FOREIGN DEPT. LIBRARY,
SIMLA.
MONOGRAPH ON
Buddha Śakyamuni's Birth-Place
IN THE NEPALESE TARAI.

BY
A. FÜHRER, Ph.D.,
ARCHAEOLOGICAL SURVEYOR, NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES AND OUDH.

ALLAHABAD:
PRINTED AT THE GOVERNMENT PRESS, N.-W. P. AND OUDH.

1897.

Price, Rs. 4 (5s. 6d.) per copy.]
List of Volumes constituting the New Imperial Series of the Reports of the Archaeological Survey of India.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prescribed number in New Series</th>
<th>Name of Book</th>
<th>Author or Editor</th>
<th>Date of publication</th>
<th>Existing Provincial Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Report of the first season’s Operations in the Belgaum and Kaledgi Districts</td>
<td>Burgess</td>
<td>1874</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>Report on the Antiquities of Kathiswar and Kachh</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>1875</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>Report on the Antiquities of the Bidar and Aurangabad Districts.</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>1878</td>
<td>III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV</td>
<td>The Buddhist Caves and their Inscriptions</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>1883</td>
<td>IV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>The Caves of Ellora and the other Brahmanical and Jaina Caves in Western India</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>1884</td>
<td>V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI</td>
<td>The Buddhist Stupas of Amarasati and Jagayyapeta</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>1885</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII</td>
<td>Lists of Antiquarian Remains in the Presidency of Madras (Volume I)</td>
<td>Sewell</td>
<td>1882</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIII</td>
<td>Lists of Inscriptions and Sketch of Dynasties of Southern India (Volume II)</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>1884</td>
<td>III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IX</td>
<td>South Indian Inscriptions (Volume I)</td>
<td>Hultsch</td>
<td>1890</td>
<td>IV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X</td>
<td>South Indian Inscriptions (Volume II)</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>1891-92</td>
<td>V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XII</td>
<td>Monumental Antiquities and Inscriptions in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh</td>
<td>Führer &amp; Smith.</td>
<td>1891</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XIII</td>
<td>Epigraphia Indica (Volume I)</td>
<td>Burgess</td>
<td>1891</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XIV</td>
<td>Epigraphia Indica (Volume II)</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>1894</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XV</td>
<td>South Indian Buddhist Antiquities</td>
<td>Rea</td>
<td>1894</td>
<td>VI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XVI</td>
<td>Revised Lists of Antiquarian Remains in the Bombay Presidency</td>
<td>Consens</td>
<td>1897</td>
<td>VIII</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prescribed number in New Series</td>
<td>Name of Book.</td>
<td>Author or Editor</td>
<td>Date of publication</td>
<td>Existing Provincial Number.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XVII</td>
<td>Lists of Architectural and Archaeological Remains in Coorg</td>
<td>Rea</td>
<td>1894</td>
<td>Western India. VII</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XVIII</td>
<td>Report on the Moghal Architecture of Fañ urząd-Sikri, Part I</td>
<td>Smith</td>
<td>1895</td>
<td>Southern India. III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Report on the Moghal Architecture of Fañ urzęd-Sikri, Part II</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>1896</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Report on the Moghal Architecture of Fañ urzęd-Sikri, Part III</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>1897</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XIX</td>
<td>Lists of Antiquarian Remains in the Central Provinces and Berars</td>
<td>Cousens</td>
<td>1897</td>
<td>Northern India. IV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XX</td>
<td>Monograph on Ancient Jaina Art and Architecture</td>
<td>Führer</td>
<td>1897</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XXI</td>
<td>Chalukyan Architecture, including examples from the Bellary District, Madras Presidency</td>
<td>Rea</td>
<td>1896</td>
<td>Western India. VIII</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XXII</td>
<td>The Bower Manuscript, Part I</td>
<td>Hoernle</td>
<td>1893</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ditto, Part II, Fasciculi I and II</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>1894-95</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ditto, Parts III—VII</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>1897</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XXIII</td>
<td>Muhammadan Architecture of Bharuch, Cambay, Dholka, Champanir and Mahmoudabad in Gujarat</td>
<td>Burgess</td>
<td>1897</td>
<td>Western India. VI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XXIV</td>
<td>The Muhammadan Architecture of Ahmadabad</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>1897</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XXV</td>
<td>The Monumental Remains of the Dutch East India Company in the Presidency of Madras</td>
<td>Rea</td>
<td>1897</td>
<td>IX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XXVI</td>
<td>Monograph on Buddha Śākyamuni's Birth-place in the Nepalese Tarši</td>
<td>Führer</td>
<td>1897</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Volumes</td>
<td>Name of Book</td>
<td>Author or Editor</td>
<td>Date of publication</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Coorg Inscriptions</td>
<td>Rice</td>
<td>1886</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>Inscriptions at Sravana Belgola (Epigraphia Carnatica)</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>1889</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>Inscriptions in the Mysore District, Part I</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>1894</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV</td>
<td>Ditto, ditto, Part II</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>In the Press.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>Ditto Hassan District</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI</td>
<td>Ditto Kadur District</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII</td>
<td>Ditto Shemoga District, Part I</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIII</td>
<td>Ditto ditto, Part II</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IX</td>
<td>Ditto Bangalore District</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X</td>
<td>Ditto Kolar District</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XI</td>
<td>Ditto Chitaldroog District</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XII</td>
<td>Ditto Tumkur District</td>
<td>Do.</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ARCHÆOLOGICAL SURVEY OF INDIA.

NEW IMPERIAL SERIES.

VOLUME XXVI.

NORTHERN INDIA.

VOLUME VI.

THE BUDDHA'S BIRTH-PLACE.
Behold ye now this monk austere,
His matted locks, his penance fierce;
From the fair town called Kapila
His great retirement shall be made.

The mother that shall bring him forth,
Shall Mahāmāyā be by name;
Suddhodana his father's name,
His own name shall be Gautama.

[Introduction to the Jātaka, or Book of "Buddha's Birth-stories."]
## CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>List of Plates</th>
<th>...</th>
<th>...</th>
<th>...</th>
<th>...</th>
<th>...</th>
<th>...</th>
<th>IV</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preface</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>V &amp; VI</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**CHAPTER I.**
The Birth of Prince Gautama Siddhártha, the Buddha Śākyamuni ... 1—15

**CHAPTER II.**
Keshavatí, or Nābhika, the Birth-place of the Buddha Krakuechanda 16—21

**CHAPTER III.**
Śobhavatí, the Birth-place of the Buddha Koṇágamana ... 22—25

**CHAPTER IV.**
The Lumbínī Grove, the Birth-place of Buddha Śākyamuni ... 26—29

**CHAPTER V.**
Aśoka's Pilgrimage to the Buddha's Birth-place ... 30—32

**CHAPTER VI.**
The Rummindei and Niglívā Edicts of Piyadasī, or Aśokarāja 33—34

**CHAPTER VII.**
Kapilavastu, the Capital of the Śākyas ... 35—44

**CHAPTER VIII.**
The Thárūs, the modern descendants of the Śākyas ... 45—46

**CHAPTER IX.**
Historical Conclusions ... 47 & 48
**LIST OF PLATES.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plate</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Sketch Map of Kapilavastu and its Suburbs as described by Fa Hien and Hsuen Tsang.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>Map of the Present Ruins of Kapilavastu in the Nepalese Tarai.</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>General View of Nigali Sagar near Niglivá</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV</td>
<td>Lower (inscribed) portion of Aśoka's Pillar (in situ) near Niglivá.</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>Upper half of Aśoka's Pillar lying on Western Bank of Nigali Sagar.</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI</td>
<td>Aśoka's Pillar at Rummindéi near Bhagvánpur...</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII</td>
<td>Interior of Thārū House (burnt down)</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIII</td>
<td>Group of Thārū Men and Women; Aśoka's Edict on Pillar in the Lumbini Grove (see Plate VI).</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
PREFACE.

The aim of this Monograph is to present at an early date to the student of Indian Early History and of Buddhism the results of the important and interesting discoveries made in the Nepālese Tarāi, north-east of the Basti district of the North-Western Provinces, in the beginning of last camping season.

On the 12th May and the 29th June 1896 I applied through the Government of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh to the Government of India in the Foreign Department, for the favour of its obtaining the sanction of the Khatmandu Darbār to an exploration being made of the ruins near Niglīvā as far as Bhagvānpur, fifteen miles east-south-east of Taulihāvā, where I had learned another pillar bearing a supposed Asoka inscription was still standing. On the 29th August last the Government of India, in its letter No. 1506 E.B., informed the Resident at Nepāl: 

"It has been decided that, if the Nepāl Darbār grant the necessary permission, Dr. A. Führer, Archaeological Surveyor, North-Western Provinces and Oudh, will be deputed to conduct the explorations." In his letter No. 5/P 17-405, dated the 7th September 1896, to the address of the Secretary to the Government of India in the Foreign Department, Colonel H. Wylie, C.S.I., the Resident at Nepāl, wrote in reply: 

"His Excellency the Prime Minister has informed me that his brother General Khaḍga Shamsher, Governor of Pālpa, would be directed to meet Dr. Führer at Niglīvā, and would be ready to receive suggestions from him regarding the contemplated excavation amongst the ruins of Buddha Koṇāgamana’s Nirvāṇa Stūpa."

Convinced of the importance of the proposed explorations of the ruins near Niglīvā, Herr Hofrat Dr. George Bühler, C.I.E., Professor of Oriental Languages at the University of Vienna, in September 1896, asked some of his friends to contribute about eight hundred rupees towards the expenses likely to be incurred on the above proposal, without attaching any conditions to this liberal gift. As, however, the Nepāl Government had expressed the intention of itself undertaking the excavation operations amongst these ruins, and as my duties in connection with the researches were to be confined to giving advice and making suggestions, no advantage could be taken of the contributions so generously offered from Europe for the laudable object of carrying on the excavations.

That I have accomplished what I did is owing chiefly to the courtesy and magnanimity of the present enlightened Government of Nepāl. All students of Ancient Indian History and all devout Buddhists of India, Ceylon, Burma and the Far East are indebted to His Highness Mahārāja Sir Bir Shamsher Jang Rāṇa Bahādur, C.S.I., and to his brother General Khaḍga Shamsher, for the enthusiasm displayed and the great assistance rendered in the successful exploration of these ruins. The Governor of the Tarāi, General Khaḍga Shamsher, who, at my suggestion, had kindly the Rummimdei Pillar excavated, did not think any other operations feasible on account of the severe famine from which the Tarāi was then suffering;
but he has generously promised to employ this winter a large number of his Sappers
on more extensive excavations, which, if conducted in a systematic and scientific
manner, are sure to furnish us with documents and monuments not only of the third
century B.C., but of a much earlier period, extending to about the fifth or sixth
century before Christ.

In conclusion, I tender my warmest thanks to Bābu Shohrat Singh, Honorary
Magistrate of Chandapār and Shohratganj in the Basti district, an influential and
public-spirited land-proprietor on the Indo-Nepāl frontier, for his great generosity
of allowing me the use of two valuable elephants, without which it would have been
an almost fruitless task to explore the dense sāl forests in which these interesting
ruins are hidden away.

A. FÜHRER.

LUCKNOW MUSEUM.

The 31st May 1897.
THE ARCHAEOLOGICAL SURVEY OF NORTHERN INDIA.

THE BUDDHA'S BIRTH-PLACE
IN
THE NEPALESE TARAI.

CHAPTER I.

THE BIRTH OF PRINCE GAUTAMA SIDDHARtha, THE BUDDHA SāKYAMUNI.

The history of the Buddha, such as may be extracted from the sacred Pāli books, is so marvellous that all who are standing outside the pale of Buddhism reject more or less its truthfulness. A few of the Western scholars have gone to such lengths as to see in that history the remoulding of an ancient solar myth; others, less radical, are of opinion that it will be possible, by stripping the tale of its miraculous and mythical elements, to find out the historic nucleus. Those are apt to believe that by the aid of their critical manipulations they can produce an image which is extremely like the original. Without denying the worth of critical disquisitions or entering into the merits of the different reconstructions of the traditional history, we must limit ourselves in this chapter to a condensed account of the principal facts in the career of the Sublime Being, whom all Buddhists acknowledge and revere as their Lord (Bhagavat) and as the fountain-head of all Dharma; who, according to his own words, throughout myriads of ages had prepared himself, out of charity, before becoming a Buddha, to free sentient beings from the misery of existence. The history of that Buddha may be said to be true in an ideal sense.¹

In reading the canonical Scriptures one is impressed with the strong personal influence exercised by the Buddha over the hearts of his followers. He was regarded not as a mere formulator of dry metaphysical propositions, but as a very wise and compassionate friend of his fellowmen. He was full of tact, and all his ways were ways of peace. To allay discord he would tell a little story or fable with a moral, chosen out of the old Indian folk-lore and adapted to his instructional purposes, and his epithet for one of whom he disapproved was merely “vain man.” Anger, in fact, had no place in his character, and it had equally none in his religio-philosophic system. The Buddha may be wrong in his teleology, but his moral code can only be compared with that of Christ, and even Barthélemy Saint-Hilaire cannot but admit “que, sauf le Christ tout seul, il n’est point, parmi les fondateurs de religion, de figure plus pure ni plus touchante que celle du Bouddha, sa vie n’a point de tâche.”² Look only at the beautiful tale that opens the Rājovāda Jātaka, and

² Le Bouddha et sa Religion, nouvelle édition, Introduction, page V.
wherein a man’s superiority is judged by his way of retaliating. When Confucius was asked: “What do you say concerning the principle that injury should be recompensed with kindness?” the Master said: “With what then will you recompense kindness?” But Christ said unto us: “Love your enemies, bless them that curse you, do good to them that hate you, and pray for them which despitefully use you, and persecute you” (St. Matthew, v. 44). And now what does the Buddha teach? Exactly the same as Christ. Of two kings, one “the Kosala-King, by name Mallika, overthrows the strong by strength, the soft by softness, the good he conquers by goodness, the wicked by wickedness; but the other, “the King of Benares, called Brahmadatta, by calmness conquers anger, the wicked he conquers by goodness, he conquers avarice by charity, by truth the false-speaker;” and the latter is by the Buddha deemed the greater. So we, too, say, the more we learn to know the Buddha, the more we love and admire him; and the sooner all mankind shall have been acquainted with his doctrines, the better it will be, for he is certainly one of the heroes of humanity.

The term Buddha means “Enlightened One,” and signifies that the person to whom it is applied has solved the riddle of existence, and discovered the doctrine for the cessation of misery. It was by his attainment of this supreme “Enlightenment” or Wisdom that the warrior prince Gautama became a Buddha. During the thirty-five years of his life previous to that event, and during all previous existences from the time he set out towards Buddhahship, he was a Bodhisattva—a term which, freely translated, means “Future Buddha,” but which is more literally rendered “He whose essence is Wisdom.” The Buddha’s personal name appears to have been Siddhartha; but as the word means “Successful in his aim,” it looks as though it might be a simple epithet. The Buddha belonged to the Sakya clan. The word Sakya means “Powerful,” and the families that bore the name had a reputation for pride and haughtiness; they were of the warrior caste (bhattacharja), but cultivated the peaceful arts of agriculture. By his contemporaries the Buddha is usually called the Ascetic Gautama; it is not quite clear why he and others of his clan should bear this family cognomen in addition to the clan-name of Sakya. It may be they claimed descent from the ancient sage Gautama, to whom are attributed some of the hymns of the Rigveda; or it may be, as Burnouf has suggested, “because Gautama was the sacerdotal family name of the military race of the Sakyas, who, being of the warrior caste, had no ancestor or tutelar saint like the Brahmans, but might, as the Hindu law permits, have taken the name of the sage to whose family belonged their spiritual guide.” The Buddha was born a Hindu, and the religion his parents professed was Saivism of the ordinary type, as the new born child was brought to the temple, where the goddess Abhayá bowed down at his feet. During his long ministry of forty-five years he wandered about from place to place in that section of the country which is known as Madhyadesa, very much as did Christ in

---

3. The Buddhist Madhyadesa lies to the east of Madhyadesa properly so called; it is, in reality, the Pragadesa. It is geographically impossible that in any period of Indian History Eastern Hindustan was looked upon as the central region of the Aryan Indians. See Note 2, page 3.
Samaria and Judæa. And just as Christ once left his native country and went to Egypt, so the Buddha is said by native authorities to have paid a couple of visits to Ceylon; but the statement is somewhat mythical. The date of Gautama Buddha is considered to be the sixth century before Christ. It would appear that he lived to his eightieth year, and the time of his death is given by scholars as about 477 B.C.

After having exercised the thirty paññāmitā, (i.e., the Ten Perfections, each of them divided into three degrees, see page 14, Note 1), in anterior births, the Bodhisattva destined to become an omniscient Buddha was born in the Tushita heaven. At the request of the deities, urging him to release mankind, he made, before giving his assent, five examinations: (1) of the time of his appearance, (2) of the continent, (3) of the country, (4) of the race and family, and (5) of the mother who should bear him, and her span of life. He saw that the proper time had arrived; that all Buddhas are born on the continent of India (Jambudvīpa) in the Middle country (Madhyadesa); that the Buddhas are born either in the Brahmā or warrior caste; the latter being at the time held in higher estimation, he resolved upon becoming the son of Suddhodana, the King of the Śākya clan in Kapilavastu; finally, he saw that the Queen Mahāmāya should be his mother and that she should die seven days after his birth. He entered the Nandana Grove of the Tushita capital, Indra's paradise; and here the gods said: "Attain in your next existence your high destiny," and kept reminding him that he had already paved the way to it by his accumulated merit. Now it was while he was thus dwelling, surrounded by these deities, and continually reminded of his accumulated merit, that he died, and was conceived in the womb of Mahāmāya. For it was on the last day of the Midsummer Festival (the full-moon day of Asvāṣṭha) in Kapilavastu that Mahāmāya had a dream, in which she saw how the Bodhisattva—who in the shape of a white elephant was wandering on Gold Hill in the Himālaya Mountains—approached her from the North, and seemed to enter her womb. When the Queen next morning told her dream to the King, he summoned sixty-four eminent Brahmans, interpreters of dreams, who declared that she had conceived a son destined to become either a Universal Monarch or a Buddha, "who will roll back the clouds of sin and folly of this world." Now the instant that the Bodhisattva was conceived in the womb of his mother, all the ten thousand worlds suddenly quaked, quivered and shook. And the thirty-two prognostics appeared as follows: an immeasurable light spread through the thousand worlds; the blind recovered their sight, as if from desire to see this his glory; the deaf received their hearing; the dumb talked; the hunchbacked became straight of body; the lame recovered the power to walk; all those in bonds were freed from their bonds and chains; the fires went out in all the hells; the hunger and thirst of the Manes was stilled;

1 The following authentic narrative is mainly based upon the Nīdānakathā or Introduction to the canonical Jātaka, together with its Commentary, 5 volumes (1877—1891), edited by V. Pandit; T. W. Rhys Davids, Buddhist North Stories, London, 1889, pages 1—264; H. C. Warren, Buddhism in Transliteration, Cambridge, Mass., 1888, pages 39—53.

2 The Middle country is defined in the Vāsappākāras as follows:—"It is in the middle, on this side of the town Kajangala on the east, beyond which is Mahākāla, and beyond that the border districts. It lies in the middle, on this side of the river Śalāvatī on the south-east, beyond which are the border districts. It lies in the middle, on this side of the town Seṭākāṇḍika on the south, beyond which are the border districts. It lies in the middle, on this side of the Bhamanīkāla town Thāya on the west, beyond which are the border districts. It lies in the middle, on this side of the hill Uḷḷādāḷa on the north, beyond which are the border districts. It is 300 leagues in length, 250 in breadth, and 300 in circumference."
wild animals lost their timidity; diseases ceased among men; all mortals became mild-spoken; horses neighed and elephants trumpeted in a manner sweet to the ear; all musical instruments gave forth their sounds without being played upon; bracelets and other ornaments jingled; in all quarters of the heavens the weather became fair; a mild, cool breeze began to blow, very refreshing to men; rain fell out of season\(^1\); water burst forth from the earth and flowed in streams; the birds ceased flying through the air; the rivers checked their flowing; in the mighty ocean the water became smooth; the ground became everywhere covered with lotuses of the five different colours; all flowers bloomed, both those on land and those that grow in the water; a shower of flowers fell all about; celestial music was heard to play in the sky; and the whole ten thousand worlds became one mass of garlands of the utmost possible magnificence, with waving chaupirs, and saturated with the incense-like fragrance of flowers, and resembled a bouquet of flowers sent whirling through the air, or a closely woven wreath, or a superbly decorated altar of flowers.

From the time the Bodhisattva was thus conceived, four celestials with swords in their hands kept guard, to ward off all harm from both the Future Buddha and his mother. When the time of her confinement drew near, Mahámáya grew desirous of going home to her relatives, and said to King Suddhodana: "Sire, I should like to visit my kinsfolk in their city Devadaha." "So be it," said the king; and from Kapilavastu to the city of Devadaha he had the road made even, and garnished it with plantain-trees set in pots and with banners and streamers; and, seating the queen in a golden palanquin borne by a thousand of his courtiers, he sent her away in great pomp. Now between the two cities, and belonging to the inhabitants of both, was a pleasure-grove of sal trees, called Lumbini grove. And at this particular time this grove was one mass of flowers from the ground to the topmost branches, while amongst the branches and flowers hummed swarms of bees of the five different colours, and flocks of various birds flew about warbling sweetly. Throughout the whole of the Lumbini grove the scene resembled the Chittalátá grove in Indra's paradise, or the magnificently decorated banquetting pavilion of some potent king. When the queen beheld it, she became desirous of disporting herself therein, and the courtiers therefore took her into it. And going to the foot of the monarch sal tree of the grove, she wished to take hold of one of its branches. And the sal-tree branch, like the tip of a tender reed, bent itself down within reach of the queen's hand. Then she stretched out her hand, and seized hold of the branch, and immediately her pains came upon her. Thereupon the people hung a curtain about her, and retired. So her delivery took place while she was standing up,\(^2\) and keeping fast hold of the sal-tree branch. At that very moment came four pure-minded Mahá-Brahma gods bearing a golden net, and, receiving the Future Buddha

---

\(^1\) At present the month Áshadhá, in which the conception took place, falls in the rainy season.

According to the Látiśvarávēra (ed. Bibl. Ind., page 63) the conception takes place at full-moon day of the month Vaisákha, the month standing in Pusya or Tisya.

The conception is represented in the Bharatí sculpture, (Plate XXVIII), inscribed Rágastra chaanti; see Cunningham, The Styles of Bharatí.

\(^2\) The Játaaka affirms the following reason:—"Other women sometimes fall short of and sometimes run over the term of ten lunar [i.e., the lunar calendar] months, and then bring forth either sitting or lying down; but not so the mother of a Bodhisattva. She carries the future Buddha in her womb as it were oil in a vessel, just for ten months, and then brings forth while standing up. This is a characteristic of the mother of a Bodhisattva."

The Látiśvarávēra says that the child was born from the right side of his mother.
on this golden net, they placed him before his mother and said: "Rejoice, oh Queen! A mighty son has been born to you."

Other mortals on issuing from the maternal womb are smeared with disagreeable impure matter; but not so the Future Buddha. He issued from his mother's womb like a preacher descending from his preaching-seat, or a man coming down a stair, stretching out both hands and both feet, unsmeared by any impurity from his mother's womb and flashing pure and spotless like a jewel thrown upon a garment of Benares brocade. Notwithstanding this, for the sake of honouring the Future Buddha and his mother, there came two streams of water from the sky, and refreshed the Bodhisattva and his mother. Then the Brahma celestials, after receiving him on their golden net, delivered him to the four guardian gods of the quarters, who received him from their hands on a rug which was made of the skins of black antelopes and was soft to the touch, being such as is used on State occasions; and the guardian gods delivered him to men who received him on a coil of fine cloth: and the men let him out of their hands on the ground, where he stood and faced the east. There, before him, lay many thousands of worlds like a great open court; and in them, gods and men, making offerings to him of perfumes, garlands and so on, were saying—"Great Being! There is none your equal, much less your superior." When he had in this manner surveyed the four cardinal points, and the four intermediate ones, and the zenith, and the nadir, in short, all the ten directions in order, and had nowhere discovered his equal, he exclaimed, "This is the best direction," and strode forward seven paces, followed by Mahâ-Brahma holding over him the white umbrella, Suyâma bearing the fan, and other divinities having the other symbols of royalty in their hands. Then at the seventh stride he halted, and with a noble voice, he shouted the shout of victory, beginning—"The foremost am I in all the world." Then the inhabitants of both cities took the Bodhisattva, and carried him to Kapilavastu.

On the same day that the Bodhisattva was born in the Lumbini Grove there also came into existence Yasodhara (also called Bimbâ, Gopâ or Yasovati) the mother of (the Buddha's son) Râhula, Chanda the courtier, Kâlodayin the courtier, Kântha the king of horses, and Ânanda (the Buddha's cousin); at the same time sprung into existence the great Bodhi Tree and the four treasure vases. Northern sources name as born at the same time four kings, who play a prominent part in the history of the Buddha, viz. Bimbisâra, Prasenajit, Pradyota and Udayana.

The birth of the Bodhisattva caused great rejoicing in the heaven of the thirty-three gods, "because to king Sudhodana in Kapilavastu had been born a son who shall sit at the foot of the Bodhi Tree and become a Buddha, and cause the Wheel of the Doctrine to roll." The seer Kâladevala (alias Asita)—an intimate friend of king Sudhodana—who happened to witness those rejoicings and on inquiry was informed of the happy event, descended from the world of the gods in haste and entered the palace of the king; and having seated himself on the seat assigned to him he said—"Great king, I hear that a son has been born to you. I would like to see him." Then the king had the prince magnificently dressed and
brought in and carried up to do reverence to the venerable ascetic. But the feet of the Future Buddha turned and planted themselves in the matted locks of the ascetic. For in that birth there was no one worthy of the Bodhisattva’s reverence; “and if these ignorant people had succeeded in causing the Future Buddha to bow, the head of the ascetic would have split in seven pieces.” “It is not meet that I compass my own death,” thought the ascetic, and rose from his seat, and with joined hands did reverence to the Bodhisattva. And when the king had seen this wonder, he also did reverence to his son. Noting on the body all the lucky marks and characteristics, the sage prophetically foresaw that the child one day would become a Buddha, but that he himself would die before that time. This afflicted him and he wept. In order to secure to one of his relatives the blessing he was to be deprived of, he went to his sister’s son, Nālaka, and said to the lad: “My child, a son has been born in the family of Suddhodana the king, who is the coming Buddha; thirty-five years from now he will become a Buddha, and you will have an opportunity of seeing him. Retire from this world this very day.” Although belonging to a family possessing eight hundred and seventy millions of treasure, Nālaka took up the life of a śramaṇa, heard afterwards the Master, entered the Order, reached Arhatship and finally nibbāna (extinction). Five days after the birth of the Bodhisattva, the rite of choosing a name for him was performed, and after bathing his head, he received the name of Siddhartha or Sarvārtha Siddha. They prepared the royal palace by anointing it with four kinds of perfumes and by scattering blossoms and flowers, five sorts in all. And making some porridge of whole rice-grains boiled in milk, they invited one hundred and eight Brāhmans, men who had mastered the three Vedas. And having seated these Brāhmans in the royal palace and fed them with delicate food and showed them every attention, they asked them to observe the marks and characteristics of the Bodhisattva’s person and to prophesy his future destiny. Among these Brāhmans were eight renowned soothsayers, being the same who had interpreted the dream of the night of the conception. Seven of these raised two fingers each; and gave a double interpretation, saying, “If a man possessing such marks and characteristics continue in the household life, he becomes a Universal Monarch; if he retire from the world, he becomes a Buddha.” And then they set forth all the glory of a Universal Monarch. But the youngest of them all, a youth whose clan-name was Kaunḍinya, raised only one finger and gave but a single interpretation, saying, “There is here naught to make him stay in the household life. He will most undoubtedly become a Buddha and remove the veil of ignorance and folly from the world.” For, this Kaunḍinya was one who had made an earnest wish under former Buddhas, and was now in his last existence. Therefore it was that he outstripped the other seven in knowledge and saw but one future; inasmuch as a person possessed of such marks and characteristics would never stay in the household life, but would undoubtedly become a Buddha. So he raised only one finger, and gave that interpretation. This Brāhman Kaunḍinya was the very same who afterwards took the vows and became then chief of the “Band of Five Elders” (Pañchavāggīya).

The king, anxious to prevent his son from forsaking the world, asked what would move the Prince to flee from worldly enjoyments. The answer was——“Four
ominous signs: a decrepit old man, a diseased man, a dead man, and a monk."

"From this time forth," said the king, "let no such persons be allowed to come near
my son. It will never do for my son to become a Buddha. What I wish to see is
my son exercising sovereign rule and authority over the four great continents and
the two thousand attendant isles, and walking through the heavens surrounded by a
retinue thirty-six leagues in circumference." And when he had so spoken, he
placed guards for a distance of a quarter of a league in each of the four directions.
in order that none of the four kinds of men might come within sight of his son. On
the same day also eighty thousand clansmen assembled together in the festival-hall,
and each dedicated a son, saying "Whether the young prince becomes a Buddha or
a king, we will each one give a son: so that if he becomes a Buddha, he shall be
followed and surrounded by monks of the warrior caste; and if he becomes a king,
by nobles of the warrior caste."

Whereas a womb that has been occupied by a Bodhisattva is like the shrine of
a temple, and can never be occupied or used again, therefore it was that Mahâmâyâ,
the mother of the Future Buddha, died when he was seven days old, and was reborn
in the Tushita heaven.

And the king procured nurses for the Bodhisattva, women of fine figure and
free from all blemish. And so the future Buddha grew up under the fostering care
of his aunt and step-mother, Mâhâ-Prajâpati Gautâmî, surrounded by an
immense retinue and in great splendour.

Now on a certain day the king celebrated the Sowing Festival. On that day
the people used to decorate the whole city, so that it looked like a palace of the
gods; and all the slaves and other servants would put on new garments, and, perfumed
and garlanded, they would assemble together at the king’s palace where a thousand
ploughs were yoked for the royal ploughing. On this occasion there were one
hundred and eight ploughs, all save one ornamented with silver, as were also the
reins for the oxen and the cross-bars of the ploughs. But the plough that was held
by the king was ornamented with red gold as also the horns, the reins and goads for
the oxen. And the king issued forth with a large retinue, taking his son along with
him. And in the field where the ploughing was to be done was a solitary rose-apple
tree (Eugenia jambu) of thick foliage and dense shade. Underneath this tree the
king had a couch placed for the young prince and spread over his head a canopy that
was studded with golden stars; and he surrounded him with a screen and appointed
those that should watch by him; and then, decked with all his ornaments and
surrounded by his courtiers, he proceeded to the place where they were to plough.
On arriving there, the king took the golden plough, and the courtiers took the (197)
silver ploughs and the farmers the other ploughs: and then all ploughed forward and
backward. The king went from the hither side to the farther side and from the farther
side back again: and the pomp and the magnificence of the festival was at its climax.
Now the nurses who were sitting about the Bodhisattva came out from behind the
screen to behold the royal magnificence. And the prince, looking hither and thither
and seeing no one, arose in haste and sat down cross-legged, and, mastering his
inspirations and expirations, entered on the first trance. The nurses delayed a little, being detained by the abundance of good things to eat. And the shadows of the other trees passed over to the east, but the shadow of the jambu-tree remained steadily circular. Suddenly the nurses remembered that they had left their young master alone, and, raising the screen, they entered and saw the Bodhisattva sitting cross-legged on the couch, and also noticed the miracle of the shadow. Then they went and announced the miracle to the king, who came in all haste and prostrated himself before his son, saying—"This, dear child, is my second obeisance."

On reaching the age of sixteen years, Prince Siddhârtha was married to Yaśodhârâ, the daughter of Suprabuddha, his own cousin. And the king built three palaces for them, suited to the three seasons—one of nine, another of seven, and another of five stories. And he provided him with forty thousand dancing girls. And the Future Buddha, with his gaily dressed dancers, was like a god surrounded by hosts of nymphs, and attended by musical instruments that sounded of themselves; he lived, as the seasons changed, in each of these three palaces.

Now while he was thus enjoying great splendour, one day there arose the following discussion among his relatives:—"Siddhârtha is wholly given up to pleasure and is not training himself in any manly art. What could he do if war were to occur?" The king sent for the Prince and said: "My child, your relatives are saying that you are not training yourself, but are wholly given up to pleasure. Now what do you think we had best do?" "Sire, I do not need to train myself. Let the crier go about the city, beating the drum, to announce that I will show my proficiency to my relatives on the seventh day from now." The king did so. And the Bodhisattva assembled together bowmen that could shoot like lightning and at a hair's breadth: and in the midst of the populace, and before his kinsfolk, he exhibited a twelvefold skill such as none of the other bowmen could equal. So the assembly of his kinsfolk doubted him no longer.

Time passed on, and the Bodhisattva lived in luxury and all kinds of enjoyments. On a certain day the Prince ascended his sumptuous and elegant chariot, drawn by four State horses of the Sindh breed, as white as the petals of the white lotus, and drove with his charioteer Chanda to the park. The gods, knowing that the time was approaching when he would attain supreme enlightenment, resolved to show him the four ominous sights. One among the gods assumed the form of an old decrepit man, broken-toothed, gray-haired, crooked and bent of body, leaning on a staff, and trembling. The Prince asked Chanda: "Pray, friend, who is this man?" And when he had heard the answer, he said: "Shame on birth, since to every one that is born old age must come." With emotions in his mind, the Prince quickly returned home, and the king on being informed of the reason of that speedy return, felt his anxiety increase, and doubled the guards surrounding the palace. On another day the Prince saw, under the same circumstances, a sick man produced by the power of the gods. He put the same question, and, on hearing the answer, turned back in agitation. The king multiplied the means of enjoyments for his son, and again

---

1 The Visuddhi-imagge (Chapter IV) explains:—"He who isolates himself from sensual pleasure and demoralising traits, and still exercises reasoning and reflection, enters upon the first trance, which is produced by isolation and characterised by joy and happiness."
doubled the guards. Some time after the Bodhisattva, when driving to the gardens, met with a corpse fashioned by the gods. The answer given by his charioteer moved him more than ever; quickly he returned to the palace, and the king redoubled his precautions. On a fourth occasion, the Bodhisattva on his drive to the park saw by the instrumentality of the gods a monk, carefully and decently clad. He asked his charioteer “Pray, who is this man?” Although there was no Buddha in the world, and the charioteer had no knowledge of either monks or their good qualities, yet by the power of the gods he was inspired to say, “Sire, this is one who has retired from the world;” and he thereupon proceeded to sound the praises of retirement from the world. The thought of retiring from the world was a pleasing one to the Future Buddha, and this day he went on until he came to the park. When he had disposed himself there throughout the day, and had bathed in the royal pleasure-tank, he went at sun-set and sat down on the royal resting-stone with the intention of adorning himself. At that instant the throne on which Śakra was sitting grew hot, a certain foreboding of danger to his dominion. Conceiving that the Bodhisattva at midnight of that very day would leave the palace and carry out the Great Renunciation, he ordered Viśvakarman to go to the gardens and adorn Siddhārtha with heavenly attire. By his superhuman power, Viśvakarman came into the presence of the Prince, and disposed in a divine manner the fold of the latter’s turban-cloth like a circle of precious stones. Thus adorned with great richness, the Bodhisattva mounted his superbly-decorated chariot. At this juncture he received the message that Yasodharā had been delivered of a son, on hearing which he said, “An impediment (rāhula) has been born; a fetter has been born.” Hence the name of Rāhula was given to the child by the order of Śuddhodana.

But the future Buddha in his splendid chariot entered the city with a pomp and magnificence of glory that enraptured all minds. At the same moment Kāsī Gautami, a virgin of the warrior caste, ascended to the roof of her palace, and beheld the beauty and majesty of the Future Buddha as he circumambulated the city; and in her pleasure and satisfaction at the sight she burst forth into this song of joy:—

Quite happy now that mother is,
Quite happy now that father is,
Quite happy now that woman is,
Who owns this lord so glorious.

On hearing this the Future Buddha thought, “In beholding a handsome figure the heart of a mother attains Nirvāṇa, the heart of a father attains Nirvāṇa, the heart of a wife attains Nirvāṇa. This is what she says. But wherein does Nirvāṇa consist?” And to him, whose mind was already averse to passion, the answer came, “When the fire of lust is extinct, that is Nirvāṇa; when the fires of hatred and infatuation are extinct, that is Nirvāṇa; when pride, false belief, and all other passions and torments are extinct, that is Nirvāṇa. She has taught me a good lesson. Certainly, Nirvāṇa is what I am looking for. It behoves me this very day to quit the household life and to retire from the world in quest of Nirvāṇa.” I will send

---

1 The term rendered by “happy” in Kāsī Gautami’s stanza is nībāsita, and Nirvāṇa is synonymous with nībāsī (nībāśī). The Future Buddha therefore puns when he pretends that the lady was using nībāsī for nībāsita, and was urging him to Nirvāṇa.
this lady a teacher's fee." And loosening from his neck a pearl necklace worth a hundred thousand pieces of money, he sent it to Kisâ Gautami. And great was her satisfaction at this, for she thought "Prince Siddhârtha has fallen in love with me and sent me a present."

The Bodhisattva entered his palace in great splendour and lay on his couch of state. And richly dressed women, skilled in all manner of dance and song, and beautiful as celestial nymphs, gathered around him with all kinds of musical instruments, and with dance, song, and music they endeavoured to please him. But the Prince's aversion to passion did not allow him to take pleasure in the spectacle, and he fell into a brief slumber. And the women exclaiming "he for whose sake we should perform has fallen asleep; of what use is it to weary ourselves any longer?" threw down their various instruments on the ground and lay down. And the lamps fed with sweet-smelling oil continued to burn. And the Future Buddha awoke, and seating himself cross-legged on the couch, perceived these women lying asleep, with their musical instruments scattered about them on the floor, some with their bodies wet with trickling phlegm and spittle; some grinding their teeth and muttering and talking in their sleep; some with their mouths open; and some with their dress fallen apart so as plainly to disclose their loathsome nakedness. This great alteration in their appearance still further increased his aversion for sensual pleasures. To him that magnificent apartment, as splendid as the palace of Sakra, began to seem like a cemetery filled with dead bodies impaled and left to rot; and the three modes of existence appeared like houses all ablaze. And breathing forth the solemn utterance "how oppressive and stifling is it all!" his mind turned ardently to retiring from the world. "It behoves me to go forth on the Great Renunciation (abhisejukramâga) this very day," said he, and arose from his couch, called his charioteer and gave orders to saddle his horse. While Chanda was saddling the steed Kapthaka, the Bodhisattva went to the room of Râhula's mother. He opened the door and saw Yasodharâ sleeping with one of her hands upon the head of the child. Fearing that her awakening would be an obstacle to his going away, he silently left the palace. As soon as he came out, he went to his gigantic white courser, bestowed it, and ordered Chanda to take hold of its tail, and so arrived at midnight at the great gate of the city. The king, in order that the Prince should not at any time go out of the city without his knowledge, had caused each of the two leaves of the gate to be made so heavy as to need a thousand men to move it. But the Bodhisattva had a vigour and strength that was equal, when reckoned in elephant-power, to the strength of ten thousand elephants, and, reckoned in man-power, to the strength of a hundred thousand million men. But the city gate was opened by the power of the guardian divinity that inhabited it, and so the Bodhisattva escaped.

At that moment Mära1 "the Evil One," appeared in the air, with the intention to prevent the Bodhisattva to become a Buddha, by promising him in a week the dignity of a Universal Monarch. But the Prince, not aiming at worldly sovereignty, remained deaf to the Tempter who, baffled in his design, maliciously followed him, like an ever-present shadow, ever on the watch for an opportunity.

---

1 The Buddhists recognize no real devil. Mära, the ruler of the sixth and highest heaven of sensual pleasure, approaches the nearest to our Satan. He stands for the pleasures of sense, and hence is the Buddha's natural enemy.
Then the Future Buddha, casting away with indifference a universal sovereignty already in his grasp, departed from the city in great splendour on the full-moon day of Ashā śīha, when the moon was in Libra. At a short distance from the city he turned his face and gazed upon it, and indicated in that place the spot for the "shrine of Kañṭhaka's return." Then he turned Kañṭhaka in the direction in which he meant to go and proceeded on his way in great pomp and exceeding glory, a host of deities attending him with lighted torches and doing him homage with heavenly perfumes, garlands, sandal-wood powder and incense. And the sky was as full of coral flowers as it is of pouring water at the height of the rainy season. Celestial choruses were heard, and on every side bands of music played: it was as when the storm-clouds thunder on the sea, or when the ocean roars against the Yugaṇḍhāra rocks. Advancing in this glory, the Bodhisattva in one night passed through three kingdoms, and at the end of thirty yojanas he came to the river Anomā ("Illustrious"). He sprang with his steed over the river, dismounted, and standing on the sandy beach that stretched away like a sheet of silver, said to Chanda: Take these ornaments and Kañṭhaka, and go home. I am about to retire from the world." Thereupon the Bodhisattva thought, "These long locks of mine are not suited to a monk; but there is no one fit to cut the hair of a Future Buddha. Therefore I will cut them off myself with my sword." And grasping a scimitar with his right hand, he seized his top-knot with his left hand and cut it off together with the diadem. His hair thus became two finger-breadths in length, and, curling to the right, lay close to his head. As long as he lived it remained of that length, and the beard was proportionate; and never again did he have to cut either hair or beard. Then seizing hold of his hair and diadem, he threw them into the air, saying: "If I am to become a Buddha, let them stay in the sky; but if not, let them fall to the ground." The tuft of hair and jewelled turban went up and remained suspended in the sky, where Sakra received it in an appropriate jewelled casket, and established it in the heaven of the thirty-three gods as the "Shrine of the Diadem." Again the Future Buddha thought: "These garments of mine, made of Benares cloth, are not suited to a monk." At that moment the Mahā-Brahma god, Ghatikāra, who had been a friend of his in the time of Buddha Kaśyapa, provided him with the eight requisites of a monk, e.g., the three robes, the alms-bowl, the razor, needle, the belt and water-strainer. When the Bodhisattva had put on this most excellent vesture, the symbol of saintship and of retirement from the world, he bade Chanda to go back to Kapilavastu with the salutations to his parents. And the charioteer did obeisance to the Bodhisattva, and, keeping his right side towards him, he departed; but the horse Kañṭhaka, being unable to bear his grief, died of a broken heart, and was reborn in the heaven of the thirty-three as the god Kañṭhaka.

The Bodhisattva, having thus entered upon the life of a recluse, spent a week in the mango grove of Anupiya in the joy of having retired from the world. Thence he travelled in one day on foot to Rājagriha, the capital of Magadha, a distance of thirty yojanas, and, entering the city, he begged for food from house to house without passing any by. By the beauty of the Future Buddha the whole city was thrown into a state of commotion; and the king, Seniya Bimbīsāra, observing the Great Man (mahāpurusha) from the roof of his palace, ordered his
servants to go and ascertain the nature of the stranger. The men found the Bodhisattva, who, after having collected sufficient food, had left the city by the same gate he had entered, sitting down with his face to the east in the shade of the Pānḍava Rock, and eating, not without an effort, his coarse meal. Then the king’s men returned and announced what they had seen. And the king, on hearing the report of the messengers, issued hastily from the city, and approaching the Bodhisattva, and being pleased with his deportment, he tendered him all his kingly glory. “Great king,” replied the Future Buddha, “I do not seek for the gratification of my senses or my passions, but have retired from the world for the sake of the supreme and absolute enlightenment.” “Verily,” said the king, when his repeated offers had all been refused, “you are sure to become a Buddha; but when that happens, your first journey must be to my kingdom.” Then the Bodhisattva, having made the required promise, proceeded on his way; and coming to Aḷāra Kālāma and Uḍḍaka, disciple of Rāma, two renowned teachers of philosophy, he acquired from them the eight stages of ecstatic meditation (sāmāpattī). But becoming convinced that they did not lead to enlightenment, he ceased to practice them. And being desirous of making the Great Struggle (mahāpadhāna), so as to show the world of gods and men his fortitude and heroism, he went to Uruvilvā. And saying, “truly, delightful is this spot, enchanting this grove of trees, and this silvery river flows by, easy of approach and delightful, and there is a village near by in which to beg. Truly there is here everything necessary for a youth of good family who is desirous of struggling,” he there took up his abode, and began the Great Struggle. Now it came to pass that those five persons, Kauṇḍinya and the others, who, since their retirement from the world, were wandering about for alms through villages, market-towns and royal cities, here met with the Bodhisattva, and resolved to stay with him, persuaded as they were that ere long he would become a Buddha. After six years of exertion, the Bodhisattva resolved to practice the most profound meditation (dhyāna) and to perform the most rigid austerities, such as living on one sesamum seed or on one grain of rice a day. By carrying his fasting to excess, his body became emaciated to the last degree and lost its golden colour and became black. One day, when he was deep in a trance of suppressed breathing, he was attacked by violent pains and fell senseless to the ground. Some gods said “the monk Gautama is dead;” others, however, remarked “this is a practice of the Arhats.” And indeed, not long afterwards the Bodhisattva recovered his consciousness and stood up. As he perceived that mortification was not the way to enlightenment, he went begging through villages and market-towns for ordinary material food, and lived upon it. This caused “the hand of five priests” to lose faith in him; hence they took their bowls and robes and left the Great Man, and going eighteen yojanas off they entered Rishipatana in the Deer-park near Benares.

At that time there lived in Uruvilvā a girl named Sujatā, the chieftain’s daughter. On the full-moon day of Vaśiśkha, full six years after the Bodhisattva commenced his austerities, she rose up early in the morning to make an offering to a certain banyan-tree, and gave orders to milk the eight cows. Seeing many miracles, she joyfully sent her slave-girl Purānā to get everything ready under
the holy tree. Now that night the Future Buddha had five great dreams, and on considering their meaning, he came to the conclusion that undoubtedly this very day he would become a Buddha. And when night was over, and he had cared for his person, he came early in the morning to that tree, to await the hour to go begging. And when he sat down he illumined the whole tree with his radiance. Then Pūrṇā came and saw the Bodhisattva sitting at the foot of the tree, contemplating the eastern quarter of the world. And when she beheld the radiance from his body lighting up the whole tree with golden colour, she became greatly excited, and ran away in great haste and told Sujátā of the matter. When Sujátā heard this news, she was overjoyed, and after pouring milk-rice in a golden dish worth a hundred thousand pieces of money, she went to the tree and presented it to the Future Buddha. The earthenware bowl, which he had kept so long and which had been given him by Ghaṭikâra, at that instant disappeared. The Bodhisattva rose from his seat and walked round the tree with his right side towards it; and taking the dish, he proceeded to the banks of the river Nārāñjarā and descended into its water, just as many thousands of Bodhisattvas before him had descended on the day of their complete enlightenment. The spot where he bathed is now a place of pilgrimage named Suppatittita (“well-established”), and here he deposited the dish on the bank before descending into the water. After bathing he dressed himself in that garb of saintship which had been the dress of many hundreds of thousands of Future Buddhas before him; and sitting down with his face to the east, he made the whole of the thick, sweet milk-rice into forty-nine pellets of the size of the fruit of the single-seeded palmyra-tree, and ate it. And he took no further nourishment until the end of the seven weeks or forty-nine days, which he spent on the throne of wisdom, after he had become a Buddha. When he had consumed the milk-rice, he took the golden dish, and saying “If I am to succeed in becoming a Buddha to-day, let this dish go up-stream; but if not, let it go down-stream,” he threw it into the water. And, lo, it went up to a great distance, when it sank down to the palace of the Nāga-king Kāla and hit against the dishes that had been used by the last three Buddhas, and took its place at the end of the row. Then the Future Buddha took his noon-day rest on the banks of the river in a grove of sal trees in full bloom. And at nightfall, at the time the flowers droop on their stalks, he arose up like a lion when he bestirs himself, and went towards the Bodhi-tree, along a road which the gods had decked. The snakes, the fairies, the birds and other classes of beings did him homage with celestial perfumes, flowers and other offerings, and celestial choruses poured forth heavenly music: so that the ten thousand worlds were filled with these perfumes, garlands and shouts of acclaim. Just then there came from the opposite direction a grass-cutter, named Sotthiya, and when he saw the Great Man, that he was a holy man, he gave him eight handfuls of grass. He accepted the offering, took a survey of the quarters, and walking round the tree with his right side towards it, he came to the eastern side and faced the west. It is on the eastern side of their Bodhi-trees that all the Buddhas have sat cross-legged, and that side neither trembles nor quakes. Then the Great Man, saying to himself “this is the immovable spot on which all the Buddhas have planted themselves!
This is the place for destroying passion’s net,” took hold of his handful of grass by one end and shook it out there. And the blades of grass formed themselves into a seat fourteen cubits long, of such symmetry of shape as not even the most skilful painter or carver could design. Then the Bodhisattva turned his back to the trunk of the Bodhi-tree and faced the east. And making the mighty resolution “let my skin and sinews and bones become dry, and let all the flesh and blood in my body dry up! But never from this seat will I stir, until I have attained the supreme and absolute wisdom!” he sat down cross-legged in an unconquerable position, from which not even the descent of a hundred thunderbolts at once could have dislodged him. It was at this point that Māra exclaiming, “Prince Siddhārtha is desirous of passing beyond my control, but I will never allow it!” summoned his army to do battle. Himself mounted on the elephant Girimekhala (“girded with mountains”) led the attack, which was so dreadful that the gods attending the Bodhisattva were seized with terror and fled. The Great Man alone remained unsaunt, putting his trust into the Ten Perfections (pāramītas). Thereupon Māra caused violent winds to blow, followed by a great rain-storm, showers of rocks, weapons, live coals, hot ashes, sand, mud and darkness. All in vain. Seeing all his attempts baffled, the Fiend approached the Great Man and summoned him to vacate his seat. “Māra,” was the reply, “you have not fulfilled the Ten Perfections in any of their three grades, nor have you made the five great donations, nor have you striven for knowledge, nor for the welfare of the world, nor for enlightenment. This seat does not belong to you, but to me.” Enraged at these words, Māra hurled his discus weapon at him; but the Bodhisattva reflected on the Ten Perfections, and the discus changed into a canopy of flowers, and remained suspended over his head. Then the followers of Māra began hurling immense mountain-crags; but they were turned into wreaths of flowers, and then fell to the ground. And the Great Man, after his assertion that the seat which Future Buddhas had always used on the day of their complete enlightenment belonged to him, continued and said: “Māra, who is witness to your having given donations!” Māra pointed to his army, who with a roar like the roar of an earthquake testified to their master’s liberality. In his turn the Fiend asked: “Siddhārtha, who is witness to your having given donations!” Then the Bodhisattva called up the Earth to be his witness, and she replied with such a roaring voice that the hosts of Māra were discomfited, and the elephant Girimekhala fell down on his knees to do homage to the Great Man. And the followers of Māra fled in all directions, whereas the gods exultingly shouted “Māra is defeated! Prince Siddhārtha has conquered! Let us go to celebrate the victory!” And the Nāgas and other celestial beings approached with perfumes, garlands and ointments in their hands to the throne of wisdom, chanting songs of victory.

It was before the sun had set that the Bodhisattva thus vanquished the army of Māra. And then, while the Bodhi-tree in homage rained red coral-like sprigs upon his priestly robes, he acquired in the first watch of the night the knowledge

---

1 The Ten Perfections or Conditions are as follows:—“Alms-giving, keeping the precepts, renunciation, wisdom, courage, patience, truth, resolution, good-will and indifference.”

2 The five great donations are: “The gift of treasure, of child, of wife, of royal rule, and of life and limbs (see Abhidhammapariññañi, 431).”
of his previous existences (pārvanicāsa), in the middle watch of the night the divine eye (deyachakshus), and in the last watch of the night his intellect fathomed the knowledge of the series of causes and effect, or dependent origination (pratilyasamutpāda). While he was musing on the twelve terms (nīdāna) of Dependent Origination forwards and back, round and back again, the ten thousand worlds quaked twelve times, so far as to their ocean boundaries. And when the Buddha, at the dawning of the day, had thus made the ten thousand worlds thunder with his attainment of omniscience, all these worlds became most gloriously adorned. And when thus be had attained to omniscience, and was the centre of such unparalleled glory and homage, and as many prodigies were happening about him as at his birth, he breathed forth that solemn utterance which had never been omitted by any of the Buddhas:—

Through birth and rebirth's endless round,
Seeking in vain, I hastened on,
To find who framed this edifice.
What misery!—birth incessantly.

O builder! I've discovered thee!
This fabric thou shalt never rebuild!
Thy rafters all are broken now,
And pointed roof demolished lies!
This mind has demolition reached,
And seen the last of all desires.

---

1 The Buddha's thoughts were as follows: "On ignorance depends Karma; on Karma depends consciousness; on consciousness depend name and form; on name and form depend the six organs of sense; on the six organs of sense depends contact; on contact depends sensation; on sensation depends desire; on desire depends attachment; on attachment depends existence; on existence depends birth; on birth depend old age and death, sorrow, lamentation, misery, grief and despair. Thus does this entire aggregation of misery arise."

2 But on the complete fading out and cessation of ignorance ceases Karma; on the cessation of Karma ceases consciousness; on the cessation of consciousness ceases name and form; on the cessation of name and form ceases the six organs of sense; on the cessation of the six organs of sense ceases contact; on the cessation of contact ceases sensation; on the cessation of sensation ceases desire; on the cessation of desire ceases attachment; on the cessation of attachment ceases existence; on the cessation of existence ceases birth; on the cessation of birth ceases old age and death, sorrow, lamentation, misery, grief and despair. Thus does this entire aggregation of misery cease (see Mahāsangha, opening sections; Sutrasutānsiḥgga, Chapter XXII; Viśuddhimagga, Chapter XVII).
CHAPTER II.

KSHEMAVATI, OR NĀBHĪKA, THE BIRTH-PLACE OF BUDDHA KRACKVCHANDA.

It is a common opinion among the European savants that the Buddhas or Tathāgatas preceding Śākyamuni are mythical, the latter alone being historical. That theory, whether true or false, is entirely opposed to the fixed dogma of historical Buddhism. In the oldest system of it we have cognizance of, the Buddha of the present period had been preceded by twenty-four others. Their names are:

Dīpamkara, Koṇḍañña (Kauṇḍinya), Maṅgala, Sumanas, Raivata, Sobhita, Anomadasi (Anavamadārśin), Paduma (Padma), Nārada, Padumuttara (Padmottara), Sumedha, Sujata, Piyadassīn (Priyadarśin) Atthadassīn (Arthadarśin), Dhammadassīn (Dharmadarśin), Siddhattha (Siddhārtha), Tissa, (Tishya), Phussa (Pushya), Vippasīn (Vipāśīn), Sikkhin (Śikhin), Vessabhū (Viśvabhū), Kakusandha, or Kukutsanda (Krakucchanda), Koṇāgamana (Kanakamuni), and Kassapa (Kāśyapa). According to the most authentic record, the Buddhavasāka, “all these aforetime Buddhas were tranquil and free from every passion. Like the many-rayed sun, they chased away the dense darkness and, having flamed like fire-balls, became extinct with all their train.” Each of them has his peculiar bodhi-tree, e.g., Dīpamkara the assotthā, or pippal-tree (Ficus religiosa), just as Gautama Buddha; Viśvabhū the sól-tree (Shorea robusta); Kakusandha the kirisika (Acacia Sirisa), and Koṇāgamana the vallumbara (Ficus glomerata). In fact the bas-reliefs of the Bharhat Stūpa,3 dating back as far as about 250 B.C., show us the bodhi-trees of six out of the last seven Buddhas, e.g., those of Vipassi, Vessabhū, Kakusandha, Koṇāgamana, Kassapa, and Śākyamuni with the name of the respective Buddha engraved under each tree. Many of these Tathāgatas are also mentioned in the writings of the Northern schools of Buddhists, but not systematically, and lumped together with others of later invention. The last seven Buddhas are common to the North and the South, and are designated in Northern texts as the Māṇushi-Buddhas. Sometimes we find that the four last Buddhas, Śākyamuni included, received special worship. Just as there were twenty-five Tathāgatas in the past, so there will be ten Buddhas in the future. The Buddha of the next following period is Maitreya, or Metteyya, surnamed Ajita, at present still a Bodhisattva living in the Tusita heaven. “All beings who give gifts, keep the precepts, keep fast-days, fulfil their religious duties, found shrines, plant sacred fig-trees, parks and groves, make bridges, clear the highways, take their stand in the precepts of Buddha and dig wells shall see him;” thus says the Anāgatavasāka or the Buddhist “Apocalypse.”

1 The meaning of this term, like that of its Jaina equivalent Tattvāgama, possibly is “he who has arrived there (stūpa or tattva), i.e., to emancipation, or nirvāṇa.” See Kern, I. c., pages 62–65.

2 Properly there are three more Buddhas or Tathāgatas, e.g., Tarihinkara, Medhākāra, and Savanapākara; but as some of them prophesied concerning the future Buddhahood of Gautama Buddha, they are not taken into account.

3 Cunningham, The Stūpa of Bharhat, Plates XXIX and XXX.
All Tathāgatas are alike, save in a few points of no importance; they differ, for example, in size and in duration of life; some are born as Kṣhattriyas, others as Brāhmans, e.g. Kukusandha, Koṇāgamana, and Kassapa. The Buddhas are never born into a family of the peasant caste, or of the servile caste. Śākyamuni, the Buddha of the present period, though by birth a Kṣhattriya, is by genius and conduct a Brāhman. The Law proclaimed by all Tathāgatas is likewise one and the same, and when it is stated that Gautama Buddha evolved the Law from within himself without the aid of a Master, the meaning is that by his intuition he rediscovered the old truths which had been forgotten in the night of dark ages. The Buddhhas are the highest spiritual beings; so the supreme Buddha has said himself repeatedly. Among the external characteristics of a Buddha the most remarkable are the thirty-two physical perfections (mahāpurusha-lakṣhaṇas), which he shares with Chakravartin, Arhat and other eminent persons, and eighty secondary characteristics (anuyāṇjanas), most of which are only insignificant modifications of the primary ones. Besides these marks, 216 māṅgalya-lakṣhaṇas, or “auspicious marks,” 108 on each foot, are attributed to the Buddha. It is a remarkable custom of all Buddhhas that with their divine eye they survey the world six times every day. As something peculiar to Gautama Buddha, it is recorded that he measured twelve cubits, or as others have it, eighteen cubits in height. This tradition is somewhat countenanced by the dimensions of his sacred footprint, kripāda, on the Samana or Adam Peak in Ceylon, described as a superficial hollow more than five feet long and two and a-half feet wide.

The mental characteristics of a Buddha are divided into three categories, each of them comprising a certain sum of qualities, viz. (1) the ten forces or powers (balas), (2) the eighteen peculiar properties (āveyika-dharmas), and (3) the four points of self-confidence or assurance (caisāradyas).

The ten balas are: (1) the knowledge of what is fit or unfit; (2) of the necessary consequences of karmas; (3) of the right road leading to any end; (4) of the elements; (5) of the different inclinations of beings; (6) of the relative powers of the organs; (7) of all degrees of meditations and ecstasy, as well as of their power to purify and fortify the mind; (8) of remembering former births; (9) of descending into the mother’s womb and of the birth; (10) of removing moral corruption. On account of these powers a Buddha bears also the epithet of Daśabala.

The eighteen āveyika-dharmas, otherwise termed Buddha-dharmas, or qualities of a Buddha, are the following:—(1) the seeing of all things past; (2) of all things future; (3) of all things present; (4) propriety of actions of the body; (5) of speech; (6) of thought; (7) firmness of intention; (8) of memory; (9) of saṃādhi, i.e. a state of most intense concentration and absorption; (10) of energy; (11) of emancipation; (12) of wisdom; (13) freedom from fickleness or wantonness; (14) from noisiness; (15) from confusedness; (16) from hasty ness; (17) from heedlessness; and (18) from inconsiderateness.

The four caisāradyas are:—(1) the assurance of the Tathāgata that he has obtained omniscience; (2) that he has free’d himself from sin; (3) that he knows the impediments to Nirvāṇa; and (4) that he has shown the right way to salvation.

1 For a full description and enumeration of these characteristics, see Schott, Légende de Bouddha, page 149; Barneoud, Leu de la bonne foi, page 672.
ARCHAELOGICAL SURVEY: NORTHERN INDIA.

Having surveyed the external and internal characteristics of a Buddha, the question arises: "What kind of a being is a Buddha?" The answer is given by the Lord himself. Once upon a time the Brāhmaṇa Drona, seeing the Lord sitting at the foot of a tree, asked him: "Are you a Deva?" And the Lord answered: "I am not." "Are you a Gandharva?" "I am not." "Are you a Yaksha?" "I am not." "Are you a man?" "I am not a man." On the Brāhmaṇa asking what then he might be, the answer was, "know, oh Brāhmaṇa, that I am a Buddha." Here the Buddha denies flatly and categorically that he is a man. Consequently, in all periods of the Buddhist creed the Buddha is only anthropomorphic, not a man: what he may have been in pre-historic Buddhism, must be left to individual taste and fancy: it is no matter of science.

It is quite in keeping with Indian habits that the qualities and functions of such a Sublime Being as the Buddha are indicated by a host of epithets and titles, which more or less assume the character of proper nouns. The most common appellations, forming ample material for a complete Buddhology, are:—"All Pitiful, All-Seeing One, Author of all Truth, Best of Men, Blessed Buddha, Blessed One, Chief of Men, Conqueror, Glorious One, Great Man, Great Elect, Great Hero, Great Sage, Great Teacher, Guiltless One, Happy One, Holy One, Leader of the World, Light of the World, Lord, Lord of all the World, Mighty Monk, Mighty Sage, Possessor of the Ten Forces, Fearless One, Radiant One, Recipient of Offerings, Reverend Sir (bhante), Saint, Seeing One, Supreme Buddha, Teacher of Gods and Men, Unrivalled, Victor, Victor in the Battle, Who came the good journey which led to Buddhahood, Who has fully accomplished the eight kinds of supernatural knowledge and the fifteen holy practices, Who has arrived at the knowledge of all truth, Who has made subject to him all mortal beings whether in heaven or on earth, Who knows the Universe, Who knew all worlds, and Wise One."

According to the Buddhavamsa, the Buddha Kakusandha or Kracakuchanda (i.e. "he who readily solves all doubts") was born at Kshemā or Kshemavati in the house of the Brāhmaṇa Agnidatta. The Chinese Buddhist monk Fa Hien, who visited India between A.D. 400 and 414, says in his Travels—"Going on south-east from the City of Sravasti for twelve yojanas (about 96 miles) the travellers came to a town named Na-peileka [i.e. Nābhikā], the birthplace of

---

1 The Jātaka, however, has the following gloss: "It is only a human being that can successfully wish to be a Buddha; a serpent, a bird, or a deity cannot successfully make the wish. Of human beings it is only one of the male sex that can make the wish; it would not be successful on the part of a woman, or of a cacus, or of a nectar, or of a hermaphrodite. Of men it is he, and only he, who is in a fit condition by the attainment of samityn in that same existence, that can successfully make the wish. Of those in a fit condition it is only he who makes the wish in the presence of a living Buddha that succeeds in his wish; after the death of a Buddha a wish made at a relic-shrine, or at the foot of a Bodhi-tree, will not be successful. Of those who make the wish in the presence of a Buddha it is he, and only he, who has retired from the world that can successfully make the wish, and not one who is a layman. Of those who have retired from the world it is only he who is possessed of the Five High Powers [i.e. magical power; distinctly clear hearing; instant contemplation; calling to mind former existences; and divinely clear vision] and is master of the Eight Attainments, [i.e. eight stages of meditation; the first, second, third, and fourth trance; the realm of the infinity of space, the realm of the infinity of consciousness, the realm of nothingness, and the realm of neither perception nor non-perception] that can successfully make the wish, and no one can do so who is lacking in this condition. Of those, even, who possess these excellences it is he, and only he, who has such firm resolve that he is ready to sacrifice his life for the Buddha's that can successfully make the wish, but no other. Of those who possess this resolve he is, and only he, who has great zeal, determination, strenuousness, and endeavor in striving for the qualities that make a Buddha that is successful."


3 The Puranas mention this town as situated in the mythical North close to the Uttara-Kuru, the country of the Hyperboreans. Perhaps Na-peileka is identical with the Nābhikā of the Kālidāsa and shinbōhōshō versions of the XIII book Edics of Alaska.
Krakucchanda Buddha. At the place where he and his father met and at that where he attained to parinirvāṇa, monasteries and stūpas were erected." The Chinese Buddhist pilgrim Huen Tsang, who travelled through India between A. D. 629 and 645, states in his Si-yu-ki1: "To the south of the city of Kapilavastu, going 50 li or so, we come to an old town where there is a stūpa. This is the place where Krakucchanda Buddha was born during the maha-bhadra劫pa [i.e. the present, or the age of the five sages, viz. Kakusandha, Koṇāgamana, Kassapa, Gautama Buddha and Metteyya], when men lived to sixty thousand [others say 40,000] years. To the south of the city, not far, there is a stūpa; this is the place where, having arrived at complete enlightenment, he met his father. To the south-east of the city is a stūpa where are that Tathāgata's relics (of his bequeathed body); before it is erected a stone pillar about thirty feet high, on the top of which is carved a lion. On its side is a record relating to the circumstances of his Nirvāṇa. It was erected by Aśoka-rāja." See also Plate I, Nos. 8 and 9.

The ruins of this large ancient city are still existing between the modern villages of Lori-ki-kudān and Gotihvā, about 2 miles south-west of Taulihvā, and about 8½ miles south-west of the Srinagar or Sirinagar Sāgar, near which stood the southern gate of Kapilavastu, see Plate II. The three stūpas and monasteries mentioned by Fa Hien and Huen Tsang are still visible, and Krakucchanda's Nirvāṇa Stūpa, standing in the middle of the village of Gotihvā, still rises to a height of about eighty feet. The Buddhist origin of these ruins is quite forgotten, as the remains are ascribed by the villagers to Lori, the great Aśoka or Ahir hero. Aśoka's lion-pillar, with its edict, however, does not exist any longer above ground, and undoubtedly lies buried amongst the débris of the Nirvāṇa Stūpa. The three boulders worshipped as maha-kutas, and lying close to the relic shrine of Kakusandha Buddha, are no fragments of this pillar. About one mile east of Lori-ki-kudān, and about one and a-half mile south of Taulihvā, near the village of Bhārādāwā, rises another stūpa, on the top of which are the ruins of an old Śāiva temple, dating from the Middle Ages, with fragments of good sculpturing lying about.

Material objects of worship for the Buddhists are the relics of holy persons and the monuments erected to their memory by the piety of a grateful posterity. All such objects are dhatu, distinguished into three classes: sārīraka, corporeal relics, i.e. the remains of a corpse after cremation; uddesika, memorials; and pārībhoga, objects having served the use of the Buddhhas or Saints, such as sacred spots, holy trees, or a shrine, a garment, an alms-bowl, or a stick, and the like. One would expect that dhatu, on account of their very nature, acquire their sacred character after the demise of the person to be commemorated, not before. The theory seems to be in accordance with this view; an exception being made with the Bodhi-tree, which are considered chaityas, both during the life of the Buddhhas and after their demise. Bone relics of the more ancient Tathāgatas are rare. We find that all the bones of Kāśyapa Buddha (i.e. "swallower of light") were deposited under a stūpa at Śrāvastī, those of Krakucchanda Buddha at Kṣhemavati, and of

Kopāgamana (i.e. "radiant with the colour of pure gold") at Śobhavati. Much more numerous are the relics of Śakyamuni, his Disciples, and other Saints. It is difficult to determine in what period these holy remains commenced to be religiously venerated; but there is no doubt that long before the time of Asoka that worship was already fully developed. Relics of a nondescript kind, although not the less remarkable, because so eminently characteristic, are the shadow relics. In many places devout Buddhists were shown some cavern in which the Buddha, immediately on his reaching extinction, had left his shadow, e.g. near Kauśambi, Bodhī-Gayā, and Nagara.

The monuments of Buddhist sacred architectural and sculptural Art have been the subject of unwearyed research, and deservedly so, because they constitute a most interesting part of early Indian Archaeology. The most general name for a Buddhist sanctuary is chaitya, a term not only applying to buildings, but to sacred trees, memorial stones, holy spots, images and religious inscriptions, hence all edifices having the character of a sacred monument are chaityas, but not all chaityas are edifices. Amongst the buildings of a sacred nature the most prominent are the vihāra and the stūpa. Vihāra designates both a monastery, or abode of the living Buddha, and a sanctuary with images. The stūpa (Pāli dhātu) is often in a loose way identified with the Dagoba, or dhātugarbha. Strictly speaking, the dhātugarbha is only a part of the stūpa, being the shrine in which the holy relic is deposited, the area of the sanctuary. As most stūpas are erected over relics, they may be called Dagobas; still not all stūpas contain relics, many stūpas having been erected merely as monuments on the spots where some memorable events had occurred. It is more than probable, and generally admitted, that stūpas originally are grave-mounds of illustrious persons. Even the outward shape of the stūpa shows its affinity to the grave-mound; the dome answers to the prasāda, the railings to the fencing or circle of stones, the top or palm to the stake or column on the grave. The most ancient stūpas, such as are represented in the oldest sculptures of Sānchi, Bharāhat, and Mathurā, show a square or circular base, either with or without a railing. On the base is placed a dome surmounted by a graduated inverted pyramid which is connected with the dome by a short neck. The whole is surmounted by an umbrella, or a series of umbrellas one above the other; the umbrellas are hung with garlands, streamers, or flags. The Dagoba in the cave Temple at Kārla is of the same type; the oldest stūpas in Ceylon, as well as the oldest chaityas in Nepal and the oldest stūpas and prasādas, or Towers, in Burma are of the same description. It is well known that the Buddhists themselves attach a symbolic meaning to the stūpa or its parts. The two, three, five, seven, nine, and thirteen umbrellas, and the gradations of the inverted pyramid suggest divisions of the Universe. Both the Buddhists of the North and their brethren of the South see in certain stūpas representations of Mount Meru.

Passing on to Buddhist iconography, we repeat the often-made remark that images of the Buddha are wholly absent from the oldest sculptures of Sānchi, Bharahat, and Mathurā. Even in cases where the presence of the Lord must be presupposed, it is indicated by symbols, such as footprints, a wheel, a seat or altar, above which is an umbrella with garlands. A scene on the sculptured gate of Bharahat represents
Ajātašatru, a son of Seniya Bimbisāra (who killed his father and succeeded him as king of Rājagriha), kneeling before the footprints of the Buddha, whereas the inscription distinctly says “Ajātaśatru pays his homage to the Lord.” There are many other instances which go far to prove that images of Buddha Śākyamuni and his six last predecessors, and their being worshipped, date from a period posterior to Asoka. If the dates found on the numerous inscriptions added to representations of Buddha Śākyamuni, unearthed at Mathurā, refer to the Śaka era, which is most probable, the custom of honouring the founder of the Buddhist creed by images must have been common in the beginning of the first century of our era. The holy tree of wisdom, which plays such an important part in all mythologies, is with the Buddhists a real chaitya. Systematically it is classed as a pārībhogika chaitya, but originally such trees are uddeśika. The reverence paid by the Buddhists to the Bodhi-trees goes doubtless back to the most ancient times, and is decidedly older than the custom of setting up images.¹

¹ See Kern, l. c., pages 88-99.
CHAPTER III.

ŚOBHAVATI, THE BIRTHPLACE OF BUDDHA KOṆĀGAMANA.

According to the canonical books of the Southern and Northern Buddhists Koṇāgamana Buddha, or Kanakamuni was born in the mahābhārakālpa at Śobhavati, or Subhavati in the house of the Brāhmaṇa Yajñadatta. He is called Kanakamuni, because at the time of his birth a shower of gold (kanaka) is said to have fallen. Human life is supposed to have reached in his time forty or thirty thousand years, and so many persons were converted by him. Fa Hien going north from Nābhika (see Chapter II), less than a yojana (or about 7 miles), came to a town which had been the birthplace of Kanakamuni Buddha. At the place where he and his father met and where he obtained to parinirvāṇa stūpas were erected. Hiuen Tsang's description, however, is more to the point. "To the north-east of the town of Krakucchanda Buddha, going about thirty li (about 5 miles) we come to an old capital (or great city), in which there is a stūpa. This is to commemorate the spot where in the bhadrakālpa, when man lived to the age of forty thousand years, Kanakamuni Buddha was born. To the north-east of the city, not far, is a stūpa; it was here, having arrived at complete enlightenment, he met his father. Further north there is a stūpa containing the relics of his bequeathed body; in front of it is a stone pillar with a lion on the top, and about 20 feet high; on this is inscribed a record of the events connected with his Nirvāṇa; this was built by Aṣoka-rāja." See also Plate I, Nos. 10 and 11. Fa Hien's further statement, that less than a yojana to the east of Koṇāgamana's Nirvāṇa-stūpa lies Kapilavastu, is quite incorrect, as the capital of the Śākyas (see Chapter VII) is situated just five miles to the north-west of Aṣoka's broken lion-pillar lying on the western bank of the Nīgālī Sāgar (Plate III).

The remains of the brick circumvallation of the ancient city Śobhavati are still distinctly traceable near the modern hamlets of Tilaura and Gobari about 6½ miles north-east of Lori-ki-kudān and Gotithvā, near which place stands Krakucchanda's Nirvāṇa-stūpa. The two stūpas, the one inside the city and the other not far to the north-east of it, are now mere low mounds of ruins, whilst the great Nirvāṇa-stūpa of Koṇāgamana, or Koṇākamana, is, despite its great age, still fairly well-preserved, and rears its imposing pile close to Aṣoka's Edict Pillar, just one mile and a-half due north-east of Tilaura Koṭ and about one mile south of the village of Nīgīliver (Plate II). The lower inscribed portion of this pillar (Plate IV), which on excavation was found to measure 10 feet 6 inches in depth and at its base 8 feet 2 inches in circumference, is still fixed in situ, resting on a square masonry foundation, 7 feet by 7 by 1, and being embedded in the western embankment

1 Legge, L. C., page 61; Giles, L. C., page 49.
2 It seems to be necessary to have a meeting between every Buddha and his father.
4 Nīghīlī, a small village in the Nepalese tahāil Tanīlīr of allah Jamiā, is about 38 miles north-west of the Ukhia Bānsi station on the Bengal and North-Western Railway, and eighteen miles north of Chilīrī police-station in the Bāni District.
UPPER HALF OF AGONAS PILLAR LYING ON WESTERN BANK OF NIGALI SAGAR.
of the lake. A short distance to the north-east, close to the brink of the water, lies the upper half of Asoka’s Edict Pillar (see Plate V), measuring 14 feet 9 inches in length and 2 feet in diameter at its uppermost and 2 feet 6 inches at its lowest end. The lion-capital is wanting, and lies unaccountably buried amongst the débris surrounding the lake, or possibly may rest at the bottom of the lake’s water. The pillar is known far and wide to the people of the Tarāi under the name of Bhāmasena-ki-nigālī, or “Bhimsena’s smoking pipe,” and the lake as well as the neighbouring village of Niglivā owe their names to this popular notion. From evidences still observable it seems almost certain that this handsome column of polished sandstone was destroyed through the excessive heat of a raging forest-fire, so common in the Tarāi, between the seventh century, the date of Hiuen Tsang’s visit, and the tenth century, to which period belong the oldest inscription incised in beautiful lapidary characters of that time on about the middle of the fallen half. Just below it is engraved a pilgrim’s record, dating from the latter half of the twelfth century A. D., which reads as follows: Śrī-Tapumallaḥu nityam jayatu 1234. “Hail! May Tapumalla live long! Saṃvat 1234.” or A. D. 1177-78. These inscriptions, being thus found about 18 feet above the original base of the pillar, could not so easily have been incised in such a high place, had the column still stood intact in its original height, which was not about 20 feet, as stated by Hiuen Tsang, but about 28 feet.

The new edict of Asoka (Plate IV) is incised in four beautifully engraved lines on the lower half of the mutilated lion-pillar, just ten feet six inches above its base, and has suffered by its fracture a great deal on the left side in losing the first five letters of the third as well as the first seven of the fourth line; but as fortunately a part of the wording of the Rummindei Pillar (see Chapter VI) agrees closely with that of the Niglivā Pillar, it makes the restoration of the lost portions easy and absolutely certain. The edict runs as follows:—“King Piyaḍaśi, beloved of the gods, having been anointed fourteen years, increased for the second time the stūpa of Buddhākoṇākamana; and having been anointed [twenty years], he came himself and worshipped; [and] he caused [this stone pillar to be erected].” The contents of this inscription do not agree with Hiuen Tsang’s statement “on this (pillar) is inscribed a record of the events connected with (Kanakamuni’s) nirvāṇa.” As Hiuen Tsang was no epigraphist, his notices about the contents of inscriptions mentioned by him are invariably incorrect. This edict is probably the earliest archaeological confirmation we have of the actual preservation, in early Buddhist times, of the memory of Koṇāgamana. The only other evidence of a similar kind is the bas-relief of Koṇāgamana’s bodhi-tree figured at Plate XXIX of Cunningham’s Bharhut Stūpa. The value of this edict for the early history of Buddhism has been pointed out by Hofrat Dr. Bühlcr in a preliminary notice of the document. The edict also proves that Professor Kern was right when he declared, on the strength

1 It contains the well-known mystic formula:—On au māri-padsma haṭa, “hail! hail! glory be to the jewel in the lotus,” i.e. the Bodhisattva Padmasāyi, so often found engraved on boulders and cliffs near the highways of Tibet and Nepal.
2 Wiener Zeitschrift für die Kunde des Morgenlandes, Volume IX, page 175 ff.; Academy, April 27, 1895. See also Annual Progress Report of the Archeological Survey Circle, North-Western Provinces and Oude, for 1894-95 paragraph 3.
3 Geschichte van het Buddhismus in Indië, Volume I, page 321.
of the evidence of the relievoes at Bhararut, that the portion of the Buddhist doctrine in the *Digha* and *Majjhima-Nikāya*, referring to previous Buddhas, was settled in the third century B.C. Perhaps it teaches us even a little more. First, the statement of Aśoka-Piyadasi that "he increased" or enlarged the stūpa for the second time in the fifteenth year after his coronation as Emperor, or in the nineteenth of his reign, means that he twice restored it, adding to its size. Hence the monument must have been erected before the beginning of the king's reign, or before B.C. 250, and it must have enjoyed considerable fame and sanctity, as is also apparent from the fact that Aśoka in his twenty-fifth year personally visited and worshipped it. The dogma of the Buddhas anterior to Gautama Buddha must not only have been developed, but must also have been fixed locally, before it could occur to "the Faithful" to build or renew stūpas in honour of these Buddhas. It seems difficult to believe that all these stages of the development of the Buddhist doctrine could have been accomplished in a very short time. Secondly, according to the *Buddhavamsa* (XXIII, 29)—one of the latest books included in the Canon of the *Piṭakas*—Buddha Koṇāgamana reached nirvāṇa, i.e. died in the Pābbata Ārāma, that is, in the "Mountain Plaisance or Monastery," which suggested to Hofrat Dr. Bühl the conjecture that we have to look near the site of his Nirvāṇa-stūpa for the place of his death. The Pābbata Ārāma lies just thirteen miles north-east of Nīgālī Sāgar on the lower slopes of the Tarā hills, overtopped by the snowclad peaks of Dhaṇalagīrī and Muktiṇāth, and its deserted site is now known as Sāīna-Māīna (Plate II). Vast ruins of fallen monasteries and the remains of three immense wells, built of huge ancient bricks, are hidden away in dense shrubby jungle.

Such results are by no means without value for the early history of Buddhism. As the Buddhists worshipped Śākyamuni's predecessors in the beginning of the third century B.C., or even earlier, and erected stūpas in memory of their nirvāṇa, it becomes almost certain that the origin of Buddhism lies very much earlier, and that, therefore, it is impossible, as some European scholars have done, to fix the nirvāṇa of Gautama Buddha in B.C. 350, or in B.C. 325. Thus the remoter date, circa B.C. 477, gains also on this consideration greater probability, and the attempts to reduce the distance between Śākyamuni's death and the accession of Aśoka, against the Ceylonese canonical books, become more difficult. In addition the new edict gives us historical facts for the 19th and 25th years of Aśoka's reign, which dates are not mentioned in the other edicts; and it shows that Aśoka's rule extended in the north-east as far as the hill frontier of Nepāl. Perhaps the Nepālese tradition is right when it asserts that the valley, too, belonged to the Maurya Empire.

The Nīgālī Sāgar is an expansive sheet of water, being an oblong measuring about 940 feet by 440. A short distance from the western embankment of the lake, on which the mutilated portion of the edict pillar stands, are vast brick ruins stretching far away in the direction of the southern gate of Kapilavastu. Amongst the heaps of ruins, the Nirvāṇa-stūpa of Koṇāgamana is clearly discernible, the base of its hemispherical dome being about 101 feet in diameter, and its present height still about thirty feet. The dome seems to have been constructed of solid brick to a depth of about 20 feet, whilst the interior is filled up with earth-packing. This dome rests on a great circular mass, 109 feet in diameter, built in the shape of a
huge brick drum, about six feet high, cased with solid bricks, the bricks used being
of a very great size, 16 inches by 11 by 3, thus leaving a procession-path round the
exterior of about eight feet in breadth. About ten feet beyond the great circular
base all round was apparently a stone-railing with gateways, the positions of which
can still be traced. It is thus abundantly evident that the corporeal relics of
Konâgamana, collected from his funeral pyre, were carefully and securely interred
in this stûpa, and that his Nirvâna-stûpa is undoubtedly one of the oldest Buddhist
monuments still existing in India. On all sides around this interesting monument
are ruined monasteries, fallen columns, and broken sculptures.

About one mile and a-half to the east of Nigâlî Sâgar is a deserted site, locally
known by the name of Kuḍâ-i-Kôṭ (Plate II), measuring about 350 feet by 200.
The interior is studded with the ruins of several small brick stûpas and heaps of
broken sculpturing. In the absence of any epigraphical evidence discovered on the
spot, it is impossible to say to what period these fragmentary relics of the past may
belong. On topographical reasons, however, I am inclined to identify this spot with
the "arrow-fountain" (śarkûpa) of Hiuen Tsiang (Plate I, No. 19), the more so as
still close to one of the small ruined stûpas a clear spring of water, having a slightly
mineral taste, gushes forth from the ground. For further details, see Chapter VII,
page 44.
CHAPTER IV.

THE LUMBINI GROVE, THE BIRTHPLACE OF BUDDHA ŚĀKYAMUNI.

According to the canonical books of the Buddhists, the pleasure garden of sal-tree, called Lumbini grove, was situated between Kapilavastu, the capital of the Śākyas, and Devadaha (Devahrada), or Koli (alias Vāgābra-pura), the capital of the Koḷyas or Koḍyas, and belonged to the inhabitants of both cities (see Chapter I, page 4). The name Lumbini is, according to some Northern texts, said to have been derived from that of the queen of Suprabuddha, the king of Koli, whose daughter was Mahāmāya, the mother of Gautama Buddha. Fa Hien says "50 li (or about 8½ miles) east from the city (Kapilavastu) was a garden, named Lumbini (i.e. "the place of liberation"), where the queen (Mahāmāya) entered the pond and bathed. Having come forth from the pond on the northern bank, after walking twenty paces, she lifted up her hand, laid hold of a branch of a tree, and, with her face to the east, gave birth to the heir-apparent. When he fell to the ground, he immediately walked seven paces. Two dragon-kings appeared and washed his body. At the place where they did so, there was immediately formed a well, and from it as well as from the above pond, where the queen bathed, the monks even now constantly take the water and drink it." Huen Tsang, whose description of the garden contains more details, travelled from the "arrow-fountain" stūpa (Plate I, No. 19) north-east about 80 or 90 li (or between 13½ and 15 miles) to the La-fa-ni, i.e. Lāvāṇi (Lumbini) garden. "Here is the bathing tank of the Śākyas, the water of which is bright and clear as a mirror, and the surface covered with a mixture of flowers. To the north of this 24 or 25 paces there is an Aśoka-tree, which is now decayed; this is the place where the Bodhisattva was born on the eighth day of the second half of the month Vaishaka. The school of the Sthaviras say it was on the fifteenth day of the second half of the same month. East of this is a stūpa (Plate I, No. 20) built by Aśoka-rāja, where the two dragons bathed the body of the prince. When the Bodhisattva was born, he walked without assistance in the direction of the four quarters, seven paces in each direction, and said: "I am the only lord in heaven and earth; from this time forth my births are finished." Where his feet had trod there sprang up great lotus

---

8 In Southern texts Suprabuddha is the brother of the Śākya Daŋdapañi, whose daughter Gopā became Prince Siddhārtha’s chief queen. According to Hardy, Memoir of Buddhism, page 133, Suprabuddha’s daughter was Yakṣāra, the mother of Śāhna; but (page 134) Suprabuddha is called the father of Mahāmāya.

When the Buddha spent the fifteenth rainy season after his enlightenment in the Bālīya grove at Kapilavastu, he had to endure a grave insult from Suprabuddha, his father-in-law. One day as the latter was informed that the Tathāgata was about to go his begging round in a certain quarter of the town, he went out, after intoxicating himself with liquor, planted himself in the middle of the street, barring the passage to the Buddha and vilely abusing him. The Master, quietly glancing at Ananda, his favourite disciple, uttered the prediction that in a week Suprabuddha should be swallowed alive by the earth. Suprabuddha laughed at that prediction, and imagined that he might easily avert his doom by remaining during a week in the tower of his palace; but he should experience that no place on earth can afford shelter to the perpetrator of a wicked deed (Dhammapadā, v. 136). On the fatal day the earth burst open under his feet, and he sunk into the abyss down to the bottom of the Arāch hill as a punishment for his wickedness.

9 Legge, l. c., page 47; Olle, l. c., page 51.

10 Baal, l. c., Volume II, pages 24 and 25.

11 It is curious that Huen Tsang should state Prince Goutama was born under an Aśoka-tree (Janaviṇa aśoka), whilst all canonical books inform us that the child was born under a sal-tree (Sāla roṣati).
flowers. Moreover, two dragons sprang forth, and, fixed in the air, poured down the one a cold and the other a warm water stream from his mouth, to wash the prince. To the east of this stūpa are two fountains of pure water, by the side of which have been built two stūpas (Plate I, No. 21). This is the place where two dragons appeared from the earth. When the Bodhisattva was born, the attendants and household relatives hastened in every direction to find water for the use of the child. At this time two springs gurgled forth from the earth just before the queen, the one cold and the other warm, using which they bathed him. To the south of this is a stūpa (Plate I, No. 22). This is the spot where Śakra, the lord of the Devas, received the Bodhisattva in his arms. When the Bodhisattva was born, then Śakra, the king of Devas, took him and wrapped him in an exquisite and divine robe. Close to this there are four stūpas (Plate I, No. 23) to denote the place where the four heavenly kings received the Bodhisattva in their arms. When the Bodhisattva was born from the right side of his mother, the four kings wrapped him in a golden-coloured cotton vestment, and placing him on a golden slab (bench) and bringing him to his mother, they said, 'the queen may rejoice indeed at having given birth to such a fortunate child.' If the Devas rejoiced at the event, how much more should men! By the side of these stūpas and not far from them is a great stone pillar (Plate I, No. 24), on the top of which is the figure of a horse, which was built by Aśoka-rāja. Afterwards, by the contrivance of a wicked dragon, it was broken off in the middle and fell to the ground. By the side of it is a little river which flows to the south-east. The people of the place call it the river of oil. This is the stream which the Devas caused to appear as a pure and glistening pool for the queen, when she brought forth her child, to wash and purify herself in, now it is changed and become a river, the stream of which is still unctuous.'

At the end of November 1896 I set out on my second journey to Niglívā in order to meet General Khadga Shamsher, the Governor of Pālsa, and to superintend the contemplated excavations around Buddha Konāgamaṇa's Nirvāṇa-stūpa near the banks of the Nigálī Ságā. By a lucky chance our meeting could not take place at Niglívā, but instead of was arranged for near the village of Pādērīyā, just two miles north of the Nepálīīe tahsil-town Bhaγvanpār in zillah Butsāul, and 13 miles south-east of Niglívā. Close to the General's camp, near the débris of four stūpas, stood a slightly mutilated pillar (Plate VI), rising about 10 feet above ground, and being covered with many records of pilgrims' visits, one of which was incised about A.D. 700. On digging away the accumulated débris, it proved to be an Aśoka monolith 22'-4" high, standing upon a masonry platform, and to bear about 9'-5" from its base a well-preserved inscription (Plate VIII, No. 3) of the Māurā period in five lines. The pillar tapers slightly, as its circumference is at the base 8'-3", near the inscribed portion 7'-5", and at the top 6'-6". At an equal distance of 18 inches, all round the base of the pillar, runs a square brick railing of 5'-9" and 2'-10" high. The inscription fixes with absolute certainty the situation of the garden of Lumbini, where according to the Buddhist belief Prince Siddhārtha was born. It reads as follows:- "King Piγadasi, beloved of the gods, having been anointed twenty years, came himself and worshipped saying: 'Here Buddha Śakya muni was born.' And he caused to be made a stone (capital) bearing a horse, and he caused
stone pillar to be erected. Because here the Blessed One was born, the village of Lummim was made free of taxes and a recipient of wealth (see Chapter VI). No adverse criticism can shake the evidence of the repeated assertion: “Here Buddha Sakyamuni was born,” and: “Here the Blessed One was born,” as well as of the mention of Lummigama, which agrees with the Pali Lumbinigama and the Sanskrit Lumbinivana. This pillar, therefore, marks the identical spot which was pointed out as the birthplace of Buddha to Asoka by the Sthavira Upagupta, the Buddhist Patriarch (see Chapter V). The evidence of this edict could only be set aside if it were shown that the pillar had been removed from some other place to its present position, which is an a priori improbable assumption; but there is collateral evidence to prove that it is still standing on its original site. We have seen above that Hiuuen Tsian, who visited the Lumbini garden in about B. C. 636, mentions the pillar as standing close to four stupas, the ruins of which are still visible. He further says that the pillar was originally surmounted with a horse-capital, which was afterwards sundered from it by the machinations of a wicked dragon. This exactly agrees with the facts observed by me: the capital is wanting and a small portion of the upper part of the pillar immediately below it, which actually seems to have been split off by a stroke of lightning, which the Buddhists ascribe to the anger of the Nâgas, called “dragons” by the Chinese. The horse-capital undoubtedly lies buried under the surrounding ruins, and may on excavation turn up in a well-preserved state. If Hiuuen Tsian omits to mention the inscription, the reason is no doubt that it was covered at the time of his visit by an accumulation of débris, and that all knowledge of its existence had been lost. As stated already, when I first saw the pillar on the 1st December 1896, only a small portion, ten feet high, was above the ground and was covered with pilgrims’ records, one of which is dated about A. D. 700. This piece must, therefore, have been accessible, and the surface of the ground must have been at the present level for nearly eleven hundred years. When the excavation of the pillar was afterwards undertaken, the Asoka record was found three feet below the surface of the soil and 9’-8’ above the base of the pillar. It is evident that the Asoka inscription must have been covered over with rubbish at least at about A. D. 700, which circumstance explains also its present perfect state of preservation. It seems almost impossible that three feet of débris could have been accumulated in the sixty-four years which elapsed between the date of Hiuuen Tsian’s visit and the incision of the oldest pilgrim’s record at the top. Finally it may be mentioned that this deserted site is still locally called Rummindai, the first part of which name evidently represents Asoka’s Lummimi and the Pali Lumbini. It is a curious fact that the true meaning of this ancient Buddhistic name has long been forgotten, as the present Nepâlese officials believe the word to signify the sthâna of Rûpâdevi. A small modern mean-looking temple, dedicated to that goddess, was about four years ago erected by a Ñaiva ascetic on the top of one of the ruined stupas, and an interesting nearly life-size stone image of Mâyâdevi, extracted from the ruins, has been set up as the tutelar deity for the worship of the purely Hindu population. The sculpture represents Mahâmâyâ in a standing position, bringing forth the infant Buddha from her right side; the child being received by the four guardian
gods of the quarters. Unfortunately the free application of oil and sindhur by worshippers has almost destroyed all minor details, and as the image is kept in a deep dark cellar, it was impossible to prepare a photograph or even a drawing of it. Besides the four ruined stupas, close to the edict pillar, there are also still the remains of the four other stupas mentioned by Hsuan Tsang, as well as the bathing tank of the Sakyas and the two fountains and the well mentioned by the two Chinese pilgrims. Even “the river of oil” still flows past the ruins bearing the modern name Tīlār Nādi (Plate II); the metallic lustre of whose waters gives it an oily appearance.

As the Lumbini garden,1 the modern Rummindéi, lies just about eighteen miles to the north of Bridgmanganj station on the Bengal and North-Western Railway, the last six miles of which only are in Nepalese territory, it is quite certain that this sacred spot will soon become again a favourite place of pilgrimage for all devout Buddhists of the world as it was of yore. For, during the last hours before the Lord’s parinirvāṇa, whilst giving some useful counsels and instructions to Ānanda, he spoke of the four places which the pious believer ought to visit with feelings of holy reverence and awe, viz. the place where the Tathāgata was born [the Lumbini Grove]; the place where he had reached perfect enlightenment [Bodhi-Gayā]; the place where for the first time he had proclaimed the Law [the Deerpark near Benares]; and the place of his final extinction [Kusinārā]. He dilated on the merits of pilgrimage to those places and declared: “All believers, brethren and sisters of the order, or devout men and women, who shall die while they, with believing heart, are journeying on such a pilgrimage, shall be reborn after death, when the body shall dissolve in the happy realms of heaven.”2

The great importance of the Rummindéi pillar inscription for the topography of Ancient India and the sacred history of the Buddhists has first been pointed out by the writer in an article contributed to the Allahabad Pioneer of the 23rd December 1896, and was later on fully discussed by Hofrat Dr. Bühler in the Anzeiger der phil.-hist. Classe der Wiener Akademie, January 7, 1897; Athenaeum, March 6, 1897; and by Monsieur A. Barth in the Journal des Savants, February 1897, page 65 ff.

1 Dr. L. A. Waddell’s suggestion in the Journal, Asiatic Society of Bengal, Volume LXX, Part I, page 278, “the Lumbini should lie a little to the north [of Kesāgama’s pillar]” is, as we have shown above, quite incorrect and contrary to all evidence. The Lumbini Garden lies just 12 miles south-east of Kesāgama’s pillar, and fully 18 miles south-east of Kapilavastu.

CHAPTER V.

AŚOKA’S PILGRIMAGE TO THE BUDDHA’S BIRTHPLACE.

The great Emperor Aśoka, who in his Edicts calls himself Piyādāsi (Priyadārśin), or Devānāmpriya “The Pious,” was the son of Bindusāra and the grandson of Candragupta, the famous founder of the Maurya dynasty. He ascended the throne in about B. C. 263; four years afterwards, at the early age of 21 years, he was anointed Emperor, and he died after an eventful reign of thirty-seven years. Aśoka is described by the Buddhist chronicles as something like a monster in his youth, hence his name Kālāśoka “The Black Aśoka,” which denotes the Maurya King in his dark and sinful days, and which designation is almost synonymous with Chaṇḍāśoka, “Aśoka, the Wicked,” and Kāmāśoka, “Aśoka, the Lustful,” as the monarch is called before his conversion to Buddhism, which event is said to have taken place three years after his anointment (abhisheka), or in the 7th year of his reign, after which he became Dharmaśoka, i.e., an exemplary ruler. However, the true date of his conversion to Buddhism cannot be deduced with anything like precision. At any rate the above date assigned to it by the Ceylonese chronicles is wrong, and perhaps the result of a confusion between the monarch becoming “a pretender to the Faith” and his formal conversion as a fervent Buddhist. It is possible that the real date of Aśoka’s formal conversion is eighteen years after his anointment, or twenty-two of his reign, the alleged date of the third Council at Pātaliputra. If we adopt the interpretation that Aśoka had been an upāsaka, or lay devotee, more than six years before he entered the Samgha or the monastic life, this will carry us to the year 28 or 29 of his reign. About that period or somewhat later he lost his queen Aśandhimittā, when he joined the Samgha, i.e. became a Member of the Order, or the Congregation of the Priests. Four years afterwards he left the priesthood, and re-married by raising to the dignity of queen the ill-natured Tishyarakha or Tishyarakshita. The life and deeds of Aśoka have become the subject of a series of Northern Buddhist tales, which in few points only show coincidences with the Ceylonese traditions. From a literary point of view those tales are highly remarkable, but the whole series has the character of an historical romance containing bits of genuine history mixed up with a great deal of fiction. His numerous Rock and Pillar Edicts—those invaluable documents, so precious in many respects,—afford us also no real insight into the monarch’s character. They show to a certain extent that he was not devoid of vanity, and that he was much addicted to moralizing; but at the same time he seems to have been in earnest with his endeavours to heighten the moral standard of his subjects. His edicts, with a few exceptions, contain nothing particularly Buddhistic; some passages must even have been distasteful to many of his co-religionists. More than once he prides himself of his kind feelings towards all sects, of the various benefits he bestows upon all of them, and of his

1 Kern, i.e., pages 112-116.
protection in particular of the Ājīvikas (i.e. Vaishnava ascetics) and the Nirgranthas (i.e. naked Jaina ascetics); whereas the Buddhists in their writings, sacred and profane, never lose an opportunity to blacken those hated rivals. The few edicts, e.g., the Bairat Rock Edict and the Rupnath, Sahasram and Siddapur redactions of the one edict, in which he gives vent to his zealotie feelings, belong to the last years, about 30 and 34, of his reign. The traditions in various works of the Northern Buddhists, regarding the last days of Asoka's reign, tend to impress us with the belief that the once so powerful monarch, when in his old age he suffered from mental weakness, was checked in his extravagances by his ministers and the Prince Regent Samaadin (or Samprati), the son of Prince Kunala, and that already before his death a current of reaction had set in against his protection of Buddhism to the detriment of other communities.

According to the newly-discovered Rummindai Pillar Edict, Asoka went on a pilgrimage to the sacred shrines of the Buddhists situated in the extreme north of his Empire twenty years after his anointment, or in the 25th year of his reign. Very probably he visited on this occasion, as the legend in the Dieugacacadana (page 386 ff.)1 asserts, not only the Lumbinivana, or the Lumbini Grove, but also further east Kusinara, the site of Gautama Buddha's Parinirvāna, and Rāmagrama, and further west Kapilavastu, the Nirvāna-stūpas of Koṇāgamana and Krakucchanda and the old town of Śravasti, in several of which localities pillars with his inscriptions were still existing in Huen Tsiang's times. According to the Dieugacacasana Sthavira Upagupta, the fifth great teacher and Elder of the Northern Buddhist Church, was the converter and spiritual adviser of Asoka. At the request of Yasas, the Elder and Metropolitan of Pataλiputra, Asoka invited Upagupta, who was at that time staying at Mathurā, to come to Pataλiputra, and boats were provided by the Emperor for the long river journey down the Jamna and Ganges. On his arrival, Asoka received him with due honours, saying: "You who resemble the Master, you who are the sole eye of the Universe, and the chief interpreter of the Sacred Law, be my refuge, Reverend Sir, and give me your commands! I shall hasten, great sage, to obey thy voice!" Upagupta replied: "O great king, the Lord, the Blessed Tathāgata, has entrusted to me as well as to you the depository of the Law. Let us make every effort to preserve that which the Leader of the World has transmitted to us, when he was in the midst of his Disciples." Then the king falling at the feet of the Sthavira Upagupta exclaimed: "This, oh Sthavira, is my desire: I wish to visit, honour, and mark by a sign for the benefit of remote posterity all the spots where the Blessed Buddha has sojourned." "Very well, oh great king," replied the Sthavira, "this thought of thine is good. I shall go this day to show you the spots where the Venerable Buddha resided." Then the Emperor equipped with a large army took perfumes, flowers, and garlands and set out in the company of the Sthavira Upagupta, who began by conducting the king to the Lumbinivana. And extending his right hand he said to him: "Here, oh great king, the Lord (Bhagavat) was born; at this site, precious to behold, the first monument in honour of the Buddha should be consecrated!" The

1 See also Barrow, Introduction à l'histoire du Bouddhisme Indien, page 382: Mon. A. Barth, in the Journal des Savants, February 1897, page 65 ff.; and Waddell's article Upagupta, the Fourth Buddhist Patriarch and High Priest of Asoka, in Journal, Asiatic Society of Bengal, Volume LXXVI, Part 1, page 76 ff.
Emperor, after presenting one hundred thousand suvâryas (gold coins) to the people of the country, raised a stûpa and retired. It would appear as if Aśoka had engraved on his Edict Pillar in the Lumbini grove the very words *Here the Worshipful One was born*, which were uttered by Sthavira Upagupta at this sacred spot. This remarkable coincidence seems to enhance the great value of the semi-historical portion of the *Dīya-vadāna*. 
CHAPTER VI.

THE RUMMINDEI AND NIGLĪVĀ PILLAR EDICTS OF PIYADASI, OR AŚOKA-RĀJA.

The characters of these two new Aśoka edicts agree exactly with those of the north-eastern Pillar Edicts at Badhā (Aravā), Mathiā (Navandgarh), and Rāmpārvā. Their language is the Maṅgādhi of the third century B.C., which is found also in the Allahabad and Dehli Pillar Edicts, in the Kāliśri, Dhauli and Jaugāda versions of the Rock Edicts, in the two Bairāt and the Sahasrām Edicts, in the Cave Inscriptions of Barāhar, and in the Sōhgāvar copper-plate, and which may be recognised by the inevitable substitution of la for ra, da for ḍa and sa for ṣa, by the nominative singular in ā, and by the word kita for idha. A peculiarity, which re-occurs only in the north-eastern Pillar Edicts, is the comparatively frequent shortening of final ā in Piyadasi, lājina, atana and kālāpīta. New words and forms, not found in the other Aśoka Edicts, are aṭhabhāgiye (Rummindei, l. 5), āgācha (R. l. 2; Niglīvā l. 3), ubalike (R. l. 3), usapāpīta (R. l. 3; N. l. 4), Bhagavān (R. l. 4), mahāyite (R. l. 2; N. l. 3), and ekaṣa (R. l. 3), to which may be added the names of Konākamana (N. l. 2), Lūminigāna (R. l. 4), and Sakyamuni (R. l. 2). The wording of the two Edicts agrees very closely, and leaves no doubt that they were incised at the same time.¹

TEXT OF THE RUMMINDEI EDICT.²

[1] DEVĀNA-PIYENA PIYADASINA lājina-vsatvamābhisitena
[2] atana-āgācha mahāyite kita-BUDHE-jāte SAKYAMUNI-ti
[3] aṭhabhāgiye-chā kālāpīta aṭhabhāgiye-chā usapāpīta

TRANSLATION.

King Piyadasi, beloved of the gods (or dear to the gods),³ having been anointed 20 years, came himself and worshipped saying: “Here Buddha Śākyamuni was born.” And he caused to be made a stone (capital) representing a horse; and he caused (this) stone pillar to be erected. Because here the Worshipful One was born, the village of Lūminī has been made free of taxes and a recipient of wealth.

REMARKS.

Āgācha stands for Pāli āgachcha, Sanskrit āgatyā, and shows the substitution, frequent in the Prākrit, of a single consonant for a double one as well as the then necessary lengthening of a preceding short vowel.

¹ See Hofrat Dr. Schäfer in Epigraphical Indica, Volume V, pages 1-6.
² See Plate VIII, No. 3. The words connected by hyphens are written continuously in the text. As regards the history and position of this pillar, see Chapter IV.
³ The word Devadā-priyā, if taken in its etymological acceptation, means “dear to the gods;” probably, however, Aśoka attached to this compound the meaning of “harmless,” or “pious.” In latter times the Jains are designated as Devadā-priyā, which well accords with their being promoters of harmlessness (aśiṣṭa) to the extreme.
Makhīyite stands for mahākītām "it has been worshipped" or "worship has been performed."

Ti rendered by "saying" may also be translated by "for" or "because." 
Vīgarābhi is equivalent to the Sanskrit vīgarābhī "not so uncouth as an ass," i.e., a horse; it is a compound adjective, qualifying sīlā. Professor Dr. Bühler (Epigraphia Indica, Volume V, page 4) translates "and he caused to be made a stone (slaḥ) bearing a big sun (?)" and (l. c., page 5) he explains vīgarābhī with the Sanskrit vīkaśābhī and says: "A stone slab having a large representation of the sun, might have been put up in the Lumbini garden, in order to indicate that Śākyamuni claims to be arkaśabdhā or ādityaśabdhā, a scion of the solar race of I k s h v ā k u."

Monsieur A. Barth in the Journal des Savants, February 1897, page 73, explains ubalika as equivalent to the Sanskrit utsbalikā, and derives utsabhāpye from arthabhāga. This latter explanation is supported by the Dīvyāvadāna (page 390), according to which Aśoka presented on his visit to the Lumbini grove one hundred thousand suvarṇas to the people of the country. See Chapter V. Uḍbaliṅkaḥ taken as a bahuvalī compound means "rich in taxes" or "with raised taxes," and taken as a latpuruṣa, stands for "one who has left the taxes." Professor Bühler prefers to explain it by acabaliṅkaḥ or opabaliṅkaḥ "exempt from taxes."

TEXT OF THE NIGLĪVĀ EDICT.¹

[2] BUDHASA KONĀKAMANASA thube-dutiyaṃ vaṭkite
[3] [Visālīca] sābhīsitena-cha atana-āgācha-makhīyite
[4] [Silāthobe-cha usā] pāpīte [||].

TRANSLATION.

King Pi yadasi, beloved of the gods, having been anointed fourteen years, increased for the second time the stūpa of Bo dha Ko nāka ma na; and having been anointed [twenty years], he came himself and worshipped; [and] he caused [(this) stone pillar to be erected].

REMARKS.

With the form Ko nākamana for Pāli Ko nāgama na compare Makā (Kālsī Edict XIII, 2, l. 7) and Maka (Shāhbāzgarhī Edict XIII, l. 10) for the Greek Māgas, as well as Aṃtekina (Gīrnrā Edict XIII, l. 8), Aṃtekina (Shāhbāzgarhī Edict XIII, l. 10), and Aṃtekine (Kālsī Edict XIII, 2, l. 7) for the Greek Antignes.

The two new Edicts tend to show that the Nepāl Ta rāi formed part of Aśoka’s dominions. This is indisputable if the Rummimdei Edict declares that the Emperor remitted the taxes of the village of Lūmūmi. But even the mere fact that Aśoka planted pillars all over the Ta rāi favours the view that it was subject to his rule. For Aśoka’s route from Pā ṭa līp utra to the Lūm bīni G r o v e is perhaps marked by the series of pillars extending from B a kh ra near Vai sālī (Besarh) through R a ḍhīā and M a t hīā to Rām pūrvā in the Champaṇā district of the Bengal Presidency, most of which were later on inscribed with the well-known Pillar Edicts.

¹ See Plate IV. For the history and position of this pillar edict, see Chapter III. The forms within brackets are restored according to the reading of the Rummimdei Edict.
MAP OF THE PRESENT RUINS OF KAPILVASTU IN THE NEPALESE TARAI.
CHAPTER VII.

KAPILAVASTU, THE CAPITAL OF THE ŚĀKYAS.

The question as regards the correct identification of Kapilavastu, the capital city of the Śākyas, has occupied Indian archaeologists some more than forty years, and up to date only two attempts at its solution have been made. Professor Dr. Lassen, in 1858, located the ruins of Kapilavastu, on geographical calculations, at a short distance to the north-west of Gorakhpūr on the banks of the modern Rōhinī Nādi, which he identified with the ancient Rōhini; compare his *Indische Altertumskunde*, Leipzig, 1858, Volume III, page 201. To almost the same conclusions came independently Monsieur Stanislaus Julien in his *Voyages des Pélérius Bouddhistes*, Volume III, page 356. The late Director of the Archaeological Survey Department, General Sir A. Cunningham, in 1863, believed to have discovered by epigraphical evidence the identity of Sāvatthi, or Śrāvasti, the capital city of the Kosalas, with the deserted site known as Sēṭ-Mahēṭ near Bālāmpūr in the Gonda district of Oudh. This identification enabled him to define also the position of Kapilavastu. As, according to the two Chinese Buddhists Fa Hien and Hiuen Tsang, Kapilavastu lay south-east of Śrāvasti at a distance of about 80 miles, Sir A. Cunningham believed to recognize the town, for whose name he accepted the variant Kapiṇagāra, in the modern Nāgar Khās in the Basti District, about 81 miles south-east of Sēṭ-Mahēṭ. He published this identification in his *Ancient Geography of India*, page 414, without himself even having visited the place. Later on his Assistant, Mr. A. C. Carleyle, who explored the districts of Basti and Gorakhpūr in the camping season of 1875-76, took up again the investigation, and as he could not find in Nāgar Khās and its neighbourhood any traces of the magnificent monuments mentioned by the Chinese pilgrims, he looked for Kapilavastu 18 miles further north among the remains at Bhuilā Tal, a place studded in brax moulds and situated on the banks of the Rawai Nādi. Although Mr. Carleyle’s expositions in the *Archaeological Survey Reports*, Volume XII, pages 88-215, and Volume XXII, page 1, ff., are full of unscientific deductions and devoid of critical acumen, and although his excavations on the spot did not bring to light either inscriptions or sculptures which could support the identification, Sir A. Cunningham, notwithstanding, after a short examination of the site, expressed his most perfect conviction of the accuracy of Mr. Carleyle’s identification (see *ibid.*, Volume XII, pages III-IV; Volume XXII, page III). Nevertheless, that identification rested on no substantial grounds, and, in 1889,
was shown by me to be erroneous on topographical and other reasons. The errors of Lassen, Julien, Cunningham and Carllieyle have been caused by the vague statements of the Chinese pilgrims, who both say that in travelling from Srâvasti to Kapilavastu they went south-east. As Sir A. Cunningham had identified Srâvasti with Sêt-Mahêt, it was but natural for him to infer that Kapilavastu must lie either in the Basté or Gorakhpur district. The country of the Sâkyas has thus by all been looked for too far south, as the town lay actually much further north. It may also be pointed out that its real position, eighteen miles north-west of the Lumbini garden, agrees with the hints given in the Ceylonese canonical books. According to the Ambalikâ-sutta of the Digha-nikâya (III, 1, 15), the banished sons of Ikshvâku or Okâka, the ancient seer-king, settled yatha Himavantapassê pokhareniyâ tirâ mahâsâkasanyâ, i.e., "where there was a great grove of kâka trees on the bank of a lake (situated) on the lower slopes of the Himâlaya." This description fits the present ruins near the Srînagar Sâgar in the Nepâlese Tarâ much better than the absolutely flat districts of Basté or Gorakhpur, which are still a great distance from the hills.

According to the canonical books of the Southern Buddhists, Kapilavatthu (Kapilavastu), or Kapilapura was situated on the banks of the Rohâni or Rohitâ, whilst the Diyâradâna (ed. Cowell) page 348, locates the town on those of the Bhâgirathi (i.e. Ganges), not far from the hermitage of Risbi Kapila. It is also narrated (Jâtaka, Volume V, page 412; Theragathâ, v. 529,) that the river flowed between the capital of the Sâkyas and Devahrâda, the capital of the Kolâyas. For, a short time before the death of king Sudhodana there arose a dispute between the Sâkyas and Kolâyas about the water of the river Rohâni, which owing to an unusual drought was not sufficient to irrigate the rice-fields on both sides of the river. The quarrel rose high and a battle would have ensued had not the Buddha, perceiving by his divine eye what was going on, hastened from Vaissali through the sky to the place where the parties stood ready to fight, and moved them to lay down their arms. The eloquent discourse which he delivered on that occasion had the desired effect that he made numerous converts. Accordingly, the ruins of Kapilavastu ought to have been discovered on the western bank of the river, and the Lumbini garden to the east of it. This is actually the case, if we identify the modern Jamuâr Nadî (Plate II) with the ancient river Rohâni; for the vast ruins of Kapilavastu lie on its western bank, whilst the Lumbini garden, the modern Rummindel, is just to the south-east of it.

In an old Buddhist dialogue Kapilavastu is described as a prosperous, flourishing town, and well provided with food, whose narrow streets are thronging with elephants, carriages, horses and people. "The capital was neither by day nor night without the ten noises, viz. the noise of elephants, the noise of horses, the noise of chariots, the noise of drums, the noise of tabours, the noise of lutes, the noise of song,
the noise of cymbals, the noise of gongs, and the tenth noise of people crying: eat ye and drink!" An old poem in the Sutta-nipata (c. 1012) describes the route taken by some wandering Brähman ascetics, who travel from Kosambi to Sāketa, thence to Sāvatthi, Setthiyā, Kapilavattthu, further to Kusināra, Pāvā, and Vesāli. The Ambattha-sutta further mentions the disinclination of the Sākyas to show hospitality to the Brähman ascetics who came to their settlement from Śravasti or other parts of India. That Kapilavastu is not mentioned in the great epic literature of the Brähmans is easily to be accounted for, as the scenes represented in the Mahābhārata and Rāmāyaṇa mostly take place in the western parts of the peninsula, there being no need for references to the eastern portions of the country, and as Kapilavastu had already been razed to the ground during the lifetime of the Buddha. Notwithstanding all these important evidences, Monsieur E. Senart1 still doubts the very existence of Kapilavastu and sees in it but la ville, la forteresse de l'atmosphère. The name of Kapilavastu evidently signifies "the tawny coloured town," being situated on the Rohaṇṭ, or "the red river." As a curious fact it may here be mentioned that the whole surface of the soil, surrounding the present ruins of this ancient city, is of a reddish yellow colour produced by deep deposits of carbonate of iron in the upper strata. Its etymological derivation can, therefore, not be the town of the Rishi Kapila,2 the celebrated founder of the Śāṅkhya philosophy, which, moreover, was Kāpila-sṭhāna, the modern Hardwār on the Ganges.

It would appear from the oldest texts that the country of the Śākyas was after all only a petty Rājput State, measuring about eighty miles in length and about forty in breadth, and covering thus an area of about 2,400 miles well suited for rice cultivation,3 and that the Buddha's father was rather a feudal baron or chieftain of a small clan, than an actual king. It is only the newer tradition that extols the power and wealth which the Buddha gave up on renouncing worldly ties. To the east their country was separated by the Rohaṇṭ river from that of the Kolīyas; to the west and south their rule extended almost as far as the Ācīravati, the modern Rāpti, their neighbours being the powerful Kosalas of Śravasti; in the north they occupied the fertile and well-wooded slopes of the present Nepālese Sub-Himalayas. Besides Kapilavastu, the canonical books mention the following towns and villages as situated amongst the Śākyas or Sakkas:—Chātumā (Majjhima-nikāya, sutta 67), the market-town Khomadussa (Sāṅgutta-nikāya, ed. by Léon Feer, Volume I, page 184), Meṭalupā (Dhamma-chetiyasutta, Majjhima-nikāya), Sāmagāma (Sutta 104, Majjhima-nikāya), Saṃsūmāra (Ceylonese and Burmese accounts), and Uḷumā (Buddaghoshcha's Commentary to the Dhammapada, page 222). At the present state of our knowledge of the Tarāi it is almost impossible to identify these localities with any certainty; although the modern Sāma Devi, about 1½ miles north-west of Taulihā (Plate II), may eventually turn out to be the ancient Sāmagāma. The canonical books of the

---
1 Essai sur la légende de Bouddha, 2ième édition, Paris, 1882, page 443.
3 The names of King Śuddhadana, "Pure-rice," and his four brothers, "Clear-rice," "Strong-rice," "White-rice," and "Immeasurable-rice," show the importance of this cultivation to the Śākyas, see Oldenburg, Buddha, page 71, note.
various sects amongst the Southern as well as the Northern Buddhists speak of the great opulence of the country and mention the immense hoards of gold which the royal family and the nobility of the land had amassed. The pride and haughtiness of the Śākyas or Sakkas was proverbial amongst the neighbouring people, and the Brāhman pilgrims, who occasionally visited their capital, had to tell many a bitter tale of their scornful behaviour towards them. The fact that the Śākyas were real forest and hill Rājputs is not without importance for their history and the explanation of their strange un-Āryan customs. It makes their assertion that their ancestors were forcibly ejected from the more civilized regions in the South very credible, though the truth of the cause of their banishment, as stated in the Ambattha-sutta, may be doubted. Further, their isolation in the forests may have led, as the sacred books allege, to their custom of endogamy, so repugnant to all Rājputs and to all the higher castes in India. And this custom, not their pride of race, as they themselves asserted, was no doubt the reason why the other royal families of Northern India did not intermarry with them. This isolation and the consequent estrangement from the rest of the Hindū population probably accounts also for their disinclination to show hospitality to the wandering Brāhman ascetics, who in the course of their pilgrimages came to their country. Their religion, however, seems to have been the ordinary type of Śaivism. Hiuen Tsang, as will be stated hereafter, was still shown near the eastern gate of Kapilavastu, the old temple of Jāvara (Plate I, No. 17), where the infant Siddhārtha was taken by his father, because “the Śākya children, who here seek divine protection, always obtain what they ask.” According to the legend, the stone image raised itself and saluted the Prince. Mr. Beal (Si-yu-ki, Volume II, page 23, Note 59), has correctly recognized that the scene is represented on the Amārāvatī stūpa in Fergusson’s Tree and Serpent Worship, Plate LXIX. The legend is therefore ancient, and points to the conclusion that Śiva was the kuladevad of the Śākyas.

A few years before the parinirvāṇa of the Buddha, the Śākya clan met with a sad fate. King Pasenadi, or Prasenajit, of Kosala had a son Viḍūḍabha (also called Viṣṇuḥaka), by Vāsabhakkhattiyā, the natural daughter of Mahānāma, the successor of Ādam nuclea in Kapilavastu, and of a slave girl. It was by deceit that Vāsabhakkhattiyā had been aligned by the Śākyas. When the trick afterwards was discovered, and Viḍūḍabha had been slighted by the Śākyas, he resolved to take revenge. With the assistance of the Commander-in-Chief, Dīgha-Kārāyaṇa (or Dirgha-Chārāyaṇa) he deposed his father Prasenajit, who fled from Śrāvasti and died soon afterwards. Viḍūḍabha marched against Kapilavastu and on his way found the Buddha seated under an old withered śākata-tree. It afforded him no shade; but he told Viḍūḍabha that “the thought of the danger of his relatives and kindred made it shady.” The king was moved to sympathy for the time, and went back to Śrāvasti; but the destruction of Kapilavastu was only postponed for a short space, and the Buddha acknowledged it to be inevitable in the connection of cause and effect. Shortly afterwards, Viḍūḍabha resumed the campaign, in consequence of which Kapilavastu is said to have been totally destroyed and the whole Śākya clan exterminated. This extirpation of the whole clan can, however, not have been of much importance, as only a short time
later on we find the Śākyas of Kapilavastu putting forward a claim for obtaining the possession of a portion of the relics collected from the funeral pile of the Lord near the shrine Makuta-banda at Kusināra.

The Chinese pilgrim Fa Hien, who visited Kapilavastu about A.D. 406, gives us the following meagre, though interesting, description of its ruins:—"Less than a yojana to the east from this (i.e. Buddha Koṇāgamana’s Nirvāṇa-Stūpa) brought the travellers to the city of Kapilavastu (i.e. the city of beautiful virtue); but in it there was neither king nor people. All was mound and desolation. Of inhabitants there were only some monks and a score or two of families of common people. At the spot where stood the old palace of king Śuddhodana (i.e. the king white and pure,) there have been made images of the Prince and his mother; and at the places where that son appeared mounted on a white elephant when he entered his mother’s womb, and where he turned his carriage round on seeing the sick man after he had gone out of the city by the eastern gate [Plate I, No. 4], stūpas [read vihāras] have been erected. The places (were also pointed out) where (the rishi) Ā-śītā, inspected the marks (of Buddhāship on the body) of the heir-apparent (when an infant); where, when he was in company with Nānāda and others, on the elephant being struck down and drawn on one side, he tossed it away [Plate I, No. 1]; where he shot an arrow to the south-east, and it went a distance of thirty li, then entering the ground and making a spring to come forth [Plate I, No. 19], which men subsequently fashioned into a well from which travellers might drink; where after he had attained to enlightenment, Buddha returned and saw the king, his father [Plate I, No. 15]; where five hundred Śākyas quitted their families and did reverence to Upālī, while the earth shook and moved in six different ways; where Buddha preached his Law to the Devas, and the four Deva kings and others kept the four doors (of the hall), so that (even) the king, his father, could not enter; where Buddha sat under a nyagrodha-tree [Ficus indica], which is still standing, with his face to the east, and (his aunt) Mahā-prajāpatī presented him with a saṅghāṭī; and (where) king Vaiḍūrya [Viḍūryaka or Virūḍhaka] slew the seed of Śākyā, and they all in dying became santaṇas. A stūpa was erected at this last place, which is still existing.

"Several li north-east from the city was the king’s field, where the heir apparent sat under a tree and looked at the ploughers [Plate I, No. 12].

"The country of Kapilavastu is a great scene of empty desolation. The inhabitants are few and far between. On the roads people have to be on their guard against white elephants and lions, and should not travel incautiously."

---

1 Legge, L.c., pages 64-67; Giles, L.c., pages 49-50.
2 This direction is incorrect, as Kapilavastu lies between five and six miles north-west of Aloka’s monolith, see Chapter III.
3 Upālī was a śīsta by birth and by profession a baṣkara, before his conversion to Buddhāsm; thus from the first did Buddhāsm assert its superiority to the conditions of rank and caste. Upālī was distinguished by his knowledge of the rules of discipline and praised on that account by the Buddhā. He was one of three leaders of the first general council held at Jātis Gaga shortly after the demise of the Master, and the principal compiler of the Vinayarajjātaka.
4 A saṅghāṭi is a kind of cloak, the double or composite robe of a monk, reaching from the shoulders to the knees and being fastened round the waist.
5 The santaṇa is he who has entered the first stage on the road towards deliverance, or Nirvāṇa. He has got rid of the first three bonds of human passion, and the doors of the states of punishments are shut for him.
6 This stūpa, commemorating the slaughter of the 800 Śākya maidens, who had refused to take their place in king Viḍūryaka’s harem, was at Sārvaṇa, and not at Kapilavastu; compare Hiuen Tsiang’s Si-yu-ki, Volume II, page 12.
Hiuen Tsang,\textsuperscript{1} who visited Kapilavastu about A. D. 636, is as usual more communicative in his account of that place. "The country is about 4,000 li [or about 666\textsuperscript{2} miles] in circuit. There are some ten desert cities [apparently the villages and towns mentioned \textit{supra}] in this country, wholly desolate and ruined. The capital is overthrown and in ruins. Its circuit cannot be accurately measured. The royal precincts [\textit{i.e.} the fortified interior city, \textit{see Plate I}] within the [exterior] city measure some 14 or 15 li round. They were all built of brick. The foundation walls are still strong and high. It has been long deserted. The inhabited suburbs or streets are few and waste. There is no supreme ruler; each of the towns appoints its own ruler. The ground is rich and fertile, and is cultivated according to the regular season. The climate is uniform, the manners of the people soft and obliging.

"There are a thousand or more ruined \textit{sāṅghārāma} (monasteries) remaining; by the side of the royal precincts there is still a \textit{sāṅghārāma} with about 3,000 (read 30) followers in it, who study the Little Vehicle [\textit{Hinayāna}] of the \textit{Sammatiya} school. There are a couple of Deva temples, in which various sectaries worship. Within the royal precincts are some ruined foundation walls; these are the remains of the principal palace of \textit{Śuddhodana-rajā}; above it is built a \textit{Vihāra} in which is a statue of the king. Not far from this is a ruined foundation, which represents the sleeping palace of Mahāmāyā, the queen. Above this they have erected a \textit{Vihāra} in which is a figure of the queen. By the side of this is a \textit{Vihāra}; this is where the Bodhisattva descended spiritually into the womb of his mother. There is a representation of this scene drawn in the \textit{Vihāra}. The \textit{Mahāsāṃghika} school say that the Bodhisattva was conceived on the 30th night of the month \textit{Uttarāśaṅkha}. The other schools fix the event on the 23rd day of the same month. To the north-east of the palace of the spiritual conception is a \textit{sātā}; this is the place where \textit{Asita}, the \textit{rīkṣi}, prognosticated the fortune of the royal prince.

"At the south gate of the city is a \textit{sātā} (Plate I, No. 1). This is where the royal prince, when contending with the Śākya princes, cast the elephant away. The royal prince, having contended in the public competitions (\textit{of arts and athletic exercises}) was left entirely without compeer in every exercise [Plate I, No. 18]. And now the Mahārāja Śuddhodana, after congratulating him, was about to go back to the city. At this time the coachman was leading out the elephant and just about to leave the city. \textit{Devadatta},\textsuperscript{2} confident as ever in his brute strength, was just entering the gate from without; forthwith he asked the coachman, 'who is going to ride on this gaily caparisoned elephant?' He said, 'the royal prince is just about to return, therefore I am going to meet him.' Devadatta in an excited manner pulled the elephant down, and struck his forehead and kicked his belly, and left him lying senseless, blocking the way so that no one could pass. As they could not move him out of the way, the passers-by were stopped on their route. \textit{Nanda},\textsuperscript{3} coming

\textsuperscript{1} \textit{Beal, l. c., Volume II, pages 13-24.}

\textsuperscript{2} \textit{Devadatta is in Pali texts the brother of \textit{Yakūdhāra}, hence Śāhārtha's brother-in-law. He became, however, the deadly enemy of \textit{Buddha Kāyanama}, whose growing fame and influence filled him with jealousy. He had become so in an earlier state of existence, and the hatred continued in every successive birth through which they experienced in the world. The elephant had been presented to Prince Śāhārtha by the \textit{Līkeśvara} of \textit{Yakūdhāra}, and was killed by \textit{Devadatta}, out of envy, with the blow of his fist.}

\textsuperscript{3} \textit{Nanda was Gautama Buddha's younger half-brother, his mother being Mahāprajapati.}
NEPAL: KAPILAVASTU. 41

afterwards, asked, ‘who has killed the elephant?’ They said, ‘it was Devadatta.’ Forthwith Nanda drew it on one side of the road. The prince-royal then coming, again asked, ‘who had done the foul deed of killing the elephant?’ They replied, ‘Devadatta killed it and blocked up the gate with it, and Nanda drew it on one side to clear the road.’ The royal prince then lifted the elephant on high and threw it across the city moat; the elephant falling on the ground caused a deep and wide ditch; the people since then have commonly called it ‘the fallen-elephant ditch’ [hastigarta].

“By the side of this [i.e. the elephant-throwing stūpa] is a vihāra in which is a figure of the royal prince. By the side of this again is a Vihāra [Plate I, No. 2]; this was the sleeping apartment of the queen and the prince; in it is a likeness of Yośodharā and (the child) Rāhu nā. By the side of the queen’s chamber is a vihāra with a figure of a pupil receiving his lessons; this indicates the old foundation of the school-house of the royal prince. At the south-east angle of the city is a vihāra [Plate I, No. 3] in which is the figure of the royal prince riding a white and high-prancing horse; this was the place where he left the city. Outside each of the four gates of the city there is a vihāra [Plate I, Nos. 4-7], in which there are respectively figures of an old man, a diseased man, a dead man, and a śramaṇa. It was in these places the royal prince, on going his rounds, beheld the various indications, on which he received an increase of (religious) feeling, and deeper disgust at the world and its pleasures; and filled with this conviction, he ordered his coachman to return and go home again.

“To the north-east of the city about 40 li is a stūpa [Plate I, No. 12]. This is the spot where the prince sat in the shade of a tree to watch the ploughing festival. Here he engaged in profound meditation and reached the condition of ‘absence of desire.’ The king seeing the prince in the shade of the tree and engrossed in quiet contemplation, and observing that whilst the sun’s rays shed their bright light around him, yet the shadow of the tree did not move, his heart, recognising the spiritual character of the prince, was deeply reverent.

“To the north-west of the capital there are several hundreds and thousands of stūpas [Plate I, No. 13], indicating the spot where the members of the Śākya tribe were slaughtered. Vīruḍhaka-rāja having subdued the Śākyas, and captured the members of their tribe to the number of 9,990 myriads [1] of people, then ordered them to be slaughtered. They piled their bodies like straw, and their blood was collected in lakes. The Devas moved the hearts of men to collect their bones and bury them.

“To the south-west of the place of massacre are four little stūpas [Plate I, No. 14]. This is the place where the four Śākyas withstood an army. When first Prasena jīt became king, he sought an alliance by marriage with the Śākya race. The Śākyas despised him as not of their [holy] family, and so deceived him by giving him as a wife a child of a servant, whom they largely endowed. Prasenjit-rāja established her as his principal queen, and she brought forth in due time a son, who

---

1 The Jātaka (Volume IV, page 144) relates that Viddabhā, as a just punishment for his crime, miserably perished, along with his Kosal army, by a sudden flood. Hsien Tzang, however, says (Si-pu-ki, Volume II, page 19), that the king after his return to Śravasti went down bodily into hell in the middle of a lake.
was called Virūḍhaka-rāja. And now Virūḍhaka was desirous to go to the family of his maternal uncles to pursue his studies under their direction. Having come to the south part of the city, he there saw a new preaching-hall, and there he stopped his chariot. The Śākyas hearing of it, forthwith drove him away, saying: 'how dare you, base-born fellow! occupy this abode, an abode built by the Śākyas, intended for an abode of the Buddha?' After Virūḍhaka had succeeded to the throne, he longed to revenge his former insult; he therefore raised an army and occupied this place with his troops, who took possession of the fields. Four men of the Śākyas who were engaged in ploughing between the rills dividing the fields, immediately opposed the progress of the soldiers, and, having scattered them, entered the town. Their clansmen, considering that their tribe was one in which there had been a long succession of universal monarchs, and that the honourable children of such righteous kings\(^1\) had dared to act cruelly and impetuously, and without patience to kill and slay, and so had brought disgrace on their family, drove them away from their home. The four men, having been banished, went to the north among the Snowy Mountains: one became king of the country of Bāmiyān [in Afghanistan], one of Udyanā, or Ujjāna, one of Rimatāla [Bodakshān], and one of Sambh. They have transmitted their kingly authority from generation to generation without any interruption.

"To the south of the city three or four li is a grove of nyagrodha-trees, in which is a stāpa built by Asoka-rāja [Plate I, No. 15]. This is the place where Śākya Tathāgata, having returned to his country after his enlightenment, met his father and preached the Law. Suddodana-rāja, knowing that the Tathāgata had defeated Māra and was engaged in travelling about, leading people to the truth and converting them, was moved by a strong desire to see him, and considered how he could pay the reverence due to him. He therefore sent a messenger to invite the Tathāgata, saying: 'formerly you promised, when you had completed your purpose to become a Buddha, to return to your native place. These are your words still unperformed; now then is the time for you to condescend to visit me.' The messenger having come to the place where the Buddha was, expressed to him the king's desire. The Tathāgata in reply said, 'after seven days I shall return to my native place.' The messenger, returning, acquainted the king with the news, on which Suddodana-rāja ordered his subjects to prepare the way by watering and sweeping it, and to adorn the road with incense and flowers; and then, accompanied by his officers of state, he proceeded 40 li [about 6½ miles] beyond the city, and there drew up his chariot to await his arrival. Then the Tathāgata with a great multitude advanced; the eight Vajrapāyas surrounded him as an escort, the four heavenly kings went before him; divine Śakra with a multitude of Devas belonging to the world of desires (kāmaloka) took their place on the left hand; Brahmā-rāja with the Devas of the rūpaloka ['the region of form,' the second region of the cosmical system of the Buddhists; the lowest being the region of Kāma, or sensual pleasure] accompanied him on the right. The bhikṣu priests walked in order behind; the Buddha by himself, as the full moon among the stars, stood in the midst; his supreme spiritual presence shone the three worlds, the brightness of his

\(^1\) The idea is that Śākyas children, descended from holy kings, ought not to have resisted even an invader.
person exceeded that of the seven lights [the sun, moon and five planets]; and thus traversing the air he approached his native country. The king and ministers having revered him, again returned to the city, and they located themselves in this nyagrodha grove.

"By the side of the saūghārāma, and not far from it, is a stāpa; this is the spot where the Tathāgata sat beneath a great tree with his face to the east and received from his aunt [Mahāprajāpati] a golden-tissued kāśāya garment. A little farther on is another stāpa; this is the place where Tathāgata converted six princes [Anuruddha, Bhaddiya, Ānanda, Bhagu, Kimbila, and Devadatta] and five hundred Śākyas.

"Within the eastern gate of the city, on the left of the road, is a stāpa [Plate I, No. 16]; this is where Prince Siddhārtha practiced (athletic sports and competitive) arts.

"Outside the gate is the temple of Īśvara-deva [Plate I, No. 17]. In the temple is a figure of the Deva made of stone, which has the appearance of rising in a bent position. This is the temple which the royal prince when an infant (in swaddling clothes) entered. King Sudhodana was returning from the Lumbini garden after having gone to meet the prince. Passing by this temple the king said: 'This temple is noted for its many spiritual exhibitions (miracles). The Śākya children who here seek divine protection always obtain what they ask: we must take the royal prince to this place and offer up our worship.' At this time the nurse (foster-mother), carrying the child in her arms, entered the temple; then the stone image raised itself and saluted the prince. When the prince left, the image again seated itself.

"Outside the south gate of the city, on the left of the road, is a stāpa [Plate I, No. 18]; it was here the royal prince contended with the Śākyas in athletic sports (arte) and pierced with his arrows the iron targets.

"From this thirty li south-east is a small stāpa [Plate I, No. 19]. Here there is a fountain, the waters of which are as clear as a mirror. Here it was, during the athletic contest, that the arrow of the prince, after penetrating the targets, fell and buried itself up to the feather in the ground, causing a clear spring of water to flow

---

1 Shortly after the death of king Sudhodana, the Buddha's aunt and step-mother Mahāprajāpati Gautamī desired to forsake the world and embrace a religious life. Therefore she went to the Lord, who was then sojourning in the Līkāya grove at Kapilavastu, and asked to become a nun. But the Buddha refused, because he would not admit females into the order, and returned to Vaśkī. Far from giving up her design, the widowed Queen and many other Śākya ladies cut off their hair, put on yellow garments and went on foot to Vaśkī. When these ladies, with swollen feet and covered with dust, sorrowful, sad and tearful, stood weeping outside in the entrance porch of the Kāgāra hall, they were seen by Ānanda [the body-servant and favorite disciple of Buddha Gautamī], who, having ascertained the object of their journey, went to the Master and pleaded in their favor. At first the Buddha was unwilling to admit women into the congregation; but last, however, at the entreaty of Ānanda, who remembered him of the motherly care of Mahāprajāpati, he gave his consent, but on the condition that she should accept eight important regulations (purāṇikama). Mahāprajāpati gladly promised to accept these eight weighty regulations, not to be transgressed as long as life shall last; whereupon she with all the other Śākya ladies became nuns. Although the Master had acceded to the wishes of Ānanda, he was fully aware of the dangerous consequences attending on the institution of the Order of Nuns. "If, Ānanda, women had not retired from household life to the houseless one, under the Doctrine and Discipline announced by the Tathāgata, religion would long endure; a thousand years would the good Doctrine and Discipline endure; a thousand years would the good Doctrine and Discipline endure; and five hundred years will the good Doctrine abide. Just as, Ānanda, those women which consent to the dangerous consequences attending on the institution of the Order of Nuns, under the Doctrine and Discipline, which religion does not long endure. And just as, Ānanda, a large lake a man would prudently build a dike in order that the water might not transgress its bounds, in exactly the same way, Ānanda, have I prudently laid down eight weighty regulations not to be transgressed as long as life shall last." His misgiving proved true at the Assemblies of the great events; the ladies, even Mahāprajāpati, were now and then fretful and some time proved true at the great events; the ladies, even Mahāprajāpati, were now and then fretful and some time proved true (see Catuvṛti X, 1-35 (ed. H. Oldenberg. Bulletin of the Jaina Societies, Volume II, London, 1889).

2 The kāśāya, or reddish-yellow garment, is the saūghāya, a kind of cloak, which is folded many times and thrown over the left shoulder, the two ends hanging down before and behind.
forth. Common tradition has called this the arrow-fountain (śarakūpa); persons who are sick, by drinking the water of this spring are mostly restored to health; and so people coming from a distance taking back with them some of the mud (moist earth) of this place, and applying it to the part where they suffer pain, mostly recover from their ailments."

The discovery of the Aśoka Edict Pillar in the Lumbini grove at Rummundeei enabled me to fix also, with absolute certainty, the site of Kapilavastu and of the sanctuaries in its neighbourhood. Thanks to the exact notes left by the two Chinese travellers, I discovered its extensive ruins about eighteen miles north-west of the Lumbini Pillar, and about six miles north-west of the Nigāli Sāgar (Plate II), stretching between lat. 27°32′-35′ N. and long. 38°3′-10′ E. in the middle of a dense sāl forest over a length of about seven miles from the villages of Amaili, Baidauli, Haranāmpūr, and Bikuli (north-east) to Śivagarh, Tilaurakoṭ, and Rāmghāṭ on the Bangangā (south-west), and over a breadth of about three to four miles from the villages of Rāmapura, Ahirauli, and Śrīnagar on the south to the villages of Jagdispūr and Nagrāvāh on the north. The whole site is at present as dreary and desolate as when seen by Fa Hian and Hiuen Tsiang; yet every sacred spot mentioned by the two pilgrims can be easily identified. The discovery of this interesting site, therefore, opens out a very wide field indeed to the Indian archaeologist, and cannot but yield the richest results in the near future. The first step to be taken by the Department will be to excavate next cold weather the most important ruins that can be absolutely identified. Special attention will be paid to the Śaiva temple on the eastern face of the old city, the ruins of which are near Bikuli close to the Kotahi Kot, which certainly must be one of the oldest Śaiva monuments of which we have knowledge, and which possesses great interest for the history of the Brahmaical religions. According to Fa Hian, Kapilavastu was already in the fifth century A.D. a vast wilderness of ruins; it was the same in Hiuen Tsiang’s time two hundred years later. The ruins, therefore, have fortunately not been disfigured by late reconstructions, nor have the Musalmān invaders ever touched them. Systematic excavations, if conducted by the Nepāl Government on a large scale, are sure to furnish us with documents and monuments not only of the third century B.C., but of a much earlier period, extending to about the fifth and sixth centuries B.C.
CHAPTER VIII.

THE THÁRUS, THE MODERN DESCENDANTS OF THE SÁKYAS.

Although the Sákyas claim to be the descendants of the mythical Áryan king Ikshvákú or Okkáká, it is not quite improbable that they were in fact primarily an aboriginal, casteless and un-Áryan tribe of Northern India. Shortly after the Buddha’s demise, we find Herodot using the term Sákka as a general designation for the various branches of the Scythian race, and the word may in all probability imply the Sákyas or Sákkas. In any case, the Buddha’s ethnical names of Sákyamuní and Sákyasiṃha would seem to have carried great weight, a few centuries later, with the Sákas or Indo-Scythians, in adopting the Buddhist Faith, especially under the benign rule of king Kanishka, of Sáka or Turushka race, from whom the Saka era dates. The modern offsprings of these Sákyas are probably the Thárus,¹ the present inhabitants of the Taráí and the outer spurs of the Nepálese Sub-Himalayas, who style themselves ban-rájas, or “forest kings,” enjoying the free and easy life of the forests. The Thárus, in fact, pretend to be the direct descendants of the Sun, and they say themselves that they were originally Rájputs, who ran away after the great fight at Hastinápára, and who lost caste by using intoxicating liquor. Their claims to rank are, however, treated with the utmost contempt by the surrounding Hindu population, because they are an abomination to the Bráhmans, as they indulge in all the impurities of eating and drinking. And to this wandering tribe, whose customs have been only slightly modified by contact with those of the Áryan invader, are locally ascribed all the vast Buddhist brick ruins, which are found scattered all over the Taráí. Owing to the intermarriages which have taken place within the last four or five centuries between Tháru men and the Tartar Highland women, the physiognomy of the Tháru tribe has acquired in some instances a slightly Mongolian cast, which shows itself chiefly, but not to a striking degree, in slanting eyes and high cheekbones in some of the women and children (Plate VIII, 1 and 2); whilst in the men the physical characteristics are as a rule of the strictly Indian type. They have long, wavy hair, a dark, almost black, complexion; in stature, build and gait they are distinctly Indian and not Mongolian; nor have they any traditions which connect their origin with the Tartar Highland races. Their marriage customs are governed by the rule of tribal exogamy; in other words, the bride must not be a blood relation to the husband chosen for her, nor of the same village, but of some outside village or clan. Wife-capture is secretly practised to some extent amongst the Thárus; and this practice may explain the slightly Mongolian cast of face which has now become rather common, though not universal, among the Tháru tribe. Polygamy, divorce in the form of the expulsion from the house of the faithless wife with the approval of the council, widow marriage, and the levirate under the usual restrictions are all allowed. Divorced women can marry again like

¹ Compare also, Crooke, The Tribes and Castes of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, Calcutta, 1890, Volume IV, pages 298-408.
widows, and both classes are distinguished by the title *urari*, or “selected,” from women who were married as virgins by the full ritual. The social status of a married widow or *disorcide* is, however, inferior to that of a regularly-married wife; but for the purposes of succession both rank alike.

The religion of the more primitive branches of the Thārus is based on a belief in ghosts or demons (*bhūts*) lurking in the forest trees and the spirits of the dead (*préts*); whilst the Thārus of the plains, who have taken to agriculture, are becoming rapidly Hindūized. The women do the largest part of the sowing, weeding and harvesting; whilst the men engage in hunting and fishing, which they regard as the proper occupation of their sex. Their villages are from one to two miles distant from each other, and the houses are all made of wood or grass. The outside grass walls of each house are plastered over with red mud; they never use cowdung for this or other household purposes as is usual with the Indian people outside the jungle and forests. The houses are large, cool and commodious, and generally raised on poles, in order to protect the inmates from damp and malaria. They contain large jars of red clay in which food grains and seed rice are kept (Plate VII). Every little village is a self-governing community. Disputes are decided by a council of elders, and this is sometimes presided over by a head-man. The office of head-man or *chaudhāri*, is not hereditary; the man selected is one whose age, experience and knowledge of the magical and medicinal arts entitle him to more respect than the rest; and he acquires the status of head-man by tacit consent and not by formal election. The decisions of the council or the head-man are obeyed unreservedly; litigation between Thārus and Hindūs is equally unknown. Amongst themselves the Thārus are, for the most part, a peaceful and good-natured race, following without question, as if by a law of nature, the customs and maxims of their ancestors. The honesty of the Thārus is proverbial. It is said that when a family flies into the hills, they will always leave any arrears of rent that may be due tied up in a rag to the lintel of their deserted house. Like all secluded races, the Thārus are notorious for witchcraft, and in the plains Thārakat or “the Thāru country” is a synonym for witch-land. Every Thāru woman, after the marriageable age, is supposed by those who live outside the Thāru country to possess the power of the Evil Eye to bewitch and enchant; so that she has the power to turn a stranger into a wild animal or destroy him slowly by consumptive fever. This is one of the reasons why all natives of India outside the Tarāl forests dread the Thārus and fear to live amongst them.
CHAPTER IX.

HISTORICAL CONCLUSIONS.

For the student of Buddhism and early Indian History the discoveries already made yield some valuable results. It is now evident that the kingdom of the Śākyas lay, as their legends recount, on the lower slopes of the Himalayas, and that they were, as they too admit, forest and hill Rājputs exiled from the more civilized districts. Their settlement in the Tarāi and hill-forests must have separated them from their brethren further south and west. Their isolation no doubt forced them to develop the entirely non-Āryan and non-Indian custom of endogamy, as well as other habits not in accordance with those of their kindred. This explains also the reason why intermarriages between them and the other noble families of Northern India did not take place. It was not, as their tradition says, their pride of blood which prevented such alliances, but the stigma attaching to exiles who had departed from the customs of their race, and were not even free from a strong admixture of non-Āryan blood.

For the history of Aśoka, the Rummindei and Nigliva Pillar Edicts teach us that the Emperor in the 21st year after his coronation, or in the 25th year of his reign, visited the sacred places of the Buddhists in Northern India, at the suggestion of his spiritual adviser, Sthavira Upagupta, who alone in the whole country at that time seems to have possessed the knowledge of the whereabouts of the Lumbini grove. Most probably Aśoka visited on this occasion not only the Lumbini garden, Kapilavastu, the Nirvana-stūpas of Buddha Kusinara and Kraukechanda, but also further east the site of Gautama Buddha’s parinirvāṇa at Kusinara and Rāmagama, and further west the old town of Sravasti, in several of which localities pillars with his inscriptions were still existing in Huien Tsang’s time. Aśoka’s route from his capital of Pāṭaliputra towards the Tarāi is perhaps marked by the series of pillars extending from Bakhra near Vaśāli (Besar) through Radhiā (Ararāj) and Mathiā (Navandgarh) to Rām purvā in the Champāran district of the Bengal Presidency, close to the Tarāi, most of which were later on inscribed with the so-called Pillar Edicts. The fact that Aśoka undertook such a journey may be interpreted as indicating that he was at that time a believing Buddhist; but it may also be looked upon as one of the dharmagātās, or “religious tours,” which, according to the eighth Rock Edict, the Emperor undertook regularly since the eleventh year after his anointment, or in the fifteenth year of his reign, in order “to obtain enlightenment.” The fact that he planted a number of pillars all over the Tarāi indicates that also this district belonged then to his extensive Empire.

Thus all the sacred Buddhist sites in the western portion of the Nepālese Tarāi, mentioned by the Chinese pilgrims, have been satisfactorily identified. Some others, particularly Rāmagrāma and Kusinara, will probably be found during the cold season of 1897-98 in the eastern portion of the Nepālese lowlands.
I conclude this monograph with the following suitable words uttered by the wandering ascetic, Vācchāgotta, in the Majjhima-nikāya, sutta 72:—"It is as if, oh Gautama, there were a mighty sal-tree near to some village or town, and it were to lose its dead branches and twigs, and its loose shreds of bark, and its unsound wood, so that afterwards, free from those branches and twigs, and the loose shreds of bark, and the unsound wood, it were to stand neat and clean in its strength. In exactly the same way does the word of Gautama, free from branches and twigs, and from loose shreds of bark, and from unsound wood, stand neat and clean in its strength. It is as if, oh Gautama, one were to set up that which was overturned; or were to disclose that which was hidden; or were to point out the way to a lost wanderer; or were to carry a lamp into a dark place, that they who have eyes might see forms. Even so has Gautama Buddha expounded the Doctrine in many ways."
[ADVERTISEMENT]

ARCHAEOLOGICAL SURVEY OF INDIA.

THE SHARQI ARCHITECTURE OF JAUNPUR,

WITH

NOTES ON ZAFARABAD, SAHET-MAHET, AND OTHER PLACES IN THE N.-W. P. & OUDH.

By Dr. A. FÜHRER, Ph.D., and EDMUND W. SMITH, Architect.

Edited by JAS. BURGESS, L.L.D., C.I.E.,

Director-General of the Archaeological Survey of India.


Price Rs. 16.

CALCUTTA.—Superintendent of Government Printing, India.

"The finely illustrated Volume issued under this title forms the first of a New Series of Reports begun after the reorganisation of the Archaeological Surveys in Upper India in 1885; and if the work is to be continued on the same scale and with the same thoroughness of illustration, we may look to see at last something like an adequate illustration of a considerable portion at least of the immense and magnificent Architectural Remains of the Indian Peninsula. . . . We recommend it to the attention of all students of Architecture as a book worth possessing, containing some of the best illustrations of Indian Architecture that have yet appeared. It is to be hoped that similar volumes, illustrating other branches of the Architectural Remains in India, will appear in due course."

"This Volume is an eminently businesslike production, of practical value to the Architect and Archæologist and possessed of many attractions from the historical and the artistic points of view, rendering the book instructive and interesting to the educated public in general . . . . . It is the first volume of Archaeological Reports on Upper India which is of any distinct use to the practical Englishman, whether Architect, Historian, or Manufacturer . . . . .

"The Government may properly be urged and expected to continue this Survey in the North-Western Provinces, and to utilise the Architectural Members of the Survey, moreover, in advising and controlling a reasonable conservation of Historical Monuments in the Indian Empire."—R. Institute of British Architects' Journal, 19th June 1890.

"The first Volume of Dr. Burgess' New Series is a scholarly and exhaustive Monograph on a special and well-defined Architectural period. It is published in the form of a handsome quarto . . . . supplying a valuable and interesting record of the History and Architecture of Jaunpur, a city which for nearly a century vied with Imperial Delhi both in power and splendour.

"Unlike the majority of the volumes in the former Series, the Report is one of which the Government has no reason to be ashamed, and it may be safely recommended to any one interested, either specially in Jaunpur, or generally in Indian Architecture, as an adequate and trustworthy source of information."—The Pioneer.


THE MONUMENTAL ANTIQUITIES AND INSCRIPTIONS IN THE N.-W. PROVINCES AND OUDH:

DESCRIBED AND ARRANGED

By Dr. A. FÜHRER, Ph.D.,

Archaeological Surveyor, N.-W. Provinces and Oudh.


"We have now in a handy form a series of lists of all the notable Antiquities of the Provinces arranged under the districts where they are found, and accompanied not only with references to all easily accessible sources of further information, but with a set of really workmanlike Indices."—The Pioneer, September 25th, 1891.

"In this large volume Dr. Führer has given a very full account of the remains at each place, with references to all sources of information, the whole being carefully classified with complete Indices."—Memoir on the Indian Surveys, 1875—1890.
THE MOGHUL ARCHITECTURE OF FATHPUR SIKRI:

By EDMUND W. SMITH,

Architectural Surveyor, N.-W. Provinces and Oudh.

Part I, with 120 Plates, Rs. 20.
Part II, with 162 Plates, Rs. 14.
Part III, with 97 Plates, Rs. 20.

ALLAHABAD—GOVERNMENT PRESS, N.-W. P. AND OUDH.

"At last an adequate beginning of a fairly complete and authoritative description of the magnificent building at and near Agra has been made. Nothing approaching to a scientific or reasonably satisfactory description of the Taj and other great edifices at Agra exists. The notices in Cunningham's Series of Archæological Reports are feeble, inane, and all but useless; and we fear that we must wait long for the costly and elaborate work which is needed to render the results of a thorough survey of the Fort, the Taj, the Mausoleum of Sikandra, and the other architectural wonders which adorn Agra and its environs. Dr. Burgess, before his retirement, decided that since it was not possible to do everything, it was more advisable to begin with Fathpur-Sikri than with Agra itself; and it was accordingly decreed that 'the wonderful and beautiful city founded by Akbar at Fathpur-Sikri, and often likened to Pampell,' should be surveyed.

In the course of four seasons Mr. Edmund W. Smith, the very capable officer in charge of the Architectural Branch of the Archæological Survey, assisted by a well-trained staff of native draughtsmen, has made an elaborate survey of the Great Moghul's palace city. The first instalment of the results of his work lies before us in a handsome quarto volume, illustrated by one hundred and twenty-five full-page plates, of which some are drawings and others photo-etchings.

"The size of the work prevents its publication in one volume. The first part now published deals with the Mahal-i-Khas, including Akbar's bed-room, the Peacock Mahal, the Diwan-i-Khas, and a few other buildings; the second part deals with Raja Bir Bal's house and the palace of Jodh Bal'; the third will treat of Salim Chishti's shrine, the Turkish baths, and many other edifices; and the fourth part will be devoted to the Great Mosque. Both the third and fourth parts will be enriched with coloured illustrations of the mural decoration and inlaid work. The volume now issued contains ten coloured plates, reproducing fresco paintings and ornamental work, which have been executed by Messrs. Griggs and Son with their usual skill. These frescoes attract little attention from the ordinary visitor, and are now so damaged as scarcely to repay the cost and trouble of reproduction. One of the best executed and most intelligible fragments is that on the north wall of Akbar's bed-room, which represents some passengers of distinction taking their pleasure in a sailing boat, apparently on the Jumna. The figures are well drawn in the style affected by the miniature painters. In all the drawings the perspective is very bad. Some of the paintings exhibit distinct and unmistakable traces of Chinese influence. Others seem to be imitations of Japanese motives, and several offer clear evidence of the influence exercised on Akbar's eclectic taste by Christian religious art.

"The best known of the frescoes, that on the western façade of Miriam's House, which the guide points out as a picture of the Annunciation, may possibly be intended to represent that event. But the guide's theory that Miriam, or Mary, was a Christian wife of Akbar, is unsupported by any evidence, and is opposed to the evidence that exists. The queen of Akbar who enjoyed the title of Maryam-un-Zamani, or 'the Mary of the age,' was really the daughter of a Hindoo Raja. Akbar's mother was known by a similar title, Maryam Makani, and there is no more reason for believing Akbar's queen, who bore the court title of Maryam-un-Zamani, to have been a Christian, than there is for believing in the Christianity of his mother. In short, Akbar's Christian queen seems to be the creature of the imagination of guides greedy for bakhshish. But errors fed by bakhshish die hard, and Akbar's Christian queen is bound to reappear frequently for the next hundred years. The Roman Catholic priests insist on believing in her existence, and their congregations, of course, are of the same opinion.

"The celebrated throne-piller in the Diwan-i-Khas is perhaps the most curious of the many marvels at Fathpur. It is adequately illustrated by a dozen well-selected plates. We are by no means disposed to accept Mr. Keene's suggestion that the little building occupied by the throne-piller is the Bādat Khāna, or hall, in which Akbar used to amuse himself with listening to set debates by the professors of rival creeds. The building is far too small for such a purpose, and does not agree well with the recorded description of the Bādat Khāna. It is more probable, as Mr. Smith observes, that the hall lay just outside the private buildings of the palace than inside their precincts, and ruins of an important building exist near the Record Office in a position which would have been very suitable for a hall such as is described by the contemporary historian.
"We must not linger longer over the beauties of Akbar's magnificent, though singularly uncomfortable, palace. We can recommend Mr. Smith's book as an excellent piece of work, thoroughly well done; and can assure our readers that merely as a picture book it is good value for twenty rupees. The printing and paper are first-rate. The binding, also, is of the worst possible quality, and not even fit for a report by a Board of Revenue. When the next part comes out the Local Government should follow the example of Bombay and treat its pretty pictures to a safe and decent covering."—The Pioneer, 12th July 1895.

"The first volume is now before us, and it may be truly said that nothing more interesting or artistic has been published for a long time by the Indian Government... The hundred and twenty large quarto plates, views, and details are excellently reproduced... No architect or artist, and certainly no student of Medieval India, can sufficiently prize the results..."—Morning Post, 5th November 1895.

"This volume is welcomed as the first installment of a more complete illustration of a single important group of Indian sixteenth-century buildings than has hitherto been able to publish... It is most desirable we should have as complete architectural drawings of the more famous buildings in India as we have of those in France, Italy, and other Western countries; and amongst these the Muhammadan architecture, in Upper India especially, presents some splendid examples. Every traveller is familiar with those at Agra, Delhi, and Fatehpur-Sikri; and many visit a place so unique as the latter in its history, in Indian architecture, and present condition... The value of this work lies in these numerous and careful drawings, which afford a full representation of the buildings surveyed and of the marvellous richness of their detail... With this work before him, the student of architecture and Oriental art may judge what a wealth of further information would be afforded were a few other groups of buildings, such as those around Agra and Delhi, &c., similarly surveyed and delineated, while like surveys were made at Abu, Tanjor, Wargohal, and elsewhere in the Peninsular..."—Journal of the Royal Institute of British Architects, 21st November 1895.

"Mr. E. W. Smith has published the second part of his monumental work on Fatehpur-Sikri. We noticed the first part at some length in these columns last year, and need only say that the second part is equally beautiful and well executed."—Pioneer, 10th December 1896.

"Every traveller in India knows the deserted city of Fatehpur-Sikri, within the seven-mile circuit of which is gathered that strangely beautiful medley of buildings, of all styles and plans, and destined for every sort of purpose, which has long been the delight and marvel of artists and architects. That stern critic, James Ferguson, when he stood amongst the empty courts and palaces of the silent city, could only bow down and worship in the terminology of his craft. How keenly he would have enjoyed that admirable volume of drawings and descriptions which Mr. E. W. Smith has consecrated to the remains of Akbar's escorial in the 'Imperial Series' of Reports of the Archæological Survey of India. Mr. Smith need not, we think, he under any apprehension that a single qualified critic will find fault with his work on the ground that 'unnecessary labour has been bestowed' upon it.

"It is impossible to speak in too high praise of the accuracy and beauty of the 120 plates contained in the present installment. Mr. Smith has displayed sound judgment in his selection of subjects.

"The work has been ably seconded by Colonel Waterhouse and his Assistants of the Survey of India Office, where the plans and drawings have been ably reproduced. The photo-engravings are really exquisite.

"Mr. Grigg, too, has shown his usual ability in reproducing the effects of the coloured decorations."—The Athenæum, 24th October 1896.

EPIGRAPHIA INDICA

and Record of the Archæological Survey of India.

Edited by JAS. BURGESS, C.I.E., LL.D., F.R.E.;
Assisted by A. FÜHRER, PH. D., Archæological Surveyor, N. W. Provinces and Ouda.

Volume II (1894). Super-royal 4to, 513 pages, with 32 facsimile Plates. Rs. 16.

Edited by Dr. E. HULTÉSCH, Government Epigraphist.
Volume III (1894-95), 4to, 360 pages, with 38 facsimile Plates. Rs. 24.

Published under the authority of the Government of India as a Supplement to the Indian Antiquary.

CALCUTTA:—Superintendent of Government Printing, India.

"L'idée de réunir en une publication spéciale les inscriptions de plus en plus nombreuses et à mesure qu'elles sont mises au jour par les diverses branches de l'Archæological Survey, est excellente. Il était temps que l'Inde cotât à son tour aux Ephemeris Paléographiques."—A. Farth.
ADVERTISEMENTS.

"A côté des diverses séries de 'Reptera,' dont la marche est fortement peu régulière, M. Burgess a créé un organe périodique, l'Epigraphia Indica, paraissant par trimestre et spécialement réservé aux inscriptions. L'Epigraphie Indienne aura ainsi son Ephemeris avant d'avoir son Corpus. Si M. Burgess arrive de cette manière à centraliser, ne fût-ce que dans une certaine mesure, les travaux épigraphiques actuellement éparsillés dans une infinité de recueils, dont plusieurs sont des publications locales absolument inaccessibles en Europe, il aura rendu une fois de plus un service inestimable aux études Indiennes."—Revue de l'Histoire des Religions.

"Hitherto the student of Indian inscriptions had to search for the records as yet published in the pages of various learned periodicals of India and Europe, besides the volumes of the Archaeological Survey and other independent works. The foundation of a new quarterly exclusively devoted to Epigraphy is sure to meet with a very warm reception, therefore, on the part of all students of Indian History.

"Dr. Burgess has succeeded in securing the assistance of the most competent scholars in every branch of Indian Epigraphy, and the majority of the records published in the first three parts possess an exceptional value and interest."—Prof. J. Jolly, in Trübner's Record.

"At the Congress of Orientalists lately held in London the highest praise was awarded to Dr. Burgess for his share in this undertaking as chief Editor. No higher praise could be accorded here to Dr. Burgess than this statement of the value attached to his labours by so many of the highest Oriental scholars."—The R. I. E. A. Journal, 22nd December 1892.

SOUTH INDIAN INSCRIPTIONS:
COLLECTED, EDITED, AND TRANSLATED
BY E. HULTESCH, PH.D., Government Epigraphist.

Volume I.—Tamil and Sanskrit Inscriptions, chiefly collected in 1886-87. Rs. 6.
Volume II.—Tamil Inscriptions in the Rajarajavar Temple at Tanjore:
Part I.—Inscriptions on the Walls of the Central Shrine; with 4 Plates. Rs. 4.
Part II.—Inscriptions on the Walls of the Enclosures; with 4 Plates. Rs. 5.
Part III.—Supplement to the First and Second Volumes; with eight Plates. Rs. 4.
Volume III.—Miscellaneous Inscriptions from the Tamil Country. In the Press.

MADRAS:—GOVERNMENT PRESS.

"A thoroughly good book, which indisputably advances our knowledge of Southern India to a very considerable extent."

"In scrupulous exactness and true philological method it is, to say the least, equal to the best Epigraphical publications."—Vienne Oriental Journal.

CORPUS INSCRIPTIONUM INDICARUM:

VOL. III.—INSCRIPTIONS OF THE EARLY GUPTA KINGS AND THEIR SUCCESSORS:

By JOHN FAITHFULL FLEET, C.L.R., SO.C.S.

With 45 Plates, Cloth, Rs. 25: without Plates, Rs. 15.

CALCUTTA:—SUPERINTENDENT OF GOVERNMENT PRINTING, INDIA.

THE ANTIQUITIES OF DABHOI IN GUJARAT:

By J. BURGESS, LL.D., C.L.R.,
Director-General of the Archaeological Survey of India,
and
H. COUSENS, M.R.A.,
Superintendent, Archaeological Survey, Western India.

Illustrated by 22 Plates. Large Folio 17 × 14 inches. One Guinea.

EDINBURGH:—GEORGE WATERSTON & SONS.

This handsome volume, illustrative of the Antiquities of the ancient City of Dabhoi, with its splendid Gateways and Temples, has been prepared and published at the expense of His Highness the Mahārāja of Baroda, in whose territory Dabhoi is.
ADVERTISEMENTS.

The Illustrations—more especially the Drawings—will be found to be of permanent importance to all interested in Architecture and Art, as reproducing accurately and to scale very important typical examples of the elaborately sculptured Architecture of India in the Thirteenth Century of our Era. The Drawings are supplemented by collotype reproductions of large photographs, and the whole is described in detail in the letter-press of the Volume.

ARCHEOLOGICAL SURVEY OF SOUTHERN INDIA:

THE BUDDHIST STUPAS OF AMARAVATI AND JAGGAYAPETA:

DESCRIBED AND ILLUSTRATED

By J. BURGESS, LL.D., C.I.E., &C.

With Transcripts and Translations of the Asoka Edicts at Dhami and Jangada:

By Professor G. BÖHLENS, Ph.D., LL.D., C.I.E., Vienna.

With 69 Plates of Sculptures and Inscriptions, mostly Autotypes, and 32 Woodcuts.

Super-royal 4to. Half bound, gilt top, 1887. 5 Guineas.

"Mr. Burgess has recently issued an admirable Monograph on the Buddhist Stūpas at Amaravati and Jaggayapeta, supplementary to the late Mr. Ferguson’s ‘Tree and Serpent Worship,’ and has thus, to some extent, wiped away the reproof of the Southern Presidency."—Quarterly Review, July 1889.

Super-royal 4to. Paper Covers.

SOUTH INDIAN BUDDHIST ANTIQUITIES.

By ALEX. REA, M.R.A.S.,

Superintendent, Archeological Survey, Madras.

With 47 Plates. Price 10 Rs.

CHALUKYAN ARCHITECTURE.

By ALEX. REA, M.R.A.S.,

Superintendent, Archeological Survey, Madras.

With 114 Plates. Price 15 Rs. 8 As.

MADRAS:—GOVERNMENT PRESS.

GUIDE TO BIJAPUR:

By HENRY COUSENS, M.R.A.S.,

Superintendent, Archeological Survey of Western India.

A FULL ACCOUNT OF THE PRINCIPAL BUILDINGS IN AND AROUND THE CITY, WITH AN OUTLINE OF THE HISTORY OF THE ADIL SHAHI KINGS OF BIJAPUR.

144 pages, Cloth: Maps of the City and Environs. Price Rs. 2.

[Published with the sanction of the Government of Bombay.]

BOMBAY:—THOM. COOK & SONS; THACKER & CO. (Limited).

Published by order of Her Majesty’s Secretary of State for India.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL SURVEY OF WESTERN INDIA.

THE CAVE TEMPLES OF INDIA:


Super-royal 8vo. Half Morocco, gilt top, pp. XX and 336, with Map, 99 Plates and 76 Woodcuts. £3.
REPORTS.
By JAS. BURGESS, M.A., G.C.E., &c.
Super-royal 4to. Half Morocco, gilt tops.

Vol. I.—Report of the First Season's Operations in the Belgaum & Kaladgi Districts:
With 56 Photographs and Lithographic Plates, and 6 Woodcuts. £2 2s.

Vol. II.—Report on the Antiquities of Rathnawad and Kachh:
With 74 Photographs and Lithographic Plates, 242 pages. £3 3s.

Vol. III.—Report on the Antiquities of the Bidar and Aurangabad Districts:
With 66 Photographs and Lithographic Plates and 9 Woodcuts. £2 2s.

LONDON:—W. H. ALLEN & CO., Waterloo Place. CALCUTTA:—THACKER, SPINK & CO.
LUSAC & CO., Gt. Russell St. DORAY:—THACKER & CO. (Limited).

VOLUMES IV & V.
Vol. IV.—The Buddhist Caves and their Inscriptions:
With 60 Plates and 25 Woodcuts.

Vol. V.—The Caves of Elura and the other Brahmanical and Jaina Caves in Western India:
With 51 Autotype and other Plates, and 18 Woodcuts.
The two Volumes: Price £0 6s.

LONDON:—KEGAN PAUL, TRENCH, TRUBNER & CO.

MISCELLANEOUS PUBLICATIONS OF THE ARCHAEOLOGICAL SURVEY OF WESTERN INDIA.
4to Demy.

No. 1.—Memorandum on the Buddhist Caves of Junnar: by J. BURGESS, M.A.; and Translations of three Inscriptions from Bidar, Patakal, and Ailohi: by J. F. FLEET, M.C.S., 1874.

No. 2.—Memorandum on the Antiquities at Dabhak, Ahmedabad, and Janargaon, Dharwar, and Dhub; with Appendix of Inscriptions and 30 Plates of Facsimiles: by J. BURGESS, M.A., 1875.

No. 3.—Memorandum on the Remains at Somnath, Cop, and in Kutch: by the same, 1875.

No. 4.—Provisional Lists of Architectural and other Archaeological Remains in Western India: by the same, 1875.

No. 5.—Translations of Inscriptions from Belgaum and Kaladighi Districts: by J. F. FLEET, M.C.S.; and of Inscriptions from Kaladighi and Kachch: by HARI YAMAN LIMAYA, B.A., 1876.


No. 8.—Reports regarding the Archaeological Remains in Nisad, with Plans of Temples: by District Officers, 1879.

No. 9.—Notes on the Bandhuli Rock-Temples of Ajanta, their Paintings and Sculptures; and on the Paintings of the Bagh Caves, Modern Bandhul Mythology and the Sanskrit Inscription at Cintra, with 21 Plates: by J. BURGESS, M.A., 1879.

No. 10.—Inscriptions from the Cave Temples of Western India; with Descriptive Notes, a 500-leaf grant of Murshidum, and three Sanskrit Inscriptions in possession of the American Oriental Society, with 52 Plates: by J. BURGESS, M.A., and BHAGWAN-LAL INDRAJIT PANIOT, PH.D., 1881.

No. 11.—Lists of the Antiquaries Remains in the Bombay Presidency, Sind, and Berar; with an Appendix of Inscriptions from Gujarat, pp. 240; by J. BURGESS, M.A., C.E., 1885. No. 6.

No. 12.—The Caves at Nâtrâ and Karmangâh, with 7 Plates: by HENRY Coungey, M.R.A.S., Archaeological Surveyor of Western India.

Report on the Architectural and Archaeological Remains in the Province of Kachch; with Inscriptions and 10 Native Drawings; by BALDÄRAHM FRANZIIAN KÄRAN; with five pages by the late Sir ALEX. EVANS; edited by J. BURGESS, M.A., &c., 900, pp. 120. (Selections from the Records of Bombay Government, No. 152, 1879).

Notes on Bijapur and Satnur Jays, with two Maps, published as a Government Selection: by HENRY Coungey, M.R.A.S. Price, 1s. 6d.

BOMBAY:—GOVERNMENT CENTRAL PRESS.
THE INDIAN ANTIQUARY:
A JOURNAL OF ORIENTAL RESEARCH IN ARCHEOLOGY, HISTORY, LITERATURE, LANGUAGE,
FOLKLORE, &C., &C.

Volumes I—XIII.—Edited by Dr. J. Burgess.
Volumes XIV—XX.—Edited by Dr. J. Fleet and Major R. C. Temple, I.A.C.
Volumes XXI—XXVI (1897).—Edited by Lieutenant-Colonel R. C. Temple, C.I.E. Annual subscription Rs. 20.

BOMBAY—THE MANAGER, EDUCATION SOCIETY'S PRESS.

CHRISTIAN MONUMENTAL INSCRIPTIONS OF BRITISH INDIA.

Volume I.—List of Inscriptions on Tombs or Monuments in Bengal possessing Historical or Archaeological Interest. Edited by C. E. Wilson, M.A., of the Bengal Educational Service. Calcutta, 1896, pages XL and 248. Folio, Cloth. Price Rs. 5.

Volume II.—List of Christian Tombs and Monuments of Archaeological or Historical Interest and their Inscriptions in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh. Compiled and Annotated by Rev. A. Führer, Ph.D., Archaeological Surveyor, North-Western Provinces and Oudh. Calcutta, 1897, pages 310. Folio, Cloth. Price Rs. 4-8-0.

Superintendent of Government Printing, India.

Volume III.—List of Christian Tombs and Monuments of Archaeological or Historical Interest and their Inscriptions in the Rajputana and Central India Agencies. Compiled and Annotated by Rev. A. Führer, Ph.D., Archaeological Surveyor, North-Western Provinces and Oudh.—In the Press.

FATHPUR-SIKRI PORTFOLIO OF ARCHITECTURAL DRAWINGS.

A SERIES of Architectural Drawings, selected from Mr. Edmund W. Smith's Archeological Report, entitled "The Moghal Architecture of Fathpur-Sikri," has just been published by the North-Western Provinces and Oudh Government in the form of a portfolio.

All the drawings appear amongst others in Mr. Smith's Report; but the Archaeological Survey Reports being restricted to quarto size, many of the drawings are necessarily small; so to increase their usefulness the North-Western Provinces and Oudh Government decided to issue a selection of the drawings to a size which would enable them to be used as diagrams for Schools of Art, Museums, Technical Art Schools, and studies for Architects and Engineers.

The drawings are all to scale, and are of a character and size (22 x 15 inches) admirably suitable for Schools of Art, Technical Art Schools, Architects and Engineers, and are arranged for ready reference in loose sheets done up in portfolio form.

The drawings illustrate the Turkish Solhka's House, Bir Bal's House, Salim Chishti's Tomb, the Great Masjid—which buildings rank amongst the finest examples of Moghal architecture, and were erected by Akbar the Great about the time of Queen Elizabeth. No attempt has been made to illustrate a number of buildings, but the few selected are depicted by an elevation or section elucidated by sufficient details to make the architecture intelligible.

The plates are arranged as follows:

Turkish Solhka's House. Salim Chishti's Tomb.
The Jama Masjid. 55th Bal's House, Agra.

The price of the portfolio, exclusive of carriage and packing, is Rs. 9.