# The Efflorescence of Sanskrit as a medium of communication in some early Bengal Inscriptions (6th century CE onwards)

# Priyankara Bhattacharya\*

Submitted: 26.02.2024 Revised: 10.05.2024 Accepted: 17.06.2024

Abstract: The early medieval inscriptions of Bengal exhibit a rich form of Sanskrit language and distinctive literary style. This particular style of writing in inscriptions invests a different essence which might be interesting to look into as far as the literary cultural milieu in early medieval Bengal is concerned. A regional literary climate had grown probably taking roots from the pan-Indian Sanskritic cultural atmosphere during the Early Medieval period. The first emergence of this regional form of rich Sanskrit language is seen in the 6<sup>th</sup>-7<sup>th</sup> century. Since there was a dearth of literary material in Bengal at that time, these inscriptions are the main source of understanding the language and culture of that period. Here, we will try to focus on the inscriptions of some post-Gupta rulers, for example, Pradyumnabandhu, Gopacandra, Dharmāditya, Samācāradeva, Śaśānka, Bhāskarvarman, Rāta, Nātha and Khaḍgas to understand how this language was being nurtured in Bengal in its early phase. Their rule extended over various sub-regions such as Puṇḍravardhana, Rāḍha, Vaṅga and Samataṭa-Harikela during the 6th-8th centuries CE.

Key Words: Early medieval, Bengal, Inscriptions, Sanskrit, Literary style.

<sup>\*</sup>Ph.D. Scholar, Jadavpur University, West Bengal. e-mail: prim.style@gmail.com

## Introduction

The early medieval inscriptions of Bengal exhibit a rich form of Sanskrit language and distinctive literary style. This particular style of writing in inscriptions invests a different essence which might be interesting to look into as far as the literary cultural milieu in early medieval Bengal is concerned. A regional literary climate had grown probably taking roots from the pan-Indian Sanskritic cultural atmosphere during the Early Medieval period. The first emergence of this regional form of rich Sanskrit language is seen in the 6<sup>th</sup>-7<sup>th</sup> century. Since there was a dearth of literary material in Bengal at that time, these inscriptions are the main source of understanding the language and culture of that period. In the case of early medieval Bengal, inscriptions became a social creation using Sanskrit as the medium. This variety of literary styles was cultivated and flourished within a society. As Sheldon Pollock points out, since this literary culture was expressed through written documents, the task of writing it was entrusted to a specific authority and they were addressed to particular sociotextual communities<sup>2</sup> Although this scenario was not so explicit through this particular phase of inscriptions, a glimpse can still be seen. Here, we will try to focus on the inscriptions of some post-Gupta rulers, for example, Gopacandra, Dharmāditya, Samācāradeva, Śaśānka, Bhāskarvarman, Rāta, Nātha and Khadgas to understand how this language was being nurtured in Bengal in its early phase.

## The Historical Frame:

The post-Gupta rule in Bengal was characterized by localized territories of small-scale rulers who emerged across the whole region. For example, Vaṅga saw the rise of petty local rulers like Dharmāditya, Dvādaśāditya, Gopacandra and Samācāradeva during the 6<sup>th</sup> century CE.³ Amongst them, Gopacandra's political domain possibly had a wider extent covering the Vardhamāna bhukti and the Daṇḍabhukti of Rāḍha.⁴ Again, a copperplate inscription indicates the reign of one Mahārājādhirāja Pradyumnabandhu in Puṇḍravardhana during the 6th century CE.⁵ The first clear indication of an independent ruler in early medieval Bengal came with the rise of Śaśāṅka in power, attested by textual references as well as inscriptions and coins.⁶ His monarchical rule was firmly established in the first quarter of the 7<sup>th</sup> century CE in northern Rāḍha - Gauḍa. After Śaśāṅka, Karṇasuvarṇa possibly witnessed the reign of Bhāskarvarman, the king of Kāmarūpa for a short period, as indicated in the Nidhanpur copper plate.⁵

Alongside, in Samataṭa and Śrīhaṭṭa, close to the middle of the 7<sup>th</sup> century CE, Bhāskaravarman seems to have extended control over Śrīhaṭṭa as well as the Karṇasuvarṇa area.<sup>8</sup> His Nidhanpur copperplate referred him as the overlord of the Rāta and Nātha rulers, who were sub-regional chiefs. Yet, we find the Nāthas and Rātas issuing their own grants

almost at the same time (middle of the seventh century CE), which might indicate their local autonomy. Again, during the middle of the same century, records indicate the Khadgas ruling in eastern Vanga and Samatata, and the Devas in Samatata during the eighth century CE. 10 On the other hand, a bronze vase inscription of Devātideva indicates the emergence of a small polity in the sub-region of Harikela during the eighth century CE.11

We have to note that the history of this particular period in Bengal has to be studied primarily through epigraphic sources as literary works are rather scanty. The Sanskrit inscriptions of this period, reflect the origin and initial development of a regional trend in literary formations. In the context of understanding the literary style of this period, the reference to Gaudī rīti by Bāṇabhaṭṭa can be highlighted here. Gaudī rītī has some special features such as gentle as well as hard words with long compounds, adorning and charming poetry with various 'upamā, drṣtānta and unfamiliar words', overbearing composition or 'atiśoyokti'12. It was very charming and euphonic. Although it has been criticized by several scholars such as Bhāmaha (c.7th century) and Daṇdin (c.7th-8th century) as comparable to the prevailing Vaidarbhī style, yet this figurative language has also been honored by all the poets of that time. This regional Gaudī rītī has obviously been considered as a distinct literary style of the 7th century on the wide horizon of pan Indian Sanskrit studies and accepted among a section in the contemporary literate world<sup>13</sup>. It remains to be seen whether these features of the Gaudī rītī were reflected in the above-mentioned inscriptions of early medieval Bengal, which favored the cultivation of this language. It is worth noting here just how much the Sanskrit language flourished through these inscriptions of this period.

# Historiography

Although there is no such previous work on the literary style of this period in Bengal, the work of Nupur Dasgupta can be referred in this context. She showed how the rise of Sanskrit literary culture in Bengal was first noticed in the inscriptions.<sup>14</sup> At the same time, she also mentioned some literature as a medium of this culture. In this connection, Ryosuke Furui's writings provide an indication of the society within which this literary style was practiced, i.e., the author and the addressed community. He showed two different contours of social change during this period between the sub-regions of Vanga, Rādha, and Pundravardhana and the sub-regions of Samatata, Śrīhatta, and Harikela.15 On one hand, in the sub-regions of Vanga, Rāḍha, and Puṇḍravardhana, the landed magnets like mahattaras and literate groups like kāyasthas authorized over rural society and land transaction procedures. On the other hand, Samatata- Śrīhatta sub-region witnessed the rise of widespread landholders under the authorization of kingship and the emergence of Brahmanical settlements. The brāhmaṇas, as the most emergent social being of this period, have been highlighted by Furui. He observed

the distinct social identity of brāhmaṇa donee and donors and their rise as a landholder in the rural society.<sup>16</sup>

# Literary Efflorescence in Inscriptions:

The literary style of this phase may be traced in inscribed texts from the 6<sup>th</sup> century CE onwards. Especially during the 6<sup>th</sup>-8<sup>th</sup> century when there was a lack of literature, the inscription was the sole dependency. Only the two grammatical works of this period, the *Gauḍapāda Kārikā* (c. 5<sup>th</sup>-6<sup>th</sup> century CE)<sup>17</sup> and *Cāndra-Vyākaraṇa* (c.4<sup>th</sup>-5<sup>th</sup> centuries CE)<sup>18</sup> of Candragomin, can be mentioned as literature. Among these, Nupur Dasgupta mentioned that *Cāndra-Vyākaraṇa* was considered 'the refreshed exposition of Sanskrit grammar on the lines of Pāṇinian tradition'. Although this was not regarded as the concerned genre of literary creation, it made a great impact on the post-Pataṇjali phase of Sanskrit grammar. The central element of this stage, however, was the inscriptional resources of various sub-regional kingdoms. The Nidhanpur copperplate of Bhāskaravarman, among them, was observed as the landmark of literary genesis. The Tipperah copperplate of Loknātha and the Kailan copperplate of ŚridhāraṇaRāta also bear testimony to this literary trend as reflected in their rhetorical expressions.

This process was initiated with mahārājādhirāja Pradyumnabandhu who ruled in Pundravardhana in between 550-650 CE. The script of the copperplate is a variety of late eastern brāhmī which is assigned to about 6<sup>th</sup> century CE. <sup>20</sup> Being only a land grant document, it bears no trace of any literary style. Rather, clean documentation of some technical facts, for example, land measurement, land sale price etc. is reflected here. In terms of literary signs, the copperplates of Dharmāditya, Dvādaśāditya, Samācāradeva and Gopacandra in the sub-region of Vanga during the 6th century CE portrayed a similar use of upamā and dṛṣtāntas as noted in the earlier Gupta inscriptions. These inscriptions were considered as reflecting the eastern Indian development of late brāhmī script.21 When we come to the literary aspect of these inscriptions, it has been found that different analogies have been used for the local rulers as reflected in the inscriptions of Dharmāditya, Dvādaśāditya, Gopacandra and Samācāradeva. The local kings had been compared to those who were generally considered Hindu mythological kings. For example, in the Faridpur copperplate Inscription of Dharmāditya, the supreme king of great kings  $\hat{S}r\bar{i}$ -Dharmāditya is compared to the loyal and dedicated Yayāti, Nṛga, Naghuṣa and Ambarīṣa. On the other side, the Mallasarul and Jayarampur copperplate of Gopacandra attest to the reign of Gopacandra in Vardhamāna bhukti and Daṇḍabhukti of Rāḍha in the 6th century. With the exception of two verses in āryā metre at the beginning and eight other verses relating to land grant, the Mallasarul copperplate was composed in prose.<sup>22</sup> The Jayrampur copperplate, was also a prose composition throughout except the usual imprecatory and benedictory verses at the end which were in anustubh and puspitāgrā metres.<sup>23</sup> These inscriptions were significant for providing an insight of knowledge regarding the amount of crop plantation on a plot, the inferred measurement of the land and accordingly the determined price of the land.

The efflorescence of literary style had evolved to a somewhat enhanced form since the seventh century. With the possession of Śaśānka 's throne, elevated royal power and status were embedded in Bengal. As far as the inscriptions are concerned, they gleamed high exaggerated terms and eloquent words. The two Medinipur Copper Plate Inscriptions of Śaśānka portrays the same. They belong to the type of north-east Indian alphabet of about 6<sup>th</sup>-7<sup>th</sup> century CE. They were verse compositions and written in anustubh metre.<sup>24</sup> These were adorned with literary traits like metaphor (rūpaka), similes (upamā) and ornate tones or dhvani. Śaśāṅka has been highly praised here ('Śrī-Śaśānke mahīm-pāti catur-jaladhi-mekhalām'). 25 The use of high metaphor can be illuminated in the verse 'Viṣṇoḥ pottr-āgra-vikṣepa-kṣaṇabhā (vitasādhvasām) śeṣa-śiro-madhyam=adhyāsīna-mahā-tanum Kām-ārāti-śiro-bhraṣṭa (gangaughadhvasta-kalmaṣām'.26

However, the most splendiferous example of the literary style at this phase can be seen in the Nidhanpur copperplate of Bhāskarvarman. Bhāskarvarman, the king of Kāmarūpa had a political alliance with Harşavardhana against Śaśānka. After the demise of Śaśānka, maybe for a while, the reign of Bhāskarvarman was established in Karņasuvarņa, which was evidenced by his Nidhanpur copper plate. This copperplate symbolizes his successful reign in Gauda for a short period of time. This plate was issued from the victorious camp at Karṇasuvarṇa. It is especially inspired by Bāṇabhaṭṭa's writing style, who adorned the court of Harṣa. For the pompous diction and the excellence and elegance of the composition, it has appeared as a landmark of literary creation in Bengal.

This plate was discovered on the eastern fringe of the Sylhet district of Bangladesh in the village of Nidhanpur of Pañcakhanḍa parganā.27 The script used was the eastern variety of the north Indian brāhmī alphabet of the 7th century. The verses were written in metres like, vamśasthavila, āryā and anuṣṭubh.28 The inscription exhibits a rich literary style through its elaborate grandiloquent dynastic narrative. The eulogy portion of 25 verses was followed by 14 lines of prose. The literary style of this inscription was composed in gaudī rīti. It exhibited the literary merits of the gaudī rīti, for example, pomp of syllables-akṣara dambara, overemphasized terms or śleşa, rhetorical allusions or use of alamkāra etc. Hence, this is one inscription of this time that we can cite as a piece of evidence in favor of gaudī rīti. It commenced with the panegyric of God. Here, the first ruler Puşyavarman was considered the lord of the earth ('devabhūyaṁ kshitīśvaraḥ Puṣyavarmma-ābhūt'). 29 His son Samudravarman was compared to five oceans ('pañchama iva hi samudrah Samudravarmmābhava tasya').30

King Kalyāṇvarman was devoid of every kind of flaw.<sup>31</sup> King Gaṇapati was endowed with innumerable qualities ('Gaṇapatim-iva-dāna-varṣaṇam-ajasraṁ Gaṇapatim –agaṇita- guṇa-gaṇam- asūta- kali-hānaye- tanayaṁ').<sup>32</sup> There was one Chandramukhavarman, who as charming and resplendent as the moon, was the dispeller of all the gloom ('Chandramukhas-tasya-sutaś-chandra iva kalā-kalāpa-ramaṇīyaḥ').<sup>33</sup> Bhāskaravarman, the main protagonist of this inscription, was like the sun of innumerable rise.<sup>34</sup> He was like a wish-yielding tree and the controller of the universe ('ity-api sa jagad-uduya-kalpan-āstemaya-hetunā bhagavatā kamala sambhavenā').<sup>35</sup> He ignited the light of the āryadharma by eliminating the darkness of the Kali age and his prowess was equal to the strength of his feudatories ('yathāyatham-uchita-kara-nika-vitaraṇ-ākulita-kali-timara-sañchaya-tay prakāśit-āryadharmmālokaḥ sva-bhuja-vala-tulita-sakala-sāmanta-chakra-vikrama').<sup>36</sup>

It is generally considered that this inscription is an imitation of Bāṇabhaṭṭa's style and technique. Due to Bhāskaravarman's alliance with Harṣavardhana, the clear influence of Harṣa's poet Bāṇabhaṭṭa's writing style is evident here. Even the verses of the text indicate that Bāṇabhaṭṭa was probably the original composer of this inscription. By analyzing the verses of the text, it can be seen that there was no mention of Bhāskaravarman's success or his political achievements. Only by following the style of alaṁkāraśāstra and gauḍī rīti, the verses were composed in high figurative language, rhetoric style and śleṣa in praise of the Varman dynasty. Probably under the patronage of Harṣa, Bāṇabhaṭṭa wrote the text. In this context, it is notable that the inscription begins with the hymns of Śiva, where Harṣavardhana himself was originally a follower of Māheśwara. All these hints indicated Bāṇabhaṭṭa as the probable author of this inscription. However, the exalted literary style and kāvyālaṁkaraṇ of the inscription have placed it as the most significant testimony of the time. This may be regarded as the trendsetter of the literary style of that time.

Alongside, South eastern Bengal saw the emergence of some synchronous line of rulers. Among them, the Nāthas and the Rātas were subordinate rulers of the Varmans of Kāmarupa. Their overlord was apparently Bhāskarvarmana, as mentioned already. They enjoyed a semi-independent status and issued their own grants. The 'Tipperah copperplate' of Loknātha issued during the reign of the Nāthas in the middle of the seventh century C.E. stands as a testimony to literary standard, sporting a beautiful composition. It was composed in metres like śārdūlavikṛīḍita, sragdharā and vasantatilaka.<sup>37</sup> Again, during the middle to the last quarter of the 7<sup>th</sup> century CE, the literary layout of the Kailan copperplate of Śridhāraṇa Rāta presents another fine creation. This inscription was composed in āryā, vasantatilaka and anuṣṭubh metres.<sup>38</sup> Except for the imprecatory and initial verses, these inscriptions were mainly composed in prose. Generally, the characters were an adaptation of Nāgarī from the Gupta alphabets. On the basis of characteristic features, Narendra Nath Law placed the Kailan

Copper Plate Inscription of Śridhāraṇarāta in the second half of the 7th century CE in terms of palaeography.39

These two inscriptions carried the overwrought rhetoric trend of literary art. As Radhagovinda Basak said, they were composed in gaudī rītī, which exhibited the characteristics of artificial poetry, for example, use of śleṣa, upamā, overbearing composition or atiśayokti etc.40 He also observed that the literary expressions used by the poet were a reflection of Bāṇabhaṭṭa's Harṣacarita. Like in the Tipperah copperplate of Loknātha, the literary expression 'aṣṭa-puṣpikā' used by the poet refers to the eightfold offering of flowers. This was a literary term borrowed from the work of Bāṇabhaṭṭa's Harṣacarita. 41

The Tipperah copperplate of Loknātha contains rhetorical subtleties. The use of long compound words with alliterations was overflowing here. For example, the first king of this dynasty Nātha, was praised for his sanctity and devotion.<sup>42</sup> He was a prominent king who destroyed his earthly existence and destroyed all his sins. He has used lofty titles like adhi-mahārāja ('muni Bharadvāja-sad-vansa-jātah-srīmān-prakhyāta-kīrttih prabhavadadhi-mahārāja-śavd-ādhikārah samsāra-ochchhitti-hetuh praśamita-durito-nātho').43 His courageous son sāmanta Śrīnātha was lauded for his good deeds ('prakhyāta-vīrryo-mahānsāmanto-yudhi lavdha-paurusha-dhano dharmya kriyaik āśrayaḥŚrīṇātho-Bhagavān-iva pratihata').44 King Lokanātha was expertise in every facet. His army was victorious by the intellect of his counselors.45

In the middle of the seventh century, the Khadgas established their power in eastern Vanga and Samatata. Following the Khadgas, the Devas rose to power during the eighth and ninth century CE in Samataţa. Around the eighth century CE, the Ashrafpur copper plate of Devakhadga portrayed the eulogistic account of the Khadga dynasty in an oratorical tone. Inscriptions of early Deva dynasties of 8th-9th centuries CE have also followed a similar literary intonation. The characters of the Ashrafpur copperplate inscription of Devakhadga belong to the 'early Kuțila variety' of the northern alphabets. Kuțila variety means the Magadhan alphabet of the 7th century. Overemphasized words are noteworthy in these copperplate inscriptions. Examples can be drawn from the Ashrafpur copperplate of Devakhadga. Here the great devotee of Lord Sugata, Khadgodyama has been glorified and admired in the three worlds. To him, religion was a peaceful spirit reachable through the meditation of the ascetics and a repository of all good qualities.<sup>46</sup> Khadgodyama was a conqueror of this world. His son Śrī Jātakhadga exterminated his multiple enemies with his prowess, as a piece of straw flew away by the wind and as a number of horses were destructed by an elephant.<sup>47</sup>

A noted feature of this time is that most of the inscriptions were copperplates. The composers brought out literary styles by composing the inscriptions. However, the inscriptions in this particular phase referred to the scribes in most cases. For example, the Jayrampur

copper plate inscription of Gopacandra referred to kāyastha Mānadatta as the writer ('likhitam kāyasthamānadatteneti').48 Yet, we get another interesting piece of evidence from the Mallasarul copper plate inscription. Here, a sāndhivigrahika (a Minister of Peace and War) named Bhogacandra was mentioned as the writer of this text.<sup>49</sup> The Tipperah copperplate of Lokanātha was documented by sāndhivigrahika Praśāntadeva.<sup>50</sup> The Ashrafpur copperplate inscriptions of Devakhadga were written by Pūradāsa.<sup>51</sup> Most interestingly, we also do have references to dūtakas who played the role of a conveyor. For example, the Mallasarul copperplate recorded Śubhadatta as the dūtaka.<sup>52</sup> Laksmīnātha, the son of Lokanātha was the dūtaka of the Tipperah copperplate.53 The Devaparvata copperplate inscription of Bhavadeva referred to the dūtaka, the chief mahāsāmantādhipati Nandadhara.<sup>54</sup> Citing Sheldon Pollock's view, it can be said that these inscriptions addressed or were associated with particular sociotextual communities.<sup>55</sup> Although the existence of an intended audience was obscure in this period, the issuer, petitioner, donor etc. as mentioned in the inscriptions hinted at some social classes who were aware of the literary tones and expressions used here. However, they varied according to different sub-regions of Bengal. Literary analysis of the inscriptions is significant in understanding this overall literary culture at this stage.

# The Evolution of Literary Style

The literary style that grew throughout this period, portrays an evolution in the format, language as well as contents of the epigraphic messages. The inscriptions of this phase mainly continued to reflect the writing style of the Guptas. This was an obvious phenomenon as the Guptas had penetrated not only Puṇḍravardhana but also Vaṅga, Rāḍha and Samataṭa. <sup>56</sup> The impact of the Gupta presence was not only felt in administrative frame and socio-economic life but also in cultural aspects, which is evident from the epigraphic records. This is reflected in the copperplates of Pradyumnabandhu in Puṇḍra, those of Dharmāditya, Dvādaśāditya, Gopacandra and Samācāradeva in Vaṅga, and the records of Gopacandra in Rāḍha and Vainyagupta in Samataṭa. It is noteworthy, that they reveal a pragmatic employment of the device of the copperplate inscriptions as administrative records. Therefore, rather than poetic embellishments, they neatly documented the land sale figures, land measurement units and land evaluation methods, furnishing information of the developing stage of practical knowledge related to state matters. This reveals a different compositional aspect of the inscribed records.

It is actually with the seventh century copperplates of Śaśāṅka in Rāḍha that we get the first reflection of the sense of sovereign domination. The literary expression used here projects royal glory. The apotheosis of this trend was reached in the Nidhanpur Copperplate. We can cite the Nidhanpur copperplate as a reflection of the most adorning and charming literary composition of this period. However, the historical significance of this copperplate lies behind Bhāskaravarman's association with Harsavardhana. Based on that connection, it can be said that the writing style of Harşa's poet Bāṇabhaṭṭa was reflected in this inscription. Even it is believed that Bāṇabhaṭṭa himself may have composed this. Following the trend, if we look at the inscriptions of Rāta and Nātha in South East Bengal, it is seen that these were a depiction of a subtle literary tone. Amongst them, the Tipperah copperplate of Loknātha and the Kailan copperplate of ŚridhāraṇaRāta were especially important. Radhagovinda Basak observed that the literary expressions used here were a reflection of Bāṇabhaṭṭa's Harṣacarita.<sup>57</sup> In this context, it may be said that since Loknātha and ŚridhāraṇaRāta were subordinate rulers of Bhāskaravarman, the influence of Harṣavardhana's courtly literary air as his ally was also flown into these inscriptions. Although not rich in poetic ornamentation like the Nidhanpur copperplate, the poetic subtlety carries the beauty of these inscriptions. They were also an indication of the self-proclamation and legitimacy of these emergent sovereign rulers. Even though they were subordinate to Bhāskaravarman, their sovereign status has been reflected here. A somewhat enhanced form of this is seen in the copperplates of Khadga and Deva. The subtle precise literary tone used here gives its hint.

## Conclusion

The literary form that we observe evolving through this phase, especially in the inscriptions was mainly transmitted through the scribes. The Kāyasthas emerged as a group of literates among administrative personnel. Clearly, they were appointed through the royal court and transcribed the courtly agenda in connection with the courtly circuit on the one hand and in collaboration with the rural society on the other hand. The inscriptions they wrote down involved the royal officials, local administrative officials, rural influential people, and prominent Brahmins who formed a circuit of literates and were all aware of the style and content of the concerned texts. Thus, it is observable, that the scope of tracking the origin of regional literary culture in early medieval Bengal is best possible through a study of the inscriptions issued by the royal houses since the 6th century CE. The only hope for understanding the literary style of this period was the copperplate inscriptions. However, a fuller development of this process can only be witnessed from the Pāla Candra phase.

### References:

- 1. Dasgupta, Nupur, 'Sanskrit Literature and Technical Treatises', in Chowdhury, Abdul Momin, and Chakravarti, Ranabir, (2018). (Eds.). The History of Bangladesh: Early Bengal in Regional Perspectives (up to c.1200 CE), Vol.2, Dhaka: Asiatic Society of Bangladesh, p. 535.
- Pollock, Sheldon, (1998). 'The Cosmopolitan Vernacular', The Journal of Asian Studies, Vol.57,

No. 1, p. 8.

- 3. Pargiter, F.E., (1985). 'Three copper plate Grants from East Bengal: Grant of the time of Dharmāditya, The Indian Antiquary, vol. XXXIX, pp. 193-205; Sircar, Dines Chandra, (1942). (Ed.). "Faridpur Copper Plate Inscription of Dharmāditya- Regnal year 3", Select Inscriptions, Vol.I, pp. 350-53; Pargiter, F.E., (1985). 'Second Grant of the time of Dharmāditya," The Indian Antiquary, Vol. XXXIX, pp. 199-202; Sircar, Dines Chandra, (1942). (Ed.). 'Faridpur Copperplate Inscription of the time of Dharmaditya', Select Inscriptions, Vol.I, pp. 354-56; Pargiter, F.E., (1985). 'Grant of the time of Gopacandra: the year 19', The Indian Antiquary, vol. XXXIX, pp. 203-05; Sircar, Dines Chandra, (1942). (Ed.). 'The Faridpur Copper Plate Inscription of the time of Gopacandra- Regnal year 18', Select Inscriptions, Vol.I, pp. 370-72; Islam, Shariful, (2011). 'Kotalipada Copper-plate of Dvādaśāditya', Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bangladesh, Vol.53, pp. 72-82; Furui, Ryosuke, (2013). 'The Kotalipada Copper-plate Inscription of the time of Dvādaśāditya', Pratna Samiksha, vol.4, pp. 89-98; Bhattasali, Nalinikanta, (1983). 'The Ghugrahati Copper Plate Inscription of Samāchāra-deva', Epigraphia Indica, Vol.XVIII, pp. 74-86; Bhattasali, Nalinikanta, (1920). 'The Ghugrāhāti Copper Plate Inscription of Samāchāradeva and Connected Questions of Later Gupta Chronology, Dacca Review, vol.10, No.2 and 3, p. 55.
- 4. Tripathy, Snigdha, (1998). 'Jayrampur copper plate grant of the time of Gopacandra, year 1', *Inscriptions of Orissa*, vol.I, pp. 174-79; Majumdar, N.G., (1940). 'Mallasarul copper plate of Vijayasena', *Epigraphia Indica*, vol.23, pp. 155-61; Sircar, Dines Chandra, (1942). (Ed.). 'Mallasarul Copper Plate Inscription (of Vijayasena) of the time of Gopacandra', *Select Inscriptions*, Vol.I, pp. 359-64.
- 5. Griffiths, Arlo, (2015). 'Sale deed of the village Mastakaśvabhra issued under Pradyumnabadhu, regnal year 5', *Pratna Samiksha*, Vol.6, pp. 27-38.
- 6. Beal, Samuel, (1906). (1983). (2nd Ed.) Si-Yu-Ki Buddhist Records of the Western World, trans. London; Beal, Samuel, (1973). The Life of Hiuen Tsiang by the Shaman Hwui Li, New Delhi; Watters, Thomas, (2004). (Trans.). On Yuan Chwang's Travels in India, Davids, T.W.Rhys, and Bushell, S.W., (Eds.). 2 vols. Bound in 1, Delhi; Devahuti, D. (2001). The Unknown Hsuan Tsang, New Delhi; Singh, Upinder, (2009). A History of Ancient and Early Medieval India, New Delhi, p. 563; Parab, Kāśināth Pāṇḍurang, (1918). The Harṣhacharita of Bāṇabhaṭṭa, 4th edition, Bombay: Nirnay Sāgar Press; Thakur, Prabodhendunath, (July, 1978, Second Impression, July, 1986). (Trans.) Harṣacarita, Kolkata; Chaki, Jyotibhusna, and Acharya, Abani, (1987). (Ed. and Trans.). Harṣacarita, Saṅskṛta Sahityasambhara, No.18, Kolkata; Cowell, E.B., & Thomas, F.W., (1897). (Trans.). The Harṣa-Carita of Bāṇa, London; Sastri, T.Ganapati, (1920). (Ed.). Ārya-Maṇju-Śrī-Mūlakalpa, Sanskrit Series No. LXX, Trivandrum; Majumdar, R.C. (1945). 'Two Copper Plates of Śaśāṅka from Midnapore: Text No. II', Journal of The Royal Asiatic Society of Bengal Letters, Vol. XI, No.1, pp. 1-9; Sircar, D.C., (1974). (Ed.). 'Egra Plate of the time of Śaśāṅka', Epigraphia Indica, vol.XL, p. 38; Sircar, D.C., (1982). 'Śaśāṅker Śāśanakālin Egrā

- Tāmrapatra, Śilalekha Tāmraśāsanādir Prasaṅga, pp. 59-64; Furui, Ryosuke, (2011). Panchrol (Egra) Copper-plate Inscription of the time of Śaśānka, *Pratna Samiksha*, New Series, vol.2, pp. 119-30; Hultzsch, E., (Ed.). 'Plates of the time of Śaśānkarāja; Gupta-Samvat 300', EI, Vol.VI.
- 7. Bhattacharya, Vidyavinoda Padmanatha, (1913). 'Nidhanpur Copper Plates of Bhaskarvarman', Epigraphia Indica, Vol.XII, pp. 65-79; Sharma, Mukunda Madhava, (1978). 'Nidhanpur copperplates of Bhāskaravarman', Inscriptions of Ancient Assam, pp. 38-81.
- 8. Bhattacharya, Padmanatha, (1931). Kāmrūpa Śāsanābali, Rangpur, pp. 1-43.
- 9. Basak, Radhagovinda, (1982). 'Tipperah Copper Plate Grant of Lokanātha', Epigraphia Indica, Vol.XV, pp. 301-315; Sharma, Dasaratha, (1935). Śrī-Jīvadhārana of the Tippera Copper plate Grant of Lokanātha', Indian Historical Quarterly, Vol.XI, pp. 326-27; Sircar, Dines Chandra, (1983). (Ed.). 'Tipperah copper plate Inscription of Lokanātha', Select Inscriptions, Vol.II, pp. 28-35; Gupta, K. K., (1967). (Ed.). CopperPlates of Sylhet, vol.1, pp. 68-80; Sircar, D.C., (1973). 'Kalapur Plate assigned to Sāmanta Maruṇḍanātha', Epigraphic Discoveries in East Pakistan, Calcutta, pp. 14-18; Law, Narendra Nath, (1947). (Ed.). 'The Kailan Copper plate Inscription of king Śridhāraṇa Rāta of Samatata', *The Indian Historical Quarterly*, Vol.XXIII, No.1, p. 221; Islam, Shariful, (June 2012). 'Udiśvara Copper-plate of Śridhāraṇa Rāta', Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bangladesh, Vol.57, No.1, pp. 61-72.
- 10. Laskar, Ganga Mohan, (1906). 'Ashrafpur Copper Plate Grants of Devakhadga', Memoirs of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. I, No.6, pp. 85-91; Rashid, M. Harunur, 'The Mainamati Inscriptions', in Haque, E., (2001). (Ed.). Hakim Habibur Rahman Khan Commemoration Volume, Dhaka, p. 201; Gupta, K.M. (1979). 'Two Mainamati Copper-plate Inscriptions of the Khadga and Early Deva times', Bangladesh Archaeology, Dacca, pp. 141-43; Mitra, Rajendra lal, (1885). 'On a copper-plate Inscription from Dacca', Proceedings of the Asiatic Society of Bengal", pp. 49-55; Rashid, M. Harunur, 'Mainamati Copper-plate Inscriptions of Khadga ruler Balabhaṭṭa', in Haque, E., (2001). (Ed.). Hakim Habibur Rahman Khan Commemoration Volume, Dhaka, p. 202; Sircar, Dines Chandra, (1983). (Ed.). 'Copper-plate Inscription of Bhavadeva Abhinavamṛgāṅka (c.765-80 AD)', Select Inscriptions, Vol.II, pp. 744-50; Sircar, D.C., (1951). 'Copper-plate Inscription of king Bhavadeva of Devaparvata', Journal of the Asiatic Society, Letters, Vol.XVII, No.2, pp. 83-95; Gupta, Kamalakanta, (1979). 'Mainamati copper-plate of Ānandadeva-Bhavadeva', Journal of Bangladesh Archaeology, No.3, pp.145-48; Rashid, op.cit. pp. 212-13.
- 11. Bhattacharya, Gouriswar, 'A preliminary report on the inscribed metal vase from the national museum of Bangladesh', in Debala mitra, (1996). (Ed.). Explorations in art and archaeology of south Asia: essays dedicated to N.G.Majumdar, Calcutta: Directorate of archaeology and museums, pp. 237-47; Furui, Ryosuke, (2017). 'Bangladesh national museum metal vase inscription of the time of Devātideva and its implications for the early history of Harikela', Puravritta, Vol.2, pp. 46-47.
- 12. Bhattacharya, Sivaprasad, 'The Gaudi Riti in Theory and Practice,' Indian Historical Quarterly,

Vol.III, p. 385.

- 13. De, S.K., 'Sanskrit Literature', in Majumdar R.C. (1971). (Ed.), *The History of Bengal*, Vol.I, Patna: N.V.Publications, reprint, pp. 302-303.
- 14. Dasgupta, Nupur, (2018). op.cit., pp. 536-38.
- 15. Furui, Ryosuke, (2020). Land and Society in early South Asia (eastern India 400-1250 AD), London and New York: Routledge, pp. 85-129.
- 16. Furui, Ryosuke, (2013). 'Brāhmaṇas in early medieval Bengal: Construction of their Identity, Networks and Authority', *Indian Historical Review*, pp. 224-29.
- 17. Dasgupta, Nupur, (2018). op.cit., p. 542.
- 18. Ibid., p. 540.
- 19. Ibid., p. 539.
- 20. Griffiths, Arlo, (2015). op.cit, p. 29.
- 21. Pargiter, F.E., (1985). op.cit., p. 194.
- 22. Majumdar, N.G., (1940). op.cit., p. 156.
- 23. Tripathy, Snigdha, (1998). op.cit., p. 174.
- 24. Majumdar, R.C. (1945). op.cit., p. 2.
- 25. *Ibid.*, line 3, p. 7.
- 26. *Ibid.*, lines 1- 3, p. 7.
- 27. Ibid., p. 38.
- 28. Ibid., p. 40.
- 29. Bhattacharya, Vidyavinoda Padmanatha, (1913). *op.cit.*, line 10, p. 73; Sharma, Mukunda Madhava, (1978). *op.cit.*, p. 41.
- 30. Bhattacharya, Vidyavinoda Padmanatha, (1913). op.cit., line 11, p. 73.
- 31. *Ibid.*, verse 10, p. 73.
- 32. *Ibid.*, lines 14-15, p. 73.
- 33. *Ibid.*, verse 15, p. 74.
- 34. Ibid., verse 22, p. 74.
- 35. *Ibid.*, line 34, pp. 74-75.
- 36. *Ibid.*, lines 36-37, pp. 74-75.
- 37. Basak, Radhagovinda, (1982). op.cit., p. 306.

- 38. Law, Narendra Nath, (1947). op.cit., p. 237
- 39. *Ibid.*, p. 223.
- 40. Basak, Radhagovinda, 'Inscriptions: Their Literary Value', in Chatterji, Suniti Kumar, (1978). (Ed.). The Cultural heritage of India, Vol.V, Calcutta: The Ramkrishna Mission Institute of Culture, p. 404.
- 41. *Ibid.*, p. 404.
- 42. Basak, Radhagovinda, (1982). op.cit., verse 2, p. 306.
- 43. Ibid., line 5, p. 306.
- 44. *Ibid.*, lines 6-7, p. 306.
- 45. *Ibid.*, verse 7, p. 307.
- 46. Laskar, Ganga Mohan, (1906). op.cit., lines 2-5, p. 90.
- 47. *Ibid.*, lines 5-6, p. 90.
- 48. Tripathy, Snigdha, (1998). op.cit., line 50, p. 178.
- 49. Majumdar, N.G., (1940). op.cit., lines 24-25, p. 161.
- 50. Basak, Radhagovinda, (1982). op.cit., line 55, p. 309.
- 51. Laskar, Ganga Mohan, (1906). op.cit., pp. 88-89.
- 52. Majumdar, N.G., (1940). op.cit., lines 24-25, p. 161.
- 53. Basak, Radhagovinda, (1982). op.cit., line 17, p. 307.
- 54. Sircar, Dines Chandra, (1983). op.cit., p. 744.
- 55. Pollock, Sheldon, (1998). op.cit., p. 8.
- 56. Kakati, Devdutta, (2018-19). 'The Socio-Cultural and Political Situation in the Easternmost part of the Gupta Realm: Emergent Samatața', Proceedings of the Indian History Congress, Vol. 79, pp. 75-77.
- 57. Basak, Radhagovinda, (1978). op.cit., p. 404