³, C. J. Shah⁴ and others.

The Ājivikas are said to have discarded all clothes and cultivated decent habits, took food in the palm of their hands and were vegetarians etc⁵. The statement gives an idea of the similarities between the Ājivikas and the Digambaras.

Śīlānka (c.876 A. D.) in his commentary on Sūtrakritānga used this term Ājīvika to denote the Digambara sect of the Jainas (Ch. II, 267), though at another place (ch. II, 245) it has been used to denote the Terāśiyas. And hence to Śīlānka, the words Ājīvika, Digambara, and the Terāśiya were all variants of the same term, denoting the same order of ascetics.

Halāyudha (950 A. D.) in his Abhidhānaratnālā enumerates a large number of the designations of the two Jaina sects, known as Svetvāsasa (Svētāmbaras) and Digvāsasa (Digambaras), the latter of which had another name Ajiva which is an abbreviation of the word Ajivika.

According to the traditions recorded in *Manimekhalai*, the Ajivikas were a sect of the Jainas. The "Manimekhala" says. S.K. Aiyanger, "seems to regard these two as one system that of the Samans or Jains. A later Tamil work *Nilakesi* and the Saiva canonical work *Sivaganasidhi* state distinctly that the two systems were branches of one.8"

^{1.} E. R. E., I, p. 266.

^{2.} E. H. I., (IIIrd edn.), p. 166.

^{8.} Rice, B. L., Ep. Car., Vol. X, Ki., 28, p. 7.

^{4.} J. N. I., p. 67.

Belvalkar, & Ranade, History of Indian Philosophy, vol. II, pp. 460-61.

^{6.} Hoernle, E. R. E., I, p. 266.

^{7.} Abhidhanaratnamala, II, 189-90.

^{8.} Aiyangar, S. L., Manimekhalai, p. 55.

The Perumal temple records at Poygai in the vicinity of Viranchipuram mention the land grants made over to the sect of the Ajivikas by the Chola king Rajaraja. The editor of these records, taking his stand on the authority of the modern Tamil lexicons accepted the identity of the Ajivikas with the Jainas, who were certainly the Digambaras. It may be recalled that the Digambares were in great majority in south during that period. Hoernle points out that the statements of the Tamil lexicographs are based on those of the Tamil literary evidences. In the ancient Tamil literature the term Ajivika has been used to denote the Digambara sect of the Jainas. The term was used in the same sense from after Mahavira.

The theory has been rejected by B. A. Saletore and others on the ground that an inscription of 1162 A. D.4 maintains separate identity of the Ajivikas and Jainas. Not only this, certain other Tamil ephigraphs show that "the Ajivikas were taxed per capita, while the Jainas like other citizens were taxed per house." Further S. K. Aiyangar holds that the Ajivikas and the Jainas were confused together. In Kannada country, the Ajivikas were confounded with Buddhists. And hence in the light of such conflicting views nothing conclusively could be said. The Ajivikas and Jainas have been mentioned separately in the Buddhist literature as well?

The Ajivikas some times were equated with the Yapaniyas⁸, another sect of the Jainas, which were of the

^{1.} Hultzsch; S.I. I. vol. I, Nos. 88, 89, 92, 108.

^{2.} Hoernele, E. R. E., vol. I, p. 266.

^{3.} Ibid.

^{4.} Saletore, B. A; M. J., ch. VIIth, p. 221.

^{5.} Ibid. p. 221.

^{6.} Aiyangar, S. K.; M. H. S., pp. 55-6.

Rhys Davids, Dailogues of Buddha, I, pp. 71, 219-220, 227, 232 (S. B. E. II).

^{8.} Saletore B. A. M. J., ch. VIIth. p. 219.

Digambara appearance and had Śvētāmbara observance. But since these two sects have nowhere been associated with each other this view itself becomes untenable.

Gosala is said to have been a disciple of Mahavira. But after a period of six years he was expelled from the religieux owing to the insincere and treacherous conduct of the former. Gosala took his expulsion from the Jaina Church of Mahavira as an open challenge and a matter of great insult and thus fired up with a sense of hatred, ambition and pride decided to found a religious system of his own, with a view to overshadow the name, fame, and following of his great rival Mahavira.

The Śvētāmbara and Digambara Schisms

²• Shah, C. J., J.N.I.; p. 67.

The separation of the Niggantha Coummunity into two of its most important factions of the Svetambaras and the Digambaras, is a great turning point in the history of the Jaina Church. It is not known as to when the first division of this type took place. None of the schools attempts to give an idea of the origin of their own sect, and whatever they have to say regarding the origin of the other school is of no significance. This schism proved very harmful to the growth

The main differences between the Svetambaras and the Digambaras are five in number (1) the Śvetāmbaras unlike the Digambaras bold that the Tīrthamkaras should not be represented nude; (2) the Śvetāmbaras unlike the Digambaras allowed the admittance of womenfolk in their order; (3) the Śvetāmbaras hold that Mahāvīra got married and had children but according to the Digambaras he never married at all; (4) the Śvetāmbaras held that even a Kevalin required food, but to the Digambaras such a one can live even without food; (5) Svetambaras put on white robes where as the Digambaras kept on stark naked, Stevenson (Mrs.), pp. 79ff.

and the development of the Jaina Church and literature. Either of the schools regarded the other one as an order of heretics.

We cannot deduce the real origin or the date of these schisms from the inscriptions. The early existence of these schools, however can be noted in the epigraphs under our consideration. The Jaina inscriptions from Mathura are the earliest records which mention the names of the Svētāmbara preceptors—Gana, Kula, Sākhā and Sambhoga divisions, as they are recorded in Kalpasutra. The inscriptions belong to the 1st and 2nd centuries A.D. "The agreement of the inscriptions," says Bühler, with the Kalpasutra...proves on the one side that the Jainas of Mathura were Svetāmbara, and that the schism, which split the sect into two rival branches occured long before the beginning of our Christian era.1."

The evidence cited above provides an idea of the fulfledged Śvētāmbara hegemony in north. Thereafter the epigraphic knowledge of the Śvētāmbara sect from the inscriptions is but rare in the records under review.

The Digambara Sect: An existence of the Digambaras from early epigraphs could not be attempted. In an undated record from Devagiri, these two important sects have been mentioned together in connection with the donation of a village Kālavanga, by king Vijayaśivamrigeshavarmā. The sects mentioned here are styled as Śvētapaṭasamaṇa Saṃgha and Nirgrantha Samaṇa (Digambaras) Saṃgha, denoting the two corresponding systems of the Jaina Church. Most probably the Nirgranthas, mentioned in an undated record from Halsi, are the same as mentioned above.

^{1.} Bühler, I.S.J., p. 44.

Fleet, J.F., I.A. Vol. VII, pp. 37-38; J.S.S., Vol. II, No 98, pp. 70 ff.

^{3.} Ibid. Vol. VI. pp. 24-5; J.S.S. II, No. 99, pp. 72 ff.

Mūlasamgha (epigraphic term for Digambaras) has been referred to in several other inscriptions¹ belonging to the period under discussion. Sometimes even the subdivisions of Mūlasamgha are also described, as in an inscription from Merkara (466 A.D.).² The existance of the Kūrchakas,³ a sect of the Digambaras, as well leads us to suppose the wide prevalence of the Digambaras during that period.

Though the Mathura inscriptions are mostly Švētāmbara records, yet the existence of Digambaras at Mathura during that period could not be doubted. For there existed a Digambara Jaina temple, whose ruins were discovered by Fuhrer⁴. By the side of this temple was another altar belonging to the Śvētāmbaras. And hence the statement of J. C. Jain that the inscriptions from Mathura "do not show any trace of schism in the Jaina Church⁵" falls to the ground and should not be taken seriously.

The Great Schism: Though we do not have any direct description of the final schism in the Jaina Church yet an attempt on the same will not be anything inaccurate on the same ground. Bühler on the testimony of Mathura Jaina inscriptions, as I have pointed above in this chapter, observed that "the schism which split the sect into two rival branches, occured long before the beginning of our erast." This statement shows that the schism must have occured by at least 2nd century B. C.

Ep. Car., Vol.X, t1. Nos. 72 & 73; I.A., Vol. VII, No. 44, pp. 209-17; J. S. S., Vol. II, Nos. 90, 94, 106, pp. 55f; 60f; 85f.

²· J. S. S., II, No. 95, pp. 63f.

^{3.} For Kürchakas see ch. IV.

^{4.} Buhler, V. O. J., Vol. IV, pp. 169ff.

⁵. Jain, J. C., L. A. I., p. 28.

^{6.} Buhler, I. S. J., p. 44.

The Hathigumpha inscription of Kharavela is one of the most important of all the early Jaina records. But unfortunately it bears no reference whatsoever regarding either of the sects under consideration. And if the statement of Bühler is accepted as an authentic one. absence of any of these sects will create a great difficulty. But in its 14th line, we are informed of the benefactions made over to the yapa1 professors (identified with the Yāpanīya monks by Jayaswal2) by king Kharavela, which is the first mention of a Jaina School³ in inscriptions.

The origin of the sect of the Yāpanīyas (Yāpa) is assigned to 205th V. E. by the author of Darsanasāra, i.e., Devasena. And this date falls some 60-70 years after the Svetāmbara-Digambara schism, which corresponds to (205 V. S. -57.B.C. = 148 A. D. i. e.) 150 A. D. But even if the date of Hāthīgumpha inscription, as suggested by Sircar and others is to be accepted, the origin of the Yāpa (nīya) Saṃgha will go as for back as the last phase of 1st century B. C. Devasena (middle of the 9th century A. D.) being a man of later times, should not be relied upon concerning the minute details on the topic, though the presumption of the origin of the Yāpa sect some 70 years after the Svetāmbara-Digambara schism does not seem to be far from the truth.

In such a case, even if Hathigumpha inscription is assigned to 30-25 B. C.4 the great schism in the Jaina community

^{1.} Jayaswal reads the relevant passage... Kaya-nisidiyaya Yapa-navakehi... Ep. Ind., XX, p. 80.; Barua controvarted the reading..., Kayanisidiyaya (raja) bhatakehi rajabhatihi raja natihi... Old Brahmi Inscriptions, p. 25; Sircar changes the passage a bit... Kayanisidiyaya Yapunavakehi... Select Inscriptions. p. 210.

²· Jayaswal, 7. B. O. R. S., Vol. IV, pp. 388-9.

[.] Ibid, p. 366.

It is now agreed to have belonged to the last phase of the first century B.C., Select Inscriptions. p. 206.

should have occured round about the end of the 2nd century B. C. or the beginning of the 1st.

In point of confirmation, reference may be made to the Pattāvalis or the traditional lists of the Gurus of the two sects. The lists diverge for some generations a few tim's after Mahavira and meet again in Bhadrabāhu. They seem to be parting company almost immediately after Bhadrabāhu for Samantabhadra is the 19th teacher in the Svetāmbara and the 24th in the Digambara list. Hoernle observes that, "before Bhadrabāhu the Jaina community was undivided; with him the Digambaras separated from the Svētambaras."

Bhadrabāhu is said to have been a preceptor and a contemporary of the king Chandragupta Maurya. The Jain community under the leadership of the illustrious Chandra Gupta Maurya (3rd century B.C.) and his preceptor marched towards South due to the fear of the impending famine, causing thereby, the great schism.

The traditions of both the Svetāmbaras and the Digambaras agree on the point of the date of the great schism. According to the Svetāmbara tradition a certain Sivabhūti, a resident of Rathavirapur left his house and accepted the Jaina order of monks. He happend to receive a rich blanket from the king and became fond of it. His preceptor, however having noticed his likeness for it, asked him to leave the blanket aside. This aroused the anger of Sivabhuti and he ultimately decided to move about naked and thereby led to the origin of the sect of the Digambaras. He refused to initiate his sister Uttarā in his order, saying women were incapable of getting Salvation.³ This event is said to have

^{1.} Sharma, S. R., Jainism and Karnataka Culture p. 134.

²· Hoernle, 'Three further Pattavalis of the Digambaras', I.A., Vol. XXI, p. 59.

²· Shah, C. J., J.N. I. p. 69.

occured 609 years after Mahavira (609-527=82+57=) 139 Vikrama Sam. 1 (82. A.D.).

The Digambaras hold that "the Śvētāmbara Samgha had its beginning in Vallabhīpura in Saurāstra 163 years after the death of V krama²," i e. 70-80 A. D. This separation was caused by a person named Jinachandra³, who is said to be a man of shady character.

Devasena Suri in Bhāvasamgraha almost repeats the same story with the add tion of the traditional story of the prediction of a famine by Bhadrabāhu the date of schism being the same here as well. Ratnanandin clarified this tradition saying that in the days of Bhadrabāhu a schism start d, known as Ardhphalaka (half clothed.). But this introduction was opposed by Sthūlabhadra who was killed by those who favoured the separation which however came afterwards.

Though the traditional dates for the great schism are not very different yet the existence of both Sivabhūti and Jinachandra seems to be doubtful. In this connection, it may be pointed out that no such saintly personages have been referred to in the historical documents of the two respective orders. It was most probably on this basis that Nathuram Premi observed that, "can we not infer from this that nobody knew the origin of either of the divisions? Something must be said and so afterwards they put down anything that came into their heads?." It is further confirmed by the

Āva
śyaka Bhāsya, pp. 154f; Āva
śyakachūrnī, p. 427; Das-gupta, Vol. I, p. 170.

^{2.} Premi, N. R., Darśanasara, V. II, p. 7.

^{3.} Ibid, V. 12-15.

^{4.} Shah, C. J., J. N. I., p. 68.

^{5.} Ibid, p. 6; Dasgupta, Vol. I, p. 170.

^{6.} Shah, C, J., J. N. I., p. 69.

^{7.} Premi, N. R., Daršanasāra, p. 30

evidence of the line of the Gurus, from the time of Mahavira upto Jambusvāmi, as given by either of the two sects. Thereafter which they differ for some generations but agree on the point of Bhadrabahu-Chandra Gupta tradition. And hence, concludes Shah that "really speaking, one cannot arrive at any definite conclusion from all these mutually conflicting traditions, and hence it is almost impossible to fix an exact date for this great schism in the Jaina community.

So far as traditions are concerned we do not have anything which could throw light on the origin of the great schism. The authenticity of the epigraphic records for the date of the event as attempted above, too, is not completely free from doubt. It has to be confessed that supporting evidence is lacking. There were monks clad in white robes since the days of Parśva, who were known as Sthavirakalpa, whereas those who followed Mahavira's principle of nudity were called Tinakalpa and were the precursors of the later Svetambaras Further it has been and the Digambaras respectively2. asserted by N. R. Premi that originally the Svētāmbaras used (white) clothes only in some prescribed conditions to avoid shame, weakness etc. and in general the old and infirm monks were allowed to use them. He further says that even as late as the 6th or 7th century after Vikrama the Svetambara monks were allowed to put on a loin cloth in some special conditions. But those who adopted clothes without any specific reason were severely condemned for that3. Thus the use of cloth even among the Svetāmbaras was restricted.

In the light of the evidences cited, above one may agree with J. C. Jain that 'the division of Jains in Svetāmbra and Digambara was a gradual process'.

¹ Shah, C. J., J. N. I., p. 70.

^{2.} Stevenson (Mrs.), The Heart of Jainism, p. 79.

^{3.} Premi, Jaina Sāhitya Aur Itihasa, p. 4/9.

^{4.} Jain, J. C., Lite as depicted in Jaina Canons, p. 28.

The Great Religious Leaders

The demise of Lord Mahavira led Gautama to the pontificate for a period of 12 years. He was followed by Sudharma who continued to be in the office for 12 more years. Sudharma was succeeded by his pupil Jambusvāmi. Jambu was followed by Prabhava, Sayambhava. Yasobhadra and Sambhutavijaya in order. Thereafter, came the illustrious Bhadrabāhu (I), after whose name the traditions of the Digambaras and the Svetāmbaras differ greatly from one another. Bhadrabāhu on the Digambara side was followed by Viśākha, Prosthila, Kshatriya, Jayasena, Nāgasena, Siddhārtha, Dhristisena, Vijaysena, Buddhilinga Dharmasena and Nakshtra etc¹.

Some of the names of this list are furnished by an inscription (600 A. D.) from Sravana Belagola though with a few omissions and additions. The list of the record mentions Lord Mahavira, who was followed by Gautama, Lohāryya, Jambu, Vishņudeva, Aparājita, Govardhana, Bhadrabāhu, Visākha, Prosthila, Kritikārya, Jayanāma², Siddhārtha, Dhritisena, Budhila³ and others⁴.

Bhadrabāhu of this list has been identified by Fleet with Bhadrabāhu II⁵ of the Digambara *Paṭṭāvalis*. But the said monk was identified with Bhadrabāhu I by Rice. Narsimhachar agrees⁶ with this view.

The first three pontiffs after Lord Mahavira were Kevalins, and five from Vishnunandin upto Bhadrbahu I

Hoernle, 'Three further Pattāvalis of the Digambaras,' I.A., Vol. XXI, pp. 57 ff.

^{2.} Jayanama and Jayasena seem to have been identical.

^{3.} Budhila and Buddhilinga are perhaps identical.

^{4.} Ep. Car., Vol. II, No. I; J. S. S., 1, No. I. (1).

Fleeet, J. F., 'Bhadrabāhu, Chandra Gupta & Sravanabelagola', I. A., Vol. XXI, pp. 156 ff.

Narsimhachar. Ep. Car., Vol. II, Int.; Jain, H.L., J.S.S., I, Int., pp. 64 ff.

were known as Śrutakevalins, and next nine patriarchs were termed as Pūrvins, and all of them held the office in totality for 62, 100 and 188 years respectively.

We are at a loss to gather up the names of the teachers, of the Svetāmbaras from our records yet many of the names of the founders of the Ganas, Kulas, etc. presuppose their epigraphic existence.¹

We do not have any epigraphic bearing on literature, and hence it will be out of place to discuss that topic here.

The Yāpanīya Schism

The Jainas are mainly thought of to have got divided in two main sects of the Digambaras and the Svetāmbaras from which all of their minor schools and sects originated and expanded. Nevertheless, these sects possess a vast literature tradition and following of their own. But, besides the two sects of note, there was another sect of the Jainas, known as Yāpanīya, Āpuliya or Gopya Samgha².

Our epigraphic knowledge with regard to the sect of Yāpanīyas is not totally meagre. The Yāpanīyas for the first time are mentioned in an epigraph of king Mrigeshvarma, the Kadamba ruler, which goes to record the gift of a piece of land made incumbent upon the monastic settlement of the Yāpanīyas³ and others. The next such mention is to be gathered from an inscription of King Ravi (Varma), from Pālā (Sikā), the capital of the Kadambas, which records the gift of a Village Purukhetaka by name, for the celebration of

^{1.} See ch. 1V.

^{2.} Premi. N.R., Jaina Sāhitya aur Itihāsa, p. 56.

Srī Vijaya palāsikāyām Yāpanī (ya), Nirgrantha, Kūrch-chhkānām, svavaijayīke astame vaišākhe samvastsare kārttika-puurnamāsyām Matarisarita Aradhya ainginisāngmata rājmanena trāyastrišannivarttanam, śrī vijaya vaijyanti nivasi dattavān bhagvadbhyordbhyah. Indian Antiquary, Vol. VI, p. 24-25 no. 21, J.S.S., Vol II, no. 99. pp. 72-74.

the Astāhnika worship of the Jainas, made over to the Yāpanīyas.¹ The concluding reference concerning the sect of the Yāpanīyas, could be seen in an epigraph of Devavarma, son of the illustrious king Krishnavarma, the Kadamba King of Palasika, the performer of Aśvamedha sacrifice, wherein the gift of a piece of land, for the repairs of the Chaityālaya of the Jina and his worship, was made over to the Samgha of the Yāpanīyas². These records corroborate the existence of this sect at an early date of our era.

Though the origin of this sect is not quite certain yet none can doubt the fact that the Yāpanīyas at a time were almost as numerous and influential as the Svetāmbara and Digambara schools of the Jainas³. Further they could be said to have formed a connecting link between the two extremist Jaina followings.

The Yāpanīyas after these epigraphic references are mentioned in Lalitavistara, Darśanasāra, Panchamārgōtpatti and Bhadrabāhucharita etc.

According to Devasena, the author of Dārśanasāra, this sect was originated by a Svetāmbara monk around 205

^{1. ...}Puņyārtha svapiturmatre dāttavāna Purukheţakam... Jinendra mahimā kāryya pratisamvatsaram kramata Aṣṭāhkritamaryādā......varshikarmschchaturo māsān yāpanīyastarasvinah...Indian Antiquary, Vol. VI, no. XXII. pp. 25-27, J.S.S., Vol. II, no. 100, pp. 74-76.

^{2. ...} Aśvamedbayājinah...dharmamahārājasya śrī Krishņa varmaņah priyatanayo Devavarmayuvarajah svapuņyaphalābhikānkshayā trilokabhūtahitadešiņah dharma pravarttanasya arhatah bhagvatah chaityālayasya bhagnasamskārārchchan mahimārtham Yāpanīya(sa)mghebhyah...dvādaśa vivarttnani kshetrau dattavān, I. A., Vol. VII, No. XXXV, pp. 33-35; J. S. S, II. No 105. pp. 83-84,

^{3.} Muni Jinavijaya, Preface of Paumchariu, Vol. I.

Vikram Samvat.¹ This date falls just after a lapse of 60 or 70 years after the great schism which separated the whole Jaina community in two major sects of the Digambaras and the Švetāmbaras.² But Nathu Ram Premi is inclined to prove the contemporaniety of the division of all these three sects,² almost to the same period.

Origin of the Yāpanīya Samgha: The origin of the Yāpanīya samgha will be considered over here. A story in Bhadrabāhu-charita shows that a king Bhūpāla invited some Jaina monks to preach the sacred law of the Jinas in response to the request of his royal consort, from the capital of the latter's father. The monks arrived with the minister of the king, who refused to see them clad in white robes, and rebuked his queen. Thereafter, the monks when requested by the queen, lett aside their clothes, and thus gave rise to the new sect of the Yāpanīya Jainas by adopting Digambara appearance and Svētāmbara observance. King Bhūpāla stands nowhere in the whole region of history. His character and per onality are purely mythical. The Bhadrabāhu Samhitā has mystified the origin of the Yāpanīya sect which should not be believed as it is a later work.

Another tradition of this sort is alluded to in Panchamargotpatti, in which, according to Taylor, a sect called Yavaniyam

^{1.} Kallane varanayara Dunnisaya Panchuttare Jaae|
Javaniyasamghabhavo sirikalasadhu sevadado||29
Darsanasāra; cf. S. B. Deo, History of Jaina Monachism,
p. 448.

^{2.} Chhattise varisasaye vikkamarayassa maranpattassa sortthe valhiye uppanno sevado samgho ||1||-Ibid.

^{3.} Premi, N. R., Jaina Sāhitya Aur Itihāsa, p. 57.

Tadātivēlam bhūpādyaih pūjitā mānitashchataiḥ /
dhritam digvāsasam rūpānchārāh sitavāsasām //153
Guru sikshātigāmlingam natavadbhindimāspadam /
tatoyāpanasamgho-bhūtteshām kāpathvartinam //4.154//— Bhadrabāhucharita, Kashi Lal, Uday Lal.

is said to have originated out of the Svētāmbara sect and decided to go on naked.

According to Devasena's Darśanasāra, however, the sect was started by a Śvetāmbara monk named Śrikalaśa, at Kalyāna² These traditional accounts show that the Jainas had forgotten the origin of the sect. And as such possibly nothing definite can be said on this point. But it seems certain that they were in all probability a branch of the Švetāmbaras as the Jaina tradition suggests.

As pointed above, Yāpanīvas derived their designation from the Yāpa (Yāpana), some of whom worshipped the bones of their teachers, and hence gave rise to the sect of the Yāpanīyas. The Yāpanīyas have been included in the list of the five pseudo-Jaina sects, by Indranandi the author of Nītisāra probably because they were opposed both to the Digambaras and the Śvetāmbaras. It was due to this ritualistic difference which resulted in their being called as 'Jainā-bhāsā'.

The Yāpanīyas at a time were very numerous in the Karnataka and the regions adjacent to it. This religious order was patronised by the Kadambas and the Rāṣṭrakūṭas etc.

Later, however, this important Jaina sect either became extinct or merged into the Digambara order.⁵

Ep. Ind., Vol. IV, pp. 338-339.

^{2.} S. B. Deo, History of Jaina Monachism, p. 448.

Jayaswal, K. P., J.B.B.O.R.S. Vol. IV.

Göpuchhakaḥ śwetawāsā drāvido yāpaniyakaḥ / Nihpichhikāśchēti panchaite Jainābhāsā prakīrtitaḥ / Quoted in Sharma, S. R., J.K.C., p. 153

S. B. Deo, History of Juna Monachism, p. 448.

CHAPTER FOUR

RELIGIOUS ORGANISATIONS

Originally the Jaina community in its entirety was known by the single term Niggantha. The word has been so used in Aśokan edicts (VII PE), as early as 257 B. C. The community comprised four different categories, which gave it another popular designation Chaturvidha (or Chaturvarna, as known from epigraphs¹) Samgha, for the fact that it included monks. nuns, and male and female liacs. The mention of Chaturvarna Sangha and the nuns in Mathura Jaina records goes to prove beyond doubt the inclusion of women in the Jaina order since an early date of its history. The inclusion of nuns in Jaina order could not have been as a result of an imitation from the Buddhists. This assertion gets support from the Jaina works² and the epigraphs from Mathura too can be cited in support of this. The borrowing was probably from the Hindu religious order from whence the Buddhists themselves took the idea. For we know that the Vaishnavas and the Saivas allowed the admittance of women in their orders at an early date3.

The Jaina monastic system has provided a very good and respectable position to its laity. They built temples and monasteries and gifted lands for their maintenance and management. The Jaina laity exercised great powers over the Samgha in the ancient days of the religion. The secular headship remained with them. They were also authorised to manage the institutions they built and to restore discipline and order among the monks whenever it was required. The laity could have decided the expulsion and admission of

¹· I. A., Vol. XXXIII, No. 19, p. 105.

^{2.} Buhler, V.O.J., Vol IV, p. 319.

^{8.} Ibid.

monks in the monasteries not only in case of the ordinary monks but even in that of the 'Sri Pūjas' or the heads of the religious sections. Jaina liacs had supreme rights over all of the whereabouts of his section (school or Gaṇa) and could have dethroned (or enthroned) any man from the spiritual headship of his section. Buhler on the basis of the mention of the liacs in the epigraphs, observes that "the Gaṇas, Kulas and Śākhās probably means something more than the fact that they attended the religious service of monks of the particular subdivisions named²." Further he points out the power and influence of the Jaina laymen over the sections they belonged.

Niggantha Samana Samgha

An inscription of the Kadamba king Śri Vijaya Śivamrigeśvarmā³ mentions the gift of a village Kālavanga, divided into 3 parts i. e., (1) to the Arhat Jinendra of Puṣkala (2) to the Śvetapaṭasamaṇa Saṃgha, and (3) to Nirgrantha (Digambaras)⁴ Samaṇa Saṃgha. The three parties mentioned were to enjoy their respective shares.

In another likewise instance as well the Nirgranthas are referred; the inscriptions from Halsi mention the Nirgranthas together with the Yapaniyas and the Kūrchakas.

Although the word Nirgantha as pointed above has been used in the canonical works of both the Jainas and the Buddhists to denote the Jaina community at large⁶, yet in both the cases cited here the word has been used to denote the

Buhler, V. O. J., IV, pp. 313-31.

^{2.} Ibid.

Fleet, J. F., I.A., Vol. VI, pp. 24-5; Ibid, Vol. VII, No. 37, pp. 37-38; J. S. S., Vol. II, No. 98, pp. 69ff. & 99, pp. 72ff.

[•] Fleet, I. A., Vol. VII, No. XXXVII, pp. 37-38...

^{5.} Ibid, Vol. VI, pp. 24-25; J.S.S., Vol. II, No. 99, pp. 72 ff.

[•] Premi, N. R., Jaina Sāhitya aur Itihāsa, p. 478.

Digambara sect of the Jainas. These inscriptions are of a later date, when the two major sects of the Jainas had already become strong and important. Thus the word cannot be taken to stand for the whole Jaina community. It appears therefore, that the word though, originally denoted the Jaina order, later it came to be used only for the Digambaras.

Mūla Samgha

The Mūlasamgha is said to have been a popular designation of the Digambara sect of the Jainas in inscriptions. Further the whole Digambara Jaina community excepting the five pseudo-Jaina orders as narrated by Devasena, was termed as Mūlasamgha. The earliest reference regarding Mūlasamgha could be gathered from an inscription dated c. 370 A. D, issued by a Ganga king Mūdhvavarmā, in the 13th year of his reign. The inscription mentions the grant of a piece of land and a village called Pēbbolala, of the Mudukottūra viṣaya to a Jinālaya erected by the Mūlasmgha by the king on the advice of Āchārya Viradeva.

The second reference with regard to the Mūlasamgha is to be traced in a Ganga inscription of 425 A. D. of Kongunivarma, the king of kings. It mentions the grant of a village in compliance to the wishes of the King's Upādhyāya (Āchārya) Parmārhata Vijayakīrti, to the Jaina temple of Uranūra, established by the head of the Mūlasamgha, Āchārya Chandranandī, and to the Jaina temple of Perūrevāni-Adigala.

^{1.} Jain, H., Jaina Śilālekha Samgraha, Vol. I, pp. 129 & 144.

^{2.} Premi, N. R., Jaina Sāhity 2 aur Itihāsa, p. 485.

Ep. Car., Vol. X, Malur tl. No. 73; J. S. S., Vol. 11, No. 90, pp. 55-56.

^{4.} Ibid, No. 72; J. S. S., Vol. 11, No. 94, pp. 60-63.

^{5.} Ibid.

Another mention to this effect is found in the Altem inscription of 489-90 A. D. of Sāmiyār the governor of Kuhundi district, under king Pulakesin I, in the Alaktakanagra, which was encircled by a set of seven hundred villages. The grant was made to Muni Siddhanandi of Mūlasaṃgha Kākōpala Amnāya. The epigraph also records the line of preceptors, beginning from Siddhanandi to his disciple Chikāchārya, his disciple Nāgdeva and his disciple Jinanandi.

To N. R. Premi the Kundakundānvya seemed to be of higher antiquity as compared to Mūlasamgha² as Chaudranandī in the Markarā (Coorg) epigraph of A. D. 466 of king Konguņivarmā, the secondus, is said to have belonged to the Kundakundānvya. The record contains a line of spiritual preceptors starting from Guṇachandrabhaṭār of Kundkundā anvaya, his disciple Abhaṇandi (Abhayanandi), Sīlabhandra bhaṭār, Jayaṇaṇdibhaṭār, Guṇanandibhaṭār and Chaṇḍaṇandibhaṭār (Chandranandi)³ to whom the village of Badṇeguppe was given for the use of Śrivijaya Jaina temple of Talvan-nagar⁴.

Kundakundāchārya is a much repeated and reverred name in the history of the Jaina (Digambara) sect. He seems to have been a connecting link between the old and new Digambara Jaina sects. A great many works of this Āchārya have been found, though various other Jaina authors and works, preceding him are known to have existed. However, none of these works are found today. Thus the Āchāryas following him practised it as a fashion to style themselves as a descendant of the line of Āchārya Kundakunda. Kundakundā.

Fleet, I.A., Vol. VII, No. 44. pp. 209-17; J. S.S., Vol. II, No. 106, pp. 85-90.

^{2.} Premi, N. R., Jaina Sāhitya aur Itihāsa, p. 485.

^{3.} Ibid.

^{4.} Ibid.

^{4. 7.}S.S., Vol. I, (Int.) p. 129.

charya probably reorganised the Digambara Jaina community and strengthened its Church through his efforts and writings. It was this aspect of the personality of the teacher which earned him great fame and associated his name with the sect. Further Kundakunda is said to have been the first ganin of Mülasamgha according to an inscription No. 55. (69), dated 1100 A. D.:

Śrīmato Vardhamānasya vardhamānasya śāsanē / Śrī Kunda Kunda-nāmābhūnmūla saṃghāgraṇī //3//1

The epigraphic statement cited above should not be relied upon greatly as it belongs to a considerably later date. Still it is not impossible that later on the Mūlasamgha, Kundakundānvaya, and Nirgrantha all came to denote the same Digambara sect. It must have been so even before the eminence of Kundakundāchārya, but later on the wide spreading fame of the teacher aforesaid, compelled the Jain is to join his name with that of the Mūlasamgha (to which he might have belonged), as is clear from the testimony of a large number of Srāvaṇabēlagōlā inscriptions. But that is a later development which aquired popularity at a later date. Thus later on Mūlasaṃgha and the Kundakundānvaya became identical.

Dēvasena the celebrated author of Darśanāsārā gives a list of five false Jaina sects, which comprised the Śvētāmbaras, the Yāpanīyas the Drāvid, the Kāṣṭhā and the Māthur saṃghas. The Digambara observances and performances are some what different from those of these organisations.

Devasena says about Āchārya Vajranandi, the founder of the Drāvida Samgha, that he earned sin by drawing his suste-

^{1.} J. S. S., Vot. I, (Int.), p. 115.

²· J. S. S., Vol. I, Nos. 55, 59, 90, 105, 124, 130, etc.

^{2.} Premi, N. R., Jaina Sahitya aur Itihāsa, p. 359.

^{4.} Ibid., p. 483.

^{5.} Ibid.

nance through cultivation, basadis, Jina temples and trade.¹ This statement clearly shows that the Jaina monks of the Drāvida Samgha lived in temples and perhaps ventured to cultivate the land gifted to their temples.² Thus this practice led to the origin of a new class of monks known as Chaityavāsis to the Jainas, whose origin in case of the Nirgranthas is not known³ whereas in the case of the Švetāmbaras it is said to have started in the 832nd year of the Vira Nirvāṇa era.⁴ But Bechardas and Muni Kalyanavijaya seem to be on firm grounds when they date this Chaityāvāsa sthiti at a very early date in the history of the Jaina organisations on the basis of the worship and respect offered by the kings and princes of the time.⁵

Devasena has not included Mülasamgha in his list of the false Jaina sects. But the essential characteristics whose presence in those sects made him to term them in that way could even be traced in the Mülasamgha as well from an early date. The earliest references regarding Mülasamgha are to be found in inscriptions numbering 90, 91 and 106 (J. S. S., II), all of which were issued to record land grants made by their issuers in favour of this Jaina Samgha. And as these inscriptions are earlier than the date of Devasena suri, the same practice which enabled him to term Svetāmbara, Yāpanīya, Drāvida, Kaṣthā and Māthura Samghas as false sects, was inherent in the Mūlasamgha from its early days and must have been very popular during the time of the composition of Daréanāsāra as it becomes clear from the epigraphs of the time. The Mūlasamghī Jainas likewise could

^{1.} Kachham Khēttam vasahim vānijjam karinna jīvanto / Nhamto siyalanīrē pavam pauram sa samchēdi //

⁻Darśanāsāra Gāthā, 27.

^{2.} Premi, N. R., Jaina Sāhitya aur Itihāsa, p. 484.

^{3.} Ibid, p. 482.

^{4.} Vīrata 882 Chaityasthitih, Ibid, p. 480.

^{5.} Ibid.

not have escaped the management and cultivation of the land gifted to their temples. Hence the silence of the celebrated author of *Darśanasāra* is some what strange and shows the bias of Devasena towards Mūlasamgha. This is confirmed by the fact that his arguments with regard to the false sects were adopted from the Āchāryas who flourished before him. It is also quite possible that he himself belonged to the Mūla-Samgha. This shows that while he was critical of the rival sects the religious rivalry forced him to be silent about similar practices of his own sect.

Later inscriptions give a number of divisions and subdivisions of Mūlasamagha. Mūlasamagha was divided into four samghas (Simha, Sēna, Nandi and Dēva Samghas) some Ganas and Gachchhas but none of these subdivisions are known from the inscriptions under our consideration.

The Kürchaka Samgha

The Kūrchaka samgha of the Jainas is known from two epigraphic records of the Kadamba kings Mṛigeśavarma and Harivarma. The first of which mentions a land grant to the Yāpanīyas, the Nirgranthas (Digambaras), and the Kūrchakas by king Mṛigeśa who created a Jinālaya in the city of Pālāsikā. The next epigraph mentions the land grants made by king Harivarma, on the request of Āchārya Śivaratha, for the Aṣṭāhnika worship and the feeding up of the whole Samgha. The grant was made to one Chandrakshanta, who was made the head of the Vāriṣēnāchārya samgha of the Kūrchakas.

The mention of the Kürchakas with the Yāpanīyas and Nirgrnthas in the former epigraph shows that they were different from both of them, whereas their separate mention

^{1.} Premi, N. R., Jaina Sāhitya aur Itihāsa, p. 486.

^{2.} Fleet, I. A., Vol. VI, pp. 24-5 & J. S. S., Vol. II, No. 99.

Fleet, Ibid, No. 25, pp. 30-31; J. S. S., Vol. II, No. 103, pp. 80-1.

in the latter epigraph points to the power and influence they wielded during the Kadamba rule.

The word Kürchaka variously denotes, peacocktail and beard. The naturalised form of this word seems to have been Künchi. The monks of Karnātaka use Künchi-Kamandalu among their ordinary belongings. It is not improbable that the Kürchas were unlike the Yāpanīyas and the Digambaras wearing peacocktail as the very name suggests.

In ancient times there were different types of Jaina monks known as Kūrchaka (those wearing beard & mustachios); those who kept a lock of hair on their head (śikhādhārī; were clean shaven (Mudiyā); clothed and unclothed. This system of asectic order proves the possibility of an order of Jaina monks which was designated as Kurchakas for its monks kept beard and mustachios both².

Jinasena while describing Jaṭācharya the author of Varānga-charita mentions the movements of his moving locks of long hair, which shows the existence of Jaina Jaṭādhāri monks³. This itself can prove the existence of a sect like the Kūrchaka sect. This Jaina sect was popular perhaps since the beginning of the Christian era for it has been assigned to a high position in the epigraphs of the Kadamba kings of 5th century. But the early references regardig this sect are some how or the other lost. Its divisions by the fifth century A.D., like that of Vāriṣēṇāchārya samgha show that they had attained firm footing in the Jaina order of monks by this time.

A sect known as Kūrchī (or Kūrchaka) has been menioned with the Jaṭādhārī, Kūrchadhārī (Kūrchī), Choṭīdhārī, Muḍiyā and Chīvaradhāris in his commentary on *Uttarādhyāyanasūtra* by Āchārya Śanti⁴. Therefore these ascetics mentio-

^{1.} Premi, N. R., Jaina Sāhitya aur Itihāsa, p. 560.

^{2.} Ibid.

^{3.} Ibid, pp. 560-61.

Jați kūrchi śikhi mundi chivari nagna ēva cha/ tapyannapi tapah kastam maudhyādhinsro na siddhiyati// Ibid, p. 561.

ned with them must have been the monks accustomed to grow beard and mustachios.

In a passage of Vrihatkalpasūtra's Laghu Bhāṣya by Sam-ghadāsa Gaṇin, the Āryikas have been prohibited to accept clothes from Kāpālikas, Bhikkhus (Buddhists) and from the Suivadīkuchhiyas. The meaning of Kūrchika has been given as Kūrchandhara or one who keeps both beards and mustachios.¹ In the present state of our knowledge it is difficult to make any assumption regarding the Saṃgha of the Jaina Kūrchaka monks except that they seem to have been a sect of the Digambaras.

The Śvetapaṭasamana Samgha

The first reference with regard to the Svetāmbara Saṃgha is presented by an undated epigraph of king Vijayaśivamrigeśvarma² who made certain land grants to them. The existence of the Svetāmbaras is further proved by the testimony of Mathura Jaina epigraphs which go to prove beyond doubt the inclusion of nuns in the Jaina Saṃgha of Mathura and thereby its Svetāmbara nature. The Digmabaras were opposed to the inclusion of women in the Jaina Saṃgha.

Devasena in his Darsansara has included this Svetāmbara sect in the list of his five false Jaina schools. The management and cultivation of land under the possession of the Svetāmbara temples could be inferred from the epigraphs whose credence has been noted above.

The Jaina references regarding the Svetāmbaras in South, are quite meagre, and hence anything could hardly be said about them with certainly. The evidences with regard to the divisions and subdivisions of the Svetāmbara saṃgha in south are also scanty.

^{1.} Premi N. R., Jaina Sahitya aur Itihāsa, pp. 661-62.

Fleet, I.A., Vol. VII, No. 37, pp. 37-38: J.S.S., Vol. II, No. 98, pp. 69ff.

The Yapaniyas

The further divisons of the Jaina saṃgha, are not known from the records under consideration here. Though the names of Naṃdi saṃgha, Punnāgavṛikṣhamūlagaṇa and Śrī kīrtyā-chā yānvaya are known from a later epigraph of 812 A. D.¹ The Nandīsaṃgha of the Yāpanīyas² should not be confused with the homonoymous religious organisation of the Digambaras.

The knowledge of Jaina Ganas etc. rests mainly on the epigraphic sources. The inscriptions under consideration here are not in possession of a vast information, with regard to the topic to be dealt with. The Ganas known to us from our inscriptions, and their divisions and subdivisions will be dealt with in detail here in corroboration with their references from the Jaina literary sources.

The Köttiya Gana and its branches

The inscriptions from Mathura prove the existence of Köttiya Gana³, all of its Kula divisions and some of its Śākhā divisions. The Kula divisions under this Gana as known from our inscriptions are four in number i.e. (1) Brahmadāsikā⁴,

Epigraphia Indica, Vol. IV, pp. 340-345; J. S. S., Vol. II, No. 124, pp. 131 ff.

See 'Schools in the Jaina Church', ch. III.

Ep. Ind., Vol. I, Nos. 1, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 15, 22, 24, 14, 28 and Ep. Ind., Vol. II, Nos. XII, XXXVII, XIII, XVIII, XX, XXII, XXIV; Cunningham, Arch. Survey Reports, Vol. III, Nos. XXI & XXV; I. A., Vol. XXXIII, No. V. pp. 36-37; J. S. S., Vol. II, Nos. 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 25, 27, 29, 30, 31, 35, 40, 42, 54, 55, 56, 59, 66, 68, 70,74;

^{4.} Buhler, Ep. Ind., Vol. I, Nos. I, IV,V, XIV; Ibid, Vol. II, No. XXXVII; I. A., Vol. XXXIII, No. V, pp. 36-37 & No. XIV, pp. 103 ff; J. S. S., Vol. II, Nos. 19, 20, 22, 23, 31, 35 & 50.

(2) Vachchhaliya, (3) Thāniya or Sthān iya, and (4) Paṇha-vāhaṇaya. But the Śākhā divisions known from the epigraphs are only 3 in number, namely (i) the Ucchenāgarī śākhā, (ii) Vairī or Vērī Śākhā (or vajrī), and (iii) the Majhmā Śakhā. Besides these, two Saṃbhōga divisions (which will be delt with later on), named Sirika and Śrīgriha Saṃbhōgas respectively are known.

The Jaina Kalpasūtra contains some important references with regard to this and other Ganas. The Sthavirāvalī of the Kalpasūtra credits Susthîta and Supratibuddha as the two conjoint founders of Kauṭika Gana (perhaps identical with the Koṭṭika Gana of the inscriptions). this Gana ultimately got split up into four different Kula divisions namely: (i) the Bambhalijjı (or the Brahmaliptaka), (ii) the Vachchhalijja (or Vātsalîya), (iii) The Vāṇijja (or the Vāṇiya), and (iv) the Praśnavāhanaka Kulas. The Kauṭika Gaṇa of the

^{1.} Ep. Ind., Vol. II, No. XIII; J. S. S., Vol. II, No. 27.

²· Ep. Ind., Vol. I, Nos. III, VII, VIII, XXI, XXII, XXVIII; Ibid, Vol. II, Nos. XV, XVIII & XXIX; J.S.S., Vol. II, Nos. 29, 30, 40, 42, 54, 55, 56, 68, & 83.

Buhler, Ep. Ind., Vol. II, No. XXII; J. S. S., Vol. II, No. 66.

Buhler, Ep. Ind., Vol. I, Nos. I, IV, V, & XIV: Ibid, Vol. II, Nos. VI, XXIV & XXXVII; I. A., Vol. XXXIII, Nos. V & XIV, pp. 36-37 & 103 ff; J. S. S., Vol. II, Nos. 19, 20, 22, 23, 31, 35, 36, 50, 70.

^{5.} Ep. Ind., Vol. I, Nos. III, VIII, VIII, XXI, XXII, XXVIII; Ibid, Vol. II, Nos. XV, XVIII, XX; J. S., S., Vol. II, Nos. 29, 30, 40, 42, 54, 55, 56; 59, 68.

[•] Ep. Ind., Vol. II, No. XXII; 7. S. S., Vol. II, No. 66.

^{7.} Ep. Ind., Vol. I, Nos. 28, 7; J.S.S. Vol. II, Nos. 30, 42.

^{8.} I. A., Vol. 33, No. 5. pp. 36-37 & Ep. Ind., Vol. I, 14, 3, 4, 21; Ibid, Vol. II, Nos. 37-38, J. S. S., Vol. II, Nos. 20, 22, 23, 29, 31, 54, 55.

Jacobi, H., The Kalpasutra, S. B. E., Vol. XXII, p. 292.

^{16.} Ibid.

Kalpasūtra was furtler divided into four Šākhā subdivisions, which were (1) The Uchchanāgarī, (2) The Vidyādharî, (3) The Vajrî and (4) The Majjhimilla or Madhyamikā Šākhās¹. As the tradition of Kalpasūtra narrates, the Šākhās must have derived their designations from their founders. Thus in Kalpasūtra, the founders of Kautika Gaṇa, are said to have had five common disciples, four out of whom are said to have founded the four Śākhās of this Gaṇa.² The equation of the homonymous epigraphic and Kalpasūtra Gaṇas, Kula, and Šākhā divisions becomes clear from the table given below:

KOŢŢIKA (KAUŢIKA) GAŅA ³			
The Kulas	The Śākhās		
Kalpsūtrika Epigraphic	Kalpasūtrika Epigraphic		

- (1) Bambhalijja Brahmadāsikā Uchchhanāgarī Uchchhēnagarī
- (2) Vachchhlijja Vachchhalïya Vijjāharī Vidyādharī
- (3) Vaņijja Thānīya⁶ Vajrī Vairī
- (4) Praśnavāhanaka Paņhavāhaņaya Madhyamikā Majhamā

The Kalpasūtra contains not even a single reference to the Sambhoga divisions of the Jaina community.

It may here be suggested that in no instance the Brahmadāsika Kula is mentioned with any of the three remaining

^{1.} Jacobi; H., The Kalpasutra, p. 292.

^{2.} Ibid, Santisenika founded the Uchchhanāgarī Sākhā, Vidyādhara Gopāla was the founder of Vidādharī Sākhā Priyagantha was the founder of Madhyamā Sākhā (p.293) and most probably (though it is not stated) Ārya Vajra, was the founder of Vajrī Sākhā.

^{3.} cf. S. B. Deo, History of Jaina Monachism, p. 516.

For its identification see Buhler, Ep. Ind., Vol. I. p. 397.

This seems to be identical to the fort of Unchanagar, in the district of Bulandshahar, whose ancient name was Varana or Barana, see Buhler, Ep. Ind., Vol. I, p. 379.

^{6.} Or Sthāniya Kula.

Śākhās of this Gana but that known as Uchchhenāgari Śākhā. So like Thā (Sthā) niya Kula is always mentioned with Vairi or Vajrī Śākhā; likewise is the instance of Panhaváhanava Kula and Majhamā Śākhā 1 But the scanty inscriptions which unfortunately are mutilated and fragmentary as well, bearing the name of Vachchhaliya2 Kula contain no name of its counter part or the Sakha division. More or the less, similar is the case with Vidyadhari Śakha3, the epigraphs mentioning it do not refer to its Kula division from which it could be said to have branched off. But as in all the cases, the Śākhā divisions contain the name of the same Kula division, from which they might have originated, it could easily be said that the Vachchhaliya Kula and Vijjāharī Śākhā, must have some sort of a relationship. The inference should be accepted as no other information is to be found from any sort of the present sources.

The lines of the spiritual ancestors related to this gana and its many divisions and subdivisions will now be considered graphically.

Their relation could further be assumed from the statement of Rajśekhara mentioned at the end of Prabandhakôśa (c. 1405), wherein he says:
Śrī Praśnavāhanakulē Koţikanāmani ganē Jagadviditē Śrī madhyamśīkhāyām harṣapurīyabhidhē gachchhē // Maladhārivirudavidita Śrī abhayōpapadasūrisamtānē / Śrī tilakasūriśiṣyah sūrīh śrī rājáśekharōjayati // cf. Buhler, V. O. J., Vol. I, pp. 165ff.

Ep. Ind., Vol. II, No. 13; J. S. S., Vol. II, No. 27.

Ep. Ind., Vol. II, No. XXXIX, pp. 210-11; J. S. S., Vol. II, No. 92.

(1) Brahmadasika Kula Ucchchanāgari Śākhā (I) Ārya Jyeşthahasti Ārya Mihila(Mihir) Arya Mahala Ārya Gādhaka Ārya Kṣhēraka (Kṣhairaka) Āryā Shāmā (a nun) (II) Arya Jayamitra (a vrihamta vāchaka) Ārya Ōgha Ārya Pāla Ārya Datta (Sraddhachara of a ganin, Aryapala) Arya Simha (Siha) (a vāchaka in the Srīgriha Sambhoga) (III) Ārya Balatrata Arya Sadhi Aryā Grarhā(?) (a nun) (2) Vachchhalijja Kula Vidyādhari Śākhā (3) Thaniya Kula Vairī Sākhā (I) Ārya Baladina (datta) (a vāchaka) Ārya Mātridina (datta) (a vāchaka in Srīgŗiha Sambhoga) (II) Ārya Baladina¹ (datta) Arya Kumaramita (a vāchikā in Śirikā Sambhoga) (III) Ārya Saṃgha Siṃha (IV) Ārya Gödāsa (a gaņin) (V) Ārya Ghastuhasti (a vāchaka in Srīgriha Sambhoga) Arya Divita²

Perhaps the two Baladinas (dattas) are identical.

Arya Divita was a Śrāddhachara of Arya Manguhasti, a ganin.

(VI) Ārya Hastahasti

Ārya Deva1

(a vāchaka in Śrigriha Sambhoga)

(VII) Ārya Vriddhahasti (a vāchaka)

Ārya Kharņņa

(a gaņin)

(VIII) Ārya-Arha (dina)

Āryā Dhāmathā (a nun in Śrīgriha Saṃbhoga)

(4) Panhavāhanaya Kula Majhamā Śākhā

(I) Ārya Deva datta² | Ārya Kṣhēma

Vārana Gana³

The mention of the Vāraṇa Gaṇa in the epigraphic sources concerning the divisions in the Jaina religious organisation, is second only to the Koṭṭika Gaṇa. The divisions and subdivisions of Vāraṇa Gaṇa as recorded in the inscriptions support the existence of the Svetāmbara tradition. The Mathura Jaina epigraphs show the existence of its eight 'Kula' divisions, which are (1) Ārya Hāṭṭakiya Kula⁵ (2) The Peta-

Ārya Deva was a Śrāddhachara of Ārya Manghahasti, a ganin.

^{2.} Buhler, V. O. J., Vol. I, pp. 165 ff.

The ancient name of the modern district of Bulandashah r was, no doubt 'Varana or Barana', from whence this Gana might have originated. See, Buhler., E. I., Vol. I, p. 379.

Vāraņa Gaņa is known from various inscriptions, Ep. Ind, Vol. I, Nos. VI, IX, XI, XX, XXIII, XXX, XXXIV; Ep. Ind., Vol. II, Nos. 11, 16, 19, 28, 36; J. S. S., Vol. II, Nos. 17, 34, 37, 41, 44, 45, 47, 52, 58, 76, 80, 82.

Buhler, Ep. Ind., Vol. I, Nos. 11, 34; Ibid, Vol. II, No. 11, J. S. S., Vol. II, Nos. 17, 44, 80.

vāmika Kula,¹ (3) The Puṣyamitrīya Kula,² (4) The Ārya Chetiya Kula,³ (5) The Ayyabhista Kula,⁴, (6) The Kaniyasika Kula,⁵ (7) The Nādika Kula,⁶ and (8) The (Vachchhali) yātō Kula.⁷ Besides these, the names of the Śākhā divisions of this Gana are also considerably larger. They are all namely (1) The Vajaṇagari Śākhā,⁸ (2) The Hāritamālakaḍhi Śākhā,⁹ (3) The Sam(kāsiyā) Śākhā¹⁰ and (4) Ōda Śākhā,¹¹ with the Sambhōga¹² divisions known as Śirika¹³ and Śrīgriha.¹⁴

In the whole of the Kalpasūtra, there is not a single reference corresponding to Vāraṇa Gaṇa of our epigraphic records. Probably Vāraṇa was the original name of the gaṇa which later

Buhler, Ep. Ind., Vol. I, Nos. 20, 30; J. S. S., Vol. II, Nos. 34, 47.

^{2.} Buhler, Ep. Ind., Vol. I, No. VI; 7.S.S., Vol. II, No. 37.

^{3.} Buhler, Ep. Ind., Vol. I, No. IX; J.S.S., Vol. II, No. 45.

Buhler, Ep. Ind., Vol. II, No. XXXVI; J. S. S., Vol. II, No. 52.

Buhler, Ep. Ind., Vol. I, No. XXII; J. S. S., Vol. II, No. 76.

^{6.} Ibid., Vol. II, No. XXIX; J. S. S., Vol. II, No. 83.

Buhler, Ep. Ind., Vol. II, No. XVI; J. S. S., Vol. II, No. 41.

^{8.} Ibid, Vol. I, Nos. 11, 34; Ibid, Vol. II, No. 11; J. S. S., Vol. II, Nos. 17, 44, 80.

⁹· Ibid., Vol. I, No. 9; J. S. S., Vol. II, No. 45.

^{10.} Ibid., Vol. II, No. 36; J. S. S., Vol. II, No. 52.

^{11.} Buhler, Ep. Ind., Vol. I, No. 23; J.S.S., Vol. II, No. 76.

Buhler presumed the probability of the existence of three Sambhoga divisions under the Vārana Gana, V. O. J., Vol. IV, pp. 313-331, but however this suggestion has no basis to stand upon.

Buhler, Ep. Ind., Vol. I, Nos. 11, 34; J. S. S., Vol. II, Nos. 44, 80.

^{14.} Buhler. Ep. Ind., Vol. II, No. 36; J. S. S. Vol. II, No. 52.

came to be known as Charana gana due to a clerical mistake. It should be noted in this connection that the letters Va and Cha in Brāhmi are written almost similarly. However, it could rightly be placed as a second common designation for the Chāraņa Gaņa in the Kalpasūtra. Śrī Gupta of the Hārīti Gotra is said to have been the founder of this Gana2, which ultimately got split up into seven Kulas i.e. (1) Vatsaliya or Vachhalijja, (2) The Prītidharmika, (3) The Mālayaka or Mālijja, (4) The Hāridraka or Hālijja, (5) The Puşyamitrikā or Pūsamittijja, (6) The Ārya Chetaka and (7) The Krishnasakhā or Kanhasaha, and four Śākhās i.e. (1) Hārītimālākārī, (2) Samkāsikā, (3) Gavēdhukā, and (4) The Vajranāgarī.3 An equation of the homonymous names, of the Kulas and the Śākhās, as known from the two differing testimonies of the epigraphs and the Kalpasūtra will be made clear by the following table:

VĂRAŅA(CHĀRAŅA)GAŅA					
The Kulas		The Śākhās			
Kalpasūtric	Epigraphic	Kalpasūtrika	Epigraphie		
1. Hāllijja	Arya Hāṭṭakiya4	Vajranāgarī Śākh	ā ⁵ Vajaņagarī		

- Buhler, V. O. J., Vol. III, pp. 333-340; I. S. J., p. 55.
- Jacobi, H., Kalpasūtra, (S.B.E.) Vol. XXII, p. 291.
- Jacobi, H., Kalpasutra, (S.B.E.), Vol. XXII, pp. 291-92.
- Buhler has identified it with Hālijja Kula of Kalpasutra, Ep. Ind., Vol. I, p. 378.
- Buhler held that its Sanskrit equivalent will correctly be Vārjanāgarī and not Vajranāgarī, which would go to mean 'the Śākhā of Vrijjinagara' the capital of the people of Vrijji country where Mahāvira is said to have travelled to preach his faith, (Ā. Sā., Vol. XXII, p. 84,; Ep. Ind., Vol. I, p. 378). But contradicting in V. O. J., Vol. IV. pp. 333 ff., he connects it to Vajrāchārya (Ist cent. A. D.) known to later Jaina Paṭṭāvalis (I.A., Vol. XI, pp. 247-52).

- 2. Prītidha¹-Petavāmika rmika or Priti
 - varmika
- 3. Pūsamittija² Pusyamitriya
- .4. Ārya Chētaka³ Ārya Chetiya Hāritamālākārī4 Hāritamāor Gadhi lākadhi
- 5. Ayyabhista Samkāsikā Sam(kāsiyā) Òda Śākhā
- 6. Kaniyasika5 Kanhasaha
- 7. Mālijja6 Nādika 8. Vachchhalijja7 (Vachchhaliyāto)

The remaining Kula and branch divisions before which there are gaps could not be equated with one or the other of the two divisions known from either of the sources, namely epigraphic or Kalpasùtrika. Among such of the sort is one

^{1.} This line was founded by Pritivarmana, V.O.J., Vol. III, pp. 333 ff.

^{2.} For this identification see Ep. Ind., Vol. I, p. 378.

٠. Or Ajja Chedaya Kula, (Kalpasūtra, Jacobi, p. 291); Ep. Ind., Vol. I, p. 378.

Or 'The Śākhā of the fort called Hāritamāla', see Buhler Eφ. Ind., Vol. I. p. 378.

^{5.} As Buhler rightly suggests it should not be rendered by 'Krishnaśakha' in imitation of the Commentators, but to denote 'Kaniyasa or the smallest, the youngest,' as Prof. Leumann pointed out to him, V.O.7., Vol. III, pp. 333 ff. It has nothing similarly to be connected with the name of Kanishka, the Kushana king.

^{6.} This identification has been suggested by Buhler in $E\phi$. Ind., Vol. II, p. 198.

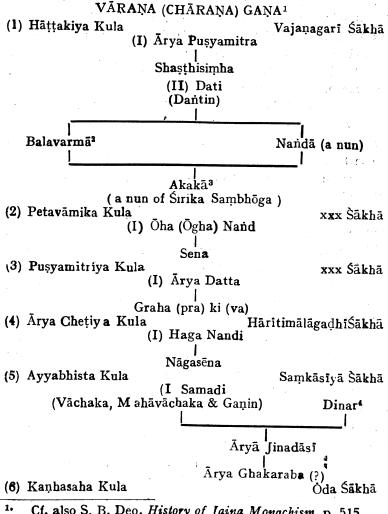
^{7.} The Vachchhalijja is the only Kalpasūtrika Kula which could be rightly corresponded to the epigraphic (Vachchha) liyato Kula; cf. also for this Gana, S. B. Deo, History of Jaina Monachism, p. 513.

Kula division, by name Ayyabhista¹, known from the inscriptions only and two Šākhā divisions, i. e. Gavedhukā (known also from *Kalpasūtra*) and Õda (known from epigraphs) Šākhās are important. The cause of this failure with regard to its identification could be nothing but a matter of inference.

Oral transmission of knowledge from generation to generation was well known in ancient India. This system of study was so deeply rooted in the ancient Indian tradition that a departure from this was considered an irreligious act. A great importance was attached to the proper pronunciation of the Vedic hymns, whose wrong citation had the power to bring calamities on the chanter of the verse. But in course of time this practice came to be a purely religious and conventional one. Therefore, written system of study not only that of the Vedic hymns, but that of almost all ancient Indian branches of learning were completely given up to be studied orally. The Jainas, in no way seem to have proved themselves an exception to this system and the epigraphic testimony goes to support this hypothesis. The absence of the Ayyabhistakula and Oda Sakhā in the Jaina canonical works could only be said to have been due either to the said oral system of study or that later it fell into insignificance.

In the chart given below the names of the monks and the nuns, known from inscriptions to be related to Vāraņa Gaņa and its various subdivisions are specified.

^{1.} This Kula designation "may be an abbreviated spelling for Āryya Anīyasa(to) and correspond to a Prakrita corruption of Ārya Kanīyasa, another equivalent for which Ārya Kanīyasika" could be easily taken from inscription No. XXIII of Ep. Ind., Vol. I, p. 392. In this way Buhler identifies it with the Kanhasaha Kula, Further there are no sound reasons to accept Ayyabhista or-nista Kula as an abbreviation of Ārya Anīyasa (Kanīyasa=Kanīyasika=Kanhasaha); to me it seems to have been a separate and independent Kula division.



Cf. also S. B. Deo, History of Jaina Monachism. p. 515.

Balavarmā does not seem to have been a nun as Buhler 2. shows in V. O. J., Vol. IV, p. 318 (Chart).

Akakā was a Śraddhācharī of Mahanandin, a disciple of Dantin.

Dinar might have been a disciple of Samadi but due to the multilation of the epigraph which might have contained such an indication, he has been placed on the same status with Samadi, as a co-teacher of Arya Jinadāsī.

(7) Nādika (Mālijja) Kula

xxx Śākhá

(1) Uggahini (a ganin)

Ghoshaka (a vāchaka)

(8) (Vachchhali)ya Kula

xxx Śākhā

(I) Ārya Namdika

Āryoddēhika Gana

Next to Vārana (Chāraṇa) Gaṇa comes the Gaṇa known as Äryoddehika¹, both in order and importance. The epigraphic records referring to this Gaṇa, its various minor divisions and monks and nuns related to this Gaṇa are small in number as compared to those of Koṭṭika and Vāraṇa Gaṇas.

The Uddehikiya Gaṇa, would literally go to denote "the white ant school." But this designation should not be taken in its literal sense and therefore it points possibly to the hardness of penance and deep meditation which the monks and nuns of this Gaṇa, generally would have observed thereby enabling the white ants to raise anthills over their bodies. The inscriptions from Mathura furnish evidences with regard to the two of its Kula divisions, namely Nāgabhutikiya and Paridhāsika, and a Śākhā division called Pretaputrikā. 5

The Sthavirāvalī of the Kalpasūtra, furnishes considerable information with regard to this line of spiritual preceptors. Arya Rohana, founded this Uddeha Gana, which ultimately

Buhler. Ep. Ind., Vol. I, No. XIX; I.A., Vol. XXXII, No. 23, pp. 108-9; J.S.S., Vol. II, Nos. 24 and 69.

<sup>Buhler, V.O.J., Vol. II, pp. 141ff. cf. Vārāhamihira (XIV.
5) used the term Uddeha to denote a'set of Indian people.'</sup>

^{8.} Buhler, Ep. Ind., Vol. I, No. 19; J.S.S., Vol. II, No. 24.

^{4.} I.A., Vol. XXXIII, No. 23, pp. 108-9; J.S.S., Vol. II, No. 69.

^{5.} Ibid.

got split up into six Kula divisions, namely, Nāgabhūta (or Nāgabhūya), Somabhūta, Ullagachchha (or Ardrakachchha), Hastilipta (or Hatthilijja), Nāndaka (or Nandijja), and Parihāsaka; and four Sākhā divisions, which were, Udumbarika (or Udumbarijjiya), Māsapūrikā Mātapatrikā and Pūrnapatrikā.¹

The table given below, will equate clearly the similar Kula and Śākhā divisions of the epigraphs to those known from the Kalpasūtra:

	UDDEHIKA (UDDEHA) GAŅA					
The Kulas		The Śākhās				
Ka	lpasūtrika	Epigraphic	Kalpasūtrika	 Epigraphic		
1.	Nāgbhūta2	Ārya Nāgabhutikiya				
2.	Parihāsaka	Paridhāsika	Punnapattiya	Pretaputrikā ³		

or Pūrņapatrikā

The names of the prominent monks and nuns who belonged to this Gana are given in the following chart.

^{1.} Jacobi, H., Kalpasūtra, S.B.E., Vol. XXII, p. 290.

This line of spiritual preceptors, seems to have derived its name from its founder Nāgabhūti, V. O. J., Vol. II, pp. 141-46.

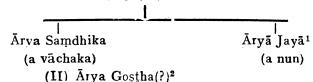
Buhler changes it to Ponapatrikā and equates it with Sanskrit Paurnapatrikā, I. S. J., p. 56; ef. S. B. Deo, History of Jaina Monachism, p. 517.

ĀRYODDEH1KA(UDDEHA)GAŅA

(1) Nāgbhutikiya Kula

xxx Śākhā

(I) Ārya Buddhaśiri (or Śri)
(a gaṇin)



(2) Paridhāsika Kula

Pretaputrikā Śākhā

V eśvātika Gana

The end of Uddeha Gana marks a sudden diminution of our epigraphic knowledge of the Jaina Ganas of Svetāmbara denomination. But a mention of (Me)hika Kula,⁴ from a mutilated record, provides some scope to dwell upon it. The

- Ganisya Āryya Buddhaśirisya Śiṣyō vāchakō Āryya Sa(mdhi)-kasya Bhaginī Āryyā Jayā, Ép. Ind., Vol. I, No. 19; J.S.S., Vol. II, No. 24, p. 23; as the inscription mentions Āryā Jayā as a Bhaginī of Ārya Samdhika, Buhler presumes that she must have been a disciple of Buddhaśrī, V. O. J., Vol. IV, pp. 313-331. In the same way, the seven sisters (or co-disciples) of Sthūlabhadra, under Sambhūta Vijaya, have been mentioned.
- The relationship of the two preceding teachers with Arya Gostha could not be said with certainty, as the epigraph after the latters' name is mutilated. He might have been a disciple of Ārya Saṃdhika.
- 3. ... gaņisya āryya Devadatīgsya na ... (Ā) ryya Kṣhemasya, I. A., Vol. XXXIII, No. 23, pp. 108-9; J. S. S., Vol. II, No. 69, p. 47.
- Buhler, Ep. Ind., Vol. 1, Nos. 2 and 12, pp. 382 and 388. cf. S. B. Deo, History of Jaina Monachism, p. 518.

epigraph, a fragmentary one is silent as to the name of the Gana it belonged.

In Kalpasūtra, the only Kula division resembling the epigraphic (Me)hika is known as Maighika¹, under Veśvātika Gaṇa, founded by one Kāmariḍḍhī, whose other three Kula divisions were known as Gaṇika, Kāmariḍḍhika and Indrapuraka with four Śākhā subdivisions, designated as Śrāvastikā, Rājyapālikā, Antarañjikā and Kṣhemliptikā.²

The names of none of the monks and nuns related to this Gana are to be found. This points towards the fact that this school of the Jaina church was not so numerous and important as it was in the case of other such divisions, referred to above.

In brief this was the history and working of these institutions at that time, after which most of these Ganas, etc, with a few exceptions, were nearly forgotten.

The inscription, which narrates the spiritual line of Ārya Sīha, shows that the Kauṭika Gaṇa flourished at about the beginning of the Christian era. The mention of Kauṭika Gaṇa proves the existence of the traditional division of the original Jaina Saṃgha to a still earlier period, probably as contained in the Kalpasūlra, i. e., c. 250 B. C.³ Further the prevalence of the office of Vāchakas in the Jaina Saṃgha, shows the existence of some of their ancient works, whose proper interpretation and teaching to the illiterate was assigned to the en.4.

It has often been asserted that the Jainas allowed the entrance of the womenfolk in their order, in imitation of

For this identification see Ep. Ind., Vol. II, p. 3.9.

^{2.} Jacobi, H., Kalpasūtra, S. B. E., Vol. XXII, p. 291.

^{3.} Buhler, Ep. Ind., Vol. I, No. 4, pp. 379-80; cf. I. A., Vol. XI, p. 380.

^{4.} Buhler, V. O. J., Vol. I, pp. 165-70.

the Buddhists. But it does not seem to be plausible to say that they initiated the entry of women in their order in imitation. Our inscriptions mention many names of the nuns, some of which held important and responsible posts, besides being ordinary nuns. Buhler has even gone to the extent of naming the Jaina order of the first century A.D. as a 'refuge' of the then widows. It seems probable, that few but the widows entered the order. But this does not mean that other religiously inclined women were not admitted to it. In any case, the fact that the Jaina nuns at that time had an influence over their order is very clear from the available facts.

The Ganas

The epigraphic Ganas though corroborated by the literary tradition of Kalpasūtra, require further explanation. division of "monks into various units like the Sakhas, Kulas, Ganas and Sambhogas seems to have been at least as old as the second century B. C. It is possible that it may go back even further".3 But the traditional accounts make it To Jacobi, it was not exactly clear, as to what older still. was 'meant by Gana, Kula and Śākhā'4. All the four orders. which completed the following of Lord Mahāvīra were under the headship of 14,000 monks, which were again placed under the supervision of the eleven Ganadharas of the Lord, who himself divided the whole Jaina Community under nine regular schools known as Ganas⁵. Later on these Ganas themselves split up into various Kulas and Śākhās or succession of teachers in a line, and lines branching off from each of such teachers. This order of the division of the Jaina Community shows that it was well built and planned accordingly on sound footings.

^{1.} Ibid, Vol. IV, pp. 169-73., see above in this chapter.

^{2.} Ibid., Vol. IV, pp. 313-31.

^{3.} S. B. Deo, History of Jaina Monachism, p. 519.

Jacobi, Kalpasūtra, S. B. E. Vol. XXII, p. 288.

^{5.} Stevenson, (Mrs.), The Heart of Jainism, pp. 65 ff.

The Sambhogas

The Sambhoga divisions are known only from the epigraphs. They have nowhere been mentioned in the Jaina literature. The question with regard to the nature of these Sambhogas, is a controversial one. But the mode in which they have been referred to seems to indicate their being the smallest and last unit of Jaina monastic order of the Kula and branch type, though minor to them both in order and precedence. The word Sambhoga was taken to indicate 'religious community'1. Taking this word in the Digambara sense of the term Prof. Leumann took it to mean a district community2. It becomes clear from the epigraphs that the schools etc. of the Jainas were further divided over and those which are known to the Sthavirāvalī of Kalpasūtra3. The absence of the Sambhoga divisions in the Sthavirāvalī is the most brilliant example. Besides certain Gana and Sakha divisions as well are known only from the epigraphic sources. While dealing with the Varana Gana we have mentioned eight of its Kula divisions, whereas, Kalpasūtra gives only seven corresponding names, and only four Śākhā designations. Besides these, two Kula divisions and one Sakhā or branch line could not be equated with any of the corresponding names known from our inscriptoins.

It seems probable that a Kula division had only one śākhā subdivision. For Hāṭṭakiya Kula is mentioned only with the Vajaṇagarī Śākhā. There is no such instance in which any other Kula or Śākhā is mentioned with either of these. And hence we are inclined to believe that a particular Kula division had a particular Śākhā subsivision. As noted above, it becomes still more confirmed that the Jaina Community was further divided than the divisions known to the tradition of Kalpasūtra. Some of these divisions are known from epigra-

^{1.} Buhler, V. O. J., Vol. III, pp. 330-40.

[?] Idid.

^{3.} Ibid.

phical sources alone. Further the omission of the Sambhoga divisions in the literary history of the Jaina Church confirms the proposed hypothesis, thereby showing a great gap in the nomenclature of the system which was handed down orally.

If the proposed interpretation of the term as forwarded by Prof. Leumann be accepted, it will become clear that it was a common term used to denote the smallest local (or district) unit of the Jaina Community. The epigraphs from Mathura record two different designations of the Sambhogas as Sirika and Srīgriha. The Sirīka Sambhoga seems to have been founded by some Ārya or Venerable Šri².

The Ganas of South

An inscription³ from Merkara (Coorg) dated 466 A. D, of the Kadamba king Konganivarma II, records the name of Desiga Gana and Kundakundanvaya, to which a line of spiritual ancestors is said to have belonged:

Guṇachandrabhaṭār
|
Abhaṇandi or Abhayanandibhaṭār
|
Sīlabhadrabhaṭār
|
Jayaṇandibhaṭār
|
Guṇanandibhaṭār

The inscription mentions a spiritual line of Jaina preachers, extending upto six degrees. This leads one to presume that the earliest teacher mentioned here must have flourished either at the end of the third century or at the beginning of the fourth century A. D.

Chandanandibhațār (Chandranandi)

^{1.} Buhler, V. O. J., Vol. I. pp. 165-70.

^{2.} Ibid; Ep. Ind., Vol. I, p. 393.

^{3.} J. S. S., Vol. II, No. 95.

None of the other inscriptions under the range of our time, contain references with regard to such institutions. Desiga Gaṇa was a branch of the popular Mūlasaṃgha, which itself was a common designation of the Digambara Jaina Community, specially in the inscriptions, as has been shown elsewhere. But this indication of the term was not only confined to the epigraphic compositions, for in Darsanasāra, its author Devasena has narrated five pseudo-Jaina sects as Svetāmbara, Yāpanīya, Drāviḍa, Kāṣṭhā and Māthura Saṃghas, excepting which the whole of the Jaina following was included in the Mūlasaṃgha. Thus these five sects and the Dīgambaras together constitute the Jaina religious community.

Deśiga Gaṇa thus was a division of this Mūlasaṃgha, i.e. the Digambara Jaina following. This Deśiga Gaṇa seems to have been a subdivision of the Naṃdi Gaṇa, which is supported from an inscription, of Śaka 1085, from Śrāvanabēlgōlā³. This Deśiga Gaṇa had many other subdivisions, Pustakagachcha of which was the most important.

The Kundakundānvaya was another such line, which seems to have derived its name after the great Jaina teacher of south, Āchārya Kundakunda, to whom the authorship of this line could rightly be attributed. Āchārya Kundakunda, was so great a name in the Digambara religious order that all the teachers and writers who followed him took pride in tracing their descent from Kundakunda, in their works, genealogies etc., by styling themselves as Kundakundānvayi. This proposed suggestion could well be supported from epigraphic evidences though of a la er date. In an inscription from

¹ Jain, H. L., J. S. S., Vol. I, Int. p. 144.

^{2.} Premi, N. R., Jaina Sāhitya aur Itihāsa, p. 485.

Ityādyuddhamunindra Santatinidhau Srī Mūlasamghe tato/ Jāte Namdigaņap abheda vilasaddesīgaņevisrute // J. S. S., Vol. I, No. 40 (64), p. 25.

^{4.} Chakravarti, Jaina Gazette, Vol. XVIII, pp. 1-2.

Śrāvaṇa Bēlgōla, dated A.D. 1000, Kindakunda has been styled as Agragaṇi of the Mūlasamgha.¹

Thus the spiritual line of Gunachandrabhatar belonged to the Desiga Gana and Kundakundanvaya of the Mülasamsha.

Srīmato vardhamānasya varddhamānasya śāsanē / Śrî Kondakundanāmābhunmūla Samghāgranīraganī // J. S. S., Vol. I, No. 55 (69, p. 115.

But this verse is in contradiction with a similar verse of Sudarsanacharita wherein the same adjective has been employed for Ratnakirti, author of Bhadrabāhucharita, a work of 1500 V. E. The verse is:

Mūlasamghāgranīrnitya ratnakīrtir gururmahān.

In this line the position of Ratnakirti seems to have been greatly exaggerated. He might have held the office of the head patriarch, of this sect, however, during his, time. See Bhadrabāhucharita, edited by Udailal Kashilal (Banaras), p. 3.

CHAPTER V

THE JAINA RELIGIOUS THOUGHT

The epigraphic testimony regarding the religious thought of the Jainas is very scarce and scattered. The inscriptions throw very little information on the subject and one is bound to be content with what one gets. According to the nature of the gathered ideas on religious thoughts of the Jainas, as found from the inscriptional bases, we are inclined to deal with them under three main heads, namely, ethics, metaphysics and the Jaina concept of Cosmos.

Deontology or Ethics

The later Brahmanism involved great ritualstic complexities which included among other things animal sacrifices with a view to please the deities. This became a common practise of the day. It is due to this reason that the common man ceased to have reverence and piety towards the animals and other minor creatures. And the then human mind, equipped with an ardent religious impulse aimed to erect its pleasure-palace of Mokṣa on the wilfull loss of the lives of the creatures. Animals were considered as objects of sacrifice, to please the gods. The violence prescribed by the Vedas was not considered as an act of himsā.²

Yajñārthā paśavaḥ ariṣṭāḥ svayameva svayamabhuvā / Yajñasya bhūtyai sarvasya tasmādyajñe vadhoavadhāḥ // Manusmtii (V, 39), edited by Darshanananda Saraswati (Mathura).

Yā vedavihitā himsā niyatāsmińścharācharē / ahimsāmeva tām vidyādvedaddharmo hi nirvabhau // Manusmṛti, (V, 44), edited by Darshanananda Satswati (Mathura).

As Jainism and Buddhism were the religious movements brought out against the established canons of the Brahmanic faith, they laid emphasis on the non-slaughter of animals. The Jainas held that every living being contained Jiva and therefore should be respected, hon oured and loved and in no case be slaughtered. They held plants, animals, birds, insects and even invisible atomic creatures1 as having a soul and therefore worthy of being treated as such. The Jainas took considerable pains not to hurt even the smallest of the creatures, consciously or unconsciously, "lest plants and animalculae be destroyed, the Jaina ascetic sweeps the ground before him as he goes, walks veiled lest he inhale a living organism, strains water, and rejects not only meat but even honey together with various fruits that are supposed to contain worms; not because he has distaste for worms, but because of his regard for life."2 This statement could further be clarified, through a consideration of the prescribed rules and regulations for the Jaina monks and laity.

The Achārāngasūtra of the Jainas lays down an exhaustive list of the rules to be observed and practised by the Jaina monks and liacs alike. They were asked to abstain from killing and to repent for their sins "in the three fold ways in mind, speech and body (i.e. acting, commanding, consenting either in past, or the present or the future)".3 A Jaina in order to practise the first vow of Ahimsa, was asked to walk carefully, to control his mind, and speech, to be careful to take and put down things, i.e. utensils etc., and to be careful with his food and drink, so that he may not cause injury to living beings.4 The second vow consists of abstention from all vices which result from lies, anger or greed, or fear or mirth.5

Sharma, S. R., J. K. C., p. 133. 1.

^{2.}

Hopkins, The Religions of India, p. 288. Jacobi, H., A. Sü., S. B. E., Vol. XXII, p. 202. 3.

Ibid., pp. 202-4. 4.

Ibid., pp. 204-5.

The third of these vows comprised abstention from, "taking of anything not given, either in a village or a town or a wood, either of little or much, of small or great, of living or lifeless things."

The fourth vow consisted of the renunciation of "all sexual pleasures, either with gods or men or animals."

The fifth or the last vow consists of exemption of "all attachments" which are to involve people in the miseries and the sufferings of life.

This presents an idea of the way in which the Jaina morality was responsible to civilise and culturalise their monks and laity, and to make them an asset to the then society without falling an easy prey to the life torturing habits of violence, lying, theft, uncelibacy and parigraha. All of these five great vows of the Jainas are similar to those forwarded by Patanjali in his Yoga Sūtras.

In the Sāgaradharmmāmņita of Pt. Ashadhara (1235 A.D.)⁵ the rules of conduct, prescribed for the monks of the Jaina persuasion have been dealt with in detail.

Thus in brief, it could be said that no pains were spared, to avoid injury and violence towards living beings. These rules of conduct as narrated above show clearly the stress laid down on the principle of non-violence (Ahimsā) by the Jainas.

Epigraphic Corroboration

Our epigraphic sources regarding the principles of Jaina ethics and rules of conduct, as laid down for their order are though very scanty, yet no statement on this topic will be complete without them.

^{1.} Ibid., pp. 206-7.

²· Ibid., pp. 207-8.

^{3.} Ibid., pp. 208-10.

Pātanjala Yōga Sūtra, Vol. II, pp. 35-39; Ā Sū., S. B. E. Vol. XXII, pp. 202-10.

^{5.} Jaini, J. L, O. J., pp. 68 ff.

The donative inscriptions from Mathura contain dedications etc. of the images of Jaina Tirthamkaras and gods which were all meant for the pleasure and well being of all the creatures.1 This expression, in the Sūtra form, clearly depicts an idea of all embracing brotherhood, kindness and humanity of the Jainas. This itself could be taken to show that the Jaina monks and lay worshippers of the time remembered their moral and ethical doctrines, preached by their Tirthamkaras, and were cautious to devote their life for the practice and propagation of these humane principles. The dedications of the images etc. are likewise supported to have contained an implied meaning, that may the powerful Tirthamkaras, the Siddhas and the Arhatas enable their followers, to be on the rightful path and shower pleasure and happiness in favour of all living creatures preventing them all from sinful deeds. The follow and practice of pious acts were highly praised and conceived of as capable to bring so much spiritual consequances, which could not have been counted even by the Creator.2

On the other hand the neglect of pieteous deeds, of the rules of conduct and duties, may have brought immense calamities on them.

The Jaina concept of $\sin(p\bar{a}pa)$ though could not be gathered from the Jaina records under review, but a recollection of the same could be attempted from the edicts of Asoka containing his preachings on Dhamma. Asoka while dealing with the negative side of his Dhamma, mentions the word $\bar{a}sinava$ (in P. E. III) as a variant of $p\bar{a}pa$ (sin) with another word palisave, which is said to have stood for

Sarvasattrānamhitasukhāyastu, Buhler, Ep. Ind., Vol. I, Nos. 4 & 21; Vol. II, Nos. 18, 24, 37; I. A., Vol. XXXIII, No. 5, pp. 36-37; J. S. S., Vol. II, Nos. 20, 22, 31, 36, 54, 55.

². Fleet, Ratta Inscriptions, J. B. B. R. A. S., Vol. X 1875), p. 239.

The former word is similar to asava or asrava of Buddhism which signifies the same sense. But the said word does not seem to denote the types of asavas according to Buddhism². These are Chamdiye (violence), Nithūliye (cruelty). Kodhe (anger), $M \tilde{a}ne$ (conciet), and $Isy \tilde{a}$ (envy) in the edicts3, and are quite unknown to the Buddbist scriptures. On the basis of the testimony presented by his edicts, Asoka, who had embraced Buddhism, does not appear to have adopted the Buddhist concept of Aśrava. This being so, it is tempting to speculate on the possible source of Asoka's idea of Asava. "The Jainas possess a term Anhaya", observes "which exactly corresponds to Asinava, and is Buhler4. derived, like the latter, from ā-snu". Anhaya has been used in Āyārāmga Sūtra⁵ in the sense of sin⁶. And as Āsinava⁷ or Anhaya is used as an equivalent of papa (sin), the Jaina source of borrowing becomes clear. Another word parisava used in the Xth R. E.8 is as well placed on the same level with anhaya or demerit.

In the sacred books of the Jainas 18 types of sins and 42 kinds of \bar{a} stravas have been enumerated. Of these, four types of sins $(p\bar{a}pas)$ are common to both of the said lists, they are: $K\bar{r}odha$, $M\bar{a}na$, $M\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ and Lobha, collectively known as $Kash\bar{a}yas$, two of which are included in the edicts of king

Bhandarkar, D. R., Asoka, p. 117.

The types of āsavas according to the Buddhists are: Kāmāsava, Bhāvāsava, Avijjāsava and Diţţhāsava, Bhandarkar, D. R., Asoka, p. 117.

^{3.} Sircar, D. C., Select Inscriptions, No. 26, p. 58.

^{4.} Buhler, Eφ. Ind., Vol. II, p, 250.

^{5.} Āyārāmga Sūtra (Pāli Text Society), p. 92.

⁶· Jacobi, H., Āyārāmga Sutra, S. B. E., Vol. XXII, p. 151,

no mina pāpam (d)ekhati iyam me pāpe kaţe ti iyam vā āsinave nāmāti, Select Inscriptions, No. 26, p. 58.

^{8.} Yesa tu parisave ya apvñajjñam (apunyam), Sircar, Select Inscriptions. No. 15, p. 31.

Stevenson, (Mrs.), The Heart of Jainism, pp. 116ff. & 139ff.

Asoka. The word $Isy\bar{a}$ of the inscriptions of Asoka is the same as the $\bar{I}r\bar{s}hy\bar{a}$ or $Dve\bar{s}ha$ of the Jaina canonical works, dealing with the categories of $p\bar{a}pa$. Though the terms Chamdiye and Nithūliye are not known to the Jaina works yet an idea of these can be traced from himsā, a kind of āsrava, which implies both of these terms. Hence, the use of āsinava, with the three passions i. e., Krodha, Māna, and Isyā at least of the Jainas, are enough to confirm the adoption of some of 'the psychological concepts of Jainism' by Asoka.

This adoption and assimilation of the Jainistic ideas by Asoka could further be confirmed from the terms such as Jiva, $P\bar{a}na$, $Bh\bar{u}ta$ and $J\bar{a}ta$, corresponding with $p\bar{a}n\bar{a}bh\bar{u}ya$ $Jiv\bar{a}satt\bar{a}$ mentioned in $\bar{A}ch\bar{a}r\bar{a}nga$ $S\bar{u}tra^2$. Asoka tried to draw a line of differentiation between $bh\bar{u}ta$ and $pr\bar{a}na$, while describing the ethical duties of a man as $an\bar{a}rambh\bar{o}pr\bar{a}n\bar{a}n\bar{a}m$ and $avihis\bar{a}bhut\bar{u}n\bar{a}m$. Such a line of distinction is to be seen in the Jaina literature where the point has been discussed at a great length.

The assimilation of these conceptual ideas of the Jainas by king Asoka, shows that their ethical and philosophical concepts were highly developed and appreciated long before the King. Their adoption by the King shows that they were easily understood and hence widely popular.

It will not be anything wrong to say a word with regard to the imprecatory verses contained in most of our inscriptions from South³. The epigraphs were generally meant to

Bnandarkar, Asoka, p. 118.

² Jacobi, H., S. B. E., Vol. XXII, p. 36, n. 1.

Ep. Car., Vol. X, Malur. tl. Nos. 72, 73; I. A., Vol. VI, No. 20, pp. 22, 24; No. 21, pp. 24-25; No. 22, pp. 25-27; No. 23, pp. 27-9; No. 24, pp. 29-30; No. 25, pp. 30-31; No. 26, pp. 31-32; I. A., Vol. VII, No. 35, pp. 33-35; No. 36, pp. 35-37; No. 37, pp. 37-38; No. 44, pp. 209-217; I. A., Vol. XI, No. 120, pp. 68-71; J. S. S., Vol. II, No. 90, pp. 55-56; No. 94, pp. 60-62; No. 95, pp. 63-66; No. 96, pp. 66-7; No. 97; pp. 67-69; No. 98, pp. 69-72; No. 99, pp. 72-4; No. 100, pp. 74-6; No. 101, pp. 77-8; No. 102, pp. 78-9; No. 103, pp. 80-81; No. 104, pp. 81-82; No. 105, pp. 83-84; No. 106, pp. 85-90.

record land grants made by the ruling kings in favour of the sects of the Jainas. These verses are attributed to Manu¹ in some inscriptions but in others they are attributed to Vyāsa². The donations, the epigraphs contain the references of, were made in favour of the Jainas. The purpose of these imprecatory couplets had been to provide a check on those who might have proved injurious to the lands thus granted. The verses themselves show that one who seizes the land gifted will fall an easy prey to the five great sins. Conversely, the one who protects the gifted land will gather merits.

These should not be treated here in detail since they do not seem to have excercised any sort of influence over the corresponding Jaina system of thought. As these impreatory verses are not peculiar to Jaina epigraphs alone, they point towards the predominance of the concept of the miseries associated with the Hindu or Brahmanic concept of Hell, over almost all classes of men, even those belonging to different prevailing faiths.

Metaphysics: Soul and Matter

The concepts of soul and matter are very inadequately represented in the epigraphs. An important exception, however is the Hathigumpha cave inscription of king Kharavela which mentions the realisation of the beauty and importance

Ep. Car., Vol. X, Mālur, tl. Nos. 72-73; I.A., Vol VI, No. 24, pp. 29-30; Vol. VII, No. 44, pp. 209-17; J. S. S., Vol. II, Nos. 90, 94, 101 and 106.

^{3.} S. S., Vol. II, No. 127, pp. 141-50.

It is quite possible that the followers of Brahmanical religion being large in number throughout the land, the lands gifted thus were thought to be in danger from them. Hence, as a precautionary measure quotations from Manu and Vyāsa were used to prevent them from confiscating the land.

of soul (Jiva) and matter or Deha (Ajiva). These are the two most important principles of Jaina philosophy and will be explained in corroboration with the Jaina literary and philosophical works.

The philosophic foundation of the Jainas is mainly based on its concept of nine categories which are described as Jiva, Ajīva, Punya, Pāpa, Āsrava, Samvara, Bandha, Nirjarā and Moksa. Tiva is the first category of all these Navatativas, and denotes soul (Atman), Consciousness (Chetana) and life. The Jiva concept of the Jainas is equivalent to the Atman or Purusa of the 'pluralistic schools' of Indian thought.2 Jiva of the Jainas, when used for 'soul' is distinct from the Brāhmanic concept of soul. For according to the Jainas, the knowledge acquired by soul may be boundless but the Jiva itself is subject to limitations.31 The soul of the Jainas is eternal and non-eternal both. It is the enjoyer and the bearer of the consequences of its actions, is subject to cycle of birth and death, but ultimately obtains freedom by means of Ratnatrayi, through the destruction of its Karma. Jiva is divine in the sense that it obtains its Divinity and shines near the regions of Alokākāśa5, is all perfect and powerful, has lived in past, is living in present and will live in the future.6

Chētanā or consciousness has been termed as the defining characteristic of the substance of soul and is found only in case of the Jīva. Jīva is not perceptible but develops itself according to the frame of the body it adopts.⁷ The soul is

^{1. ...}Samsitehi kāya.. jīva deha sirikā parikhitā...Ep. Ind., Vol. XXII, p. 80.

^{2.} Sharma, C. D., Indian Philosophy, p. 74.

^{3.} Stevenson, (Mrs.), The Heart of Jainism, p. 94.

Nahar and Ghosh, An Epitome of Jainism, Ch. II, pp.25.6

^{5.} Ibid., p. 26.

^{4.} Jaini, J. L., Outlines of Jainism, p. 17.

Pipīlikāpudgalam prāpya pipīlikābhavati / Hastipudgalam prāpya hasti bhavati // cf. Sharma, C. D. Indian Philosophy, p. 75.

like light and can dwell in the space with many other souls without coming into conflict with any one of them, as several lights may fill up the same space, without jeopardising the existance of other lights. Jiva is often characterised also as a subdivision of substance (Dravya).

So long as the Jivas are involved in the feelings of hatred desire, sin, aver and other such attachments, the soul is bound to incarnate itself, under the influence of the consequent fetters of Karma. Its physical incarnations, as enabled by the Karmas of bygone births, have ten prānas in case of the most developed Jivas, and four in case of the meanest species of the souls.

Divisions of Jiva

The Jaina division of Jiva is based on its 'class of beings', in which it was forced by the law of Karma to incarnate itself.² First of such divisions is classified among siddha (liberated) and Samsārī (mundane). Siddha Jīvas are said to inhabit a region designated as Iṣṭaprāgabhāra, made of white gold and having the shape of an open umbrella.³ These lives, though invisible are possessed of life and all pleasure and happiness. The Jīvas of Samsārī type are the residents of this world. The Samsārī type is thrice divisible. in male, female and neuter.⁴

The latter type of the Jivas are again to be classified in four divisions. according to the places of their birth, Nāraki, Tiryañcha (like insects, birds, serpents, plants, animals, etc.), Manuṣya and Devatā.

According to another classification they are divided in five classes on the basis of the number of the senses they possess: (1) Ekendriya Jiva: these are the Jivas of only one sense organ viz., the sense organ of touch, but they have four powers pranas), viz, touch, body, exhaling and inhaling.

5. Ibid.

^{1.} Stevenson, (Mrs.), The Heart of Jainism, p. 95.

^{2.} Ibid., p. 96.

^{3.} S. B. F., Vol. XLV, p. 212.

Stevenson, Mrs.), The Heart of Jainism, p. 96.

The Ekendriya jivas are themselves divisible in five classes: (1) Prithvikāya, (2) Apakāya, (3) Teukāya, (4) Vāyukāya, and (5) Vanaspatikāya. Prithvikāya Jīvas are like stones, salts. and diamonds or the objects which belong to earth. Though ordinarily the suffering of such jivas is not known to most of the persons but the Kevalins.2 The Apakaya type of Ekendriva jīvas inhabit the still of waters, containing rain, dew. fog, liquidated snow and hail. The Jaina monks were prohibited to take ordinary water, which was conceived of as containing animalculae and hence they were asked to use boiled water.3 The Tivas living in fire are known as Teukāya. Though the existence of jivas in fire is generally accepted but their existence in lightning is controversial, although the testimony of Uttarādhyāyana confirms it.4 The Vāyukāya jīvas are said to inhibit cyclones, whirlwinds, monsoons, trade winds and west winds and are known only to the Kevalins. Vanaspatikāva Jīvas are twice divisible, namely in, Pratyeka, i. e. life of trees etc., and Sādhāraņa, which are the objects like potatoes, And hence these vegetables are not even to be onions etc. touched by the orthodox Jainas.

After the sthāvara (Ekendriya) jīvas are the trasa jīvas. The jīvas, with two sense organs of touch and taste having six powers namely taste, touch, body, exhaling, inhaling and speech are known as Dvīndriya. The jīvas of this type are represented in worms and leeches. The real Ahimsā principle of the Jainas starts from this class⁶ though the orthodox Jainas avoid the killing of the jīvas of one sense organ even.

Trindriya are the jivas possessing the sense organs of touch,

Jacobi points out that similar animistic beliefs go to prove the hoary antiquity of Jainism, S.B.E., Vol. XLV, p. 33. (Int.)

^{2.} Stevenson, (Mis.), The Heart of Jainism, pp. 97-98.

³· Ibid., p. 98.

^{4.} Jacobi, S. B. E., Vol. XLV, p. 217.

^{5.} Stevenson, (Mrs.), The Heart of Jainism, p. 99.

^{6.} Ibid, p. 100.

taste and smell, with seven *brānas* and are represented in the smaller insects like ants, bugs, moths, and lice.

The jivas of this class are endowed with four sense organstouch, taste, smell and sight, and with eight prānas; bees, scorpions, wasps, mosquitos, gnats, flies, locusts and butterflies are the best representatives of this class.

The Jivas of the next division are called panchakendriyas and have all the five sense organs with an addition of the sense organ of hearing to the last mentioned list and with nine prānas. To some of such jivas an extra sense organ of mind is attached, which are consequently known as Samjñi whereas those who are devid of it and have only nine prānas are termed as Asamjñi. The jīvas of this class are of four types: Hell beings, lower animals, human beings, and demigods, all of which but those of the lower beings have intelligence. But some animals like cows, buffaloes etc. have some sort of intelligence unlike those of the frogs and fishes.

The trasakāya jīvas are further divided in 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13 and 14 classes respectively.²

Matter

Matter is an element of Ajiva. Ajiva is of five distinct types, the first of which is known to the sacred literature of the Jainas as Pud-gala (= Pudgala) or to combine and to dissociate respectively. It has no life like soul (Jiva) and has a few specific characteristics of its own, which are touch, a taste, and colour.

^{1.} Stevenson, (Mrs.), The Heart of Jainism, p. 101.

²· Ibid, pp. 102-6.

It is of eight different types Mridu, Kathin, Guru, Laghu, Sita, Uşhna, Snigdha, and Rukşha; see Tattvārtharājuvārttika, V. 23-7.

It is of five types Tikta, Katu, Āmla, Madhura and Kashāya.

^{5.} It is of two types Surabhi and Asurabhigandha.

Five types, Nīla, Pīla, Śukla, Krishņa and Lohita; see. Tattvārttharājavārttika, V. 23, 8-10.

As pointed out above consciousness is the best type of distinguishing feature between jīva and Ajīva. Jīva has consciousness whereas Ajīva has not. To Radhakrishnan Ajīva is that category which has no consciousness though can be touched, tasted, seen, and smelt. But these are the characteristics of Pudgala which is a subdivision of Ajīva. Ajīva is something more than merely matter; it has its formless divisions which could not be touched, tasted, seen and smelt. Mehta rejecting Radhakrishnan says that matter is Ajīva, of course, but this does not mean that Ajīva is matter and matter alone² from the dualistic view point, the substance which is conscious is Jīva and that which is unconscious is Ajīva 3

Scientifically speaking nowadays three conditions of matter are generally accepted, i. e., (1) the solid condition, (2) the liquid condition, and (3) the gaseous condition.4 But the exponents of the Jaina faith believed in the existence of six such conditions, i. e., (1) Gross Gross (Sthūla Sthūla) matter. or matter like iron-pillar, a block of stone or the materials which if broken once could not be united again. (2) Gross or liquid (Sthūla) is seen in oil, water, milk or the materials which may be united by themselves even if they are broken. (3) Gross fine (Sthūla Sūkshma) is represented in shade, sunshine or the matter which though tangible vet cannot be grasped. (4) Fine gross (Sūkshma sthūla) could be found in sound, taste and smell or in matters which are perceived only through the sense of touch, taste, smell or in matters which are perceived only through the sense of touch, taste, smell and hearing. (5) Fine (Sūkshma) are the matters which could not be sensually perceived, i. e, Karmic matters. (6) Fine fine (Sūkshma sūkshma) are the finest matters in the Karmic

^{1.} Radhakrishnan, S., Indian Philosophy, Vol. I, p. 314.

^{2.} Mehta, M. L., Outlines of Jaina Philosophy, p. 27.

^{3.} Ibid.

Jaini, J. L., Outlines of Jainism, p. 22.

body and are due to a combination of two or more ultimate atoms.¹

The matter consists of Samkheya (numerable) and asamkheya (innumerable) and ananta pradesas or parts. The above statement though appears contradictory is not so.

The elements of which this universe is composed of, according to the *Vaiśesika* system of philosophy, are earth, water, fire, air, ether, time, space, soul and mind.

Elements of the same nature as conceived in the Jaina system of thought, as included under pudgala, are namely, earth, water, fire, and air. The Vaisesika air is without colour, taste and smell though modern studies is Physics have proved to its contrary. Likewise their concept of fire is as well devoid of taste and smell whereas modern science has proved it to be a material substance. The Vaisesika thinks hold that smell is a characteristic only that of earth which cannot be taken as the last statement, even though the smell of other elements be unknown through the media of human nose.

The Jainas in this position are 'sound and scientific'. For they failed to recognise these four elements as separate entities and counted them all as forms of matter. These elements to Jainas are combinations of the forms of matter.³ Forms of Matter

Matter has two forms, those indivisble or anus (atoms) and their combinations or skandhas (molecule).

That particle of matter, which cannot be further divided is anu (atom)⁴, and is the last and smallest unit of matter,

Jaini, J. L., Outlines of Jainism, p. 21; Nahar and Ghosh, An Epitome of Jainism, pp. 28f; Mehta, M. L., Outlines of Jaina Philosophy, pp. 77 ff.

²· Mehta, M.L., O. J. P., p. 69.

^{1.} Ibid.

^{4.} Sarvārtthasiddhi, V. 25.

nothing smaller than this is known. Anu has a single taste, single colour, single smell and two types of touch, which are the cause of the sound, though they themselves are dumb. The atoms though real, are perceived inferentially. It is neither hard nor soft, neither light nor heavy. These are the qualities of the Skandhas and not of the anus. The atoms are generated by a division of the matter and not otherwise.

Skandha

The skandha is an aggregate or conglomeration of atoms. A Skandha comes to exist by dissociation (bheda), association (samghāta), and through an united process of dissociation and association.

No doubt that the atoms are invisible but certain type of skandhas even are not visible. Savs Pūjyapāda, "Out of skandhas composed even of an infinite number of elementary particles (anus) some are visible and so ne invisible". But the invisible skandha becomes perceptible when combined by a division of others.

Dharma, Adharma, $\bar{A}k\bar{a}\dot{s}a$, and $K\bar{a}la$ are the other four types of $Aj\bar{i}va$. Dharma is that imponderable substance which causes the bodies to move, whereas the similar substance Adharma enables the bodies to be at rest. $\bar{A}k\bar{a}\dot{s}a$ contains everything that is existing. The substance of $K\bar{a}la$ is that in which the things undergo a series of changes.

The Jaina Concept of Cosmology

As regards the Jaina concept of cosmos, we have a rather casual epigraphic mention in a record of 600 A.D. from

^{1.} Tattvārttharājavārttika, V, 11. 2.

^{2.} Panchāstikāyasāra, 88.

^{3.} Menta, M. L., O. J. P., p. 72.

^{4.} Tattvārtthasūtra, V. 27.

^{5.} Sarvārtthasiddhi, V. 28.

^{6.} Nahar and Ghosh, An Epitome of Jainism, p. 30.

Sravanabelagola. The record mentioning the perfection and honour obtained by Lord Mahavira says, that "the singular power of whose knowledge pervades the things, moveable and immovable having their support in both the universe and the non-universe."

The Jaina concept of cosmos has three divisions in main, i.e., the universe (loka), the mid-universe (madhyaloka) and the non-universe or aloka. All these divisions have a definite form but that which is the last in order.

Akalanka derived the word loka from the place in which happiness and misery are seen³ as the consequences of vice and virtue or the loka is the place which is perceived by the omniscient.⁴ $Ak\bar{a}\dot{s}\bar{a}$ is similar to loka and is termed as $lok\bar{a}-k\bar{a}\dot{s}a$, and the sky beyond this is termed $alok\bar{a}k\bar{a}\dot{s}a$.⁵

The first of these, the upper region is the dwelling place of the celestial beings, the mid-sphere is the region of men and other living beings, whereas the lower-sphere or adholoka is the residence of the inmates of hell. All these regions are situated upon one another.

Further all these lokas are surrounded by three different layers of air, one upon the other, which in respect are humid (Ghanodadhivātavalaya), dense (Ghanavātavalaya), and rarified (Tanuvātavalaya). Within this envelop of the air exists

Narsimhachar, Ep. Car., Vol. II, No. 1; J.S.S., Vol. I, No. 1.

Lokāloka Śaktiḥ svāvyuśnute yasya kevalā, J.S.S., Vol. I, No. 1; Ep. Car., Vol. II, No. 1.

Yatra punyapāpaphalokanam sa lokah, Tattvāttharājavārttikam, 5. 12. 10.

^{4.} Lokyata iti vā lokah, Ibid., 5. 12. 13.

^{6.} Ghoshal, S.C., Dravyasamgraha, S.B.J., Vol. I, p. 58.

the lokākāśa, the place where dharma, adharma, kāla, pudgala and Jīva are said to exist.¹

Beyond this is $alok\bar{a}k\bar{a}\acute{s}a$, the region of the eternals, infinite, without shape and activity and visible only to the omniscient²; in this only the $\bar{a}k\bar{a}sa$ substance is found.

The lokākāša is seven Rajjus in height towards north to south, and seven Rajjus in height in the direction towards east to west; it has a width of one Rajju with a length of 14 Rajjus. The erect figure of the Jaina cosmos at the lower level is seven Rajjus in breadth which becomes one Rajju at a height of seven Rajjus likewise at the height of 10 Rajjus it is 5 Rajjus in breadth and at the top of 14 Rajjus it is again one Rajju in breadth.

As we have pointed out above, the gods and perfected souls of the Jainas inhabit the upper universe, men and other living creatures live in the mid-universe with the exception of the *Bhavanātrika* type of gods.⁵ The lower universe is occupied by the inmates of hell, but the creatures of single

^{1.} Dhamādhamma kālo puggala jīvā ya santi jāvadiye |
Āyāse so logo tatho parado alogutto | S. B. J., I, Vs. 20;
cf. Dharmādharmayuta h kāla pudgalāh jīva pūrvaka h |
Khe yāvatyatratist thanti lokākāšah sa uchyate ||
Pudgalādi padārthānāmavagāha ikalak shana h |
Vardhamāna Purān 1, XVI, 32.
Lokākāšah smrito vyāpi Šuddhākāšo bahistata h ||
Dharmasarmābhyudaya, XXI, 86.
cf. also Panchāstikāyasamayasāra, verse 91.

^{2.} Tasmāda bahirananto syadākāšo dravyavarjitah | Nirtyoamūrtto kriyāhīnah sarvajñadrishtigocharah || Vardhamānapurāna, XVI, 33.

^{3.} Jaini, J. L., Outlines of Jainism, p.

^{1.} Tattvārtthasūtra by Pt. Phulchandra Siddhanta Shastri, pp. 134-40.

^{5.} Tattvārtthsūtra by Phulchandra Siddhanta Shastri, p. 140.

sense organ are an exception to this rule and are said to inhabit all these spheres.¹

The lower portion of the universe contains seven earth layers one upon the other and they are situated at a distance of unimaginable yojanas from one another. Of these hell-earths, Ratnaprabhā (18,00,00 yojanas in breadth) is the first, and is divided into three parts,2 the last of which contains the hell-inhabitants. Further this sphere has got 30,000 hell abodes (Narakāvāsas). Śarkarā prabhā, the second layer of lower universe is 32,000 yojanas in breadth and the third Vālukāprabhā is 28,000 yojanas, the fourth Pamkaprabhā 24,000 yojanas, the fifth Dhūmaprabhā 20,000, the sixth Tamah prabhā 16,000 and the lower most layer of the universe the seventh Mahātamahprabhā is 8,000 yojanas in breadth. 250,000 hell-abodes are therein Sarkarāprabhā, 150,000 in Vālukāprabhā, 10,000 in Pamkaprabhā, 300,000 in Dhūmaprabhā and 99995 in Tamah prabhā and 5 in Mahātamah prabhā.3

The lower and unjust beings are ruled by the higher and perfected ones. The creatures of the hells have to suffer great miseries but the end of their miseries is not impossible.

^{1.} Ibid.

Ibid, p. 143. These parts are known as Kharabhāga, Pamkabhāga, and Abbahulabhāga.

³ Tattvārtthsūtra by Pt. Pnulchandra Siddhanta Shastri, p. 143.

CHAPTER VI

THE JAINA RELIGIOUS PRACTICES

To most of our religions this life is full of miseries and sorrow. They are due to the fact of taking birth again and again. Therefore, according to most of our religious systems the end of the worldly trouble consists in getting rid of the cycle of birth and death. This could only be done by following the code and the modes of religious practices of a particular religion. Every religion has its own system of worship, following which individuals are assured to attain salvation.

First of all we propose to consider the stupa worship among the Jainas. It is generally believed that the system of stupa worship grew up with the rise and expansion of Buddhism. But this system of worship appears to have been prevalent among almost all ancient Indian religious systems. Although the stupa form of worship was popularised by king Asoka, whose faith in Lord Buddha1 inspired him to honour the great leader, by erecting, as many as 80,000 stūpas, over his relics traditionally, the system of worship does not appear to have been confined to Buddhism alone. It was common to many religious systems of the land.2 But it seems more likely that the stūpus originated and developed out "of the earthen funeral mounds (Śmaśānas), under which, according to the Vedic rituals, the ashes of the dead were buried."3 Chaityas are mentioned as early as the Grihya Sūtra and the epic period.4 In Mahābhārata (I, 109, 13-14) it has been clearly pointed out.

^{1.} Havell, E. B., The Ancient and Medieval Architecture of India, p. 46.

^{2.} Buhler, Eφ. Ind., Vol. II, p. 311.

^{3.} The Age of Imperial Unity, p. 488.

[&]quot;Mention is also made of offreings to monument Chaityas erected to the memory of the teachers", See Macdonell, History of Sanskrit Literature, pp. 255-56.

Bhişmēņa dharmato rājansarvatah parirakshate / Vabhūva ramanīyāscha chaitya yūpa satānkatah //

By the time of the epics the stapa worship had grown fairly popular in the country.

Later on the $st\bar{u}pa$ worship was adopted by the Jainas who developed it in accordance with their religious needs and ideas and continued it for a considerable time. But none of the religious sects could surpass the Budhhists who were the greatest exponents of this system of worship. Hence, commonly $st\bar{u}pa$ stands for a Buddhist $st\bar{u}pa$.

"The oldest stupas" in ancient India, were not symbols of a religious cult, but memorials of the dead associated with the practice of burial instead of cremation." Another such observation shows that these "stupas were, originally great mounds of earth raised over the ashes of a chief or religious leader, and surrounded by wooden rails to protect But it seems that in the long course of time the them.2" stupa came to be 'built in brick or stone with an earthen core's and stone rails, and got associated with the ritualistic practices of the particular religion they belonged to. This could be supported from an evidence of the tradition recorded in the Vividhatīrthakalpa (14th century A. D.) wherein a Jaina stupa of gold studded with gems built by Kuvera is mentioned. It is further said in this connection that later when people grew greedy, Kuverā, the female consort of Kuvera, covered that stupa with mud and brick.4 This is perhaps a simple explanation of the stone-brick nature of the structure as popular in the medieval period. But it may have developed considerably earlier.

^{1.} Havell, Ancient and Medieval Architecture of India, pp. 46-7.

^{2.} Cousens, H., Architectural Antiquities of Western India, p.8.

^{3.} Ibid.

Vividhatîrthakalpa (S. J. G.), pp. 17.18.

The Stupa Worship Among the Jainas

The practice of stupa erection, according to the Jaina traditions of Kalpasūtra is as old as the creation of this world. During the time of the first Tirthamkara Rishabha or Ushabha the practice of $Th\bar{u}bha$ (= $St\bar{u}pa$) erection, the cremation of the dead and the institutions of marriage etc. were for the first time introduced.1 The prevalence of this form of worship among the Jainas at an early date was shown by Fuhrer.2 Further Buhler as told by Prof. Leumann. shows that the Jaina Agamas also contain references with regard to the thūbhas (stūpas). He mentions that in Rāyapasenijjau pānga, stūpas surrounded by four Jinas are referred as to have adorned the *Uvagāriyalena* of the god Sūrivābha.3 Another mention of the stupa worship is seen in the Chaityavandana, the performance of which was compulsory for all the Śrāvakas. The word Chaitya according to Buhler denoted 'a funeral monument in honour of a teacher or prophet.'4 The Chaityas which are mentioned in the Aupapatika Sūtra of the Jainas, were surmounted by one or several Chhatras.

The Hāthigumphā inscription is said to contain a reference to the $Y\bar{a}pa$ professors as performing religious activities on the Kumārī Hill in the vicinity of the Nisidiyā of the Arhamta. Some scholars have taken it to denote an early instance of the existence of the Jaina $St\bar{u}pa.^5$ If so, this could be taken as an instance in support of the existence of the relic worship

Jacobi, Kalpasūtra, S.B.E., Vol. XXII, pp. -06-8; Jambuddivapannatti, Commentary by Santi Chandra, (Bombay 1920), 2. 18-40.

²· I. A., Vol. VI, p. 218.

³ Buhler, V.O.J., Vol. IV, pp. 313-31.

^{4.} Ibid.

^{5.} Shah, C. J., Jainism in North India, p. 251; K. P. Jayaswal says that the Jainas were accustomed to call "their stupas or Chaityas nisidis," J. B. O R.S., Vol. IV, p. 389.

among the Jainas since the $st\bar{u}pas$ were erected over the relics of 'a chief or religious 'leader.' Hence the Hathigumphā cave inscription inspires one to deduce the existence of such a Jaina $st\bar{u}pa$. I am inclined to suggest that this $st\bar{u}pa$ existed there possibly even before Khāravela. Jainism was introduced quite early in Kalinga as a Nanda King is said to have brought back home the image of a Jaina Tīrthankara, as a booty of war from Kalinga.

Another epigraphic mention of the Jaina $st\bar{u}pa$ is found in an iscription from Mathura. This is dated in the 79th year of the Indo-Scythic kings and mentions the installation of an image of the (18th) Tirthamkara Nandiyāvartta on the Vodvā $st\bar{u}pa$ which is called an erection divine.²

The epigraphic statement concerning the erection and the erector of this stūpa shows that they were completely forgotten by the time of the dedication of that image of Nandiyāvartta, and the people were mystifying a forgotten fact into the golden threads of mythology. This presumption coincides well with the corresponding statement of the Vividhatīrthakalpa referred to above. According to the tradition of this work Kuvera with his wife erected a stūpa at Mathura, which contained an image of Supārśvanātha,3 the 7th Tīrthaṃkara of the Jainas.

A mutual corroboration of the epigraphic and traditional facts could well be employed to prove a hoary antiquity for the beginning of this form of worship in the Jaina Samgha probably not long after Mahāvīra, the 24th Tirthamkara.⁴ This system of worship seems to have been greatly

^{1.} Cousens, H., Architectural Antiquities of Western India. p.8.

²· ··· pratimā Vodve thupe devanirmite...., Buhler, Ep. Ind. Vol. II, No. 20.

^{3.} Vividhatīrthakalpa, (S. J. G.), p. 17.

Jayaswal takes the epigraphic evidence of Hathigumpha cave epigraph to prove the existence of Jaina images at about or rather prior to B. C. 450, J. B. O. R. S. Vol. XIII, pp. 245-46.

in vogue during the early centuries of the Christian era which has been acknowledged on the basis of the stupa ruins brought to light by the excavations held at Mathura.

In the light of these considerations, the assumption that the Jainas imitated this form of worship from the Buddhists does not seem plausible.1 The existence of the Chaitya worship as pointed out above, in some form was prevalent in all probability before both Mahavira and Buddha. It has also been referred to by Pānini in connection with the Pārāśarya crder of the ascetics.2 These are some of the evidences in favour of the hoary antiquity of this practice among the Brāhmanical ascetics, which seems to have been the main source of both these sects, from where they borrowed it.

Stūpa worship among the Jainas seems to have continued for quite a long time. In an indirect way it still survives. An epigraph of Yuvarāja Devavarmā, a son of the illustrious Kadamba king Śrī Krishnavarmā (475 85 A. D.), records the donation of a piece of land for the repair of the Chaityālaya of the Lord Arhata.3 Though the inscription under review here does not contain any date, it seems probable that this record was engraved either towards the end of the 5th century or in the early years of the 6th century A. D. Another such record of the king Śrī Mrigeśvarvarmā, of the major Kadamba line of Banavāsī as well contains an allusion to this system of worship.4 This record could be dated somewhere in between 475-490 A. D.

^{1.} Buhler, V. O. J., Vol. IV, pp. 313-31.

^{2.} Ibid.

Dharma mahārājasya Śrī Krshnavarmmanah priyatanayo Devavarmayuvarājah Svapunyaphalābhikānkshayā trīlokabhūtahita deśinah dharmapravarttanasya arhatah bhagawatah Chariyalayasya bhaghasamskārārch mamahim īrtham ...

Fleet, I. A., Vol. VII, No. 35, pp. 33-35.

Fleet, I. A., Vol. VII, No. 36, pp. 35-31.

The practice of $st\bar{u}pa$ erection and worship is so deeply rooted in the Indian mind that it has continued even to this age of Science. Even today, in our country, Samādhis etc. are erected over the relics of ascetics and saints, which is a common practice among almost all layers of our traditionally religious society. Perhaps this Indian temperament is betrayed also by the erection of a similar structure at Rajghat, Delhi, for Mahatma Gandhi.

Temple and Idol Worship

The system of idol worship of the Tirthamkaras and other perfected beings marks another chief characteristic of the Jaina religious practices. Temple building is known to have been considered by the Jainas a source for obtaining salvation For them their temples were in reality 'prayers in stone'.' Traditionally speaking the practise of the erection of Jaina temples could be ascribed to an early date. The first of such buildings was erected on the peaks of the mountain Athavāya or Kailāśa, in houour of the first Tirthamkara Rishabha, by his son Bharata.'

An instance of the Hathigumpha cave epigraph of king Kharavela proves the existence of an image of a Jaina perfected being, and thereby presupposes the prevalance of the temples. Line 12th of this record bears a reference to the conquest of Magadha by king Kharavela, who brought back home possibly a famous image of the 'Jina of Kannga', which was carried away by Nandarāja as a 'mark of trophy' won in war against Kalinga. The literary and the epigraphic facts could well be reconciled together by assuming that this

^{1.} Buhler, V.O.J., Vol, IV. pp. 313-31.

²• Fergusson, History of Indian and Eastern Architecture, Vol. II, p. 26.

Jacobi, Kalpasūtra, S. B. E., Vol. XXII, pp. 206-28.

Māgadham cha rājānam Bahasatimitam pāde vamdāpayati Namdarāja nītam cha Kalinga jinam Samnivesa....., Jayaswal and Bannerji, Ep. Ind., Vol. XX, pp. 72ff; cf. Sircar, Select Inscriptions, p. 2 9.

type of religious practice, perhaps came in vogue somewhere in the age of the last Tirthamkara Mahāvira or a little later among the Jainas.¹

The Mathura inscriptions as well contain dedications and installations of the images of the Tirthamkaras,² as well as other deities³ of the Jaina and Hindu pantheon. This fact regarding the wide extent of this form of worship among the Jainas is furthermore corroborated by the discoveries of the architectural remains from Mathura. The inscriptions from Mathura speak about the installations of the Savvatobhudrikā⁴ (or four fold) images for the welfare of all living creatures. These image were those of the Jaina Tirthamkara, and since they presented four distinct Tirthamkara images on all the four sides, they came to be known accordingly. Certain images of this type have been recovered from the Mathura excavations and are kept there in the museum.⁵

The idol worship among the Jainas contained even the worship of the cognizances of the Tirthamkaras represented in stone. Though meagre yet we have epigraphic corroboration of this fact. The only epigraphic mention of the erection of a great Namdi by Śrēṣṭhī Rudradāsa son of Śrēṣṭhī Śivadāsa clarifies it. The Namdī of the said instance seems to have

^{1.} Image worship was prevalent among the Jainas as early as the beginning of the 5th century B. C., Shah, J. N. I., p. 179.

^{Buhler, Ep. Ind, Vol. I, Nos. 1, 2, 3, 6, 7, 14, 16, 20, 21, 27; Ibid., Vol. II, Nos. 23, 29, 33, 34, 36, 39; I. A., Vol. XXXIII, No. 21, p. 107; J. R. A. S., (1896), pp. 578-81.}

^{3.} Buhler, Ep. Ind., Vol. I, No. 21; J. S. S., Vol. II, No. 55.

^{4.} Buhler, Ep. Ind., Vol. II, Nos. 13, 16, 37; J. S. S., Vol. II, Nos. 22, 27, 41.

^{5.} Guide to Mathura Museum, (in Hindi), M. M. Nagar, p. 18.

Namdi viśāla pratiṣṭhāpito śivadāsa śresṭhi putreņa śrēsṭhinā āryeņa Rudradāsena arhamatam pujāye, Arch. Sur. Rept., Vol. III, No. 9, pp. 32-33; J. S. S., Vol. II, No. 43, p.34.

been a variant of the Vṛṣhabha, the cognizance of Uṣabha, the first Tirthaṃkara. Another evidence in support of this could be derived from an inscription which mentions the setting up of a stone slab in honour of the presiding Nāga deity. The association of a serpent with Jainism is as old as the age of the 23rd Tīrthaṃkara Pārśvanatha which is his cognizance. This shows that, the Jainas were serpent worshippers also. And they worshipped the Nāga perhaps independently as well as the cognizance of Pārśvanātha.

It is evident that the Jainas not only employed a great variety of the Hindu deities allotting them a secondary status, as compared to their own Tirthankaras, but they even worshipped th m. It has been corroborated by the epigraphic records. The records from Mathura furnish evidence of the dedications and installations of the images of Saraswati, and Nemeșa (Skt. Naigmeșha), a swift footed messenger of the gods and a general of Indra. Hence the worship of the Brahmanic deities among the Jainas was not uncommon. But such Brahmanical deities had already become an important part of the Jaina pantheon.

Now we propose to deal with the Ayagapatas,⁵ found from Mathura, which were an important part of the then image and temple worship among the Jainas. We have

^{1.} Bhagawatō nāgendrasya dadhikarņasya stāne śilāpaţto pratistāpito Mathurānam..., Ep. Ind., Vol. I, No. 18.

^{2.} See Chapter II, p. 8.

sarvvasattvānam hitasukhā ekāsaraswatī pravisthāvitā... Buhler, Ep. Ind., Vol. I, No. 21; J. S. S., Vol. II, No. 55 pp. 40-41.

Bhagwānemeso, Buhler, Ep. Ind., Vol. II, No. 6; J. S. S.,
 Vol. II, No. 13, p. 16.

Buhler, Ep. Ind., Vol. I, Nos. XXXIII & XXXV; Ibid, Vol. II, Nos. V, VIII, XXX, XXXII; J. S. S., Vol. II, Nos. 9, 15, 16, 71, 73, 81.

several instances of the installations of such slabs in the inscriptions from Mathura. "An Āyāgapaṭa," according to Buhler, "is an ornamental slab, bearing the representation of a Jina or some other object of worship, and the terms may be appropriately rendered by tablet of homage or of worship, since such slabs were put up in temples, as the numerous inscriptions on them say, for the worship of the Arhats... Among the Jainas they probably went out of fashion at an early period, as the inscriptions on them invariably show archaic characters, and are in no case known to be dated."

The Ayagapatas present a lively architectural representation of divinities and objects held in esteem by Jainas. A Prakrit epigraph from Mathura dated in the 1st century B. C. records the creation of an Ayagapata by Vasu, a daughter of the courtesan Lavanasobhikā at the sanctuary of the Nirgrantha Arhatas.² This Ayagapata is carved out with a stūpa surrounded by a railing and to be approached by a flight of steps and a torana (gateway) which seems to be an exact copy of the Jaina stūpa of Mathura, in the same way in which the stone slabs, from the seats of Buddhist culture and learning, like Amravati, Nagarjunikonda etc., present copies of the Buddhist Stūpas built on those places.2 "The stūpa is flanked by two pillars of Persipolitan style, the one to the proper right carrying a wheel and the other a sitting lion. On each side of the stupa are there worshipping figures. The two flying figures above possibly represent munis who were supposed to have the power of transporting themselves through the air." The figures are shown naked and in a saluting posture. The next pair of figures is identified with Suparnas 5

^{1.} Buhler, Ep. Ind., Vol. II, p. 314.

Luders, I. A., Vol. XXXIII, pp. 152 ff.; Buhler, I. S. J., pp. 41-2; J. S. S., Vol. II, No. 8, pp. 5.

^{3.} Nagar, M. L., Guide to Mathura Museum.p. 17.

^{4.} Agrawala, V. S., M. M. C., Pt. III, pp. 35 ff.

^{5.} Ibid, p. 35.

half bird and half man-with the tails and claws of a bird while the upper portion is that of a human body. The two other female figures prostrating on the either sides of the drum of the stupa seem to be nymphs or Yaksis.¹

Another such piece, though mutilated, presents a similar representation whose upper portion is destroyed. Below the railing runs the inscription showing its creation by Sivayaśā wife of Phalguyaśasa. This piece as well gives the view of a certain Jaina stūpa surrounded by a railing. It was to be reached through a 'decorated Torana gateway, to which four steps ascend.' On either sides of the stūpa "a dancing girl completely nude except for a sash of the usual jewellery round the hips stands in an immodest attitude". But these female figures have been taken for Yakṣīs, Devatas, or Vīkṣa-kas, nymphs and dryads by A. K. Coomarswamy.

We now come to the conclusion that these $\bar{A}y\bar{a}gapatas$ sometimes contained the carved images of the Arhatas, and at others that of the $st\bar{u}pa$ -figures, but in most cases, they contained the wheel of law, the various Lānchhanas of the Jaina Tīrthankaras, $yak\bar{s}is$, saints etc. In short the $\bar{A}y\bar{a}gapatas$ show the pantheon of the Jainas carved on stone through the chisel of the artist.

We have a few epigraphic references regarding the dedications of the *Toranas*⁵ of the temples. The *Toranas* as well were meant for the veneration of human and mythic

^{1.} Agrawala, V. S., M. M. C., Pt. III, p. 35.

Buhler, Ep. Ind., Vol. II, No. V, p. 200; J. S. S., Vol. II, No. 15, pp. 17-18.

^{3.} Smith, V. A., The Jaina Stūpa and other Antiquities of Mathura, p.19.

Coomarswamy, A. K., History of Indian and Indonesian Art, p. 64.

Buhler, Ep. Ind., Vol. I, No. 17; Ibid, Vol. II, No. I; J. S. S., Vol. II, Nos. 4 & 14, pp. 11-12, 17.

personages. The artists of these architectural pieces wante to show the eagerness of the "gods and men to pay homage to the Tīrthaṃkaras, to their stūpas and temples."

Idolatry among the Jainas of South

Inscriptions from South, record land grants in favour of one or the other Jinālaya, as against Jaina epigraphs from North which mention mostly dedications and installations of the images of various types.

The Digambaras received various land gifts, conferred upon their temples or Jinālayas as known from certain epigraphs,² that presuppose the practice of idol worship in their community. Besides, certain land gifts are even made in favour of the gods³, which also is a strong evidence in favour of this practice, but whose affiliation to one or the other Jaina sect is a matter of inference. All these gods of the Jainas were probably the presiding deities of their temples.

The Śvetāmbara (Śvetapaṭasamaṇa samgha) Jainas are but once referred to in an inscription together with the Digambaras (Nirgranthasramaṇa saṃgha)⁴, and this confirms the proposed minority of the Śvetāmbaras in South. Although it is not clearly specified in the above mentioned inscription whether they had any temples or images or not yet presumably they had both as this was the most common practice in those days.

^{1.} Shah, C. J., Jainism in North India, p. 258.

Ep. Car., Vol. X, Malur tl. Nos., 72, 73; Fleet, I. A., Vol. VI. pp. 24-5; J. S. S., Vol. II, Nos. 90, 94, 95, 99.

²• Fleet, I. A., Vol. VII, No. XXXVI, pp. 36-37; XXXVII, pp. 37-38; Ibid, Vol. VI, pp. 27-29, No. XXIV, pp. 29-30; J. S. S., Vol. II, Nos. 97, 98, 101, 102.

Fleet, I. A., Vol. VII, No. XXXVII, pp. 37-8; J. S. S., Vol. II, No. 98, pp. 69-72.

The sect of the Yāpanīya¹ Jainas also had a great influence over the conutry and people of South. An inscription from Devagiri mentions a dedication by Devavarma, son of Dharmamahārāja Śrī Krishnavarma, for repairs, worship etc. of the Chaityālaya (temple) of Lord Arhata.² The Kūrchakas³ were another sect of the Jainas. This sect, too, does not seem to have ruled out this practice.

Hence it becomes clear that the idol and temple worship prevailed in the Jaina community from the early days of its history. The main distinction between the images of the Digambaras and the Svetāmbaras was that the icons of the former were kept naked whereas those of the latter were clad in (white) clothes hanging from the waist.

As the inscriptions do not contain anything regarding the person to whom the act of performing the worship was allotted nothing conclusively can be said about it. According to Mrs. Stevenson⁴ the officiant in the Digambara temples was to be a Jaina himself. But among the Svetāmbaras there was no such hard and fast rule, since their worships were per ormed even by a non-Jaina, provided a Jaina officiant was not present. Mrs. Stevenson further asserts that it was even performed by Brāhmaṇas, gardeners or farmers who were all paid for the same.⁵ But we have no evidence whatsoever to corroborate or contradict the prevalence of this practice

Ibid, Vol. VI, pp. 24-5, No. XXII, pp. 25-27; Ibid, Vol. VII, No. XXXV, pp. 33-35; J. S. S., Vol. II, Nos. 99, 100, 105, pp. 72-4, 74-6, 83-5.

I. A., Vol. VII, No. XXXV, pp. 33-5; J. S. S., Vol. II, No. 105, pp. 83-85.

^{*} I. A., Vol. VI, No. XXI, pp. 24-25, 30-31; J. S. S., Vol. II, Nos. 99, 103, pp. 72-4, 80-81.

^{4.} Stevenson, (Mrs.), The Heart of Jainism, p. 250.

Fig. Ibid; According to S. Chattopadhyay even today "in Rajasthan, Maga or Saka-Brahmanas" are "employed as priests in Jaina temples," The Sakas in India, p. 99.

in the Svetāmbara community from the inscriptions. An inscription from Mathura records the gift of a Kulaka $(Puj\bar{a}r\bar{\imath} \text{ or } M\bar{a}l\bar{\imath})$ to the temple of Dadhikarana. But the ambigous character of the inscription leads us nowhere. The inscriptions from South, however, prove the existence of the *Bhojakas* or the $Puj\bar{a}ris$ who must have performed the worship, but nothing could be said with certainty regarding the social order they belonged to but perhaps they were Jainas.

Samādhis and Fasts

Though the Jaina observances of sallekhanā etc. have been very much characterised and ascribed to an important place in the system of their religious practices and observances, we have only scarce references to these in the epigraphs. We may in this connecton refer to an epigraph from Sravana belgola which mentions a certain Bhadrabāhu, identified with the person of the same name associated with the great Chandragupta Maurya. This Bhadrabāhu is reported to have died through observing sallēkhanā. The same record mentions the samādhi of one Prabhāchandra, followed later by some seven hundred monks.² This was the traditional Jaina way of getting Nirvāṇa, which was practised by the Jaina monks of all schools since the very beginning of their history.

In the whole range of the Mathura epigraphs there is no mention of customs like sallekhanā which ultimately resulted in the separtion of the soul from the body. But an inscription records the observance of a fast by one Vijayaśrī, lasting for a whole month. The record is dated in the 50th year of king Huvishka. But it is difficult to term this fast as sallekhanā. The meagre mention of the observances like sallekhanā etc. should in no way be taken to indicate, the

H. C. Raichaudhuri in his Early History of the Vaishnava Sect (p. 163) has considered it as a Vaishanava record, there is no reason, however, to favour this view; I.A., Vol. XXXIII, No. 13, pp. 102-3; J. S. S., Vol. II. 49, p. 37.

^{2.} Ep. Car., Vol. II, Nos. III; J.S.S., Vol. I, No. I. pp. 1-2.

Buhler, Ep. End., Vol. II, No. XXXVI; J. S. S., II, No. 52, p. 38.

non-observance of these religous customs and practices by the Jaina monks of North.

Religious Functions

An epigraph of the Kadamba king Ravivarma mentions the donation of a village Purukhetaka, by him and his predecessors, for the performance of a worship known as Aştāhnikā, to the Jaina monks of the Yapaniya order. Another description of this celebration could be gathered from the epigraph of the Kadamba king Harivarma who granted the village of Vasuntavāţaka in favour of the Vāriṣeṇāchārya samgha of the Kurchaka Jainas, whose head was Chandrakshanta for the performance of Astahnika and the feeding up of the whole Samgha.2 This confirms the popularity of the celebration of Aştāhnikā among the Jainas at least of the South. But since it is mentioned only in case of the Yapaniyas and the Kurchakas it could be possibly held that they had given a special preference to this practice, as compared to other sects of the Jaina persuasion. Astāhnikā is referred to in the Uttarapurāna.3

Every age has its own superistitions, and the same is true about all the religions. The Jainas of Mathura seem to have believed in a superistition that an image or so if donated in association with relatives etc. may fetch some high spiritual benefits for all. This becomes evident from the large number of the relatives of the donor mentioned in a great majority of the Mathura epigraphs. Hence one may dare to speculate the prevalence of such a practice and practice.

Fleet, I. A. Vol. VI, No. XXII, pp. 25-7; J. S. S., Vol. II, No. 100, pp. 74-6.

Ibid, Vol. VI, pp. 30-31; J. S. S. Vol, II, No. 103, pp. 80-81.

Sāstroktavidhinā bhaktyā pūjāmāṣṭāhnikīmvyadhāt / chaturmukham rathāvartam sarvatobhadra munjitam //58. Uttarapurāna, ch. 73, p. 433.

^{4.} J. S. S., Vol. II, p. 17.

CHAPTER VII

IMPORTANT CENTRES OF JAINISM

We do not have any epigraphic reference concerning the birth place of Jainism and its earliest strongholds. We propose to discuss here those centres of this faith, from where we have found some epigraphic record, and the traditional history of this faith as known from Jaina canonical works if any.

Jainism in North

The earliest mention of the Nigganthas or the Jainas is furnished by the VII P. E. of king Asoka from the Delhi-Topara region. The find place of this inscription points towards the fact that the Jainas were numerous in that region in those days. But at the same time it denotes that Jainism held an important place in the then India, and was much respected and honoured. The mention of the Nigganthas in VII P. E. and Śramanas in XI R. E. and other inscriptions were taken to show that Asoka was a Jaina by faith in the early years of his reign 3 Shah further asserts that whenever Asoka spoke anything concerning the faith of Lord Budhha he used the term Samgha, for the fulfilment of his purpose 4 In the VIIth P. E. the Śramanas are not referred to

Sircar, D. C., Select Inscriptions, No. 30, pp, 65ff; J.S.S. Vol. II, No. 1.

² Ibid, S. I., No. 16, pp. 32f.

Shah, C. J., J. N. I. p. 142, "The Jainas used this term (Sramaņas) prior to the Buddhists is also conclusively proved by the fact that the latter styled themselves as Sākyaputtiya samaņas as distinguished from the Nigganitha Samaņas."

^{4.} Ibid.

perhaps due to the mention of the Nigganthas and Ājīvikas¹ according to Shah.² But nobody now takes these views seriously for the factuality of Asoka's being a Buddhist laity is now generally accepted. Asoka's attachment with Buddhism is clear from his Bairat³ and Sarnath inscriptions. The mention of the Jainas in the inscriptions of Asoka suggests a near north India nature of the faith.

Pabhosa

By the 2nd or 1st century B. C. Pabhosa in the vicinity of the modern city of Allahabad came to be another important seat of the Jaina faith. The veracity of this statement could be confirmed from the two Pabhosa inscriptions of king Ashadhasena, which furnish evidence with regard to the excavation of cave-dwellings for the Kasyapiya Arhatas (the Jainas).

The most important thing in these inscriptions is the geneology of the kings (see appendix C) of Adhichhatra (northern Pānchāla) which is identified with modern Ramanagar in Bareli District.

Kausambī has been included in one of the many sacred places of the Jainas by Jinaprabhasuri (14th cent after Vikrama) the author of Viviahatīrthakalpa. According to the traditions recorded in this work, the city of Kausambī was situated in the kingdom of Vatsa, where Chandra (the moon) and

^{1.} Sircar, Select Inscriptions, p. 66; Hultzsch, Corp. Ins. Ind., Vol. I, p. 136.

The Ajivikas are considered as a sect of the Jainas in the sectarian literature, and by some modern scholars. But later they seem to have developed independently of the Jainas.

Bhandarkar, D. R., Asoka, pp. 69 ff; Sircar, S. I., No. 37, pp. 77f.

Fuhrer, A., Ep. Ind., Vol. II, pp. 242-43; Sircar, S. I., No. 10, p. 97.

Sūrya (the sun) ascended with a view to salute Vardhamāna. Kauśāmbī according to Jinaprabhasuri was a Mahātīrtha of the Jainas.

Mathura

After Pabhosa in the vicinity of Kauśāmbī, the next important stronghold of Jaina religion in the North was Mathura. A large number of dedicatory inscriptions have come to light from here. All these inscriptions are dated between the years 5(+78=83 A.D.) and 98(+78=176 A.D.) of the Indo-Scythic era.³ These inscriptions along with many other architectural and sculptural pieces go to prove the antiquity and importance of the Jaina order of monks in the region of Mathura. The contents of these inscriptions are in full corroboration with the traditions of Kalpasūtra and thus they go to prove the factuality of the Jaina traditions.

These inscriptions record the names of the Jaina gaṇas, kulas, śākhās and saṃbhogas, which are known to us even from the Kalpasūtra. They also furnish evidences with regard to the titles of the Vāchakas, the Vrihamta Vāchakas and the Gaṇin, which were the official designations given to the teachers and the heads of the schools, and are commonly used even today. The records show that the Jainas of Mathura, were mainly Śvetāmbaras, and their traditions are historically substantial.

Antiquity of the faith at Mathura

An epigraph mentions the dedication of an image of the 18th Tirthamkara Nandiyāvartta by Śrāvikā Dinā (Dattā), at the request of Ārya Vrddhahastin, which was installed at

^{1.} Vividhatīrthakalpa, (S. J. G.), p. 23.

². Ibid, p. 23.

^{3.} Buhler, Indian Sect of the Jainas, p. 42.

^{4.} For details see Ch. IV, pp. 36 ff.

^{5.} Buhler, I. S. J., p. 44.

the door of the Vodva $st\bar{u}pa$ created by the Gods.¹ This shows that the people, at the time of the installation of the image had forgotten the fact regarding the erection of the $st\bar{u}pa$.

A reference to this effect is found in the Vividha irtha-kalpa. This work records the creation of a Stūpa of gold and gems with an image of Lord Supārśvanātha, the VIIth Tīrthamkara. But later on the king of Mathura became greedy and wanted to take the gold and gems of the Stūpa. This enraged the gods and the king was killed instantaneously. Consequently Kuverā, the wife of Kuvera on the request of the Jeina Samgha of Mathura, covered the Stūpa with mud and brick.²

Both these traditions, the epigraphic and the literary seem to refer to the same $St\bar{u}pa$ of Mathura, perhaps one of those excavated from here. Since the erection of the $St\bar{u}pa$ was forgotten by the year 29(+78=157 A. D.) of the Indo-Scythic era, the Stupa must have been erected long before the beginning of the Christian era. Hence the introduction of Jamism in Mathura region should be pressed at least as far back as the IIIrd or IInd Century B. C.

Jaina Society of Mathura

The Jaina society of Mathura comprised mainly traders and merchants by profession, who were perhaps the Vaisyas of the Hindu social order. The donors are mentioned by the particular titles they had which are indicative of their professional-status. They are variously termed as Sresthins, 4

Vodve thupe Devanismite....., Buhler, Ep. Ind., Vol. II, p. 204, No. XX.

^{2.} Vividhatīrthakakalpa, (S. J. G.), pp. 17ff.

Buhler observes that "a great number of Jainas, probably the greatest number, belonged as in our days to the mercantile classes," V. O. J., Vol. IV, pp. 319-20.

Buhler, Ep. Ind., Vol. I, Nos. I, II; Cunningham, Arch. Sur. Repts., Vol. III, No. 9, pp. 32-33; J. S. S., Vol. II, Nos. 19, 26, 43.

Sārtharāhas, Gandhikas, goldsmiths and iron-smiths etc. in the epigraphs. Besides these, the classes like sailors (Prātārika), prostitutes and Nartakas are also mentioned. These references show that the Jainas observed the teachings of their preachers and held no distinction between man and man.

Apart from this, the epigraphs show that the Jainas had also a footing in the ruling Kshatriya class, the class to which this faith owes its birth. This argument could be supported from the epigraph which mentions the dedication of a stone slab by Simhadatā (Dattā), wife of the Grāmika Jayanāga, who was the son's daughter of Grāmika Jayadeva.⁸ The grāmikas are related to the Indian ruling class in the ancient Hindu works.⁹ Another inscription records the gift of a certain Sivamitrā, wife of Gotiputra, who is said to have been a black cobra for the Sakas and the Pothayas.¹⁰ The inscription is assigned to 1st century

Buhler, Ep. Ind., Vol. I, No. 29; J. S. S., Vol. II, No. 33, p. 28.

Buhler, Ep. Ind., Vol. I, No. 7; Ep. Ind., Vol. II, No. 16;
I. A., Vol. XXXIII, Nos. 21, 23, pp. 107, 108-109; J.S.S.,
Vol. II, Nos. 41, 42, 62, 69.

^{3.} J. S. S., Vol. II, No. 67.

Ep. Ind., Vol. I, Nos. 21, 60; Ibid, Vol. II, No. 18; J.S.S., II, Nos. 31, 54, 55.

^{5.} Ep. Ind., II, No. 39; J. S. S., No. 92, p. 58.

I. A., Vol. XXXIII, pp. 152-153; J. S. S., II, No. 8, p. 14.

Buhler, Ep. Ind., Vol. II, Nos. 5, 18; J. S. S., II, No. 15, pp. 17-18.

Buhler, Ep. Ind., Vol. I, No. VII; J. S. S., II, No. 42, pp. 33-34.

^{9.} V. O. J., Vol. IV, pp. 320-22.

^{10.} Ep. Ind., Vol. I, No. XXXIII.

B. C. Gotiputra being raferred to as an enemy of the Sakas and the Pothayas may presumably be takan to have either been an independent Chief or a General. These evidences point out the importance of the Jaina sect and "support the Jaina legends regarding early conversions of kings and princes."

The Mathura records contain but rare references with regard to the class of the Brahmanas. A certain Brahma Jāti³ is alluded to in an epigraph. In another inscription a gift made over by a Kulaka⁴ (Pujārī or gardener) is referred to, who is said to have proffered a gift to the temple of Dadhikarana. These references may presumably be taken to denote that Brāhmana pujārīs were employed to perform the Jainistic rites, rituals and worship in their temples.

The Jaina Samgha of Mathura is termed as Chaturvidha or Chaturvarna⁵ samgha and points to the inclusion of monks and nuns and lay devotees-male and female. It is an important characteristic of the Mathura inscriptions to refer to women in the then Jaina order.

Popular Tirthamkaras at Muthura

The following discussion on the Tirthamkaras is based on the scattered references about them in the Mathura inscriptions which offer salutations to them or record the installation of their images. The inscriptions begin in the tradi-

^{1.} Buhler holds that this record should be dated "before the consolidation of the foreign rule at Mathura," Ep. Ind., Vol. I, p. 394.

^{2.} Buhler, V. O. J., Vol. IV, pp. 313-31.

Cunningham, Arch. Sur. Repts., Vol. III, No. 3, p. 31;
 S. S., Vol. II, No. 21, p.20.

I. A., Vol. XXXIII, No. XIII, pp. 102-103; J. S. S., Vol. II, No. 49.

^{5.} I. A., Voi. XXXIII, No. XIX, p. 105.

tional Jaina way. Vardhamāna¹ was the most popular Tīrthamkara at Mathura. For he is m ntioned many times as compared to Pārśva,² Śāntinātna,³ Saṃbhavanātha,⁴ Nandyāvartta,⁵ Ariṣṭaṇemi³ and Riṣhabhadeva.² The main cause of this importance, attached to Mahāvira as against other Tīrthaṃkaras, was perhaps due to the fact that his memory was still afresh in the minds of the people of Mathura. In this way it will be an additional point to confirm the historicity of Mahāvīra-Vardhamāna.

It, therefore needs to be mentioned that Mathura since very early times became an important seat of Jaina activities. The Svetāmbaras were in majority there, but the Digambaras were not totally absent, as Fuhrer is said to have discovered a Digambara stūpa from here.

Kahāum

Kahāum is a village in the Gorakhapur district of U.P. An inscription dated in G. E. 141 (450 A. D.)⁹ refers to the

Buhler, Ep. Ind., Vol. I, Nos. VI, VII, XVI, XX, XXVII XXVIII, XXXIII; Ibid, Vol. II, Nos. II, VIII, XXIII, XXXIII, XXXIV, XXXVI; I. A., Vol. XXXIII, No. XXIII, pp. 108-109, 152-53; J. R. A.S., (1896), pp. 578-581; J. S.S., II, Nos. 5, 8, 9, 16, 30, 34, 36, 37, 42, 52, 67, 69, 75, 79, 84.

^{2.} Ep. Ind., Vol. II, No. 29; J. S. S., II, No. 83.

² Ep. Ind., Vol. I, No. 3; J.S.S., II, No. 29, pp. 25-26.

^{4.} Sircar, Select Inscriptions, No. 53, p. 151.

^{5.} Buhler, Ep Ind, Vol. II, No. 20; J. S. S., II, No. 59,

⁶ Ep. Ind., II, No. 14; J. S. S., II, No. 28.

^{7.} Ibid, Vol. I, Nos. 8, 14; Ibid, Vol. II, No. 28; J. S. S., II, Nos. 23, 56, 82.

^{8.} Buhler, V. O. J., Vol. IV, p. 169.

Fleet, Corp. Ins. Ind., III, No. 15, pp. 67f; I. A., Vol. X, pp. 125-126; Sircar, No. 26, p. 308; Pandey, R. B., G. J. I., pp. 169 ff.; J. S. S., II, No. 93, p. 59; Bhandarkar's List, No. 1278.

Jaina settlement in the village named Kakubha (Kahāum). The record informs that a certain Madra, a Jaina by faith established this pillar with five naked images of the Adikartris. The images of the Adikartris (or Panchendras)¹ were installed.

The inscription shows the inclusion of the district in the Gupta empire under Skandagupta. The suggestion of R. B. Pandey that the then Malla king of Majhauli is alluded to in the term 'Kshitipasata' or 'Nripatisata' seems to be doubtful. The inscription shows that the Jainas had an influence over the region in the 5th century A. D. Madra though himself a Jaina, hououred the Brahmanas and the Jainas equally.³

Jainism in Central India

An inscription from Udaigiri near Sanchi in Central India shows the condition of Jainism in that locality. The inscription is dated in c.426 A. D. and records the installation of an image of Jina Pārśvanātha, by a pupil of Āchārya Gosharmā. Gosharmā was born in the line of Ācharya Bhadra, and was the son of a certain Aśvapati.

Three Jaina image inscriptions were recently found from a village called Durjanpura in the Vidisa District of Madhya Pradesh. The inscriptions refer themselves to the reign of Mahārājādhirāja Ramagupta.⁵ These records clearly show that Vidisa was an important centre of Jainism in Madhya Pradesh.

The two terms are said to denote the Jaina Tirtham-karas known as Adinatha, Santinatha, Neminatha, Parsvanatha and Mahavira. The term Indra may here indicate 'Jinendra,' cf. Sircar, S. I., p. 309, n. 8; Pandey, G. J. I., p. 171; J. S. S., II, No. 93, p. 59.

^{2.} Pandey, R. B., G. J. I., p. 171.

^{3.} Ibid.

^{4.} I. A., Vol. XI, p. 310; J. S. S., Vol. II, No. 91, pp. 57-58.

Journal of the Oriental Institute, Baroda, Vol. XVIII, No. 3, pp. 347ff.

These inscriptions suggest that in the 4th-5th century A. D. Jainism was among fairly popular religious sects in central India.

Jainism in Kalinga

The epigraphs recovered from Hathigumpha, Udaigiri and Manchapuri caves in Kalinga show that Orissa was one of the important early centres of Jainism. The most important of all these inscriptions is the Hāthigumpha cave inscription of king Kharavela, which is now generally assigned to the end of the 1st century B. C.¹ The next inscription is

The record was discovered in 1825 A. D. It was assigned to B. C. 416-316 by R.L. Mitra in his Antiquities of Orissa (Shah, J. N. I., p. 160). B. L. Indraji assigned it to B. C. 157 after having read a passage denoting the 165th year of the Maurya era in the 16th line of the inscription (C. J. Shah, J. N. I., p. 160). The view of Indraji was accepted and supported by many scholars like Smith (E. H. I., p. 44), Jayaswal (J. B. O. R. S., Vol. III, pp. 425-485, R. D. Bannerji (J. B. O. R. S., Vol. III, pp. 486-505), Muni Jinavijaya (Prāchīna Jaina Lekhasamgraha, Vol. I.), Dubreuil (Ancient History of Deccan, p. 12), and Sten Konow (cf. R. D. Bannerji, J. B. O. R. S., III, pp. 486-505), etc.

J. F. Fleet controverted the reading in the 16th line of the inscription and thereby the opinions of all the scholars referred to above. He held that it was meant to denote some Jaina canonical work which was forgotten in the days of the Mauryas (J. R. A. S., 1910 pp. 242 ff). To Fleet the earliest Indian era was the Vikrama era which started in 58 B. C. and, therefore, he rejected the views of Indraji and others. Fleet was supported by Luders (List of Brāhmi Inscriptions, No.1345, p.160) and R.C. Majumdar (I. A., Vol. XLVII, pp. 223ff and Vol. XLVIII, pp. 187ff).

D. C. Sircar on palaeographical grounds assigned this inscription to the last phase of the lst century B. C. in his

that of king Lalāka, which mentions the excavation of a cavedwelling for the use of the Arahmtas and the Sramanas (Jainas) of Kalinga.¹ Another inscription of this category and time, as well mentions the excavation of a cave-dwelling by the chief queen of king Kharavela for the use of the Jaina monks.² The most important of all these records is the Hathigumpha cave inscription of king Kharavela. This record presents the history of Jainism and indirectly proves an early entrance of the faith in Kalinga.

One of the various activities of the king for the promotion of the Jaina faith was the setting up of the image of Kalinga-Jina which had been snatched away by king Nanda,³ in the 12th year of his reign. Another work of this type was the erection of a shrine in the vicinity of 'Relic Depository (Niṣādiyā) of the Arhamta on the Kumārī Parvata, on which the 'Wheel of the Conquest of the Jaina Doctrine was established.' Further the inscription records the distribution of several benefactions on the 'Yāpa professors' by the king.

These activities of the king prove that he was a devout Jaina. He must have been fully conversant with the ethical and philosophical ideals of the Jainas since in the inscription he is said to have realised the beauty of Jīva (soul) and Deha (matter i. e., Ajīva). Further C. J. Shah says that the line 15th of the Hāthīgumphā cave inscription mentions Khara-

Continued

Select Inscriptions, Vol. I. p. 206. A. K. Narain attributes it to "the middle of the lst century B. C." (The Inde-Greeks, p. 42).

The inscription is a very controversial one and it is almost impossible to assign it to an exact date.

^{1.} J. A. S. B., Vol. VI, pp. 1074ff; J. S. S., II, No. 3, p. 11.

^{2.} Sircar, Select Inscriptions, No. 92. p. 213.

^{1.} S. I., p. 17; cf. Sircar, Select Inscriptions, pp. 206 ff.

^{4.} Supavata-Vijaya-Chaka-Kumārī pavate, Ep. Ind., XX,p.80.

^{5.} Jīva-deha sirikā parikhitā, Ep. Ind., Vol. XX, p. 80.

vela as a monk, wearing the robes of a Jaina Śramaṇa.¹ Besides he built a meeting place (Saṃghāyana) for the "accomp'ished Śramaṇas, for those of good deeds and for the leaders of the Saṃgha"² of the Jainas.

Antiquity of Jainism in Kalinga

The exact date of the entry of Jainism in Kalinga could not be determined. But it may well go to an early period. The inscription as pointed above refers to an intrusion of Kharavela in Magadha, who brought back home forcibly the image of the Jina of Kalinga³ which was carried away to Magadha by king Nanda 'Tivasasata' years back. The word 'Tivasasata' has variously been explained.

Jayaswal identified Nandaraja of the epigraph with Nandivardhana, who was the homonymous Saisunāga king, but according to Raichaudhari, this King had nothing to do with Kalinga. Raichaudhari identified Nandarāja with Mahāpadmananda, who had 'all under his sole sway' and was the exterminator of the Kshatriyas, or with any of his nine sons. Now, the word *Tivasasata* is taken to denote 300 years by almost all the scholars, as against the view of Sten K now who took it to stand for 103. In this way the existence of Jainism in Kalinga in the 4th centry B. C. is proved. It was

^{1.} Shah, C. J., J. N. I., p. 182.

²· Jayaswal, J. B. O. R. S., Vol. IV, p. 402; Ibid, Vol.XIII, p. 234.

The habit of denominating the Tirthamkaras in this faishon is even now in vogue among the Jainas. According to Muni Jinavijaya Ādinātha is sometimes designated as Satrunjaya Jina, cf. Shah, J. N. I., p. 173.

^{4.} Jayaswal, K. P., J.B. O. R. S., Vol. III, p. 386.

Raichaudhari, H. C., P. H. A. I., p. 377; Shah identifies Nandaraja (J. N. I., p. 177) with Nanda I of the Jaina tradition.

^{6.} P. H. A. I., p. 405, n.3.

². Konow, S., Acta Orientalia, Vol. I, pp. 22-26.

confirmed by Jayaswal on the authority of Avasyaka Sūtra and the line 14th of the epigraph that Kumāri hill was the place where the religion was preached and promulgated by Mahā vīra.¹

This early introduction of the Jaina faith in the land of Kalinga could even be proved by the tradition recorded in the Avasyakasūtra wherein Mahāvīra is said to have visited a ruling Kṣhaṭriya prince of Orissa to preach his religion to him. The king is said to have been a friend of the father of Mahāvīra.²

Jainism in Tamilnadu

We now propose to deal the condition of the Jaina faith in Tamilnadu but we have rather meagre evidence about it. Jainism in the Tamil country was introduced either via Andhradesa or the Karnatak region.³

"A large number of caverns containing beds carved out in the rock have been discovered in the hills and mount inous regions in the Pudukkottai area and Madura and Tinnevelly districts of Madras State. The two last named areas are particularly rich in these antiquities and the Madura District is known to possess considerably numerous monuments of this kind."

These caverns are found generally containing inscriptions. These epigraphs are in the Brāhmī characters of 3rd century B. C. Early Tamil literature also confirms the flourishing condition of Janism in South.6

Madura District

A certain cavern with beds and Brāhmī inscriptions was found from the Anaimalai hills. Another great cavern with

Jayaswal, J. B. O. R. S., Vol. I, pp. 99-105; Ibid, Vol. XIII, pp. 245-46.

^{2.} \bar{A} . $s\bar{u}$, pp. 219-220.

^{3.} Desai, P. B., J. S. I., p. 25.

^{4.} Ibid, p. 27.

^{5.} Ibid, pp. 27-28.

^{6.} The Classical Age, p. 413.

beds and epigraphs in Brāhmī was found from Varichchiyur. From the Tirupparankunram hills also caverns and records were found. Another cavern at Alagarmalai bore two inscriptions. From the hills of Siddhairmalai one cavern bearing three inscriptions was noticed.¹

Tinnevelly District

A cavern and records were discovered from Marugalapalai. Similarly from Kalugumalai caverns, beds and inscriptions have come to light.²

These antiquities and records are attributed to the Jainas, which point out that the Jainas had made an early settlement of theirs in Tamilnadu as well. It is quite poissible that the Jainas who left Magadha towards the close of Chandragupta's reign may have been instrumental in the diffusion of the faith in the region.

Jainism in Western India

Now we propose to discuss the condition of Jainism in Western India. The main seat of Jainism in western India in ancient days, was Girnar which corresponds to modern Junagarh. From this place we have certain inscriptions bearing testmony to this effect.

An inscription dated in the 58th year of the Vikrama Era, records the *Pratisthāpanā* of an image of Panchānachanda a pupil of Nemichandra at Dhārāganja ³ Another reference of some Jainistic importance is to be gathered from 'Junāgarh stone Inscription of Jayadāman's grandson.' The inscription though mutilated records that at the knowledge of the *Kevalins* 'the gods, Asuras, Nāgas, Yakṣas and Rākshasas' arrived

Desai, P. B, J. S. I., p. 28; cf. K. V. S. Aiyar, I.A., Vol. XL, p. 210.

²· Ibid, J. S. I., p. 28.

^{3.} Arch. Sur. India, Vol. XVI, No. XX, p. 357; J. S. S., II, No. 11, p. 16.

in Girinagara, to pay their homage. This is the first inscription which mentions the attainment of perfect knowledge by the Jaina monks. This record possibly makes a reference to Neminātha who is said to have attained Kaivalya at Girnar or other Tirthankaras. The inscription was from a cave near Junagarh which together with other caves of the group was used by Jaina monks. The caves of Dhank containing the images of Rishabha, Pārśva and Mahāvīra etc. seem to belong to the same period.

Girnar enjoys a very important position in the scheme of Jaina Tirthas of note. The Vividhatīrthakalpa of Jinaprabhasuri mentions other names of Girnar as Raivataka and Ūrjayanta, having a stone figure of Neminātha, studded with precious gems of Kashmir. This Mahātīrtha was ornamented with the presence of a Chaitya. These are some of the various traditions recorded in Vividhotīrthakalpa regarding Girnar which go to prove its hoary antiquity. The fact that the traditions of the Jainas state that 22nd Tirthamkara Neminātha attained Nirvāṇa on mount Girnar also shows that the region must have been a strong centre of Jaina activity.

Even if the traditional accounts are not considered as historical facts, it is clear from our inscriptions that Jainism at Girnar exercised a great influence in the 1st century B. C. and the early centuries of the Christian era. Jainism in the region was so deeply rooted that it continued to be an impor-

^{1.} Girinagare devāsura nāga ya(kṣa) rā(kṣa)sē...thāp(u)ramiva ...Kevali(jñā)na sam(prāptānam)...Ep. Ind., Vol. XVI, pp. 241fi; Sircar, S.I., No. 70, p.177; Luders List, No. 966.

^{2.} The Age of Imperial Unity, p. 419.

Nāmābhiḥ Śrīraivatakorjjayantāddyaih prathāmitam | Śrīnemipāvitam staumi girināram girīśvaram ||1|| Vividhatīrthakalpa (S. J. G.) p. 7.

Kāshmīrāgataratnena Kuşmandyādeśatotrache |
 Lepyabimbāspade nyasta śrī Nemermūrtirāśmanī |/22|/Ibid.

^{5.} Ibid, v 24, p. 7.

tant Jaina seat even in later periods, which is made clear from the favourable attitude accorded to this faith even later.¹

Jainism in Karnatak

Of all centres of Jainism in Karnatak, Halsi, known as Pālasikā in ancient times, in the Belgāum District is the most important. We have several inscriptions besides those that are not in the range of our time but which confirm its Jainistic importance in later times.

The Kadamba Patronage

The Kadamba kings of Palasika were great patrons of the Jaina faith. Kākutsthavarmā (430-450 A. D.), the Kadamba Yuvarāja made a land gift to general Śrutakirti.2 varmā (475-490 A. D.), a grandson of Kâkutsthavarmā, and the son of king Santivarma (450-475 A. D.) caused the erection of a Jaina temple in the city of Pālasikā and made a grant to the sects of the Yapaniyas, Nirgranthas (Digambaras) and the Kurchakas in the 8th year of his reign. Another record4 contains the declarations and ordinances of Ravivarma 497-537 A. D.) and other Kadamba kings for the celebration of the festival of Astahnika for the glorification of Jinendra regularly on specified days every year.5 Similarly another record from Pālāsikā⁶ as well shows that he donated a piece land of in honour of the Lord Jinendra. These facts go to prove that perhaps Ravivarmā was "a more

^{1.} Vividhatīrthakalpa, (S. J. G.), p. 9.

² Fleet, I. A., Vol. VI, No. XX, p. 24; J. S. S., II, 96, pp. 66-67.

³· Ibid, No. XXI, pp. 24-25; J. S. S., II, No. 99, pp. 72-74.

Ibid, No. XXII, pp. 25-27; J. S. S., II, No. 100, pp. 74-76.

Desai, P. B., J. S. I., p. 110.

Fleet, I. A., Vol. VI, No. XXIV, pp. 29-30; J. S. S., II, No. 101. pp. 77-78.

zealous supporter of the faith than his predecessors'" were. In the eleventh year of the reign of king Ravivarmā, his brother Bhānuvarmā made a land gift for the ablution ceremony of the Lord Jinendra, to be performed on full moon days without fail.² Another record of this series, contains the donation of a village 'Vasuntavāṭaka' by king Harivarmā (537-547 A.D.), son of, Ravivarmā, for the performance of the worship of Aṣtāhnikā and the feeding up of the whole saṃgha, to Chandrakṣhānta, the head of the Vāriṣēṇāchāryasaṃgha of the Kūrchakas.³ A second inscription as well mentions the donation of a village Marade by name, for the worship and maintenance of a Chaityālaya, under the possession of Ahriṣṭa Śramaṇa saṃgha.⁴

This generosity of a whole line of the Kadambas and their patronage to the Jaina faith led some scholars to believe that the Kadamba kings were Jainas by faith, as was held by K. B. Pathak and J. F. Fleet at a time.⁵ But the discovery of the Talagunda inscription⁶ of king Sāntivarmā (400-475 A. D.) led Fleet to correct his mistake.⁷ Kākutsthavarmā was the first king to express his reverence to Rishabha in one of his inscriptions as pointed out above. Saletore took him to have been an 'avowed Jaina,' but as this reverence was not repeated in any other record of Kākutsthavarmā the view of Saletore does not seem plausible. The above record was made over merely for expressing a sense of gratitude to the general Śrutakīrti who might have saved the life of the king as sugges-

^{1.} Desai, P. B., J. S. I., p. 110

Fleet, I. A., Vol. VI, No. XXIII, pp. 27-29; J S. S., II, No. 102, pp. 78-79.

^{3.} Ibid, No. XXV, pp. 30-31; J. S. S., II, No. 103, pp. 80-81.

^{4.} Ibid, No.XXVI, pp. 31-32; J. S. S., II, No, 104, pp. 81-82.

^{5. [}Ibid, I. A., VII, pp. 35 36.

Sircar, D. C., Select Inscriptions, pp. 450ff.

^{7.} Fleet, Dynasties of the Kanareese Districts, p. 286.

^{8.} Saletore, B. A., Mediaeval Jainism, p. 30.

ted by S. R. Sharma.¹ The Kadambas were Brāhmanas is further testified by an inscription of Viṣhṇuvarman from Kadur Taluka wherein the king is styled as a "protector of the excellent Brāhmaṇa faith."² This statement could further be confirmed from the fact that the Kadamba king Śṛīkrishṇavarmā is said to have performed an Aśvamedha sacrifice.³ In later epigraphs the kings of the Kadamba dynastv are said to have performed in all eighteen Aśvamedha sacrifices.⁴ Hence the hypothesis forwarded by G. M. Mo aes that the Kadambas "were not Jainas" stands on a firm ground.

But it seems from their epigraphs that the religious toleration of the Kadambas was an instrumental factor for the growth and the development of the Jaina faith in Karnatak. Under their patronage the Yāpanīyas, the Nirgranthas (Digambaras), the Kūrchakas, and the Śvetapaṭasamaṇas enjoyed full religious freedom together with non-Jaina faiths of the time.

Kolhapur

Another important stronghold of Jainism in Karnatak was Altem in the modern district of Kolhapur. We have an epigraph⁶ of 411 Saka (489-90 A. D.), which records the erection of a Jaina temple by a feudatory of the Chālukyas, who is styled as Sāmiyar. He was a scion of the Rudranīla Saindraka line and a governor of the Kuhundī district. The temple was erected in the Alaktakanagar which was the main town and encircled by 700 villages in the district.

^{1.} Sharma, S. R., J. K. C., p. 9.

^{2.} Ep. Car., Vol. VI, Kd. 162.

^{3.} Aśvamedhayājinah....dharmamahārājasya śrīkrishnavarmanah, Fleet, I.A., Vol. VII, No. XXXV, pp. 33-35; J.S.S., II, No. 105, pp. 83-84.

^{4.} Ep. Car., XI, M. K. 41.

Moraes, G. M, The Kadambakula, pp. 249-50.

Fleet, I. A, Vol. VII, No. 44, pp. 209-17; J. S. S., II, No. 106, pp. 86-90.

Kolhāpur was an important centre of the faith in its early days as it is even today. It is said to have been one of the four pontificates of the Jaina community.

Dharwad District

Besides these, there were two other strongholds of Jainistic prominence in the Dharwad district of Karnatak, viz. Adur and Devagiri.

The inscription from Adur belongs to king Kirtivarmā I of the Chālukya lineage. Though the inscription is not dated yet it may belong to 489 Saka (+78=567-68 A.D.) or before, as this is the last date of the said king. The epigraph records the donation of a land gift for the worship and management of the temple of Lord Jinendra.

Devagiri in the Karajgi Taluka of Dharwad district was another such centre of eminence. We have three Kadamba records from this place which fall under the span of our time. In the first of these king Mrigesvarvarma son of Santivarma donates the village of Vrihatparlure, for the worship, repair and the management of the temple of Arhamtadeva.8 In the second,4 the donation of the village Kālavanga was made over to (1) the holy Arhata and god Jinendra, (2) for the enjoyment of the Svetāmbara (Śvētapata Samaņas), and (3) the Nirgrantha (Digambara) ascetics. The epigraph was inscribed by a general Narwar on the orders of his master Šrī Vijavasivamrigēsvarmā. In the third inscription, a gift of land is made by crown prince Devavarma, son of Sri Krishnavarma, for the worshlp, repair, and management of the

Desai, P. B., J. S. I., p. 211.

^{2.} I. A., Vol. XXXII, p. 460.

Fleet, I. A., Vol. VII, No. XXXVI, pp. 35-7; J. S. S., II, No. 97, pp. 67-68.

Ibid, No. XXXVII, pp. 37-38; J. S. S., II, No. 98, pp. 69 72.

Chaityālaya (temple) of the Arhata to the Yāpanīya Saṃgha.¹

Nonamangala

It was another inportant stronghold of Jainism, under the rule of the illustrious Ganga kings. Our information is based on two records from Nonamangala. The first of these provides us with a genealogical table of the Gangas starting from the king Konganivarmā, Mādhavavarmā I, Harivarmā, and Viṣhṇugopa to Mādhavavarmā II, and mentions a grant of land made by the latter to the Jinālaya built by the Mūlasaṃgha, on the advice of Āchārya Vīradēva. This record is dated in the 13th regnal year of king Mādhavavarmā II (c.370 A.D.). The second inscription also records the names of the aforesaid Ganga kings and mentions that Mādhavavavarmā II granted a village to the Jinālaya of Urṇūr and granted $\frac{1}{4}$ of the customs duties to Chandranandi the head of the Mūlasaṃgha.

As pointed out elsewhere the term Mūlasamgha in epigraphs stood for the Digambara sect of the Jainas. And it seems that the Gangas patronised this sect of the Jaina ascetics. These inscriptions make it clear that the Jainas turned Nonamangala into a great centre of their faith under the Ganga hegemony.

Jainism in Mysore and Coorg

Traditionally Sravana Belagola in Mysore could be said to have been one of the earliest Jaina centres, perhaps, the cradle of the faith in Deccan and South. But unfortunately we do not have an inscription to testify the said tradition from epigraphs earlier than 600 A. D. By this period it had become the "chief seat of the Jainas in Southern India." Though

^{1.} Ibid, No. XXXV, pp. 83-84.

Ep. Car., Vol. X, Malur tl., No. 73; J. S. S., II, No. 90, pp. 55-56.

^{3.} Ibid, No. 72; J. S. S., II, No. 94, pp. 60-62.

⁴· Narsimhachar, Ep. Car., II, (Int.) p. 1.

we have numerous inscriptions from Śrāvaņa Belagolā only the first of these could be listed and dealt with here.

This place is not styled as a Tīrtha of the Siddhakṣhetra type (even though Bhadrabāhu, the last Śrutakevalin died here), but instead as a Tīrtha of Atiśaya Kṣhetra type because of the large number of temples here. It has often been asserted that Belagolā pṛesents a history of the Jaina civilisation of some 2500 years through its images, temples, caves and records.

Our inscription³ records the names of Mahāvīra, Gautama Sudharma, Jambu and many others with Bhadrabāhu (I), the last *Śrutakevalin*, the preceptor of Chandragupta Maurya. Bhadrabāhu had a knowledge of the past, present and the future and having predicted at Ujjaini "a famine and drought, lasting for 12 years migrated towards Southern India" with a large body of Jaina monks. He is said to have been accompanied by Chandragupta Maurya who is mentioned in this inscription by the name of Prabhāchandra.

The authenticity of the Bhadrabāhu-Chandragupta tradition is proved by the existence of a hill known as 'Chandra Giri', a temple thereon styled as 'Chandra Gupta Bastī,' and a cave designated after Bhadrabāhusvāmī wherein his footprints are even now worshipped. The factuality of this tradition was doubted by Fleet,⁴ but Narsimhachar⁵ had refuted his views favouring the tradition.

The migration to southern lands of India marks an important epoch in the development of the history of the Jaina Church since it led to many schisms etc.

Premi, N R., Jaina Sāhitya Aur Itihāsa, pp. 422ff.

^{2.} J. S. S., Vol. I, (Int.), p. 1.

^{3.} Ep. Car., II, No. I; J. S. S., Vol. I, No.1 (I), pp. 1-2.

^{4.} Fleet, I. A., Vol. XXI, pp. 156-160.

Narsimhachar, Ep. Car., II, Int.; Now the tradition seems to be widely accepted.

Merkara

Merkara is a place in Coorg. The inscription under consideration is dated in 388 Saka (+78=466-67 A. D.) and mentions the gift of a village styled as Badaneguppe to the Srivijaya Jaina temple of Talvananagar. The inscription also mentions a line of spiritual teachers.

The inscription records the genealogy of the Western Ganga kings. Köngani I (Mādhava I), Harivarmā, Vishnugōpa, Mādhava II, and Köngani II (Avinīta) respectively. Merkarā in Coorg and other places in Mysore were under the influence of the Jainas. The founder of the dynasty Konganivarma was helped by a Jaina teacher Simhanandi. Most of the Western Gangas were Jainas³ but some of them favoured Brahmanical sects also.

^{1.} J. S. S., II, No. 95, pp. 63-66.

^{2.} See ch. IV, p. 53.

^{3.} The Classical Age, p. 269f.

CONCLUSION

The Jainas had a vast pantheon of Brhamanic and Jaina deities and a status lower than their own Tirthamakaras was assigned to the former. The Tirthamkara deities are like kings while the rest of the gods pointed above were relegated to a position not dissimilar to the officials and subjects of the king. We cannot assign a particular date for the final schism of the Jaina community into the sects of the Svetāmbaras, the Digambaras and the Yāpanīyas. The reason is that all the evidences whether epigraphic, Paṭṭāvalic or literary are differing in nature on the point. And as we know of the existence of the monks wearing white clothes even in the days of Pārśva, the twenty third Tirthamkara, the aforesaid division seems to have been a gradual one.

It is worng to hold, as has been discussed above, that women were admitted in the Jaina order in imitation of the Buddhists. The Jaina laity had great powers over the samgha of the monks. He could have admitted or expelled the monks and even the heads of the religious sections, at any time, in order to restore peace in the samgha.

Mülasamgha (Nirgrantha or Digambara) was very popular in South. It was the sect to which Āchārya Kundakunda belonged. Devasena in his Darśanasāra has excluded this sect from the list of the five pseudo-Jama schools but it has been proved otherwise. For it was not bereft of those characteristics which inspired him to term Śvetāmbara, Yāpanīya, Drāvida, Kāṣṭhā and Māthura saṃghas as false sects. The Kūrchakas are known also from inscriptions, though we do not know the details of their order.

The Jaina epigraphs from Mathura contain the names of the Kautika, Vāraņa (Chāraṇa), Aryyoddenika and Veśavāṭika gaṇas with their minor subdivisions. These names are to be found even in the Sthavirāvalī of the Kalpasūtra and go to prove the correctness of the Jaina tradition. The absence of the Sambhoga and such other minor organisations, in the literary works of the Jainas confirms the fact that the Jainas in their ancient days, followed the oral system of imparting knowledge.

They practised the principle of Ahimsā, which was preached by their Tīrthamkaras from time to time. Furthermore, they had developed a fairly advanced philosophy at an early date. They were accustomed to worship the stūpas, temples and images of their gods and perfected beings.

It is a fair assumption that by sixth cent. A. D., the Jaina religion had spread to a greater part of the Indian soil. In its effectiveness and the number of its adherents it did not lag behind other contemporary religions that prevailed at the time.

APPENDIX I A list of the Jaina Tirthamkaras

Name	'	Place of Birth Parents Cognizance Colour	th Parents	S	ognizance	Colour		Height	Age	P	Place of Nirvāna	
dinātha or	Ä	Vinîtanaga	ıri Nābhirā	ja	Bull or	Golden	500 I	Ohanush	as 84,00,000) yea	1. Ādinātha or Vinitanagari Nābhirāja Bull or Golden 500 Dhanushas 84,00,000 years Ashtapada	
Ŗishabha			& Marue	devī	& Marudevī Vṛiṣhabha							
2. Ajitanātha Ayodhyā	_	Ayodhyā	Jitasatru	- W	Jitasatru & Elephant	:	450	=	72,00,000	:	Samet shikhar	
3. Saṃbhava- nātha		Śrāvastī	Vijayasenā Dŗidharāja Aśva & Sușheņā	nā ja 4 ā	lśva	•	400	•	000,00,09	=	*	(
\bhinandar	=	4. Abbinandana Ayodhyā	Svayaṃbhava Ape & Siddhārthā	hava irthā	Ape	2	350		50,00,000	2	•	110
umatinâth	ã	Sumatinātha Ayodhyā	Meghanātha	ha	Krauncha,,	1a ,,	300	:	40,00,000	=		.)
			& Mangalā	18	or Curlew	W						
6. Padma-		Kauśāmbī	Śŗīdhara		Padma Red	Red	250	:	30,00,000	2	•	
prabha			& Suṣimā		or Lotus	ø						
7. Supāršva- nātha		Vārānasī	Pratișțharāja & Pŗithvī	āja	Svastika Golden 200	Golden	200	:	20,00,000	2	2	
Chandra- C prabha	\mathbf{c}	8. Chandra- Chandrapura Mahāsena prabha & Lakṣhn	Mahāsena & Lakṣhmaṇā		Moon	White 150	150	2	10,00,000	•	•	
ușpadanta	ಡ	9. Puspadanta Kākandīna- Sugrīva gari & Rāmā	Sugrīva & Rāmā		Makara	•	100	•	2,00,000	:	*	

00	., 0	n years) ''', Champāpurī	" Samet shikhar			10.00.000 Samet shikhar				:	:	:	:	6	•
1,00,000	84,00,000	(common years) 72,00,000 ",	000,00,00	30,00,000		10,00,000		1,00,000		000'06		84.000	•	55,000	30,000
:		:	•	:		:	:	:		2		=	;	:	:
90	80	20	09	50		45	:	40		35		30		25	20
10. Sitalanātha Bhadrapura Drigharatha Srivatsa Golden & Nandā figure	Rhinoceros "	(she)Buffalo "	Boar ",	Falcon ",		Thunderbolt Golden 45		Antelope ",		Goat ",		. of Nand- ,,	vartta diagram	Kumbha Blue ti	ma Black
n Drigharatha & Nandã	Vişhnu 8. Vishnā	ανιξυμα Vasupūjya (& Jayā	mā F	Simhasena F	& Sūyaṣā	Bhānu Th	& Suvratā		& Achirā	Śūrasena G	& Sri Rāni	Sudarsana Fig. of Nand- "	& Devi Rāni, yāvartta diagram	Kumbha Ku & Prabhāvati	Sumitra Kūrma & Padmāvati
Bhadrapura	11. Śreyāmśa- Simhapura	Cha m pā	ıa Kāmpilya	Ayodhyā		Ratnapura		16. Santinatha Hastinapur Asvasena		,=	J	2			
Ś ica lanāt ha	Śreyāmśa-	natna 12. Vāsupūjya Champā	Vimalanāth	14. Ananta-	nātha	15. Dharma-	nātha	Santinatha		17. Kunthu-	nātha	18. Aranātha or	Nandyāvartta	19. Mallinätha Mathura	20. Munisuv. Rājgriha rata
.0	11.	[2	13.	4.		i,		6.		7		œ.		6	o

						(1
Tace of Intrana	:	1,000 ,, Mount Girnar		100 " Samet shikhar		Pāvāpurī	
٦	:	:		:		2	
Age	10,000	1,000		100		72 ,,	
Height				9 hands		~	
.	16	10		6		2	
Colou	Yellow	Black		Blue	. •	Yellow	
Cognizance	Blue lotus	Conch		serpent		XX	
Parent	Vijaya	& Viprā Samudra• (vijaya & Śivādevī	Aśvasena Serpent	& Vāmādevī	Siddbārtha	& Trisala
Name Place of Birth Parent Cognizance Colour Height Age Flace of Infrana	21. Naminātha Mathura Vijaya Blue lotus Yellow 15	& Viprā. 22. Neminātha Śauripura Samudra. Conch		23. Pārsva- Vārānasī	nātha (24. Mahāvīra- Kundagrāma Siddhārtha XX	Vardhamāna
	21.	22.		23.		24.	

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APPENDIX II

The types of Jaina Gods

The	The	The The
Bhavanavāsis	Vyantaras	Jyotishkas Vaimānikas
l	1	
1. Asurakumāras*	1. Kinnaras	1. Sūryas
2. Nāgakumāras*	2. Kimpurushas	2. Chandras
3. Vidvutakumāras	3. Mahoragas	3. Grahas
4. Suparņakumāras	4. Gandharvas	4. Nakshatras
5. Agnikumāras	5. Yakshas*	5. Prakirņakas
6. Vātakumāras	6. Rākshasas*	or Tārakas
7. Stanitakumāras	7. Bhūtas	
8. Udadhikumāras	8. Piśāchas	Park to the second of the seco
9. Dvīpakumāras		i
10. Dikakumāras		i i
The Kalpopanna	s The Kalpātīt	as
1. Saudharmas		
_		1
	he Graiveyakas	The Anuttaras
3. Sanatkumāras	1. Sudarshanas	1. Vijayas
4. Mahendra	2. Supratibuddha	• •
5. Brahmaloka**	3. Manoramas	3. Jayantas
6. Brahmottara	4. Sarvabhadras	4. Aparājitas
7, Lāṅtaka	5. Suvishālas	, 5. Sarvārtha-
8. Kāpistha	6. Somanasas	Siddhas
9. Śukra	7. Sumankasas	

^{*} Of all the Jaina Gods, probably the Asurakumāras, Nāgakumāras, Yakshas and the Rākshasas are alluded to in the Junāgadh Stone Inscription of Jaydamana's grandson, Ep. Ind., XVI, pp. 241ff; also Sircar, S. I., No. 70,p. 17/.

- 10. Mahāśukra
- 8. Priyankaras
- 11. Śatāra
- 12. Sahsrāra**
- 13. Āņata
- 14. Prāņata
- 15. Āraņa
- 16. Achyuta

9. Ādityas

APPENDIX III

The dynasty of Adhichhatra

The genealogy of the kings of Adhichhatrā as furnished by the Pabhosā inscriptions of the reign of king Udāka is as follows:

Sonakāyana
Vamgapala
(married to Tevaņī or Traivarņa princes)
Bhāgawata
(married to Gōpālī, Vaihidar princes)

Āṣāḍhasena
Gopali
Bahasatimita

^{**} The gods from Nos. 5 to 12 are of one type.

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