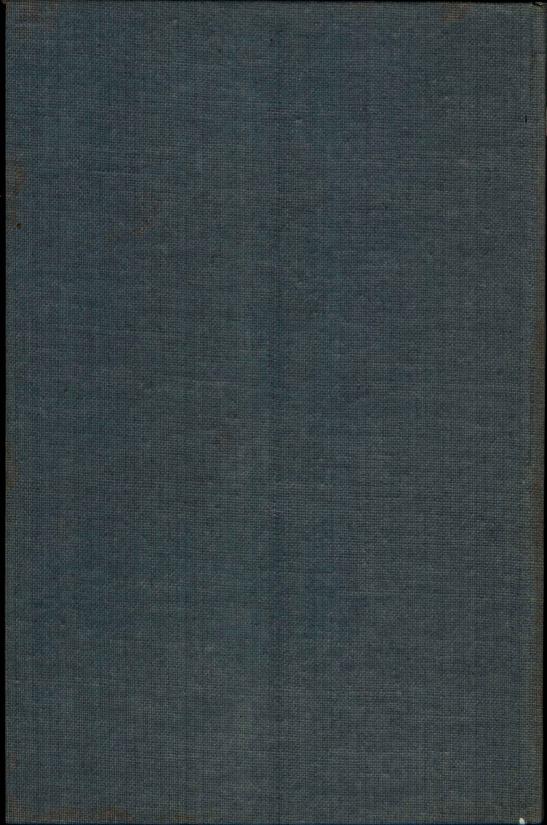
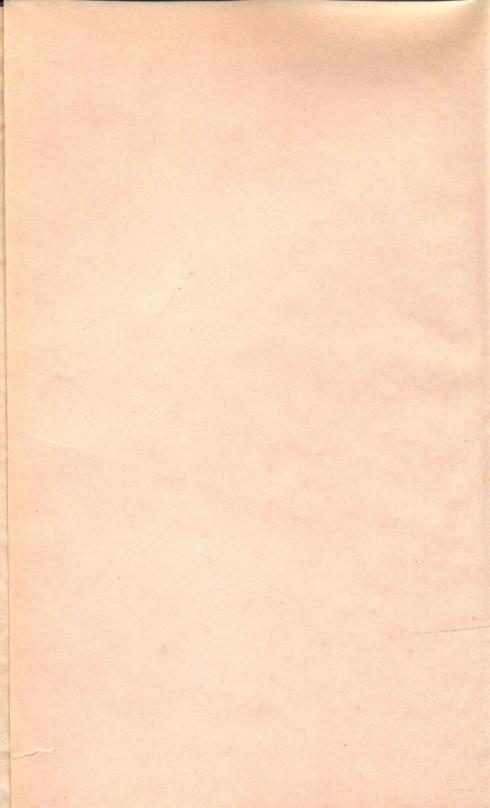


ANCIENT ARTISTS AND ART-ACTIVITY





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R N Misra

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Preface

THE diversity or the similarity in the artistic nuances of Indian sculpture and architecture in different regions and their evolution has been an important poser to the art-historians. The early studies were mostly dependent on field studies. But with the progress of studies in this field, the canons on silpa also came to light gradually, so that the vast material thus made available was sought to be related to the extant remains of architecture and sculpture. A synchronisation of iconic or architectural tradition of ancient times with the extant remains has greately helped in establishing the śilpa tradition on a more formal and temporal basis. But even these studies have failed in comprehending the role of artisans in the realm of artactivity. The scholars who attempted to define the regional and provincial styles have ignored the extent of artisans' participation in the evolution of such provincial styles. Theoretically speaking, the task of defining such regional trends and standardising them with the help of textual authority, the monuments, and art-remains may not be possibly achieved unless artisans are also included within the ambit of such studies. The treatises of silpa offer a highly advanced and technical terminology and the aesthetic formulations as well as the measures to achieve them. They inculcate a regimen whose importance cannot be minimised. But the credit of perfecting the form, style, and the regimen as well as the total external effect of the monuments and sculptures should appropriately go to the artisans. They shaped the monuments according to their training and skill and in the process affected innovations and changes within the framework of canonical prescriptions. And if the whole system of the art-activity were to be structurised with regard to the respective roles of its various constituents, the artists would obtain a place next only to the silpaśāstras. In fact, the silpaśāstras too were sometimes com-

posed by the practitioners of the craft.

Keeping these points in view, this monograph seeks to define the craftsmen associated with different monuments vis-a-vis, their respective regions of operation and various other aspects concerning them, such as the origin of a distinct class of workers-in-stone, their expertise in *silpa*, their organisation, and various categories in a hierarchical setting. The first two chapters in the monograph deal with these problems within a certain chronological framework from the Vedic times to the pre-Gupta period in the first instance, and from the Gupta-Vākāṭaka age to the mediaeval dynasties. The Appendix deals with Taranath's testimony concerning the artisans of the different regions.

This monograph is a byproduct of my project on the Kalachuri sculptures at the Indian Institute of Advanced Study. In writing this I have depended mainly on the material which was immediately available. A further exploration regarding the artisans and their contribution to the regional art-movements may define more clearly the evolution and growth of regional art styles. If this monograph helps in undertaking such studies

its purpose would have been amply served.

I am grateful to Professor S C Dube, the Director of the Indian Institute of Advanced Study for encouraging me to write this monograph. His interest in it was a source of constant inspiration to me. My thanks are also due to the Director, National Museum, Delhi and the Director-General, Archaeological Survey of India for providing me with the photographs used in the monograph; to Mr S K Vashist for preparing the typescript; to Mr Ashok Kumar Sharma for his help in going through the proofs; and lastly to Bina, my wife for her great patience and constant learned help.

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Chapter One

Artists and the Early Art-activity

THE art heritage of India has been widely studied in terms of its contents, motifs, and chronology, to explicate its evolution as well as its various chronological phases and their aesthetic brilliance. No less important in the art-history is the role of artisans who lived during various phases of art-activity and who, in fact, were responsible for bringing them forth. A meaningful correlation of the social aspect of the art-movement vis-a-vis the movement itself may perhaps be of greater significance in comprehending the creative activity on a wider scale. Art-activity in ancient India involved different sections of society: artisans for raising monuments, patrons for financing the projects, priests for consecrating the monuments, and so on. This multilateral process has to be comprehended in its totality and in its segments too, in order to bring out a profile of artisans and patrons and their interaction in relation to the creation of the works of art.

Artist in ancient India was not an isolated institution; in the social hierarchy he belonged to a general class of artisans engaged in various crafts. Historically, therefore, his position and his craft has to be related to a kindred group of artisans and their occupations. An enquiry into the existence, function, and organisation of artist in ancient India ultimately leads to a body of data in which different categories of artisans are found clubbed together in one general group called *silpin*. Likewise, the term

śilpa is of a wide connotation and it includes within its ambit various crafts, skills, and occupations. This necessitates an enquiry into various crafts in relation to the word silpa with a view to making a brief survey of some aspects of crafts along with its practitioners, in a historical perspective.

The earliest occurence of the word silpa is found in the Samhitās1 and Brāhmanas.2 In these it has been used to define a variety of acts or activities such as manual arts and crafts, ceremonial acts and rites, artistic work, and so on. In the Naighantuka (III.7) it connotes a form or a shape. In the Brāhamanas, the word is used in the sense of work of art, e.g. "they recite śilpas. These are the works of art of the gods; in imitation of these works of art, here is a work of art accomplished —an elephant, a goblet, a garment, a gold-object, a mule-chariot are works of art".3 In the Kausītaki Brāhmana (XXIX. 5) are enumerated as the three-fold silpas—dancing, music, and singing. The Panchavimsa Brāhmana has the word silpatva indicating a state of being variegated or decorated.4 These diverse usages of the word silpa clearly indicate that the acts requiring skill in certain performances as singing, dancing, compiling hymns, and the other diverse art-activities were broadly known as silpa. Even in the realm of dramatic arts, the word has significance in a form of drama which was known as śilpaka.5

The term śilpa designates "ceremonial act" in the Aśvalāyana Śrautasūtra (VIII. 4, 5-8; IX. 10 11; XI. 2), and in this sense it is close to kāru (from the root kri) which in the Vedic contexts stands for a maker or an artisan, a singer of hymns, or a poet. In a reference in the Rigveda, Viśvakarmā, a god of creation, is mentioned as dhātu-karmāra, while karmāra alone refer to artisans and artificers.6 Viśvakarmā is supposed to create things

¹ Kāthak, 2.3; 37.9; 48.1; Paippalāda I. 92.2; 4.3.2; Taittirīya, 1.2.2.1; 6.1.2.3; 5.5.22.1; Katha, 1.15; Mādhyandin, Sukla Yajurveda, 4.9; 24.5; 29.58; Maitrāyanī, 1.2.2.

² Satapatha, 14.9.9.33; 1.1.4.3; 3.2.1.5; 14.9.4.32; Aitareya, 6.27; 38; Gopatha, 2.6.7.9; Śānkhāyana, 25.12, 13, 29.5; Taittirīya, 2.7.15.3; 3.33.2.1; Taittirīya Āranyaka, 1.7.1; Tāndya, 16.4.3; 8; 9.15.2.

³ Aitareya Brāhmana, VI.5, 27.

⁴ cf., Monier-Williams, Sanskrit-English Dictionary, Silpatva; Bhattacharya, T.P., A Study of Vāstuvidyā, (Patna, 1947) p. 26.

⁵ cf., Monier-Williams, Indian Wisdom, p. 468.

⁶ Rigveda, X,72.2; Atharvaveda, III,5.6; Manu, IV,215.

out of dhātu, "raw-material", which act is known as sanghamana. The process of cutting, shaping, and painting has been often explained in the texts by the taks. For instance, Tvashtri is sometimes described as a god who tatakṣa, "sharpens", the vajra of Indra. The correspondence of Indra and Tvashtri in creation of some forms is mentioned in the early texts. Indra creates a form by his inner power, while Tvashtri brings forth a form by chipping and carving which act has been described as rūpa-pimśana. These activities may significantly be taken under the wider connotations of śilpa. Besides, these references also shed some light on the practical aspect of the skill required in the practice of crafts.

As regards the types of occupations or *silpas* ("crafts"), the Samhitās and Brāhmaṇas have preserved relevant material. The Vedas bring out in clear profile craftsmen like *takṣaka*, "carver"; *rathakāra*, "chariotmaker"; and karmāra, "blacksmith". The list of occupations and crafts grew in the post-Vedic period. Whereas the *Rigveda* knew only of the *karmāras*, *takṣakas*, weavers, tanners and the *rathakaras*, to the later Vedic texts enumerate many other occupations. The *Vājasneyī Saṃhitā* XXX. 6.21) and the *Taittirīya Brāhmaṇa* refer to various categories of artisans: chariot-makers, carpenters, potters, smiths, jewellers, herdsmen, etc. Such increase in the categories of trades, which fall generally under *śilpas*, "crafts", indicates a greater degree of economic activity which brought about such development. The growth in the number of crafts as well as their practitioners continued even in the post-Vedic period.

During the early Vedic phase, it seems that even though the social status of some of the artisans, particularly takṣakas, and rathakāras, tended to vary, the artisans as a class enjoyed a respectable position in the society. The Atharvaveda (III. 5. 6) cites that some of those engaged in various crafts belonged to the viś, "the Aryan community". The special place of takṣakas,

⁷ Rigueda, X,72.2; quoted by Agrawala V.S., Indian Art, p.40

⁸ cf., Rigueda, I, 162.6; tashtri, Ibid., I,61.4; 105-18, 130.4; rathakāra who used wood for joining and making of chariot, is called takṣaka in the Maitrāyanī Samhitā, IV, 3.8.

⁹ Rigveda, 1,32.2; 1,85; X,48.

¹⁰ cf., Rigveda, IV,35.6; 36.5; VI,32.I takṣaka; X,72.2; VIII, 5.38.

¹¹ cf., Sharma, R.S., Sūdras in Ancient India, pp.27-8; 49;70 ff.

rathakāras, and karmāras and their administrative responsibilities have been indicated in certain other texts. They were designated as ratnins and assigned important roles in the coronation ceremonies of kings. Moreover, the agricultural Vedic society found immense use to the products of various crafts in agriculture and in war. As a result, the craftsmen must have commanded respect. The crafts during this stage were neither restricted to śūdras as happened later nor was their practice stigmatised. These points among other things, define some of the fundamental traits of crafts during the Vedic period.

When stone came into use, the *takṣakas* of the Vedic times transformed their techniques and helped in the growth of artactivity. During the early stages, they were primarily concerned with wood-craft. As regards the other *śilpas*, as pointed out earlier, they grew in number in the post-Vedic times. The Buddhist texts enumerate various occupations. In the *Majjhima Nikāya* (I. 85), their number is twelve. The *Dīgha Nikāya*, the *Mahāvastu*, and the *Milinda Pañho* have long lists of occupations and indicate organisation of craftsmen's guilds. About classification of crafts as high or low, the *Vinaya Pitaka* says: 17

craft (sippa) mean: there are two kinds of crafts: low craft and high craft. Low craft mean: the craft of basket-makers, the potters craft, the weavers craft, the leather-workers craft, the barbers craft or whatever is disdained... despised in these districts—that means low craft. High craft means: reckoning on fingers ($mudd\bar{a}$), calculation ($ganan\bar{a}$), writing ($lekh\bar{a}$), what is not disdained... what is esteemed in these districts—this means high crafts.

¹² Ibid., pp.49 ff. rathakāra and karmāra were close to king according to a passage in the Atharvaveda, (III,5.6) but later on karmāra was replaced by takṣaka "carver or carpenter". In terms of antiquity takṣaka was older than rathakāra, for the rathakāra came to fore mainly in the later Vedic period.

¹³ Ibid., p.28; also Vājasneyī Samhitā, XVI, 27; Kāṭhak, XVII, 13; Maitrāyaṇī, II,9.5; Taittirīya, IV,5.4.2.

¹⁴ T.51

¹⁵ Mahāvastu, (tr.) Jones J.J., III,pp 112 ff; 443 ff.

¹⁶ Horner, I.B., (tr.) Milindas Questions, 331, mentions a list of about eight crafts and occupations.

¹⁷ Horner, I.B., (tr.) Book of Discipline, II, 176 f.

The Dīgha Nikāya (I. 51) includes all crafts except that of the leather-worker under the puthu, "ordinary", crafts, and the list includes in puthu crafts even gananā, muddā, lekhā, etc., which have been mentioned in the Suttavibhanga18 as high crafts. Dīgha Nikāya¹⁹ has a distinction also between those who were regarded low by birth and those who followed low professions. But on the basis of such random statements, which are often contradictory, it is difficult to draw a hard and fast line to delineate a distinction of birth between those who followed different types of crafts.

While in the Buddhist texts a complete correspondence of crafts with lower castes is difficult to establish, the Sūtras take a position of almost an exclusive association of crafts with Sudras. The Sūtras rule that in the absence of any other means of livlihood the Śūdras may take to various śilpas. Gautama holds this view while dealing with silpavritti, "practice of silpa", as a means of Śūdras' livlihood.20 The artisans seem to have started losing their pre-eminent position in the post-Vedic period and eventually the craftsmen such as rathakāras and takṣakas, who were of supreme importance during the Vedic age, lost their prerogatives and were relegated to the ranks of Śūdras.21 By about the sixth century B.C., the \$\bar{s}\bar{u}dras\$ seem to have got largely associated with diverse types of silpas, "occupations", and it became customary to designate individuals according to the crafts they practised. Fick has classified the practitioners of various crafts under the "despised castes" but he indicates a state of society which admitted of certain casteless professions, particularly those which had a better guild-organisation.22

¹⁸ Ibid., II,176.

¹⁹ cf. Dialogues of the Buddha, I,100,102, "one may cite here the case of rathakāra and chammakara, 'leather-worker'. Chammakara, occurs in the Suttavibhanga, (Book of Discipline, II, 176) among the low crafts, while rathakāra is among low kinds of birth; and there seems to be no correspondence between kinds of low births and kinds of low crafts such as would enable one to say that a man of such and such birth follows such and such trade". Horner, I.B., op.cit., p. 173, fn. 7.

²⁰ Gautama Dharmasūtra, X,60, Manu, X,99.100; Pāṇini in certain sūtras, e.g. IV,2.62, V,4.95, also refers to śilpī, kāruśilpī, and chāruśilpī; Arthaśāstra, I, 3.8. (Kangle, R.P. ed.)

²¹ Sharma, R.S., op.cit., pp. 27-8; 48-51.

²² Fick. R., The Social Organisation in the North-East India, ch. X-XII,

However, it will be far from correct to assume that the practice of crafts was limited only to persons in the lower strata of society. There are instances of persons of higher castes practising crafts. A Jātaka has the anecdote of a Brāhmana who earned his living from making carts, and thus plied the trade of a vardhakī, "carpenter".23 The Sūtras usually frowned upon such cases of individuals belonging to higher castes taking to professions of lower castes. Baudhāyana, in this connection, has ruled that a Brāhmana tending cattle or living by trades, or by working as a artisan should be treated like a Śūdra.44 Such disapprobation notwithstanding, one notices a fluidity in respect of the practice of crafts by groups of people, high or low in social hierarchy. In a growing society, the artisans had enormous utility and various śilpas had special roles in the growth of economy as well as in the urban patterns of life. In the circumstances, it is no wonder that quite often one meets with the instances of people of various social ranks practising different crafts. The Buddhist texts offer evidence to the extent that gahapatis, "householders", were engaged in various crafts.25 In their social status, the gahapatis of the Buddhist texts were equivalent to the Vaisyas of the orthodox varna system. The Anguttara Nikāya (III. 363) refers to a gahapati who earned his living by sippādhittāna, "practice of arts and crafts". The institution of gahapatis itself seems to have come up as a result of the prosperity of artisans, several of whom swelled the ranks of gahapatis.26 Such cases clearly indicate the upward social and economic mobility of the artisans. In Vātsyāyanaś Kāmasūtra among the virtues of a nāyaka, "cultured man", the knowledge of various śilpas gets a

²³ IV, 207.

²⁴ I,5.10.24; cf., Vasishtha Dharmasūtra, II,27; Gautama Dharmasūtra, X-67. Haradatta, commenting upon Gautama (X,67) recognises the social equivalenec of Sūdra and a Brāhmaņa performing an occupation allotted to Sudra. But he adds that a Sudra doing his allotted work should not be despised by those who follow the non-Aryan occupations. Such injunctions implicitely indicate that occupations were identified with Sudras. But at the same time, they indicate that situation was flexible enough to admit persons of higher castes into the professions which were identified with the Sudras.

²⁵ for gahapatis, cf., Fick, R., op.cit., 253 ff; Luders List, 193, 201 202, 449.

²⁶ cf., Dīgha Nikāya, III, 281; Jātaka, III, 281; Uvāsagadasāo, p. 184, quoted by Sharma, R. S., op.cit., p. 88.

special mention. The nāyaka was supposed to be adept in silpas.27 Reference to the need of having a solitary place where a cultured man could practise his skill in carving various objects, indicates the popularity which certain silpas enjoyed amongst the higher sections of society.28 The Lalitavistara, likewise indicates that proficiency in silpas was inculcated amongst the princes of ruling families. Reference is made in the text to the hesitance of Śākya Dandapāni in giving his daughter in marriage to the prince Siddhartha as the latter was not proficient in śilpas.29

In the works quoted above, the word silpa has different connotations, covering occupations, skills, and crafts. These references also establish a close relation between the artisans practising different silpas. In fact, the mutual correspondence of artisans is vividly expressed throughout the ancient social history. At a later stage, this correspondance of different śilpīs was formalised. A parable in the Brahmavaivartta Purāna (I. 10) relates how as a result of a blessing from Brahmā, Viśvakarmā, who was born in a Brāhmaņa family, married the Apsarā Ghritāchī, who was reborn as a milkmaid; and out of this union came such jātis as tailors, potters, carpenters, as well as the jātis, adept in the tantra-vidyā. This parable in the Purāņa thus seeks to interpret a common descent as well as the equivalence of different craftsmen.

How did the sculptors and the architects fare in this general class of silpis, and when did they come to have a distinct class of their own is another important question. The question may be answered by splitting it into parts relating to the pre-Mauryan and the post-Mauryan times. To a great extent, the evolution of a distinct class of stone-masons must have depended upon the extensive use of stone for building purpose, which happened sometime during the rule of the Mauryas. Before the Mauryas, monuments are scarce and evidence meagre and it has been

²⁷ Kāmasūtra, VI,1.12.

²⁸ Ibid., I,4.4. cf., also, III,3.16; pp. 83 ff;

²⁹ When Suddhodana asked for the marriage of Dandapāni's daughter to Siddhārtha, Dandapāni is described as having said: "asmākam chayam kuladharmah śilpajñasya kanyā dātavyā naśilpajñasyeti; kumārascha na śilpajño...tat kathama" śilpajñāham duhitaram dāsyāmi; cf., Lalitavistra, Leffmann, (ed.),p.143.

surmised that wood, ivory, and other materials of perishable nature must have been in use for art-activity. In this activity, the takṣakas, vardhakīs, and karmāras must have played an important role. With the coming into use of stone for building, these artisans, might have transformed their techniques to suit the new requirements. This surmise is confirmed by references to the takṣakas and vardhakīs in the canons of iconography written during the mediaeval period. For instance, the Mayamatam (V. 13-14) refers to four types of śilpīs, "artisans": sthapati, sūtragrāhin, takṣaka, and vardhakī. Elsewhere, the same text defines takṣaka as an artisan who was required to fashion stone, wood, or bricks in the construction of buildings. Such references clearly point towards transformation of techniques and medium of artists, even though their designations continued to be the same.

That such artists as smiths and carpenters were involved in the art-activity is proved by other references too. A Jataka story refers to a prince who invited a kammāra-jetthaka, "chief of goldsmiths", to make a female figure out of a quantity of gold.33 The vaddhakis, "carpenters", and their activity find mention in several Jātakas. The Alinachitta Jātaka (II. 18) refers to a vaddhakīgāma, "a village of carpenters", with 500 such carpenters. These carpenters, it is said, collected wood from forests, made "things" out of these for use in various types of buildings, including the multi-storeyed, to the choice and satisfaction of their clients. After completing a particular job, these carpenters started the cycle of collecting raw material and further work, all over again.34 Specific references to workers-in-stone, during the pre-Mauryan period are very scarce. Agrawala, however, has indicated their existence as well as their participation in the building activity of the Achaemenian king Darius.25 Agrawala says that the artists of Gandhara find mention in an Achaemenian

³⁰ cf. Sharma, R.S., op.cit., p. 49-51; 27-8.

³¹ cf., also, Mahābhārata. V,255, Rāmāyana, II, 80.2; Quoted by Acharya, P.K. An Encyclopaedia of Hindu Architecture, (Henceforth abbreviated as Encyclopaedia), VII, Sthapati, p. 581.

³² Mayamatam, V, 20

³³ Jātaka, V. 282; quoted by Fick, R., op.cit.

³⁴ cf. Jātaka, II,405, IV,159, for Vaddhakīgāmas. The Samuddavānijja Jātaka refers to a village of 1,000 carpenters in which each 500 had a chief.

inscription which acknowledges their contribution in building a palace at Susa.35.

More positive evidence about the stone-masons is forthcoming from the Mauryan times. The Arthaśāstra is of great use in this respect. It refers to various types of artisans engaged in building-activity, their remuneration and protection by the state; other information concerning artisans is also available in this text. It gives details concerning artiasns' remuneration which varied according to the skill of the concerned person. According to this scale, a salary of two hundred panas for the vardhakī, "chief-architect", appears to be equivalent to that of a physician or a rathakāra.36 The Arthaśāstra also has a term kāru, which generally designates artisans, whose different classes find mention in the text.37 These references are of great assistance in identifying an independent class of artisans, specifically connected with architecture and sculptural art. The Milinda Pañho (330) specifically refers to a "city-architect" who lays out and raises a city and "when the city was fully developed he might go away to another district". This reference to the architect's mobility is important and to some extent may explain why in the Buddhist texts although various other silpīs have been often mentioned, architects and sculptors in particular do not get a proportionate mention. It may also be surmised that probably these artists did not have such guild-organisations as other craftsmen had. This lack of organisation amongst artists might have been due to their mobility. And in the circumstances, references to them are not as frequent as to those who were better organised.

With the acceleration in the tempo of building-activity during the Mauryan period the artists received greater attention. The

³⁵ cf., Agrawala, V.S., Studies in Indian Art, p. 121. About the origin of stone-architecture in India, cf., Bhattacharya T.P., The Canons of Indian Art, pp. 300 ff.

³⁶ Arthaśāstra, V,3.12; V,3.16; the text prescribes two hundred paņas for vardhakī and only one hundred and twenty paṇas for kāruśilpīs, 'artisan', also MacCrindle, J.N., Ancient India as Described by Megasthenes (Calcutta, 1926) p. 86, fragment 34. In the section on kārukara-raksanam the Arthaśāstra (IV,1,2-4; IV,1.65) lays down rules protecting artisans or guarding troubles from them, cf. also Arthaśāstra, IV, 2. 18.

³⁷ Arthaśāstra, IV,1; IV,1.65.

workers-in-stone no longer remained anonymous or completely aligned to the kindred group of craftsmen. They seem to have obtained a distinct niche in the class of artisans, which probably helped in salvaging their trade from obscurity. The emergent socio-economic situation following the Mauryan rule must have added its share in the coming up of artisans specialising in building-work. The control on economy, production, and crafts as well as the growing inland and overseas trade during the Mauryan-Sātavāhana era opened up new avenues for crafts and craftsmen. The religious fervour of the newly affluent classes of such urban centres as Mathura, Sanchi-Vidiśa, and Nasik, led to raising religious edifices. All these developments had their natural consequences on the tone of building-activity and on the craftsmen engaged in it.

The accent now was on the use of stone for building edifices

or sculptures.

The vast administrative organisation of the Mauryas had successfully harnessed the skill of craftsmen on a grand scale. The introduction of stone revolutionised the art-activity. The impact of such transformations was felt in various parts of the country and the epigraphs available from Mathura, Bharhut, Sanchi, Gaya, and western and eastern coastal India, help in understanding the degrees of such impact and the consequent transformation in the techniques and medium of artists. The epigraphs have expressions like silākarmanta or śailakarma indicating that the activity had come to be known as "stonework", 38 in contra-distinction to work in wood, ivory, or metals. The sculptors are mentioned as rūpakāra, śailavardhakī, aveśani rūpadaksa, etc., which all define the new factors of growth obtaining in the realm of art-activity. The inscriptions also offer prolific references to dedication of small and big excavations, constructions or carvings, such as setting up of caves (selaghara/lena) or the facades of caves (gharamugha), stonepillars (śilā-lashti) or their bases and so on.39 Much more

³⁸ Luders List, 687, 350

³⁹ Ibid., 1087; 1090; 962; several other objects are mentioned in the inscriptions, e.g., tank (pushkarini); reservior (udapana), garden; gamjāvāra; pūja-śilā-prākāra, "stone-wall', chakrapaṭa, "slabs with a wheel", pādukāpaṭa; svastikapaṭa, "slabs with a svastika"; harmya, "temple". Luders List. 82; 6; 1253; 1217; 1282; 1287; 23; A Sanchi inscrip-

important and extensive excavations than merely the single small structure also find mention e.g. caves; upasthānaśālā "hall of reception"; cells and quadrangular dining hall; this is in addition and complementary to such smaller things as "benches for sitting", "walk", etc.40 Sometimes the donors took pride in commissioning works which they regarded as "marvellous" and which indeed are so. Thus an inscription from the Buddhist cave at Karla records the "establishment of the cavedwelling, the most excellent on the Jambūdvīpa".41 Besides the edifices and their architectural components mentioned above, the inscriptions also record setting up of images, 42 or stone-pieces decorated with carvings—the latter described as śailarūpakarma. 43 The exclusiveness of the stone-worker has been conveyed by qualifying him as śailavardhakī, which probably purports to indicate the distinctiveness of this stone-mason in comparison to the ordinary vardhakī, "carpenter". The use may alternatively indicate the transformation of techniques and medium of the craftsmen, with the change in the medium of art.

In addition to the evidence from epigraphs, that from the texts also suggests the growth of different classes of artists. The Mahāvastu refers to various classes of artists and their fields of specialisation. Those figuring in its list are: chitrakāraka, "painters"; vardhakī-rūpakāra, "carpenters"; kārupatrika, "carvers"; pustakāraka, "the modellers of clay"; pustakarmakāraka, "plasterers", lepaka, "decorators"; and sthapati-sūtrakāra, "architects".45 These different terms signify that in the realm of stone-carving and architecture, different classes of artists formed specialised groups. The Manu Samhita46 attempts

tion (Luders List, 350) contains an imprecation against him "who takes away or causes to be taken away the stone-work... or causes it to be transferred to another temple...".

⁴⁰ cf. Luders List, 988

⁴¹ Ibid., 1087

⁴² Ibid., 114, 115

⁴³ Ibid., 1045

⁴⁴ Mahāvastu, (tr.), Jones, J.J., III 112; also p. 443 where this list occurs with certain modifications.

⁴⁵ Ibid., p, 444.

⁴⁶ VI. 47-8. cf., Artibus Asiae, Vol XXXI, 4 p. 308., editor's note to the paper "Sri Yugandhar-A Master Artist of Ajanta", by M.K. Dhavalikar.

to fix up a hierarchy of artists of the building-activity and mentions sthapati, "master-architect"; sūtragrāhin, "surveyordesigner"; takṣaka, "sculptor"; carpenter; and painter in relation to each other. In this hierarchy sūtragrāhin has a special relationship to the master-architect in the sense that he has either to be the son or a disciple of the latter. We have two terms here, sūtragrāhin and sūtrakāra, which are important and indicate a designation which was to become more important in the post-Gupta times. The word sūtragrāhin has been explained as surveyor-designer47 while, sūtrakāra has been sometimes explained as meaning "(cotton-) spinner".48 However, on the analogy of the Sanskrit sūtrakarma, "rule-work" or "carpentry", it has been suggested that the whole compound in the Mahāvastu, would seem to mean "a builder working by rule" or a "builder-carpenter".49 It may be added here, that "workingby-rule" was a phenomenon limited not only to the carpentry; it was used by the stone-masons also. The use of stone, brought about a transformation in the material, not so much in the methods. The liberal use of wood in the early monuments, as in the cave temples of western India, or even the principles of construction (e.g. pillars like wooden posts, or pillars tilted inwards at the top as it were to support the overhanging roof, and so forth) indicate a continuation of the older experience.

It has been surmised that some of the schools of *šilpa* had started taking shape in the early centuries of the Christian era. But the role of artists in evolution of such schools is not clearly defined. On one hand, the information as derived from the canons of iconography seems to relate the evolution of such schools to the prominent $\bar{a}ch\bar{a}ryas$, or to the craftsmen like Maya and Viśvakarmā. On the other hand, Tārānāth, relates the development of the schools of art to the Nāga- and Yaksha-

⁴⁷ Ibid.

⁴⁸ cf. S.B.E. XXXVI, 201; Milinda Pañho, 331.

⁴⁹ cf. Mahāvastu, III, p. 112; also sūtrādhyakṣa in the Kauṭilya's Arthaṣʿāstra, II, 23.1. ff. sūtrakrīdā in Kāmasūtra 1.3.15. The epigraphic evidence tends to indicate that sūtragrāhin was eliminated, and a new class, that of sūtradhāra came into being in the post-Gupta era.

⁵⁰ Bhattacharya discusses the earliest nature of Vāstušāstra and the originators of the different schools of architecture and art. cf. Bhattacharya. T.P., The Canons of Indian Art, p. 87 ff., Encyclopaedia, SV., sthapati.

artisans who, he says, were employed by the Mauryas for building their edifices.51 The relevant passage from Tārānāth reads as follows:

In the ancient period, the human artists possessed miraculous power and their artistic creations were astounding. In the Vinaya Vastu, etc., it is clearly said that the statues made and pictures drawn by them created the illusion of being real objects. For about a hundred years after the parinirvana of the Teacher (i.e. the Buddha), there were many artists like them

As afterwards there was none of them any more, the celestial artists appeared in human guise and made eight wonderful images for worship in Magadha, like those of the Mahābodhi and Mañjuśrī-dundubhīśvara (an epithet of Buddha Amoghasiddhi). The caityas of the eight sacred places and the inner boundary wall of vajrāsana were built by the Yaksa artists during the period of Asoka and the Naga artists built many (images) during the time of Nagarjuna. 52

Evidently, the information as given by Taranath is anachronistic in matters of images as mentioned by him, for these images are untraceable in Indian art, till the time of the Kushānas. However, the tradition about the artists of the Mauryan period cannot be dismissed summarily. There is independent evidence, from Patanjali (middle of the second century B.C.) also about the Mauryas' involvement in making images for collecting money.53 That the making of images was a source of livelihood is indicated also by the sūtra of Pānini and the commentaries on it.54 The Mauryas popularised (animal) sculptures and their making, and along with the artists came to have a permanent place in the legend of sculpture-making, which is important,

53 Mauryaih-hiranyā-rthabhitaih-archā-prakalpitāh, cf. Banerjee, J.N. Development of Hindu Iconography, p. 40.

⁵¹ Tārānāth's History of Buddhism in India, (ed.), D.P. Chattopadhyaya, p. 347.

⁵² Ibid.

⁵⁴ Pāṇini, Jīvikārthe-chā-paṇye. V. 3.99, Banerjea, op.cit., p. 391 says, "on the authority of commentaries, the Mahābhāshya and the Kāśikā we can assume that these objects which were meant for livlihood, but at the same time were not for sale...".

even though the specifics of Tārānāth's statement may not be true. It has been suggested that the nāgara, "northern", style may have stemmed from the innovations by the Nāgas. 55

Apart from what is known from the literary texts, a fair amount of information about the artisans and their role in the building-activity, is available in the ancient inscriptions. A large number of such inscriptions are from Mathura, Bharhut, Sanchi, and many regions of western and eastern India (viz., Kuda, Kanheri, Karla, Amaravati, Jagayyapetta, etc.). Most of these places were flourishing urban centres and served as important trading posts for overseas or inland trade in various commodities.56 The consequent prosperity and affluence explains the circumstances responsible for evolution of art and architecture at such places. It seems that in the evolution of local idiom of art, the resident artists of different places helped in accomplishing a major breakthrough. In fact the art-evidence clearly indicates the development of local styles which evolved into distinct schools of sculpture, for instance, the Mathura school, or the western Indian school or the Amaravati school and so on. A comparison of motifs of arts as well as the sculptural styles clearly indicates that though there were distinct schools at different centres, mutual influences in respect of motifs, subjects of reliefs, the technical aspect of relief-carving, the practice of accompanying labels with the reliefs, etc., among the various schools are clearly discernible.

We thus have a phenomenon in the realm of architecture and sculptural art which accommodates the cognate styles as well as distinct ones. This leads to the conclusion that experiments and the skill obtained at one particular place did not necessarily remain localised to the place of origin. On the other hand, the skill spread to far and wide regions.⁵⁷ This in its turn is indicative of some sort of organisation of the artists which probably included both the resident and the itinerant artists. The epigraphs afford evidence regarding both the types of

⁵⁵ Bhattacharya, T.P., op.cit., p. 309 f. His reasons are different.

⁵⁶ cf. Shastri, K.A.N., (ed.), Comprehensive History of India, pp. 430 ff. 57 For the Bharhut and Mathura, and western and eastern Indian early

idioms of art and their cognate character, cf., Dikshit, M.G., Indica VIII, (i) pp. 1. ff; also Coomaraswamy, A.K., History of Indian and Indonesian Art, p. 27; Codrington, D.B. Ancient India, p. 27, plates 22a.

artists. The localisation of activity at different centres such as Mathura and Bharhut may indicate the existence of resident artists, and such artists may ultimately have led to the organisation of the kindred group on a more efficient basis even as the itinerant artists may have helped in the dissemination of the art-idiom. The epigraphic data suggest that such classes of artists working in stone had come into existence by the second century B.C. As regards the resident artists, an inscription from Mathura⁵⁸ records the dedication of a śilāpatta, "stone-slab", in the temple of (the Nāga) Dadhikarņa "by the sons... of sailalaka,59 "stone-masons", (of) Mathura". These artisans are praised as Chandaka brothers, chief among them was Nandibala. The inscription offers information regarding the artists of Mathura. Another artisan of Mathura was Gomataka. a puril of Kunika, who claims to have made the famous Parkham Yaksha image. 60 Yet another pupil of Kunika, Nāga is known from another Mathura inscription, as the maker of an image of Yakshinī Lāyāva.61 These inscriptions show that artists' occupation was already in the process of specialisation. In the case of the Chandaka brothers, it was practised by all the brothers, although Chandaka, the eldest among them was the most reputed for his craft. 62 Similarly, in the case of Kunika and his disciples-Gomataka and Nāga-the phenomenon of specialisation may be inferred from their teacher-disciple relationship. Further evidence about such relationship, is available from the other regions also and will be mentioned at the relevant

⁵⁸ cf, Luders List, 85; This temple of Dadhikarna Naga finds mention in another inscription from Mathura (Luders List, 63,), which records "dedication (of the pillar) by Devila, the servant (or priest) at the temple of Dadhikarna...".

⁵⁹ Luders translates selālaka as "actors"; so does the Amarakośā, Śūdravarga, II,12. This translation is not borne out by the context of the above inscription at Mathura, and has the sense of stone-mason; cf., Mahāvastu, II, p. 444, fn.7 Edgerton. F., Buddhist Hybrid Sanskrit Dictionary.

⁶⁰ Luders List, 150

⁶¹ cf. Chanda, R.P., ASI, AR, 1922-23 p. 165; Agrawala., V.S., op.cit., p. 118, Buhler says that a sectarian distinction among artists of Mathura cannot be established and it is possible that the same set of artists were commissioned to create the stone-work related to different sects, e.g. Buddhist, Jaina, and Hindu.

⁶² Luders List, 345

places. Among the resident artists, reference may also be made to the ivory-carvers ($damtak\bar{a}ra$) of Vidiśā mentioned in a Sanchi inscription. This inscription records that the $r\bar{u}pakamma$, "carving", on a portion of the south gate was done by the Vedisaka workers in ivory.

Of greater number and importance are inscriptions pertaining to the itinerant artists, and such inscriptions have come to light from Sanchi, Ramgarh, and Jagayyapetta. One of the earliest of such inscriptions has come from Ramgarh (Jogimara cave) and it refers to a lūpadakha, "sculptor", Devadina (Devadatta) who was a native of Vārānasī and a lover of Sutanukā, a templeservant (devadasikye).63 An inscription from Sanchi64 refers to an artisan (?)—Visakama (Viśvakarmā), a native of Ujjayinī. Another Sanchi inscription, 65 on the top-architrave of the south gate of the main Stūpa, records that the work was the gifts of Ananda who was the foreman of the artisans of rajan Siri-Sātakarni. This architrave has an outstanding depiction of the story of Chhaddanta Jātaka, the like of which in style could not be achieved on any other gate of the Sanchi stūpa. Sanchi was under the rule of the Sātavāhanas whose centre of power during this time seems to have been located in the western part of the Maharashtra and in the case of Ananda we have a clear evidence of the artist who belonged to another region, but accomplished his work at Sanchi.

Evidence regarding the itinerant artists also comes from certain inscriptions of Jagayyapetta, in Andhra Pradesh. These inscriptions refer to an āveśani, "the foreman among artisan", namely Siddhārtha who made a gift of five entrance pillars at the dāra, "door", of the Mahāchetiya at Velagiri. 66 Siddhārtha was a resident of the village Mahākamdurura while his father Nāgachandra, who also was an āveśani, resided in Nadatura in the district of Kammaka. Besides indicating that the artist's profession was hereditary, the inscription also indicates their mobility in the sense of physical movement from one place to another.

⁶³ Ibid., 921.

⁶⁴ cf., Cunningham, A., Bhilsa Topes, p. 151 no. 12; Luders List, 173.

⁶⁵ cf. Marshall and others, Monuments of Sanchi, Vol.I, inscription No. 398: "rañosiri Sātakanis avesanisa Vāsiṭhīputrasa Ānamdas dānam".

⁶⁶ cf. Luders List, 1002. Jaggayyapetta Buddhist Pillar Inscription of the time of Rājan Mādhariputa Siri Vīrapurisadatta of the Ikṣvākus; cf. also Ibid, no. 1203-4.

There are inscriptions which refer to artists alone without any reference to the places which they belonged to; like rūpakāra, "sculptor", Budharakhita of Bharhut. 67 Similarly, inscriptions of Sanchi refer to two such artisans—Artha and Abhaya. 88 These cases are unlike an Amaravati inscription which refers to an artist (whose name has disappeared), who was a native of Virapura and son of Dharmadeva. 69 There are several other cases in which the artists find mention, e.g., the vadhakī. "carpentar", Svāmin of Dhenukātaka who made the mugha, "door", of the cave at Karla;70 of Baluka (or Balaka) at Kondane.71 Some of these inscriptions indicate that craftsmen belonging to other fields like ivory-carving, carpentry, etc., joined the ranks of stone-masons.

Information is also available regarding the artists' set-up and organisation. Individual artists, as we have seen above, were known as rūpakāra, rūpadaksa, karmika, śailālaka, etc. Sometimes they are designated as śailavardhakī.72 These terms might also have designated their occupational class, just as work on stone was known as śailakarma.73 Among the artists of authority, the navakarmikas74 and āvešanins75 figure prominently. A Sonari inscription (Luders No. 157) refers to the navakarmika, "overseer", Dharmagupta, a pupil of Ārya-Prasannaka; a Bharhut inscription mentions the navakarmika Ārya-Rishipālita who

68 Marshall, J., op.cit., inscription numbers 199, 448; Both find mention as karmika, which like navakarmika, "architect", may have some relevance in relation to artisans.

69 Luders List. 124

- 70 Ibid., 1092; cf., also sela-vadhakī:, E.I., XX, inscription: F., line 4, p. 22; itthakā-vaddhakī: 'brick-mason', Mahāvamsa, XXIX, 5, 30.
- 71 Luders List, 1071.
- 72 Ibid, 987;
- 73Ibid., 350; also E.I., XX, p. 22; Luders List, 1045 (śailarūpakarma); 345 (rūpakarma); 687 (śilākammamta); 1087 (selaghara); also E.I., XX insc. nos. B4 E.I., for sela-khambha, and śaila-mandapa.
- 74 cf., Luders List, 154,773, 987,1250; E.I., XX,p.17 ff.; number: C.1; C.2, F.
- 75 The different forms of the word āveśanin, occurring in the inscription are āvesani, āvesani, avesaņi, cf., Luders List, 1202-4, 346, 1298, in the inscription from Jagayyapetta, Sanchi and Amaravati.

⁶⁷ C.I.I., II(ii), p. 36; Luders List, 857; This rūpakāra may have had something to do with the "creation of a gateway (torana) and stonework (silākammainta) by Dhanabhūti..." which finds mention in another Bharhut inscription, cf. C.I.I., II (ii), p. 11 ff.; Luders List, 687.

is also styled as bhadanta and bhanaka, "preacher". A Kanheri inscription gives a long list of navakaramikas, "overseers", describing them as monks and elders—bhadanta; their names are: Achala, Grihala, Vijayamitra, Bodhika, and Dharmapāla. The merchant Aparenuka also occurs in this list of overseers, but his role cannot be exactly established. The inscription adds that the work of excavating the cave was "executed" by bhadanta Bodhika, the pupil of bhadanta Seumla, and that in this work he acted as overseer (uparakhita) of the sela-vadhakin, "stonemasons", the nāyakamisa; the kadhichakas; the mahākatakas; the mithika, "polisher"; and the khadaraki. This inscription is invaluable in explicating the functions of different types of artists engaged in the completion of an monument. An Amaravati inscription refers to a thera, "elder", styled as bhadanta Buddharaksita, who was navakamaka, of the Chaityakas (a Buddhist sect) and who lived at Rājagiri.⁷⁶ The Nagarjunakonda inscriptions of the time of the Iksvākus similarly refer to certain navakarmikas, e.g., student Ananda, a navakarmika, who knew the Dīgha—and Majjhima— Nikāyas "by heart" and who established the foundation of the Mahāchetiya;77 the three theras "elders"—navakarmikas, viz., Chamdamukha, Dhammanandi, and Nāga, who supervised the work of building such edifices as a chaitya and a vihāra, a bodhitree, shrine, cells, pillars of a mandapa, a hall for religious practice, a tank, a verandah and other things at different places. The inscription also mentions that the work was accomplished by the stone-mason Vidhika: "selavadhakisa Vidhikasa kamman

These records indicate that the work of excavating the Buddhist edifices was supervised by the members of the Buddhist Church and that these members of the Church sometimes functioned as pupils of other *theras*, who might have been master-architects in their own right. In any case, the latter proposition indicates a situation conducive to specialisation of crafts and to the development of individual schools of sculpture and architecture.

⁷⁶ Luders List, 1250

⁷⁷ E.I., XX, p. 17; inscription no. C.1; also p. 20, inscription. no. C.2; 78 Ibid., p. 22, inscription. no. F., line 4.

In the Mahāvamsa (xxx. 98), an overseer of work is designated as kammādhitthāyaka. The appointment of the navakarmikas by the Church, may have been necessary for the purpose of observing ecclesiastical specifications in the Buddhist edifices and also for the simple reason that person so appointed may have possessed the requisite technical skill for the job. Evidence suggesting both is available. The Chullavagga79 specifies rules regarding the buildings and the objects of use by monks and nuns; the ecclesiastical supervision might have been enforced to ensure proper adherence to these norms. As regards the eligibility of monks in supervising the building-work, etc., they seem to have earned it on account of their skill in this area of activity. Artisans were seeking and getting admission into the Buddhist Church and such artisans-converted-monks might have continued practising their skill even after joining the Buddhist Church. The status of such monk-artists in the Church was in no way inferior to any other member. In the texts the specificities of speech-usage have been defined and it is ordained that a monk's former occupation ought not to be mentioned to humiliate him.80 A passage in the Samaññaphala-Sutta of the Dīgha Nikāya81 also indicates that persons of different occupations82 were joining the Buddhist Church, to escape the rigours of the Brahmanical caste system. The passage records a dialogue between the Buddha and Ajātaśatru in which the latter asks the Buddha of the advantages in becoming a recluse; the Buddha describes the advantages and interposes whether a monk, even though he might have earlier been the king's slave, would or would not receive respect from the king, to which Ajātaśatru replies that he would be respected. Such craftsman-turned-monks as mentioned in the Dīgha-Nikāya, might have come handy in the building of the Buddhist monuments.

The overseer of work or its "executer" was appointed besides by the Church, by other authorities or persons also. In a

⁷⁹ Horner, I.B., (tr.), Book of Discipline (Vinayapitaka) V. Cullavagga, p. 204 ff; also Sutta-Vibhanga, Bhikkhuni Vibhanga, I, in the book of Discipline, III, p. 156.

⁸⁰ Ibid., II. 173; Reference is made here to various crafts, though not specifically to sculptors or masons.

⁸¹ Dialogues of the Buddha, I. pp. 68 ff; pp. 76 ff. 82 Occupations are enumerated here.

Banavāsī inscription⁸³ of the time of rājan Visnukada Chutukulānanda Sātakarni, mention is made of a princess who donated a naga (?), a tank and a vihāra; and of the kamamtika, "superintendent of work" in this case a minister—Skandsvāti. Similarly, the Junagarh rock inscription of Rudradaman cites the instance of the minister Suvisākha who executed the work of restoration of the Sudarasana lake after a storm.84 From these two examples it follows, that if the work undertaken by some person required independent execution, that was possible and in such a case, the Church may not have had the responsibility of supervising the

project.

Āveśanins also occur in the inscriptions as artists of authority. In the Sātavāhana-Ikṣvāku inscriptions this term occurs six times, once in the case of Ananda, at Sanchi; thrice in the case of Siddhārtha, an Iksvāku artisan and his father Nāgachandra; and once in the case of an artist whose name has disappeared from the inscription.85 Siddhārtha in his inscription gives the details of his family also. The avesanin Nagachandra and Nagila, were his parents, Samudrā his wife; Buddhi his brother; Krishnā his brother's wife; Mūlaśrī, his son; Nāgabuddhā his daughter; and Nāgaśrī, Chandaśrī, and Siddhārtha his brother's progeny. The relevant inscriptions mention only Nagachandra and his son Siddhārtha as āveśanins: and there is no direct evidence whether their occupation was followed by all the male (and female) members of the family. But there is sufficient evidence in the inscription to suggest that the profession was hereditary. This information is equivalent to the one relating to the teacherdisciple relationship amongst the navakarmikas mentioned above-

The term avesanin has been usually translated as "foreman among the artisans"; the lexicons explain āveśan as śilpīśālā, manufactory, (or workshop). On the analogy of akṣaśālā mentioned in the Arthaśāstra86 and in its commentary, the word āveśani

⁸³ Luders List, 1186

⁸⁴ Ibid., 965

⁸⁵ Ibid., 346; 1202-4; 1298.

⁸⁶ Kautilya's Arthaśāstra, II,13.1, akṣaśālāyām suvarnādhyakṣaḥ; the commentary explains akṣaśālā as akṣaśālā-eti-suvarna-ādi-parikarmaāvasthanasya samajñā, i.e. aksaśālā is the name of the chamber in which artistic work of gold and other metals is carried out, cf., E.I., XXIV, p. 182. akṣaśālin as an officer finds mention in several inscriptions from eastern India., Bhandarkar's List, 1497, 1498, 1500-2.

may be explained as manufactory. Alternatively, āveśanin may imply a title or position acquired by an individual who possessed great artistic merit. The resourcefulness of avesanin is supported by the fact that atleast in two of the cases where reference has been made to them, they are mentioned as having been involved in making an important structure. Ananda, the avesanin at Sanchi was associated in making the toranas when the work was started.87 Likewise, the avesanin Siddhartha of Jagayyapetta inscription is associated with the making of five ayaka pillars on the eastern gate of the Mahāchetiya of the Buddha at Velagiri.88 In any case, the reference to avesanin, i.e., chiefartist, points towards the existence of avesan, "manufactory", for the training of artisans or making of objects of arts, as commissioned by the royal or other donors. Such workshops find mention elsewhere also. The Brihatsamhita of Varahamihira refers to śilpālaya; the Brahmavaivartta Purāna to śilpagriha; and the commentary of Kullūka on Manu, to śilpageha.89 The Kāmasūtra has the information that persons of taste who practised silpa in their own houses, used to have such workshop ekāmta cha taksataksana-sthānam.90

The task of building edifices or excavating monuments was well organised. The extant monuments usually indicate a premeditated design and its execution in which probably every single architectural part, including motifs and reliefs, was predetermined and made according to the lay-out previously defined.91

Before starting the actual work on some edifice, it was possibly customary to prepare a design. An instance of this is found in the Mahāvamsa. 92 Similarly in the Thūpavamsa 93 there is the

88 Luders List, ff 1202; of the time of the Iksvāku Mādharīputra Srī Vīrapurisadatta (third quarter of the 3rd century).

89 Monier-Williams, Sanskrit-English Dictionary, SV.

90 Kāmasūtra, I.4:4; śilpī-śālā finds mention in the Mayamatam, LXVIII 50.

92 Mahāvamsa, XXVII, 10, 18.

⁸⁷ Dahejia discusses the dates and sequence of the different toranas of the main stūpa at Sanchi and expresses some doubts as to the priority of the south gate in relation to the dating of other gates, cf., Early Buddhist Rock Temples, p.187 ff.

⁹¹ Dahejia, V., op.cit., p. 135 f; She also describes the process of cutting the cave from start to its finish and the time taken in such work, cf., p.136 f.

⁹³ Law, B.C. The Legends of the Topes, p. 64

instance of the king Dutthagamani Abhaya who expressed a desire to build a "palace similar to a celestial mansion". He assembled the Order of Monks and asked them to prepare a "drawing of a mansion made upon a linen cloth...". Thereupon, the Order sent eight Bhikkhus who went to the abode of thirtythree devas and saw "a jewelled palace, twelve yojanas high and forty-eight yojanas in circumference, which was adored with thousand pinnacles, was nine-storied, and provided with a thousand chambers ... and which floated in the air". They made a drawing of it with virmillion upon a linen cloth, and on their return gave it to the Order of Monks, who sent it to the king. When the king saw it, he was glad at heart and had the "Brazen palace" (lohapāsāda) built in the style of drawing.94 It is said that the design for lohapāsāda was prepared by theras, "elders", after the vimāna, "palace", of a devatā, namely Vīrani.95 Such designs find mention as varnaka or hastalekha in the texts of the Gupta or post-Gupta times. The Naishadha Charita says that the entire feminine world created by Brahma is a hastalekha, "preliminary attempt", to the final shaping of the beauty of Damayantī. 96 However, more important are the details in the Mahāvamsa and Thūpavamsa which set out the whole process of making of certain buildings, including the great stupa and these details are of invaluable significance.

These texts relate that artisans were collected on drum-beats and a skilled mason was selected from among various masons who were properly interviewed regarding their capacity to undertake the work. The king's men and the *theras* went around places collecting the necessary metals, stones, and bricks for use in the construction of the $st\bar{u}pa$. All the work was paid for, and if somebody stealthily contributed something, he was detected and amply compensated for his gift. The above texts also deal with the motifs and legends carved on pillars and railings of the $st\bar{u}pa$. These details give a comprehensive idea about the

94 Ibid., p. 64 ff.

⁹⁵ cf., Mahavamsa, XXVII. 10,18; also Law, B.C., op.cit., p. 64 ff.

⁹⁶ purākritis sainam imam vidhātum abdhu vidhātuh kila hastalekhāh; cf., Sivaramamurti, Indian Sculpture p.9. For hastalekhā, cf., Naishadhacharita vii. 59; 72; 221.68; The other synonyms of hastalekha are: varņaka, hastolaka, and pāṇḍulekha. cf., Sivaramamurti, op. cit., p. 9 pl 2: In the temples of Khajuraho, there are miniature representations of pillars or mandapas etched on the surfaces, for the reference of artisans.

mode of construction of the $st\bar{u}pa$ as well as its decoration and the roles of different types of participants (e.g., the chiefarchitect, masons, donors), the motifs of decoration, the mobilisation of men and money for collecting the necessary building material and so on. 97 The elder Indagutta "who was gifted with six high faculties, most wise, directed all this, being the superintendent of the building".98

In the early reliefs sometimes artisans-at-work are also depicted. One really wonders whether only the ordinary chisel and hammer as depicted; were the important tools of sculptors and masons. Takṣaka and vardhakīs used their sūtra, "threads", for measuring. A vardhakī-kāshṭa, a measure of forty-two inches finds mention in texts.99 In the reliefs of Bharhut, however, we have a depiction of two figures of rūpakāras, "sculptors", carrying "dagger-like" chisels in their hands; they seem to be clearing irregular rocks preparatory to some excavation. One of them stands on the flat ground, while the other stands on a nail pierced through rock, which serves as his working platform. Both the persons are shown, carrying on their back baskets which contain their other tools (Plate I). The coping stone depicting the scene, was acquired from Bhatanwara in Satna district of Madhya Pradesh and is now in the National Museum, New Delhi. 100 A figure of a scribe, in relief, is known from Nagarjunakonda.101 The figure here holds a similar iron stylus having a large, round head for a convenient grip. Sivaramamurti identifies him as a royal scribe "shown here as casting the horoscope of Siddhartha..."; the relief might as well represent a sculptor.

The Thūpavamsa102 gives the details of making of the relic chamber. These details throw some light on the process of raising edifices. When the king asked the skilled itthakā-vaddhakī, "brick-mason", as to how will he make the relic chamber, the

⁹⁷ Law, B.C., op.cit., pp. 73-84.

⁹⁸ Ibid., p. 84; Mahāvamsa, XXX, 98-9.

⁹⁹ Monier-Williams, Sanskrit-English Dictionary, SV.

¹⁰⁰ Museum antiquity no. 68.163; cf., Agrawala, R.C. "Unpublished Bharhut Reliefs in the National Museum, New Delhi", Lalit Kala, 14, p. 54, pl. xx, fig. ii.

¹⁰¹ cf., Sivaramamurti, C., "Indian Epigraphy and South Indian Scripts", Bulletin of the Madras Government Museum, 4, p. 33, fig. 13

¹⁰² Law, B.C. op.cit., p. 73.

mason replied, "... I shall pound (the sand) in mortar, and have it sifted with winnowing basket, and crushed in mill, and then I shall do the work with a hundred workmen, throwing down only one ammana (a measure of capacity) of dust in one day". 103 Elsewhere, in the same text, is an account of the starting of work on a $st\bar{u}pa$. It describes different stages of work and the various articles of use in the preliminary stages of the work. Such process as clearing the place and laying of stone by the king's soldiers inside an elephant-wall (i.e., a basement-work or a platform supported by elephants in relief); breaking of the stone into pieces, which were "stamped down by great elephant's with their feat encased in heals"; spreading of butter-clay on pounded stones; spreading of bricks over it; "over the bricks, a rough cement, over that cinnabar stones, over that a network of iron, over that sweet-scented sand..."104 and so on are described. The description is no doubt exaggerated, for, the excavated stūpas in India hardly reveal such material in the order described above; but there is enough in the description to show that the edifices were raised with meticulous care and effort.

As regards the artisans of lower categories, engaged for routine work, mention may be made of the sela-vadhakī "stone-mason"; mahākaṭaka; 105 kadhichaka, 106 and miṭhika, "stone-polisher"—all these words occur in a Kanheri inscription cited above. In a Sanchi inscription is a reference to karmika (labourer?), which juxtaposed to navakarmika, may explain itself as a worker of lower ranks, engaged in the construction of buildings. Quite often labourers had to be employed if the task to be accomplished was big. The Thūpavamsa cites the case of a skilled mason who wanted to employ 500 workmen for achieving his task. The Mahāvamsa refers to iṭṭhakāvaḍḍhakī, "brick-mason". 107

¹⁰³ Ibid.

¹⁰⁴ Ibid., p. 69

¹⁰⁵ Probably an artist or artists engaged in ivory-work, kaṭaka=ivory;

¹⁰⁶ The word is difficult to explain. Buhler has pointed out that in Gujarat, a word Kadiyo (which is close to Kadhichaka) is still in use for bricklayers; cf. A.S.W.I., IV, p.76 kadhichaka, may alternatively be derived from kathi, kaolin, which may help to explain kadhickaka as a stone-cutter, stone-painter, or stone-polisher.

¹⁰⁷ cf., Geiger, W., Culture of Ceylon in Medieaval Times, (ed.), Heinz Bechert, p. 92. The workmen in building trade in Ceylon

The existence of such specialised classes in different departments of building activity, indicates that crafts were becoming more and more inverted leading to specialisation. In this specialisation, many factors like acquisition of greater skill through the successive stages of the practice of crafts, or teacher-disciple relationship, or hereditary factor, may have contributed their share. One often wonders that in the early inscriptions, the various terms designating the artists, are not identical to those which occur in the texts. Whereas, the texts mention such classes of artisans as sthapati and sūtragrāhin, the inscriptions have an entirely different set of terms. However, on several terms, e.g., karmāra, karmakāra, vardhakī, etc., the texts and inscription complement each other. It may be suggested, that since the inscriptions relate to the actual activity, and texts offer evidence mostly on the theoretical aspects, the former should be taken as more important in defining the practical aspects of the ancient art-activity.

In plying their trade, artisans came in contact with individuals belonging to various sections of society. The composition of these sections and their relations with artists are examined below. The donative inscriptions from different places, like Bharhut, Sanchi, Mathura, offer evidence regarding donors, their ranks and social status, the region they came from as also their share in making of the relevant monuments or parts thereof. Several hundred such donative inscription relating to the gifts of such monuments as caves, stūpas, vihāras, etc., as well as their parts or decorative motifs, indicate how the people competed with each other for receiving the merit of participation in the construction of a monument. In terms of commissioning of new edifices the donors belonging to different social or professional strata in society stood as equal partners in the ventures, which were executed by workmen and their superintendents. The evidence regarding the donors as found in the early epigraphs seems to suggest that the building activity gathered momentum, encouraged not by any

were known by a collective name vardhaki", ...but within this group there are several sub-groups: the carpenters (dāru-vaḍḍhakī), the brick-layer (iṭṭḥakā-vaḍḍhakī), the worker in stucco (cuṇṇa-vaḍḍhakī), and the worker in stone (silā-vaḍḍhakī). They seem to have been organised as a caste-like body of artisans with a nagara-vaḍḍhakī at the head", Ibid., p. 921.

single resourceful class in society, but as a result of a ubiquitious interest of different classes of people towards a common end. In a situation like this, the artists, who did the actual work and enlivened the aspirations of the devotees, must have risen in status, even though they belonged to a lower strata of society. Their relation with different classes of people is clearly established in the inscriptions, which besides indicating the enthusiasm of persons of different social standing, in building or excavating monuments, also point to combining of different sections of society at the same level, ignoring thereby the caste and class distinctions. And as such the social implications of such religious fervour and enthusiasm are enormous.

The evidence regarding the donors may be examined on two planes—an over-all general survey with regard to the classes of donors and their donations at different centres of art-activity, and the specific donor-monument equation. With regard to the first, we find references to the participation of different sections of society, including kings and chiefs and the members of their families and administration; of caste-men, like Ksatriyas and Brāhmanas; persons of middle ranks occupationally, viz., bankers, chiefs of occupational guilds-sresthis; and the commoners like ploughmen, perfumers, smiths, carpenters, sculptors, etc. Sometimes, such donations represented corporate gifts which were meant both for small and big works. Thus a Junnar Buddhist cave inscription108 refers to the gift of a seven-celled cave and a cistern by the guild of corn-dealers. In another case, Sivama and the members of his family commissioned a cave in which different members of the family took credit for different work e.g., stone-carving through the gift of his sons, pillars through the gift of his daughters, etc. 109 Among the smaller gifts of corporate type in which more than one person were involved, reference may be made to an Amaravati Buddhist inscription which records the "gift of a slab with a filled vase (punaghadaga pata) by the leather-worker Vidhika... and by his son Naga, together with their relatives". Any number of such examples may be quoted here, these two instances being only indicative. Besides the corporate gifts, there are scores of examples of gifts by individuals combined with guilds or those

¹⁰⁸ Luders List, 1180.

¹⁰⁹ Ibid., 1045. (Kuda cave Inscription).

by the individuals alone. Thus we have the recorded instances of such individual donors as kings, the members of their families, and the members of administration (like ministers, commanders, royal scribes, royal physician, etc.). 110 In the construction of the stūpa of Bharhut, we have references to the donations of torana, "gateway"; vedikā "railing"; and śilākarma, "stone-work" by the royal personages.111 The Nagarjuna cave inscriptions of the Mauryan king Dasarath refer to the gifts of the Vāhiyaka, Gopikā, and Vadathika caves to the Ājīvika monks.112 In western India which was under the rule of the Mahārathis and Mahābhojas, who were the feudatories of the Kṣaharātas and the Sātavāhanas, there are inscriptions indicating the chiefs' munificient gifts, as well as those of their families. It is interesting to observe that sometimes the important personages combined with other classes of people and made a corporate gift for excavation and maintenance of some monuments. Thus a Kuda inscription records the gift of a cave by three persons-two of them belonged to the royal family of the Bhojas and the third one was a lekhaka, "scribe", of the Mahābhoja.113

Among the individual donors of lesser ranks, mention¹¹⁴ may be made of a ganikā named Vasu, (daughter of the courtesan Lonasobhikā) who set up a shrine, an āyāgasabhā, a reservior and stone-slabs; a metal-worker, member of a guild, who set up an image of Sarasvatī; and a ploughman; a gardener; a perfumer; a weaver; a dyer; and so on.

The categories are diverse, and seem to include persons of all possible professions and social ranks. Sometimes, the members of lower occupational classes joined with merchants to make a donation, as did a perfumer along with the merchants in making a gift of a pavilion at Amaravati.

¹¹⁰ Ibid., 1253 (minister); 1266 (general); 271,1045; (royal scribes) 1190, 1191 (royal physician); cf., also the Yavana Heliodorus (the ambassador of Antialkidas an Indo-Greek King of North-West), who set up a Garuda pillar at Besnagar; Luders List, 669.

¹¹¹ cf., C.I.I., II (ii), inscription nos. 1,2,3,4,12.

¹¹² Luders List, 954-56.

¹¹³ Ibid., 1079, (Bhaja) 1100 (Karla), 1021,1186; 1052 (Kuda) IV (Bedsa) 1054, 1186, also 943-4 (Pabhosa inscriptions).

¹¹⁴ Ibid., inscription nos. 1037, 102, 54, 1084, 1121, 756, 1210, 1230, 38, 39, 331, 32, 1230.

From such instances it clearly emerges that in raising of monuments, the activity was not limited only to upper classes; in fact, the financial status mattered more. There are instances of men of various occupational classes being instrumental in the excavation of caves, while other instances relate how the more important personalities sometimes took credit only for partial excavations, like a cistern. It seems that different occupations (silpas) were becoming quite remunerative, and a class of traders practising various silpas had emerged more resourceful and at the same time willing to contribute to such activity. The Kanheri inscriptions seem to suport this suggestion.115 In them the largest share in such donations goes to the merchant's class. Of the class-wise break-up of the donative inscriptions here, two epigraphs refer to a princess of Mahābhoja family; one each to a minister, a physician and a jeweller; six to the community of monks, nuns, theras, and theris; and all the rest to the gahapatis, "householders", merchants and traders, and the members of their families. Many of these inscriptions record corporate gifts in the sense that either more than one person combined to raise the monuments, or that the work was financed so that the merit might be incurred by more than one member. The Kanheri inscriptions also suggests that all the donors did not belong to the same region; in many cases they came from such places as Sopārā, Chaula, Dhenukātaka and Kalyāna.116

The interaction of the different classes of people for building specific edifices, indicates the same pattern as detailed earlier. To be more clear on the point, we may refer here to the evidence from the Karla inscriptions. To the twenty inscriptions from the Buddhist cave at Karla, two refer to the Sātavāhana kings, Gautamīputra Śātakarni, and Vāśishṭhīputra Sri Pulumāvi. One inscription records the gift of Rishabhadatta, the son of Dinika and son-in-law of the Kṣatrapa King

117 For the inscriptions of the Buddhist Cave at Karla, cf., Luders List, 1087-1107.

¹¹⁵ Ibid., Luders List, inscription nos. 984-1034

¹¹⁶ This analysis of Kanheri inscription is based on the Luders List, inscription nos. 984-1034, and takes into account those cases where the details of donors are accurately mentioned. The period of the Kanheri caves and their inscription in the Hinayana phase, is roughly AD 90-181, cf., Dahejia, V., op.cit., p. 184.

Nahapāna; while another records the gift of a pillar by Mitradeva. the son of Rishabhadatta. Of the inscriptions concerning the Mahārathīs, the local chiefs, one records the erection of a lion-pillar, a gift of Mahārathī Agnimitra, son of Gauptī; while the other gives details of the gift of a village and a cave to the local samgha by Mahārathī Somadeva. Other epigraphs indicate that the selaghara, "cave-dwelling", "the most excellent one in Jambūdvīpa" was "established" by the banker Bhūtapāla who hailed from Vaijayantī. The contributions for different parts in the cave came from several persons, e.g., the perfumer Simhadatta commissioned the making of the gharamugha, "cave-door" (this was made by the vadhakin, "carpenter" Svāmin, the son of Venuvāsa, an inhabitant of Dhenukātaka); the elephant-motif and the upper and lower *vedikā*, "rails", before the elephant, were carved through the gift of the *thera* Indradeva; the two pairs of figure-sculptures and another pair of the same were donated by the monk Bhadrasena; another vedikā, made by Nandika, was donated by a woman whose name has not been specified; the pillars were excavated through donations from the Yavanas Sihādaya and Dharma, both from Dhenukātaka; and the other pillars were the gifts of such individuals as Bhāyila, the mother of the householder Mahādevanaka, and the preacher Svātimitra. There are two more epigraphs, one records some unspecified gift by a nun and the other refers to a female disciple of a bhadanta who paid for a cistern.

From these inscriptions it is easy to find out the extent of participation of different classes of people in the excavation of the Karla Buddhist cave. Those who contributed included the local chiefs, the king's relatives, bankers, householders, theras, nuns, foreigners, and artisans. Here also we have the information that the people who helped in excavating the cave, in many cases, came from distant places. The banker belonged to Vaijayantī, the perfumer to Dhenukātaka from where also came the carpenter who made the cave-door. The two Yavanas and Mitradeva belonged to Dhenukātaka, while the preacher Svātimitra hailed from Sopārā. Examples of such contributions at the centres of art-activity, by persons coming from different places are available at most of the ancient art centres. 118 This evidence coupled with that of the mobility of artisans from one place to 118 cf., Dahejia, V. op.cit., p. 142.

another, might be profitably evaluated for explicating the pattern of spread of art styles and idioms. It seems that the work executed at one place, did not represent only a local movement; it had the participation of people living far beyond the region of its growth and such people, including both donors and artists, in the course of their movement might have helped in dissemination of the art-idioms developed at the original districts of art-activity.

In the following chapter we will deal further with the evidence available on different categories of artisans in the post-Gupta times, and examine the extent to which this evidence could be utilised in connection with the art-activity under various regional dynasties.

Artists and the Art-activity During the Gupta Times and Later

THE Gupta-Vākātaka phase and the period following it were very important in the development of architecture and sculpture in India. A general survey of the art-activity in the Gupta-Vākātaka period indicates an interesting situation in which the sculptural art seems to have achieved a high degree of sophistication while the architecture of cave-temples and structural edifices continued to have an uneven growth (compared to sculpture). In this period polarisation of style of sculptural art into provincial idioms is fairly discernible. In recent years, artcritics have indicated the existence of a "North-Indian" style of sculptures as distinct from the "Dekkan-Gupta" style or the "Western-Indian" style, all existing during almost the same period. It has been suggested that during the rule of the Guptas and the Vākātakas, the predominant regional impacts shaped the different art-idioms in different parts of the country and these distinct mannerisms of style cannot be combined under a single title of the "Gupta-art". The antecedents of such stylistic variations are definable and it seems that the North-Indian Gupta style was influenced to a great extent by the Mathura School; the Dekkan-Gupta style seems to have derived its form from the idiom prevalent in Maharashtra and which in the process of its development seems to be nearer to the art-idiom of the Iksvākus of Andhra Pradesh. The art of Iksvākus itself, in its early associations, developed from a combination of factors that prevailed in the central India, the western coastal India, and the Vengī region.

The decline of the Guptas marks the end of an era and heralds a new phase distinguished by the rise of different dynasties in different parts of the country. The regions under these dynasties perfected and advanced the artistic tradition which they had inherited. But the immensity as well as the diversity of this heritage and its evolution have created a situation which tends to defy any universally accepted model of classification and critical study. Some art-historians have tried to comprehend the sculptural tradition in segments by presenting it within the framework of the different regional dynasties. Others have tried to adjust the different motifs of art within a chronological or iconographic framework. Still others have tried to periodise the total evolution of sculpture on stylistic basis. For instance, Kramarisch divides it into three phasesprimitive, classical, and mediaeval. These models of study have their inherent limitations for a sculptural type or an idiom of art may cut across the regions and dynasties or be anchronistic within the framework of dynasties or chronology. For instance, we have the "Gupta-art" with its three parallel idioms, or one may also refer to the classical trends in sculptural art having an altogether different course of evolution and dissipation in different regions of India.

In an overview of the artistic situation within the parameters of time and space, some questions may have to remain unanswered, but a study which may take into account the critical factors which formulated distinct idioms of sculpture in

different regions is necessary.

While scholars have comprehended the different nuances and mannerisms of style in the thematic contents of sculptural art of the different regions, the factors responsible for such diversification have not been given much serious thought. The immensity as well as the quality of art-activity however pre-supposes the existence of a body of expert artisans whose experiments in sculpture and the standardisation of such experiments may have been responsible for polarisation of style in different regions.

In the foregoing chapter an analysis of some of the determinants of art activity has been attempted to indicate that monuments came up as a result of a wider participation in which the artisans' share was significant. We will attempt to define it further now within a chronological phase extending from the time of the Guptas to the medieaval times.

Certain new categories of artists came to occupy the scene now. Although direct evidence on the guilds of artists is scarce, the tempo of activity suggests such a possibility. Moreover, the changed political situation led to a shift in the activity from the earstwhile centres; the emergence of new centres of activity suggests mobility of artisans like in the earlier times. Artists even during this phase may be divided into two groups: resident and itinerant. The patronage provided to them seems to have always led to a spurt in the activity as proved both by the extant monuments and the epigraphic references to donors who commissioned such work. The ruling princes seem to have taken great interest in such activity and contributed personally both in term of resources and ideas. For instance, in the Mandagapattu inscription of Mahendravarmana Pallava, the King is called vichitrachitta, "of inventive mind", and he takes credit for building a lakṣita-āyatana, "a very special temple", without the use of conventional materials like bricks, metals, and stone. The inscription evidently implies the rock-cut caves which did not require use of such building-materials.1 Another interesting information coming from the Pallava administrative system refers to the provision of payment of taxes by artisans.2 This indicates the lucrativeness of professions as well as that the practitioners of such professions sometimes permanently resided in villages.

The Nagari plate of Anangabhīma III (Saka 1151-1152 refer to a village which was inhabited by artisans practising various crafts—merchants, perfumers, workers in conch-shells, goldsmith, braziers, sellers of betel, florists, weavers, etc.—and the śilpīs, "craftsmen", find a separate mention in the list. The village in which these artisans lived is described as having several buildings of different types. And by combining the information

¹ E.I., XVII, 14f.

² Ibid., XXIV, inscription no. 43, lines 18-19.

³ Ibid., XXVIII, lines 127ff; XXII, p. 259.

^{4 &}quot;prākāra mukhamaṇḍapa sahita nripagrihatulya griha-chatusśataye nānā-purajana-sameta triśadgriha nirmitam-triśad-vāṭī-parimita-bhūmikān

about śilpīs and the other categories of artists relevant to artactivity on one hand and the temples and edifices mentioned in those epigraphs on the other, it is possible to obtain an idea of the roles of different participants in such activity.

It must be pointed out here that there are certain inherent limitations of inscriptions as a source to find out details concerning artists. These inscriptions recorded only the acts for which they were commissioned to be engraved. Hence, in them a definite scheme regarding the mention of artists is conspicuously absent. Sometimes the artists who designed the buildings and the edifices get credit to that effect in epigraphs;5 sometimes the sūtradhāra, supposed to be the designer and executor of such tasks, finds mention merely as the engraver of the record;6 and in such cases his role in the act may be implicitly accepted. There are, however, certain records exclusively by sūtradhāras which define their role properly and in which these artists find specific mention as the designers and the executors of the monuments⁷ as well as the engravers of the inscriptions.

The epigraphs of the post-Gupta period reveal the emergence of a new class of artists, sūtradhāra, which was destined to play a significant role in the building-activity. But, like in the earlier times there still remains a hiatus between the information as gleaned from the epigraphs on the one hand and the texts on the other, in respect of different types of artisans, their role, and the work-charge. The texts continue to refer to the sthapati, śūtradhāra, vardhakī, etc. The Mānasāra (II. 11-12; 17-20) refers to the origin of divine architects-Viśvakarmā, Maya, Tvashtri, and Manu from the four faces of Brahma and further elucidates that the sons of these architects were respectively sthapati, sūtragrāhin, vardhakī and taksaka.8 As regards the areas of their activity a proficiency in painting was regarded essential for vardhakī, of draughtsmanship for sūtragrāhin, and of

nagaram...". Apparently, the resident silpis must have been the builders who were settled in the locality and may also have helped in the building of the local Jagannath temple which finds mention in the verse 27 of the inscription.

⁵ C.I.I. IV (ii), p. 317.

⁶ Bhandarkar's List, 1683.

⁷ C.I.I., IV, p. 558; E.I., XI, p. 47f.

⁸ cf., Acharya, P. K., Encyclopaedia, VII, S.V., Sthapati.

carpentry for sūtradhāra. The same text accords to sthapati a rank of "the director-general" and "consulting architect", and to sūtragrāhin, a status of supervisor over vardhakī and takṣaka. These injunctions to some extent clarify the role relationship of different types of artisans in the scheme of artactivity as set out by the canons of art and architecture. However, the available epigraphic material does not seem to support the textual prescriptions particularly about sthapati and sūtradhāra.

The sthapati's pre-eminent position amongest the artisans has been stressed in the Śilpaśāstra. 10 The Matsya Purāna describes a sthapati as one who is conversant with architectural design and foresees (everything), and is skilful, industrious, and a "champion in architectural matters". 11 The Samarāngana-Sūtradhāra of the Paramāra King Bhoja describes in detail the qualifications of a sthapati and warns against choosing a wrong person for building edifices.12 To be a true sthapati was a formidable job. The text requires him to be proficient both in the precepts and the practice of architecture and the sculptural art. Just as a knowledge of astrology, astronomy, the science of numbers, chhandas, crafts, the mechanical devices (yantras), and plans was necessary for a sthapati, it was also essential that he knew painting, carpentry, masonry, stonework, metal-work, etc.¹³ The Samarāngana-Sūtradhāra enjoins that merely a skill in the śāstra, "theory" and its karma, "application", was not enough in a sthapati; prattyutpanna-mati, "a ready wit", modest behaviour; and honesty were equally important for him in the practice of his skill. Elsewhere, the same text14 says that sthapati should be worshipped in order to 9 Ibid.,

¹⁰ Acharya, P. K., Indian Architecture, p. 137-8,

Mayamatam, IV. 13-14; Vāstu-vidyā, ed. Ganapati Śāstri, I. 12-15.

¹¹ cf., Acharya, P. K. Encyclopaedia S.V., Sthapati; p. 580. ¹² Samrāngaņa-Sūtradhāra (G.O.S., 25, Baroda 1966), ch. 44.

¹³ Ibid., 44.3; 20-1; 44. 11-12; The crafts had got standardized under the head of śilpa. The commentary on Kuttanīmatam explains śilpa to be of eight kinds, e.g., ālekhya, lekha, dārukarma, chitikarma, pāshāṇakarma, raupya-karma, devakarma, and chitrakarma, cf., Bhattacharya, T.P., The Canons of Indian Art, p. 371.

¹⁴ Samarāngaņa-Sūtradhāra, ch. 37. The verses 36-7 enjoin that workers (parikarmakaras) should also be pleased by offering gold, cloths, etc., and by addressing them nicely.

please Tvashtri, the divine architect. This again indicates the importance given to sthapati in the canons of śilpa.

This pre-eminent status of sthapati notwithstanding, the inscriptions relating to the raising of edifices, usually refer to the sūtradhāras, śilpīs, and rūpakāras, and seem to ignore sthapatis in those contexts. Epigraphic mentions of sthapatis are very rare. A Sthapati-samrāt occurs alongwith other royal officials, e.g. bhogika, uparika, etc., in the Karitalai copper plate of the Uchhakalpa King Jayanāth;15 the Vasantagarh stone inscription of Pūrnapāla (A.D. 1042) refers to a sthpati Nāga as the designer of a fort in the ancient city of Vata. 16 Two sūtradhāras, Deuka and his son Sivapāla, also find mention in this record alongwith the sthapati Naga. The Peshawar Museum inscription of Vanhadatta (A.D. 1461) refers to the sthapati Simgalī Kārgī, the son of Kālī, as the builder of a pond.17 These are some of the instances, where a sthapati does occur, but compared to the inscriptions referring to the other categories of artists, particularly the sūtradhāra, these instances, in fact, are too few to support sthapati's predominant position as set out in the Śilbaśāstras.

The prominance of sūtradhāras compared to sthapati in the inscriptions and the opposite of it in the canons creates problems in explicating their relative importance and status in artisans, hierarchical set-up. The canons and the epigraphs appear to reflect two extremes but the latter may be regarded as more authentic owing to their close relationship with the edifices. Since the charters referring to the sūtradhāras and other artisans were usually engraved at the conclusion of work, they are apt to create an impression that those artisans (e.g. sūtradhāras) who were closer to the building activity found mention in them while others like sthapati who as designers were remote might have been ignored. Hence, a greater importance to sūtradhāras. The canons do reflect such a situation of proximity and remoteness when they sometimes refer

¹⁵ C.I.I., III, p. 118. The word has been translated as "Chief of architects". However, it has been remarked that it may mean "Superintendent of attendants of the women's apartment", Ibid., p. 120, fn. 5.

¹⁶ E.I., IX, 6, 12-15.

¹⁷ Ibid., X, 80-1.

to sthāpaka¹⁸ as the actual worker. A system like this may have helped in elevating the roles of actual workers.

Like the sthapati who has been defined in texts as a theoretician as well as a practitioner in architectural matters, the sūtradhāras too claim, in the epigraphs, a proficiency in both the areas of śilpa.19 Some attempt has been made to explain this anomaly regarding the roles and status of sthapatis and sūtradharas and it has been suggested that the former fail to find mention in the inscriptions because with the growth of building activity they were displaced by the institution of sūtradhāra. As regards the sthapati's important status in the texts, it has been suggested that texts record an earlier tradition which may have become non-existent when the texts were a actually committed to writing.20 In any case, a dichotomy, between the two (the sthapati and sūtradhāra) in designing and execution of work is difficult to establish. A synchronism of roles regarding the theory and practice of crafts in sūtradhāra may ultimately have made the sthapati redundant, although canons continued to beat the line previously established.

The sūtradhāra had come to occupy a special place amongst the artisans. The texts and particularly inscriptions from the sixth century onwards refer to him consistently. One of the earliest references²¹ to a sūtradhāra is found in an inscription in the Ajanta cave (No. XV) and in the inscriptions of the Pāṇḍuvaṁsī kings of South Kosala. The term and its variants were sūtrabhrit, sūtradhātri, and sūtradhārin; reference is also made to sūtradhāra-pitāmaha, "the very best amongst the artisans" and to gajadhara as synonymous to sūtradhāra.²² It may be of use to enquire into the circumstances which led to the emergence of sūtradhāra in the realm of art-activity. The available evidence indicates a close affinity of dramatic arts with the building-arts.²³ And this affinity may suggest that the role

¹⁸ cf., Acharya, P.K., Encyclopaedia, VII, S.V., Sthāpaka "one who instals, actual worker, perhaps the principal assistant to the "sthapati".

¹⁹ cf., C.I.I., IV (ii), p. 555.

²⁰ cf., Dhavalikar, M.K., "Sūtradhāra", Annals of Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute, III (i-iv) 1971, (pub. 1972), p. 218.

²¹ Dhavalikar M.K., "Sri Yugadhara—A Master Artist of Ajanta", Artibus Asiae, XXXI. 4, (1969), pp. 301-8.

²² cf., Sircar, D. C., Indian Epigraphical Glossary, (1969), p. 329, 108.

²³ It is of significance that takṣaka has been explained by lexicographers

as well as the designation of sūtradhāra in art-activity was borrowed from dramatic arts. There were certain other sources too of such borrowings as shown below.

The roles of sūtragrāhin and sūtrakāras have been properly defined in the Epics, the Manu Samhita (IV. 47-48) and the Mahāvastu. It may be suggested that in the development of his total profile, the sūtradhāra combined the tasks of sūtragrāhin and sūtrakāras of the earlier times on one hand and the executive role of sūtradhāra, as in the dramatic performances, on the other. A close correspondence of art-activity, vis-a-vis the dramatic activity is clearly definable in terms of roles and functions of some of the performers. In the Sanskrit plays, a prologue was necessary and in this prologue which was outside the story, the sūtradhāra welcomed the audience, gave information about the author and play, and the context in or the reason for which the play was to be performed.24 This he did either alone or along with his assistants, or natīs and vidūśaka and thus in a way, acted as a producer.25 Such a sūtradhāra and the whole range of his activity in the domain of drama has been compared to that of sūtradhāra and his function in the realm of art-activity. Banabhatta in his Harsha-Charita indicates a similarity between temples and drama with the help of three paronomastic clauses in a verse which says that Bhasa gained as much splendour by his plays with introductions spoken by the manager (sūtradhāra), full of various characters and furnished with startling episodes, as he would have done by erecting temples created by architects (sūtradhāra) adorned with several stories and decorated with banners.26 (A parallel between the sūtradhāras in drama and the one in a building-act can be clearly seen from the above.) It may be surmised on basis of

as sūtradhāra, or a speaker in the prelude to a drama. c.f., Monier-Williams, Sanskrit-English Dictionary S.V., taksaka. It may be inferred that during the post-Gupta phase, when a standard terminology regarding artists in the field of building-activity, was in the process of formulation, terms defining their role and functions were accepted from Drama for the obvious reasons of the identity of functions. Such words as takṣaka, sūtradhāra, and sthāpaka may be cited as instances here. 24 cf., Rangacharya, A., Introduction to Bharata's Nātyaśāstra, pp. 66; 24-6.

²⁵ Ibid., pp. 24-6.

²⁶ Harsha-Charita, (ed. Kane, P. V., 1965), I, 15.

such evidence, that the institution of $s\bar{u}tradh\bar{u}ra$ came to be adopted in art-activity, as a result of shifts of roles or due to convergence of various functions into one personality $s\bar{u}tradh\bar{u}ra$ —after a similar functionary in the domain of drama.

The sūtradhāra finds mention in the Silpaśāstras where he ranks fourth besides sthapati, sūtragrāhin, and vardhakī in that order. The Mānasāra lays down that the sūtradhāra like all the other must be well-versed in the Vedas and Śāstras; in addition to this, he should also possess an expert knowledge of carpentry. In the Silpa-dīpikā the qualifications of a sūtradhāra have been described as follows: "One who is of good behaviour, clever, skilful, learned, free from lust (excessive desire of gain), can forgive (rivals), and belongs to the twice-born class, is called the Sūtradhāra". 28

In view of such references in the texts to the sūtradhāra, it will be useful to examine his functions as spelled out in the epigraphs. By far, the most frequently mentioned act of sūtradhāra, according to the epigraphs, was to engrave the grants or charters of kings or individual donors. It was customary for king and other donors to employ a lekhaka, "scribe", to record the donations on a copper plate or on a stone-slab, and the sūtradhāras used to engrave such letters by a stylus, after the alphabet had been written by lekhakas. The processes of writing as well as the various stages through which a royal charter had to pass before it was engraved, find frequent mention in epigraphs. For instance, an eleventh century plate of Nettabhanja Tribhuvana-Kalaśa is described as having been approved by an officer Bhatta Arkadeva, registered by the seal of Queen after which it was taken to the donee's place and executed (praveśita) by a pratihāra, "attendant". The grant was further assented by a vārgulī, "bearer of the king's betelbox". This document was written by a sāndhivigrahika, "a minister", and engraved by the akṣaśālin, "goldsmith", Nāpā.29 Sometimes the kings also wrote on a plate, whereafter it was passed on for engraving. Thus in the case of Takkali plates of Mahārāja Umāvarma, the king is mentioned both as the writer

²⁷ cf., Acharya, P.K., op.cit., pp. 137-8; also Encyclopaedia S.V. sūtragrāhin, sūtradhāra, sūtradhārin.

²⁸ cf., Encyclopaedia, S.V. sthapati. p. 580.

²⁹ E.I., XXVIII, 279.

and the executor of the charter which was engraved by Keśavadeva, a vāstavya who was resident in the village of Pishṭapur.³⁰

An emphasis on the role of sūtradhāra as engraver of charters does not imply that no other ranks of artisans or craftsmen were available to do this job. The nature of their artistic skill automatically rendered artisans such as śilpī, vijñānika and rūpakāra a likely choice for engraving letters on stone or on copper plates. There is the example of a silpī engraving letters of a prasasti "as a lover would paint the portrait of his mistress". In another instance, the letters engraved by Mahīdhara are compared to "stars in the sky.32 Mahīdhara was a sūtradhāra. Some inscriptions like these shower praises on engravers for their skill in engraving. There are other inscriptions which besides praising such skill also dwell upon the engravers' other qualities. Thus, a silpī named Karnabhadra is referred to as "one whose engraving was neat and who was intelligent, courteous and an accurate workman".33 Sometimes engravers rendered the letters ornately in the forms of creepers, birds, and animals. It is said about a Canarese sculptor Sovarasi that he could entwine "forms of elephant, lion, parrot and many other forms" that would "shine among letters", and a suggestion is made whether anyone could be so mad as to "compete with such a sculptor, Sovarasi".34

Sivaramamurti has pointed out that the artist's "boast is not empty" and his claim is borne out "from such ornamental letters found engraved in some of the Canarese inscriptions". There are several other examples of such ornamental letters as used in the inscriptions. In the Rājīvalochana temple at Rajim in Madhya Pradesh, a pillar has the name of Śrī Pūrṇāditya engraved in an extremely ornamental design. 36

³⁰ Ibid., p. 298.

³¹ E.I., XIII, 295.

²² C.I.I., IV (i), p. 317, verse 37.

²³ E.I., II, 354: Karnabhadrena bhadrena silpinā-alpabuddhinā tāmramvinayanamrena nirmitam sādhukarmanā.

²⁴ Epigraphia Carnatica, XI, 47.

³⁵ Sivaramamurti, C., Indian Epigraphy and South India Script, p. 34, fig. 14.

³⁶ Cunningham, A., Archaeological Survey of India, Reports, XVII, pl. X, p. 19; also, Sivaramamurti, C., op. cit., 36-7 fig. 17.

The inscriptions from this area offer several names of local artists and sūtradhāras, e.g., Durgahastin, Gonnasiva (also as Ārya Gonna), Dronasimha Golasimha. These artists were the engravers of the records of the early kings of south Kosala.³⁷ It is likely that pūrnāditya whose signature occurs on a pillar in the Rājīvalochana temple, might have been the maker of the pillar and might have belonged to the line of some of the sūtradhāras of the region.

Sūtradhāras thus figure prominently as engravers. It is likely that owing to their pre-eminent position in their realm of activity the sūtradhāras decided upon either doing the job themselves or deputing other ranks of artisans such as silpī, rūpakāra, etc., for it. Inscriptions sometime refer to such a relationship between sūtradhāra and other ranks of artisans. We have the instance of Nīlakantha who is said to have engraved the Chandrehe inscription of Prabodhasiva, a Saiva ascetic (A.D. 973) on the command of the sūtradhāra Sūrāk.38 Another Kalachuri inscription says how an artisan Mahīdhara engraved the letters of an inscription after the sūtradhāra Pīthe had worked out the relative proportions of the text of the inscription and the rock on which it was to be engraved. 39 In the act of engraving records, the sūtradhāras stood in close relationship to the lekhakas, "scribes", who find mention in inscriptions as early as the beginning of the Christian era.40 The scribes find mention alongside the sūtradhāra and the other śilpīs-suvarnakāra, lohakāra, "smiths", aksaśālin, "goldsmiths", etc.-in the inscriptions of the Gupta period and later.41 Sircar has described the practice that was prevalent with regard to writing and engraving of records. He says that the mason started the work by dressing the stone and drawing letters on it with ink under

³⁷ E.I., XXXI, 36 (Vasuguṇa), p. 198 (Prabhākara); XXXI (Dronasimha); p. 316 (Golasimha; in the record of Sudeva); Bhandarkar's List, 1882 (Gonnasiva).

³⁸ C.I.I., IV (i), p. 204

³⁹ Ibid., p. 317.

⁴⁰ Luders List, 271, 1045, 1148; A Kalachuri record refers to a śilpī Sarvānanda as karaṇika (an officer) who wrote a record which was engraved by Vidyānanda. cf., C.I.I., IV (i) p. 259.

⁴¹ The profession of scribes finds mention among higher crafts together with gaṇanā "counting" and muddā, etc. The word lekhā occurs in the Udāna 32; Milinda-Pañho, 59, 178;

the supervision and guidance of the writer. Sometimes the professional writer himself copied the text of the document for the guidance of the engraver. Several inscriptions refer to this practice.42 Sometimes the sūtradhāra himself wrote and engraved the letters, as in the case of sūtradhāra Kālada, son of Prahlāda-Govinda, who wrote and engraved the Kodinara (Baroda State) inscription.43

The medieaval inscriptions usually provide the details concerning the composers of texts, and their writers and engravers. Sometimes the writer and engraver was the same person.44 However, among the writers or scribes are encountered a galaxy of officers who specially wrote the inscription, in their capacities as sāndhivigrahika, "minister of peace and war"; mantrins, "ministers"; karanikas; vāstavyas, "keepers of records"; etc.45 Although the sūtradhāras usually figure as engravers of records, others also did this job, and among them mention may be made to the aksaśālin46 or suvarnakāra47, "goldsmith"; tatthakāra48, "metal-workers"; lohāra49, "blacksmith"; or vanik50, "trader". The fee for doing such job was regulated. For instance, according to the Kendupatna plates of Narasimha II (Saka 1217), the engraver of the plates, the coppersmith Pannadi (who was also the writer of the first set of the Kendupatna plates), received "one vātikā (a measure) of mixed homestead and water-covered land" (i.e. irrigated land), as his fees for doing the job.51 Sometimes we come across inscriptions which recorded only the name of engravers without any reference to their occupation, making it difficult to properly evaluate their significance in relation to artisans.52

This analysis shows that one of the important tasks of the

⁴² Sircar, D.C., Indian Epigraphy, p. 85.

⁴³ Bhandarkar's List, 577.

⁴⁴ Ibid., 579

⁴⁵ cf., EI., XXVIII. 279; Bhandarkar's List, 611, 371.

⁴⁶ Ibid., 1479, 1496-1498; 1500-1502.

⁴⁷ Ibid., 1490, 1493, 1786-1787. Sometime the goldsmith is mentioned as vanik-suvarnakāra, 'merchant-goldsmith'; Ibid., 1492; E.I., XXVIII, 46.

⁴⁸ Ibid., p. 214.

⁴⁹ Bhandarkar's List, 362, 368.

⁵⁰ Ibid., 1701, 2057

⁵¹ E.I., XXVIII., 189.

⁵² cf., Bhandarkar's List, 1386, 1703.

sūtradhāra was to engrave the records although quite often other functionaries also performed this job. Apparently a sūtradhāra was employed for such work owing to his skill in incising letters on rock or copper-plates. But this must have been one of his peripheral jobs for he had a proven skill in carving intricate patterns on stone. There were other classes of artists besides the sūtradhāra, who engraved records mainly because they were expert carvers and workers on stone. We will make a digression here and mention about the śilpīs and rūpakāras in this connection and then come back to the sūtradhāras. Amongst the śilpīengravers, epigraphs refer among others, to Pūnasimha, the son of Nāhada, as engraver of the Chintra praśasti "eulogy";53 to śilpī Rāmadeva the son of the rūpakāra, "sculptor", Sihaka who engraved the Dhar prasasti of Paramara Arjunadeva;54 to the rūpakāra Kānhada who engraved a charter of the Paramāra Jayavarmana.55 The Silimpur (Bogra District) stone inscription of Jayapāladeva of Kāmarūpa was engraved by Someśvara, a Magadhan artist—"śilpāvin Māgadhah". The inscription records that "just as a lover (paints) with rapt attention his own mistress by means of colour decoration, so did Someśvara, the Magadhan artist (śilpī), incise (with rapt attention) this praśasti by means of a division of letters". 56 The Deopara inscription of the Sena King Vijayasena similarly refers to the Rānaka Śūlapāni "the crest-jewel of the artist-guild of Varendra, the son of Brihaspati and the grandson of Manadasa", as the engraver of the record.57 Such illustrious artists-śilpīs and rūpakāras obviously engraved the records as a side-job, and the flattering details of their expertise and status as given in the epigraphs hardly leave any doubt about their overall proficiency in silpas which they practised. It may be suggested here, that kings usually employed

⁵³ E.I., I., 287

⁵⁴ Bhandarkar's List, 1660, This prasasti contains two acts of a play: Pārijātamañjarī.

⁵⁵ E.I., XXXII, 156; Bhandarkar's List, 559.

⁵⁶ śilpāvin-Māgadhah-kāmī-tana-māna-varnabhaktibhih, Someśvaro 'alikhadiyam praśastim-iva-priyāyām'. There is a pun in the words varnabhakti and alikhat; varna is both a 'pigment for painting' and 'letter'; bhakti, 'variegated decoration' and 'division'; the root likh means both 'to 'paint' and 'to inscribe'. cf., Basak R.G., E.I., XIII, p. 295.

^{57 &}quot;Vārendraka śilpī goshthī-chūdāmaņi-rāņaka Sūlapāņi...", cf., Mukherji, R.R. and M. K. Maity, Corpus of Bengal Inscriptions, p. 249, verse 36.

skilled artisans to operationalise the construction work and such artists, even as they did more important jobs, also looked after smaller tasks like engraving the grants or the charters of their employers.

In view of the above, it would be naive to regard such skilled artisans merely as engravers of records and nothing more. They had greater responsibility and skill which showed itself in their accomplishments pertaining to the building-activity on a larger scale. And it will be worthwhile to find out how closely the $s\bar{u}tradh\bar{a}ras$ and other classes of artisans were connected with the building of temples and their sculptural decoration and the special role of $s\bar{u}tradh\bar{a}ra$ at various stages of such activity.

There are inscriptions which vividly refer to the *sūtradhāras* and their specific participation at various stages of construction. We also come across a large number of sculptures which carry the names of *sūtradhāras* or other artists who designed them. Some inscriptions mention certain individual artists—*śilpī*, *rūpakāra*, etc.—who carved the sculptures either independently or under the supervision of *sūtradhāras*. There are also a large number of inscriptions in which donors have referred to raising up of monuments and the names of *sūtradhāras* in them appear only as the engravers of the records. Since the *sūtradhāra* was not meant merely for such small tasks, it may be assumed that in the constructions mentioned in such epigraphs, the *sūtradhāras* might have been intimately associated in raising up of the building, even though specific credit, due to them was not specified either by default or for some other reason.

The sūtradhāras had the requisite qualification for the job by their knowledge of the theory of craft. This is proved by the cases of sūtradhāras who wrote on Silpašāstra. Several such texts are available. We have the Vāstu rājavallabha, the Devatāmūrti-prakaraṇa and the Rūpamaṇḍana ascribed to the sūtradhāra Maṇḍana. The text written by the Paramāra King Bhoja on architecture and iconography is entitled Samarāngaṇa-Sūtradhāra. The śilpī Pingala and the sūtradhāra Ahidhara (Ahiva) find mention in the Bhuvanapradīpa, a canon of Orissan architecture. This evidence reinforces the supposition that a sūtradhāra was not merely an engraver and his knowledge and

skill extended to much higher level. 59 As an active practitioner of his trade, he was required to have special qualifications in it. This can be seen from an epigraph concerning the sūtradhāra Chhītaku. The epigraph informs that he was an expert in śilpaśāstra; adept in the art of carving statues in wood, stone. and gold; equally proficient in carving creepers and plant-motifs. In addition to this, Chhītaku claims to have been well-versed in the jantra-vidyā and mahāvidyā (evidently related to Śilpaśāstra); in the intricacies of iconometry (relating to the sapta-tāla and nava-tāla proportions of images); and in the playing of certain types of vinās such as vanka and trivanka.60

The proficiency of many other sūtradhāras in the canons of architecture and iconography is a subject of reference in several other epigraphs. An excellent artist Stotakāchāri is described as "of Viśvāmitra-gotra, supreme lord of Lankādvīpa-pura.... versed in all Sastras, sought after to construct ornamental buildings and upper storeys, adorned with all good qualities of head..., distinguished in giving advice, of Hammigade (i. e., belonging to) house created by Manu, Maya, Mandabya and Viśvakarmā..."61 The sūtradhāra Pīthe claimed proficiency in the Viśvakarma-śāstra. 62 And many more such instances confirm the fact that the sūtradhāras were well-versed in the theoretical aspects of their crafts, and consequently took active part in executing the work expected of them. There are specific instances to prove the latter too.

The epigraphs of the Kalachuris of Tripuri and Ratanpur afford information about several of the sūtradhāras who, in their individual capacity or hereditarily, were connected with the

⁵⁹ A śilpī-composer of a text on iconography and architecture is known from Silpa-Prakāśa. The copyists note on the colophon of the text describes that it was "composed by the excellent silpi who belonged to the Udgāta family". The name of the śilpī was Bhattāraka Rāmachandra Mahāpātra who is mentioned as "devoted to Kaulāchāra". cf. Śilpa-Prakāśa, p. 60; for more details, Ibid., pp. 129-30.

⁶⁰ C.I.I., IV (ii), p. 555

⁶¹ Epigraphia Carnatice, V. (i), p. 530, transl. p. 237; cf., Encyclopaedia, p. 581., no. 9.

⁶² C.I.I., IV (i), pp. 307, 317; also 561; E.I., p. 44 ff; For a discussion on the vidyās, "knowledge", of sūtradhāras, etc. cf., Encyclopaedia, p. 589 ff.

different ruling kings of the above dynasty.63 Almost similar phenomenon is evident in other regions of the country, and there is a clear evidence of the artists and sūtradhāras taking credit for works executed by them. An inscription of the early Chālukyas refers to Śrī Gunda, the sūtradhāra "who made the temple of the Queen of Vikramaditya II...".64 This inscription, found on the eastern gateway of the courtyard of Virūpākṣa temple at Pattadkal, tells that the temple was constructed for Lokamahādevī to commemorate her husband's conquest of Kanchi.65 Yet another inscription of these early Chālukyas, found on the east face of the Papanath temple of Pattadkal, refers to a sculptor Chattare Revadi Ovajja as "one who decorated the whole southern country with his temples".66 The inscription is of great value as it offers information about the Sarva-Siddhaāchāryas who seem to have represented probably some guild of architects or builders. Chattare Revadi Ovajja was one of the Sarva-Siddha-āchāryas and was acquainted with the "secrets of Śri-Silemudde" (probably the name of some particular guild of stone-masons).67 A Sarva-Siddha-āchārya finds mention in one of the Canarese inscriptions as "the asylum of all virtuous qualities, the bitamaha, the maker of many cities and houses; he whose conversation is entirely perfect and refined, he who has for a jewelled diadem and crest jewel the houses and palaces and vehicles and seats and couches (that he has constructed), the (most eminent) sūtradhārī of the southern country". 68 The builder of the temple of Lokamahadevi mentioned above has the title Sarva-Siddha-āchārya. 69 The Chola records also corroborate

⁶³ C.I.I., IV. (i-ii), pp. 224, 557, 561, 585

⁶⁴ cf., Indian Antiquary, X, p. 164, notes 6-10.

⁶⁵ cf. Encyclopaedia, pp. 585-6, inscription nos. 34 and 35.

⁶⁶ Ibid., p. 586. inscription no. 37. It is interesting to find mention of a Rayana Ojjha and his son Samgrāma, in the records of the Somavamśī King of Orissa and Andhra. cf., Bhandarkar's List, 1557, 1560. This is indicative of the mobility of artisans as well as the continuity of the same line of artists for a considerable period of time.

⁶⁷ Encyclopaedia, p. 585, inscription no. 35.

⁶⁸ Reference is also made in some of these inscriptions to the banishment and readmission into the caste of the artisans of the locality, of skilful people; import of this is not clear. cf., Fleet, J., Indian Antiquary, X, p. 164.

⁶⁹ In the South Indian inscriptions, chārī, āchāriya, āchārya, Ojjha are fairly recurrent as titles for sūtradhāra. cf., Encyclopaedia, 586.

the role of artists in their constructional achievement as well as the artists' awareness of Silpa-Sāstras. The great Chola sculptor Ravi is said to have been well-versed in different silpa texts, and capable of constructing different kinds of vimānas "temples"; gopuras, "gateways"; and mandapas, "halls".70 In this connection, some of the inscriptions of the Guhila King Rānā Kumbhākarna are of great interest for not only supplying information about the names of different sūtradhāras and their role in making some edifices of the king, but also for specifying the details of the canonical sources in reference to architectural matters.⁷¹ These inscriptions repeatedly refer to a sūtradhāra, Jaita, the son of Lākhā and his five sons Nāpā, Pumjā, Bhūmi, Chuthi, and Pomā. Jaita and his two sons-the first two listed above-find mention in an inscription (of A.D. 1430) as visiting the Samadhiśvara temple at Chittor.72 These three architects are mentioned again in another Chittorgarh inscription in which they claim to have made the kīrtti-stambha, "victory-tower", of the Rāṇā Kumbhā. This claim is repeated in another inscription which specifies the names of the artisans, Nāpā, Bhūmi, and Chuthi, who executed the job. Pumja however, fails to occur in this inscription. Another inscription records the "creation of the mahāmeru śrī kīrttistambha and the śri-ranapoli, "royal ward", near the mahā-pratolī, "main-gateway", by the sūtradhāra Jaita along with his sons Nāpā, Pumjā, and Pomā. It is no wonder that such a long association of this family of the sūtradhāras with the reigning king was amply rewarded. On the Kumbhalasvāmī Vaishnava temple at Chittor, constructed in the middle of the fifteenth century, the architect Jaita, along with his two sons, figures amongst the decorative portrait sculptures adorning the temple.73

Thus, as regards the primary function of sūtradhāras, although the texts of śilpa reserved for them the joiners' task in building temples and the epigraphs referred to them usually as engravers,

⁷⁰ cf., Sivaramamurti, C., Indian Sculpture, p. 4.

⁷¹ Bhandarkar's List, 1860, 769, 789, 804, 811, 803, 819.

⁷² This temple is now known as Advadji or Mokalji temple; it was originally built by the Paramāra King Bhoja and named after him as Tribhuvana-Nārāyaṇa, which was also one of the titles of the king. Yet another name later ascribed to this temple was: 'Bhoja-Svāmideva jagatī, cf. Rajputana Museum Report, 1924-25 pp. 3.4.

⁷³ cf., Sivaramaurti, C, op.cit. p. 7.

a number of inscriptions indicate that their responsibilities were far greater. Many inscriptions clearly explicate his role in building temples, etc., owing to his knowledge as well as the practice of silpa. The evidence discussed above, shows that he was responsible for execution of work from designing to the completion. He probably served as a general supervisor, and maintained a liaison with the donor whose financial help and religious fervour were mainly instrumental in the raising of a monument. The sūtradhāra's role as a supervisor and the executor of such tasks is confirmed by his description in the Harshacharita of Bānabhatta,74 and is further corroborated by an allegorical reference to the god Gokarneśvara mentioned as a sūtradhāra in an inscription from Carnataka, e.g., Gokarnasvāmi: sakala-bhuvana-nirmānaika-sūtradhārasya. "the sole archi tect for the creation of all the world".75

Although the sūtradhāras were usually employed by the kings, instance of other categories of persons employing them exclusively for their works are also known. The Ihalarapatan Varāha image inscription of c. ninth century contains information about a Lakulīśa saint Īśānajamu and his artisan the sūtradhāra Sīhata—tasya karmakaro bhrityah sūtradhārotra Sīhatah.76 Bhandarkar has suggested that this Saiva saint may have been the head-priest of the local Sītaleśvara Mahādeva temple, "the shrine-door of which...has a figure of Lakulī on the dedicatory block".77 If this conjecture is correct it emerges that even though the sūtradhāra Sīhata stood in a special relationship to the śaiva priest Īśānajamu, he carved a Vaishnava image and that a strict sectarianism was not the goal of the professional practitioner of śilpa. The employment of the sūtradhāra by the temple priest or the Saiva saint may have been due to the fact that sometimes they also financed raising of temples. Many such instances are known from the Kalachuri epigraphs. It may be pointed out that the sūtradhāras were as proficient in carving of sculptures as they were adept in the science of architecture. A typical example of such adeptness may be inferred from the inscription on the Sarasvati

⁷⁴ Harsha-charita, I, 15.

⁷⁵ cf., Encyclopaedia, p. 583.

⁷⁶ cf., Bhandarkar, D.R., J.B.B.R.S., XII, p. 151 ff.

⁷⁷ Ibid

image from Dhārā, now deposited in the British Museum, London. This image, according to the inscription on it, was engraved by the sūtradhāra Mamthala the son of Sahira: sūtradhāra Sahira-suta Mamthalena ghatitam.78 These instances do not leave any doubt as to the true role of the sūtradhāras. On the basis of this evidence it may be argued that their main task related to building edifices for which they were eminently suited by their theoretical and practical knowledge.

In the execution of their jobs the sūtradhāras had the assistance of equally capable associates like the śilpīs, rūpakāras, etc. An examination of their role vis-a-vis the sūtradhāra, may help in understanding the organisational or the hierarchical set-up of artists. The sūtradhāra appears to have been the overall incharge of the construction activity probably in the fashion of navakarmikas of earlier times. The other categories of artisans were śilpī, rūpakāra, chitrakāra, karmika etc. These different classes of artisans may have existed parallel to the sūtradhāra or as is more likely worked under his supervision. There is enough epigraphic material concerning different categories of artisans and the areas of their skill.

The term śilpī, denoted in a special sense a "sculptor". Besides fashioning images, the silpīs also engraved records of kings whenever they were called to do so. In fact, silpa and silpī are words of wider connotation and include different types of craftsmen dealing with sculpture or architecture. In the Silpa-prakāśa (I. 5-9) a twelfth century treatise on architecture and sculpture, the śilpavidya has been defined as a knowledge of wood-work, stone-work, iron-work, gold-work, and painting. In the Mayamatam (v. 13-14), another work on śilpa, four types of śilpīs sthapati, sūtragrāhin, taksaka, and vardhaki—are referred to. This would indicate that the terms śilpī and śilpa included all the different categories of artisans and craftsmen. The epigraphic evidence, mostly from the mediaeval inscriptions, however, sometimes signifies special association of silpa or silpī with the sculptural art and architecture, and this connotation is wide enough to cover the whole country. The contents of some relevant inscriptions may explicate this point. The Methi inscription of the Yādava Krishņa (dated śaka 1176) refers to

⁷⁸ cf., Sivaramamurti, C., Indian Sculpture, p. 5, plate 39.

the śilpī Hemadeva who engraved the record. In addition, it also refers to another person-Siddha Sārasvata of Kaśyapa family—who cut the stone slab for inscribing the record.79 The last verse of the inscription states that the god's image was fashioned according to the tālamāna, "rules of iconometry". The Chirwa inscription of the Guhila King Someśvara Simha (v.s. 1330) was engraved by Kelisimha with further help from śilpī Delhana".80 In the Dhar praśasti reference is made to śilpī Rāmadeva the son of rūpakāra Sīhaka.81 These titles seem to reflect the different levels of expertise according to which different titles such as śilpī or rūpakāra were applied. The word rūpakāra traditionally signified a sculptor,82 and a proximity of word śilpī is clearly established with the former when the two occur in the cases of father and son. Furthermore, it also denotes that the occupation was hereditary. There are instances of śilpīs "sculptors", who carved images and sometimes recorded the fact on their creation. An image of Sūrya from Bengal, now in the British Museum, bears in the Nagarī characters of tenth century the inscription reading "(this image) has been carved in stone by the wise and good silpī (sculptor), Amrit a pupil of Indranīlamaņi".83 One of the pillars of the famous Lal Darwaza at Jaunpur, bears the name of a śilpī Kamau, the son of Viśadru.84

Sivaramamurti has collected information regarding the various sculptors of South India whose skill is portrayed by the sculptures carved on the temples at Belur, Somanathpuram, etc. Of these skilled artisans, Dasoja was famed as a smiter of the

⁷⁹ E.I., XXVII, 320, ff; The inscription is engraved on the lintel of the entrance hall of a Viṣṇu temple; the record also describes the temple (verse 9). Kullkarni (Samśodhana, a Marathi Journal, Vol. VI. no. 3, pp. 214-17) indentifies this Hemadeva with the famous Hemādri, the writer of Mayamatam; the suggestion however is not acceptable to P. B. Desai, cf., E.I., XXVIII, p. 313 fn. A śilpī belonging to the Kaśyapa family is mentioned in another inscription of sixth-seventh century A.D. cf., E.I., XXXII, p. 296-7. Kaśyapa was one of the originators of a school of śilpā named after him vide, Bhattacharya T.P., Canons of Indian Art, p. 178.

⁸⁰ Bhandarkar's List, 579.

⁸¹ Ibid., 1660.

⁸² Ibid., 559.

⁸³ cf., Chanda, R.P., Indian Sculpture, p. 66, pl. xx.

^{.84} cf., Encyclopaedia, p. 582

crowd of titled sculptors; his son was like a "śiva to the cupids" i. e. the titled sculptors, or a *bheruṇda* to the *śarabhas*, i. e. rival sculptors. Chikka Hampa bore the title of "champion over rival sculptors"; Malliyana, a "tiger amongst sculptors", was also like "a thunderbolt to the mountains", i.e. rival titled sculptors. Many such famed artists are known from other regions also. In the inscriptions from Bengal, reference is made to the *śilpīs* Mahīdhara and Śaśidhara of Posali, a traditional home of artisans. Several other *śilpīs* "artists", of this place are known from inscriptions, e. g., Pushyāditya; Chandrāditya; and the *śilpī* Saśideva the son of Hri (da) deva. 86

Besides the śilpīs there were also other classes of artists such as rūpakāra, karmika, chitrakāra. The title rūpakāra occurs often in the records of the ruling dynasties of central India. Amongst the rūpakāras, "sculptors", who worked for the Paramāras reference may be made to Sīhaka and Kānhaka (or Kānhada).87 The Mandhata plates of Paramara Jayavarmana refer to the rūpakāra Kānhaka, while the Godarpur plates of the same king. mention Kānhada. It has been suggested that the two may be the same, although it appears somewhat difficult to believe that the engraver would commit a mistake in engraving his own name. A number of other rūpakāras figure in the Chandella records. There is a rūpakāra Lāhada, the son of Rāma; Lāhada is said to have made the image of Nīlakantha—Śiva;88 rūpakāra Tālhana, the son of Pālhana, belonging to the reputed Kokāsa family of artisans is mentioned in the Jabalpur plates (now in Nagpur Museum) of the Kalachuri Jayasimha.89 The Ratanpur stone inscription of Vahara (Vikrama year 1552) refers to the

⁸⁵ Sivaramamurti, C., Indian Sculpture, p. 4 ff.

⁸⁶ Mukherji R.R. and M. K. Maity, Corpus of Bengal Inscriptions, p. 197; Bhandarkar's List, 1632; E.I., XXIX, pp. 5, 13. 57; for other reference to śilpīs, cf., E.I., XXXI, p. 248 ff; line 154 (the Ganga śilpī: Lokāyī); E.I., II, 342, 383 (śilā-śilpī); Ibid., IV, 272, 277.

⁸⁷ E.I., XXXII, p. 156; Bhandarkar's List 559, Sīhaka's son Rāmadeva is also mentioned as śilpī in the inscription. A sūtradhāra Rāmadeva is referred to in a Chandella record, (cf., E.I., XXXI p. 166), which records that this sūtradhāra added a mandapa to the Nīlakantha temple at Kalanjar., cf., also Cunningham A., A.S.R. XXI, p. 350, he also refers to rūpakāra Rāmadeva of Khajuraho.

⁸⁸ E.I., XXXI. p. 166; Cunningham, A., A.S.R., XXI, pp. 34-5 pl. XC. 89 C.I.I., IV (i), p. 329.

rūpakara Dityan who was "praised for his knowledge of sciences and all other) merits".90 These references make it clear that rūpakāra was a term denoting a sculptor or a worker-in-stone.

The term kammina (karmin) denoted almost the same. In the inscriptions from certain areas of Himachal Pradesh, reference is made to a kammina, "artist", Gugga91 who exhibited his skill in preparing the inscribed metal images of Laksanadevī (Mahishamarddinī) Śaktidevī, Ganesha, and Nandi. These images have come from the temples of Brahmaur and Chatrarhi in Chamba and represent the early art of Kashmir. The inscriptions indicate that the work was conducted under the orders of king Meruvarman sometime in the eighth century.

Like kammina and rūpakāras, reference in the same sense is found to the chitrakāras also. One such chitrakāra "sculptor", was Śrī Sātana. His son Chhitanaka was the maker of the famous Mahoba Bodhisattva image and has been described as "wellversed in the science of all fine arts". His wife, was equally adept in the art of image-carving; she made a beautiful image of Tārā which carries the inscription informing that its maker was the daughter-in-law of the chitrakāra Śrī Sātana.92 The treatises on iconography, as well as the other texts, clearly indicate that the title chitrakāra was synonymous to sculptor.93

These different categories of artists existing contemporaneously could not probably have flourished in isolation. It is likely that they had some mutual relationship since the profession required a high degree of skill. However, totally individualistic patterns of growth may not be completely ruled out. But this was possible only where smaller individual works of commission, like sculptures, were concerned. On a larger scale all important individuals probably combined together for building bigger monuments. With increasing experience probably the artist's status also tended to rise. What were probably the different steps in promotion are indicated by the case of a Chandella artist Pālhaņa. His functions in different capacities with the passage of time indicate that some norms probably existed to decide the artists' status as they acquired greater

⁹⁰ Ibid. IV (ii), p. 557.

⁹¹ Bhandarkar's List, 1813, 1815, 1816.

⁹² cf., Sivaramamurti, C., Indian Sculpture, pp. 5-6. 93 cf., Bhattacharya, T.P., The Canons of Indian Art, p. 371 ff.

skills. It seems that the title śilpī was not applied to a craftsman until he became an expert in his line. Till then he may have worked as a rūpakāra, chitrakāra, or karmin, known by the nature of his work. Instances of expert rūpakāras adept in their work are not lacking, e.g., Ditvan quoted above. who was adept in all the vidyās concerning the śilpa. With a greater recognition of his merit a craftsman probably became a śilpī. Pālhana, the engraver of the Semra plates (of v.s. 1223) is described merely as a pītalakāra, "brazier". Five years later, however, when he engraved the Icchhawar plates (v.s. 1228) he had become a silpī and is described as varna-ghatana vaidagdhī, "expert in carving letters". A further experience of about two more years made him a vijnanin, as is claimed in the Mahoba plates (of v.s. 1230). This process of acquiring recognition by Palhana continued further and in the Pachar plates (of v.s. 1233) and the Charkhari plate (of v.s. 1236), the same Pālhana finds mention as vaidagdhī-Viśvakarmanā, "expert in the craft of Viśvakarmā", i.e., in the śilpaśāstra of the Visvakarmā school.94 Probably by this time he had reached a stage in his career when his knowledge was not confined to the bare technicalities of the craft, but embraced a wider field including the aesthetic aspect of the craft.95 In any case, the successive stages of Palhana's rise specify the craftsman's hierarchial mobility in the order starting from pītalakāra to the śilpī, and vijñānin. Such differences in the categories of artists are indicated in other cases also; e.g., Rāmadeva and Sīhaka, the Paramāra artists who were titled as śilpī and rūpakāra respectively.96

It may be added here that a Pālhaṇa as father of $r\bar{u}pak\bar{u}ra$ Tālhaṇa finds mention in a Kalachuri record of 1167 (K.E. 918) which specifies that Tālhaṇa belonged to the Kokāsa family of artists. 97 The dates of the Chandella and Kalachuri epigraphs referring to Pālhaṇa and Tālhaṇa correspond and it may be suggested that the artists of the same family were working for

⁹⁴ cf., Bhandarkar's List 359, 371, 1913; E.I., XX, 131 ff; VI, 170; Indian Antiquary, XXV, p. 208; E.I., X, 49:

⁹⁵ cf., Mitra, S.K., The Early Rulers of Khajuraho, p. 180. As regards Pālhaņas proficiency in engraving letters, Hiralal observes no improvement in the plates engraved by him over the years. cf., E.I., XX, 128. 96 Bhandarkar's List, 1660.

³⁶ Bhandarkar's List, 1660

⁹⁷ C.I.I., IV (i), p. 331.

the two dynasties ruling conterminuously in central India. A Pālhana finds mention in a record of the Paramāras of Chandrāvatī.98 In fact, the occurrence of such names as Kānhaka (or Kānhaḍa), Delhaṇa Sajjana, Ālaḍa Nāhaḍa, Vāhaḍa, Sātana, Chhitanaka Chhītuka, in the records of the rulers of central and western India indicates some sort of a linial or guild-bound relationship among these artists. If accepted on a more formal basis proximity among artisans may also sometimes explain the proximities of styles in the regions of the artisans' operation. References to the Kokāsa family are found from the twelfth to about fifteenth century. The Alhaghat inscription of the year 1159, (v.s. 1216) refers to the sūtradhāras and artisans such as Kamalasimha, Some, Kokāsa, Pālhaṇa, and Dalhaṇa. 99 A reference to the artists belonging to his family is found centuries later in an inscription of the fifteenth century, which speaks also of Manmath, Chhītaku, Mandana, and Dityan. 100

Coming back to Pālhaṇa, it may be said that although he has been addressed by various titles and his skill and knowledge of silpaśāstras has been specially eulogised, he fails to find mention as a sūtradhāra. His title vijñānin is also interesting, for this title was in use for sculptors in the eastern or south-eastern region. It is likely that this title for sculptors might have come in to central India from the eastern region and this may help in explicating the role of artists in determining the transmission of style and idioms of art. The title vijñānin was not restricted to the Chandella artists alone. It occurs also in the Paramāra inscriptions. 102

It thus seems possible to establish some sort of a hierarchical scheme amongst the artisans in which the sūtradhāra figures at

⁹⁸ Bhandarkar's List, 454 (dated A.D. 1209).

⁹⁹ C.I.I., IV (i), p. 324

¹⁰⁰ Ibid., IV (ii), pp. 527, 551 ff, 561.

¹⁰⁰ cf., Bhandarkar's List, 1565, 1568, 1569; E.I., XXXIII, 268. This last inscription refers to a vijñānin Sankhuka who is called "swannavīthī svannahi vijñānin"; Sircar (op.cit., p. 273) says that Vaheru and Mangaka who engraved the Balijhari plates are described in that record as swannavīthī vijñānin, i.e. an artist who lived in a locality called swannavīthī which may literally mean 'goldsmiths' quarters'. From this inscription it appears that svannahi or sunnahi was the name of an area in the swannavīthī.

¹⁰² cf., the Paramāra vijāānin Sūmak; E.I., XXXI, 54.

the top, followed by such categoreies of artists and workmen as viinānin, šilbī, rūbakāra, and karmin. In addition to these there must also have been a labour-force to assist the expert artisans in manual work needed in executing bigger jobs. A sculptured panel in the Khajuraho museum shows a silbī engaged in cutting a piece of rock with the help of a hammer and a chisel. The panel also depicts ordinary labourers bringing a stone capital (Plate III). In the silba texts sometimes a distinction has been drawn between the one who executes the works and the rest of artisans. The Mānasāra describes the former as sthāpaka "the actual worker". Acharva has suggested that perhaps he was the principal assistant to the sthapati, "chief architect", while the master was known as kartā. 103

Certain exceptions in such a hierarchical scheme may also be indicated here. A Kalachuri inscription says that the temple of Bilyapāni was constructed by Devagana who is described as rūpakāra śiromani, "crest-jewel among the sculptors". The inscription refers to a sūtradhāra Sāmpula also, but merely as the engraver of the record. Here is a case where the rūpakāra has been regarded as more important than the sūtradhāra; but it is of interest again that in another inscription of slightly later date Sampula is mentioned not as a sūtradhāra but as a rūpakāra and eulogised as: aneka-silpa nirmāna-payodheh pāradriśvanā, "one who has seen farther shores of the ocean of various crafts" 104

Guilds of artists must have been an important factor in building-activity. Although references to such guilds are few, nonetheless, the scale of activity together with the hereditary practice of some craft in the same family or the āchārya-disciple relationship among the craftsmen make a strong case for the possibility of existence of guilds. Moreover, since other artisans of different crafts such as metal-workers, were organised in guilds and many such guildsmen are mentioned as engravers of

104 cf., C.I.I., IV (ii), pp. 490, 515.

¹⁰³ cf., Encyclopaedia, p. 592, S.V., Sthāpaka. On the analogy of Drama it may be suggested that the offices of sūtradhāra and sthāpaka may have been represented by one and the same person; sūtradhāra till the activity was in the planning-stage and sthapaka when the actual work started. For sthāpaka as the same persons as sūtradhāra in Drama, cf., Rangacharya, A., op.cit., pp. 24-5.

¹⁰⁵ Corpus of Bengal Inscriptions, p. 249, verse 36.

¹⁰⁶ For the identification of Pośali, cf., Sircar, D.C., E.I., XIX, 6.

¹⁰⁷ E.I., XXVIII, 30; XXII, 296-7, refers to a silpi of Kasyapa family. This record dates about sixth-seventh century A.D.

¹⁰⁸ E.I., IX, 339

¹⁰⁹ cf., Encyclopaedia, p. 584, inscription no. 32.

¹¹⁰ E.I., I, 146. verse 60.

¹¹¹ C.I.I., IV (ii), p. 557.

nāth, the Tibetan historian of Buddhism, lays great stress on the schools of art which developed in different regions through various individual artists. He adds that the artists belonging to such schools were known after the schools themselves, irrespective of their places of operation or of birth. 112

The practice of the same craft in one family for two generations or more is often inferred from the epigraphic references to artists. This indicates a trend towards specialisation. Whether such profession admitted persons from other walks of life is another important question. It must be stressed again that the class of silpis included different types of craftsmen; smiths, painters, carpenters, etc., were all the members of the wider group of artisans. At the elite-level, i.e., that of the sūtradhāra, the artists' class may have attracted persons from diverse fields. The sūtradhāras status was, without doubt, respectable and such respect arose out of his skill and its recognition by people. The expert craftsmen were often close to the elite, particularly the ruling princes and others who had the resources to commission the temples, etc. This may have helped in their achieving greater recognition. There are references to the "king's own sūtradhāra"113 or to sutradhāra-pitāmaha, "chief among the sūtradhāras"114 or to the titles they enjoyed, e.g., āchārya,115 which prove their respectable position in society. Occasionally some sūtradhāras might have come from higher varnas also, although this must not have been a general rule. It has been said that "The social position of architects is not quit clear.... But from the functions assigned to each of the four architects (as in the texts), it would appear that the first three, namely sthapati, sūtragrāhin, and vardhakī belong to the higher class" 116 This statement may be true in the case of sūtradhāra also since he is often mentioned as proficient in śāstras and vidyās which included śilpaśāstra, astronomy, and science of numbers. The nature of his work demanded a knowledge of myths and legends about gods and goddesses which he needed particularly in the dhyānas after which images were fashioned. However,

¹¹² Chattopadhayaya, D.P., Taranath's History of Buddhism, pp. 347-9.

¹¹³ Epigraphia Carnatica, V (i) no. 123, p. 168.

¹¹⁴ Indian Antiquary, XIX.

¹¹⁵ cf., Encyclopaedia, p. 586.

¹¹⁶ Ibid. pp. 591-2.

the theory of art and aesthetics as well as the planning of edifices had a wider appeal. That is one of the reasons why there are instances of persons other than artists, writing treatises on architecture or iconography, e.g., Samarāngana-Sūtradhāra of the Paramara King Bhoja. Also, there are instances of persons, who did not belong to the fold of traditional sūtradhāras. but who acted like sūtradhāras in the matters of building edifices or engraving records. The following instances will elucidate this points. A South Indian inscription refers to Mallavijaya, the son of a dandanāyaka, "a minister", as a sūtradhāra responsible for enlarging a town. 117 Amongst the persons other than sūtradhāras, who figure as engravers of records, reference may be made to Nāgapāla, the son of pandita Uhila "belonging to the panchakulika caste; to Jayatasimha the son of pandita Yasodhara: to Sarvachandra the son of a bhogika, "an officer of state". 118

It seems that sūtradhāras were usually drafted from amongst the traditional craftsmen and in such recruitment, the artist's skill would have been the deciding factor. Some others might also have reached the rank of sūtradhāra owing to their higher social status coupled with their proficiency in the theory and practice of fine arts. This suggestion is based on the case of Mallavijaya, the son of a minister, quoted above. And such promotion to the rank of sūtradhāra might have ultimately helped many in the upward movement in the social hierarchy. In any case proficiency in the theory and practice of the crafts must have been the most important condition for attaining the stage of a sūtradhāra, and caste and social status probably were

117 Epigraphia Carnatica, V (i) no. 194, p. 433. translation, p. 187.

¹¹⁸ cf., E.I, XXX, 248; XXXII, 304; Bhandarkar's List, 2048. There are some simha-ending names of engravers and sūtradhāras e.g. Kelisimha and Karmasimha etc., Bhandarkar's List; 578, 610. In the former, a record of V.S. 1330, Kelisimha is said to have engraved the record with the further help of silpi Delhana; in the second record (V.S. 1342) he finds mention as a sūtradhāra. Another simha ending name is that of Dronasimha, cf., E.I. XXXI, 106, 316. But, too much reliance ought not to be placed on such names and their obvious conclusion regarding artisans' caste. There are instances in which the first generation of such artists has names like Nāhada and Vāhada and their sons change over to such names as Pūņasimha and Kumārasimha, cf., Bhandarkar's List, 611, 491.

not so important. We sometimes have cases of even petty officers of state designing and executing edifices in which the $s\bar{u}tradh$ - $\bar{a}ras$, who otherwise were traditionally required to do such work, have been ignored. This indicates the openness of the profession.

We have so far discussed primarily the evidence pertaining to various types of artists and particularly the sūtradhāras, where they occur as makers of monuments or images. On the positive side, this evidence helps in appreciating their specific role in building of edifices and other related works. However, there are instances where these artists are described merely as the engravers of records in which specific mentions to the raising of temples, etc., have been made. In such instances, their participation may be regarded as implict. For, accepting the sūtradhāras merely as engravers of the records, makes a mockery of such master-craftsmen as Rānaka Śūlapāni, the "crest-jewel of the guild of silpīs of Vārendra", who was son of Brihaspati, grandson of Mānadāsa and obviously was proud of his distinguished family as well as his skill and the guild to which he belonged. And he is mentioned in the Deopara inscription merely as the engraver of the record. The contents of the Deopara inscription clearly indicate a possibility of the artist's cooperation in building the Pradyumnesvara temple, described there in detail. The inscription mentions the making of the temple as a "great deed". The temple is eulogised as "the unique place of manifestation of Lords Vishnu and Siva, where the King (Vijavasena) brought about 'an interchange of the inhabitants of heaven and earth', (for) by the construction of lofty house of god (=temple) and by the (the excavation of) extensive lakes, the area of both heaven and earth were reduced and they were made similar to each other". 119 The inscription also gives the details of the architectural elements of the Pradyumneśvara temple in highly technical terms, referring to such parts as śākhā, mūla, kānda, madhya, and antarīya. 120 The central image of the temple deity is described as "in the representation of the sculpture, due to the apprehension of the

¹¹⁹ Majumdar, N.G., Inscription of Bengal, III (Rajashahi 1929) p. 50. verses 25-8. Majumdar has explained that the 'interchange' of the inhabitants of heaven and earth was brought about by setting up of images of gods in the temple which stood on earth; ibid. p. 54, fn. 3.
120 Ibid., p. 55 fn. 1.

cessation of embrace, the goddesses Uma and Laksmi, have taken stand between their lovers and thus somehow interfered with the complete union of the bodies (of Hari-Hara)".121 The Deopara inscription which very graphically describes the temple and its images makes a mention of Rānaka Śūlpāni only as the engraver, although theoretically speaking most likely he alone would be knowledgeable about such sophistications in the temple and its sculpture. 122

There are other inscriptions also with vivid details of temples and sculptures, but in reference only to the donor. One such record describes a person Pantha "who erected at a considerable cost...a beautiful image of Bhavānī". The image is described as "fierce-looking, awe-inspiring owing to the garland formed of gruesome human-heads hanging from her neck, with limbs encircled by crawling snakes and with dry flesh pierced on axe; delighting in a sporting dance, and rolling eyes". The inscription further relates that "not satisfied with the 'erection' (carving) of this image only, the pious man (Pantha), desirous of bliss, caused to be built a shrine of Bhavanī which was joined with a very adhesive and bright cement, resplendent with sound of bells, lovely, attractive...and decorated with lofty flags and yak-tails". 128 These details are significant architecturally and iconographically, but credit goes for this to the donor Pantha; the name of either the builder or even the engraver of the record has not been specified. This peculiar apathy in not recording the architect's share may have been due to the religious zeal of the donor who did not want to mention the other people associated with the temple lest it may partly take

¹²¹ yatrālingana-bhagna-kātarataya-sthitvāntare, kānta-rorddevib ham-kathamapya bhinnatanutā silpenta-rāyah kritah.

¹²² Some scholars have tried to relate this evidence concerning Sūlapāni and the artisans' guild with Taranath's account of the Varendra artists. An account corresponding to Tārānāth's is found in the Pag-Sam-Zon-jang also, as reported by Majumdar. He however, is sceptical about the evidence concerning the goshthi, 'guild', and says "...no definite evidence is yet forthcoming which justifies us to take the expression Vārendrakaśilpa-goshthī in the restricted sense of a 'guild' properly so-called of the artists of Bengal. The word 'goshthi', I have taken here in a general sense meaning 'multitude', although it is not impossible that the word really denotes a guild". About the artists of Bengal, cf., Kumar, "A note on the Bengal School of Artists", J.A.S.B., 1916, pp. 26-7.

¹²³ E.I., IX, 60 ff.

away the religious merit from him and bestow its share on those who were mentioned. This may be one of the reasons why there are records which sing the glory of edifices commissioned by the donors without mentioning the architects who made them.

As regards the donors and their contributions towards architectural activity, one observes a change compared to pre-Gupta times. A survey of Brahmi inscriptions from north India indicates the growing prominence of individual donors, mostly kings or their priests or the other affluent members of society. A democratisation of the type as found earlier in the Buddhist monuments is of a very rare occurence. Individual images were quite often commissioned by less affluent donors124 too, but the raising of temples or the larger architectural activity, which involved greater resources in men and money, were mostly financed by the kings125 or the members of their families¹²⁶ or their priests¹²⁷ and officers, ¹²⁸ etc. It also became customary to name the temples after their donor-builders. 129

An idea of the roles of different participants in raising edifices and consecrating them can be obtained by the following three examples, selected at random. The first relates to the excavation of a tank, financed by Malayasimha, a feudatory chief of the Kalachuri Vijayasimha of Tripuri. The Rewa inscription of this chief informs that he excavated a tank at the cost of 1500 tankakas (stamped with the figure of Bhagavat, i.e., the Buddha). Vidyādhara, a vāstavya, was superintendent of the work. Another vāstavya, Purushottam designed it. Rāmchandra performed five sacrifices (to consecrate the tank). The inscription was incised by the sūtradhāra Anant, the son of Galhana. The inscription also refers to the King's doorkeeper

¹²⁴ E.I., XXVII, 140-41; 340 XXVII, 25 fn. 2; Dikshit. M.G., Tripuri-1952, p. 12. A record refers to the gift of a Pandya king to a temple alongside that of another person, which shows how sometimes gifts were accepted from different sections of society for the same temple.

¹²⁵ E.I., XXVI, 49 ff; XXVII, 235 ff.

¹²⁶ Ibid., XXVIII, 180 ff; 184.

¹²⁷ C.I.I., IV (i), 305-9; E.I., XXVIII, 114 f.

¹²⁸ Ibid., pp. 30, 98 ff; VIII. 208 ff; 219 ff; Bhandarkar's List, 487-89, 491-507; 510-24.

¹²⁹ Ibid., XXVIII, 182-83; 218; C.I.I., III, 288; Sircar D.C., Select Inscriptions, p. 283.

Ralhana the son of Dalhana. Although Ralhana is described as "capable of executing responsible work", his exact role in excavating the tank has escaped mention. 130 The Rewa plates indicate a process of designing, excavation, and consecration of a tank in which various persons carried out their defined tasks and the major credit of work goes to the vāstavyas. 131

Another inscription is from Batihagarh (Damoh District, Madhya Pradesh) and dates to the year 1328. It records that a local Muhammedan ruler Jallal, son of Isak, caused a gomatha, a step-well, and grove to be made at Batihādim. Dhanau, a servant of Jallal was the manager of these institutions. The principal architects of this work were Bhojuka, Kāmadeva, and Hala of a silāpatta family and the inscription was engraved by Vasu of Mathura. 132

The third inscription is from Rajasthan and it describes the building of a white marble temple. It was provided with lofty mandapa and stone seats in front and fifty-two Jina-shrines on its side. Also built here were the statues of various members of the family of Tejahpāla. The inscription was engraved by Chandeśvara, son of Dhandhala and grandson of Kelhana, and the consecration of the temple was done by a Jaina priest. 133

These inscriptions define the roles of the different participants in designing and raising of edifices, their management, and consecration. The inscriptions definitely indicate that it was customary to incise the records immediately after the construction was completed. The artisans' work did not conclude with the conclusion of a particular work. There is evidence to suggest that sometimes artisans were appointed to look after the maintenance of the work. 134 New sūtradhāras were appointed

133 Bhandarkar's List, 488. Mount Abu inscription of the time of Vaghela Vīradhaval and Paramāra Samar Simha.

¹³⁰ C.I.I., IV (i), pp. 357-58.

¹³¹ This as well as many other such instances suggest that vāstavyas (and karanikas) were possessed of the requisite knowledge and skill in raising monuments and many such karanikas and vāstavyas may have adorned the rank of sūtradhāras.

¹³² E.I., XII, 46. Hiralal has stated that Silawat caste still exists in the vicinity of Damoh.

¹³⁴ E.I. XXVIII, 210 f: Teli inscription of Korai Ravi refers to the administration and maintenance of a temple in which besides the officials, managers, dancers, actors, and painters the sculptors also find

if extensive repairs or renovation were thought necessary.¹³⁵

Having examined the nature and function of the sūtradhāras and the other categories of artists in raising monuments, as also the participation of the other classes of people in the total activity, we will now attempt to spell out a region-wise distribution of the sūtradhāras and other artists. This is with a view to suggest that while making a study of provincial art-idioms the artists who helped in bringing them forth, must also be kept in view. A systematic and unanimously accepted classification of style-zones in the architecture and sculptural art has not been finally worked out yet. The stress mainly has been on establishing a parity between the details of Silpasāstras, and the actual monuments and sculptures. This exercise can be made more purposeful by introducing to it a new dimension—the role of the practitioners of this specialised craft. The inclusion of craftsmen and their role within the system of study may hopefully define the growth of activity and its variable forms (from one monument to the other through successive sūtradhāras and artists), in which such factors as artists' mobility and skill, their acculturation to particular schools of śilpa, etc., will have to be borne in mind for their obvious conclusions. A mere comparative study of motifs and art-forms in the same or different regions tends to ignore the factors instrumental in their making. A study of artists with regard to the regions where the relevant material is available, may be of use in defining the domain of particular regional styles as well as their wider links. The mediaeval inscriptions have enough material to indicate that the sūtradhāras and other artists cannot be ignored. Their precise contribution however, remains to be studied. Keeping this in view, an attempt has been made in the following to describe a region and dynasty-wise distribution of artisans within a chronological framework starting from the seventh century. The information as detailed here relates mostly to north India.

A historical survey of different parts of India indicates the existence of several regional dynasties during the period starting

mention. Reference to śirpāchāri, 'śilpa-āchārya', attached to South Indian temples is also found in several inscriptions.

¹³⁵ cf., Gaya Inscription referring to the sūtradhāra Haridāsa, employed for repairing the temple of Dakṣiṇāditya. *Indian Antiquary*, XX, p. 165.

from about the sixth century.

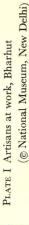
More prominent among these were the Pushyabhūtis and the Gurjara-Pratiharas in the north; the early Palas and the early Kalingas (śailodbhavas and Bhaumas) in the east; and the Maitrakas in the west. The other prominent dynasties of the north were the Varmanas, Karkotas, and Utpalas. The Gāhadavālas also figure in the list of the important north India dynasties. In central India, there were five dynasties ruling more or less conterminously in different parts. They were: the Chandellas; the Kalachuries of Tripurī and Ratanpur; the Kachhapaghātas of Gwalior and Narwar; and the Paramāras of Malva. In the eastern part of India, upto Andhra-there were the Soma and the Ganga Kings of Orissa and Andhra; the Pala and Senas of Magadha; and the Chandras of Assam. Of the several dynasties of western India the major ones, were, the Guhilas, Pratihāras, Chāhmānas, Saindhavas, and Vaghelas. The epigraphs of many kings of these dynasties supply information about the sūtradhāras who probably were associated with the monuments raised in their respective regions. An idea of this may be obtained from the following details of the dynasties and the artisans connected with their kings.

The Pāṇḍuvamśīs and the Sarabhapura Kings. Historically the word sūtradhāra finds one of the earliest mentions in the inscriptions of the Pāṇḍus of South Kosala. The Pāṇḍus were contemporaries of the Maukharis of north. Of the artisans serving the Pāṇḍus, we find reference to there: Ārya Gonna (or Gonnasiva), Prabhākara, and the sūtradhāra Vasuguṇa, the son of Rishigaṇa. They all occur as the engravers of the records of the Pāṇḍuvamśī King Mahāśivagupta Bālārjuna, who had an unusually long reign of about sixty years starting from the middle of the seventh century. The Gonna occurs as the engraver of record which refers to the erection of a Vishṇu temple by Vasatā, the Queen mother. Another inscription refers to the qualifications of the sūtradhāra Vasuguṇa. The epigraphs of Sudeva, a Sarabhapura king refers to some engraverartisans—Dronasimha and Golasimha. The Rājīvalochana

¹³⁶ cf., Bhandarkar's List, 1654, 1882, 1884, E.I., XXXI, 198.

¹³⁷ He is described as: sūtradhāra-sakalā-karmā-kirtti-kirttana-gunaganaonattimāna., E.I., XXXI, 36 ff.

¹³⁸ Ibid., p. 106, 316.





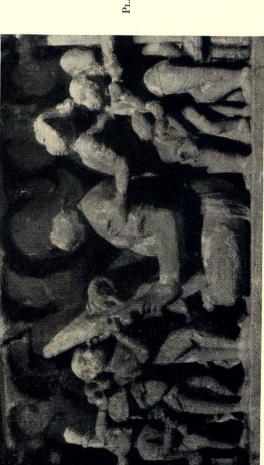


PLATE II Silpisala
Khajuraho
(© Archaelogical
Survey of India,
Government of

India)

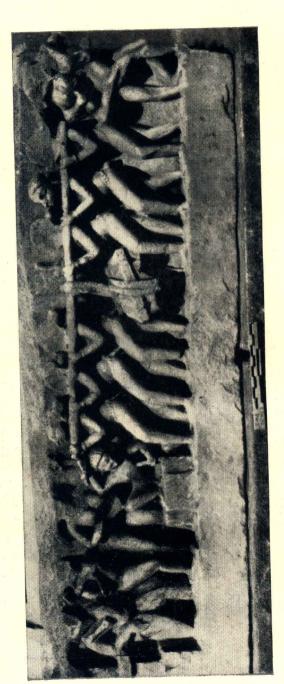


PLATE III A Silpi carving a stone, Khajuraho Museum (© Archaelogical Survey of India, Government of India)

temple at Rajim has an inscription engraved by Durgahastin. 139 And as has been mentioned earlier, a pillar of this temple has the name "Śrī Pūrnāditya", incised in ornamental letters. Pūrņāditya and Durgahastin might have been instrumental in the raising of the Rajīvalochana temple of Rajim.

The Kalingas (Bhaumas, Karas, and Sailodbhavas). The records of the kings of eastern India offer the names of such artisans as Deva, Paṇḍi, Śivanāga, Padmanābha, Sivagaṇa, Dagadeva, and Mālaka. Most of them were the goldsmiths who engraved records of various Bhañja Kings. 140 Sthaviraviddha and Vijayadeva (the son of Anandjīva) figure as the engravers of certain other eastern Indian records.141 It is not certain whether they had any contribution in the construction work commissioned by their kings. Although they do figure in royal records as engravers their roles in raising different edifices are not clear.

The dynasties mentioned above ruled during the post-Gupta phase, in parts of central and eastern India. Although some of the finest monuments came up in their regions of power, not much is known regarding the artisans in their employment. The existence of different schools of artists in different parts of India during this time and also later is indicated by Tārānāth (whose account is given in the Appendix). However, from the ninth century onwards, the information about sūtradhāras and the other categories of artists grows in volume.

The Gāhadavālas. The building activity of the Gāhadavālas142 of Kanauj is attested to by several epigraphic references.143 The Gāhadavāla records have usually supplied the names of their writers. The royal records refer to the silpī Vāmana who engraved the Sarnath inscription of Kumāradevi. The inscription gives the details of building of a Buddhist monastery at

143 Ibid., IX, 200; I, 186, 188; 157-59 (ramye' smin ekaśile Vishnuhbhaktyā-pratishthito bhavane); E.I., XIV, 199.

¹³⁹ Bhandarkar's List, 1883.

¹⁴⁰ Ibid., 1490-93; 1502, 2057.

¹⁴¹ ibid., 2041, 2044, 2057.

¹⁴² Before the Gāhaḍavālas, the Gurjara Pratihāras were ruling in the mid-India. A Gwalior epigraph refers to certain trader's guilds which functioned during their rule; among these guilds, one consisted of that of the stone-cutters, cf., E.I., I, pp. 167-68; 174-78.

Sarnath by this queen.14 Besides the śilpī Vāmana, reference is also made to Śripati, the engraver of one of the Kamauli plates of Govinda-Chandra; to lohāra "blacksmith", Someka; and to the sūtradhāra Haleka.145 The Chandrāvatī plate of Chandradeva (V.S. 1156) has a description of the temple of Chandra-Mahādeva. The engraver of the record, Mahādeva, "the son of illustrious Gangadhara" claims that he made the image of the "illustrious Chandra-Mahādeva which put to shame the other images". 146 The Gāhadavāla charters often refer to karanikas as the writers or engravers of royal charters. It is likely that some silpīs assumed the charge of karanikas, i.e., the officer who was responsible for documentation of royal charters. There is an instance of such transformation of roles in a Kalachuri record, which refers to a śilpī Sarvānanda acting as a karanika.147 On this analogy, it may be surmised that some of the vāstavyas (equivalent to karanikas) of the Gāhadavāla inscriptions may have been artists too.148

The Chandellas, Kalachuris, and Paramāras. Information regarding artisans of the different central India dynasties is more profuse. Two inscriptions from Gwaliar and Chanderi region¹⁴⁹ refer to the sūtradhāras Dhanauk and Bhīmadeva. The former occurs in the Narwar inscription of the time of Ganapati (V.S. 1355). The inscriptions of the rulers of the Chandella dynasty refer to Śrī Kana; to chitrakāra Śrī Sātana; and to his son Chhitanaka, and the latter's wife. 150 From the Chandella inscriptions of Kalanjar, Ajayagarh and Khajuraho, and some other places more information regarding the different classes

144 E.I., XIV, 196 which refers to the scribe Hridayadhara the son of Sivastambha, who wrote the copper-plate "smooth like fresh leaf adorned with lines in which lettering is quite clear".

145 cf., E.I., XVIII, 223; Bhandarkar's List, 292; E.I., IV; 126, 128; XVIII,

146 E.I., XIV. 199 (line 24).

147 C.I.I., IV (i), p. 259. Likewise, the writer of another Kalachuri epigraph (C.I.I., IV (ii), p. 470), claims an adeptness in crafts: śilpaprakarshah.

148 Several such karanikas, some of them mentioned as kāyasthas of vāstavya family, are mentioned in the Gāhadavāla records, e.g. Kithana, Ulhana Jalhana Vasudeva, Sahadeva, Gagguka, Visnu, Sripati, Kusumapāla, etc., cf. E.I., IV, 101-24.

149 Ibid., XXXII. 346; XXXIII, 33.

¹⁵⁰ Sivaramamurti, C., Indian Sculpture p. 5.

of artisans-rūpakāra, śilpī, vijnānika, and sūtradhāra-is available. One of the Kalanjar inscriptions refers to the artist Padma who was as "able" and "superior to all artists", as was his "eminent" father. "Padma was the King's favourite artist", so says the inscription; and this artist figures as the engraver of a Kalanjar inscription which informs that his brother Deoka helped him in engraving the record. 151 Another Kalanjar inscription refers to a rūpakāra Lāhada, the son of the sūtradhāra Rāma. The rūpakāra Laksmīdhara also finds mention along with Lāhaḍa. 152 As regards Rāma, he is mentioned both as a rūpakāra and a sūtradhāra,153 and he is credited with the task of having made the Nīlakantha temple of Kalanjar; the image of Nīlkantha-Mahādeva, in this temple was made by Rāma's son Lāhada. Lākhana and Devarāja, the latter was the son of Somarāja, 154 were the other Chandella rūpakāras. Another son of Somarāja, Mahārāja, 155 is also referred to as the engraver of an inscription. This inscription describes the raising of two temples, one dedicated to Vishnu and the other to Siva, by Sallaksana, a minister of the Chandella Paramarddideva. In certain other Chandella records Palhana, Jayasimha, and Pratāpasimha are mentioned as śilpīs. 156 Jalhana, Palhana (the son of Rājapāla), and Uheno are mentioned as vijnanikas. Uheno, in one of the records, is referred to as a rītikāra, "brazier", too. 157

Other artisan-engravers of the Chandella rulers were Bhānu and an unnamed artisan who was the son of Kükem and grandson of the ayaskāra, "black-smith", Dage (Gamge). 158 The Chandella sculptures of Khajuraho and other places have certain names inscribed on them and Cunningham has suggested that these may represent the mason's names, of which he has given a list. 159 However, it may be indicated here that although

¹⁵¹ Cunningham, A., Archaeological Survey of India, Reports, XXI, p. 38. 152 Ibid., p. 35.

¹⁵³ Ibid., E.I., I, 325-30, 152-53; XXXI, 166; Cunningham, A., A.S.R., X, 34-5.

¹⁵⁴ Ibid., XXI, 72, 73.

¹⁵⁵ E.I., I, 207 ff.

¹⁵⁶ Indian Antiquary, XV; XVII, p. 235; E.I., XX.

¹⁵⁷ Indian Antiquary, XVI, pp. 202-7; E.I., XX, 131 (utkīrna varņaghaţana vaidagdhī Viśvakarmanā; XXI, respectively.

¹⁵⁸ Indian Antiquary, XVII, p. 235; Bhandarkar's List, 1785.

¹⁵⁹ Cunningham, A., op.cit., XXI, p. 62 f.

the Chandella records supply names of various artisans and their ranks, the sūtradhāras are rare in them. Amongst the sūtradhāras, Rāma and Suprata occur in the inscriptions of Kalanjar and Ajayagarh respectively. 160 Rāma, the builder of a well and the mandapa at the Ajaygarh fort, during the reign of Vīravarman, is described as vaidagdhī, "skilled in his craft". 161 The sūtradhāra Chiccha who built a Khajuraho temple was "proficient in the śāstra of Viśvakarmā", according to the Khajuraho stone inscription (V.S. 1059).162 For the purpose of explicating the role of artists in the growth of the Chandella art and architecture the information quoted above may be of immense value. It can at least define the choice and distribution of motifs and sculptures in relation to the monuments raised by respective artists which may help in a greater understanding of the Chandella art and architecture as a whole.

The Kalachuri inscriptions too have prolific information regarding the artists employed by the donors of various monuments in the region. The material available in this respect indicates that such engraver-artists were sufficiently proficient in silpa, and were known by their different titles. These artists were proficient particularly in the Viśvakarmā's śilpa. For instance, we have Mādhava, the son of sūtradhāra Maheśvara, described as "able and adept in Viśvakarmā's craft". Another artist (whose name unfortunately is not available), says an inscription made an image of a goddess by the grace of Viśvakarmā. The artist Mahīdhara, who claims proficiency in the śāstra expostulated by Viśvakarmā, is also described as "crest-jewel of artisans", by his son, the sūtradhāra Nāmadeva, in a later inscription. Mahīdhara had the distinction of being the son of Bālasimha who has been mentioned as the "foremost amongst sūtradhāras". Besides these more prominently mentioned artists, the Kalachuri inscriptions refer also to Nīlakantha who engraved a prasasti on the orders of the sūtradhāra Sūrāk; to Nonna, the son of the excellent sūtradhāra Sangama; to Some, Kokāsa, Pālhaṇa, Ulhaṇa, and Kamalasimha; to Siruka; and to the lohāras Kuke and Kīkaka. Kuke is referred to

¹⁶⁰ Ibid., pp. 35, 49.
161 E.I., I, 228 (verse 22)
162 Ibid., 146, (verse 60)

as vi $n\bar{a}n\bar{i}$ which obviously is a mistake for $vij\bar{n}\bar{a}nin$, which occurs as a title of certain Chandella and Paramāra artists. 163

Kalachuri inscriptions offer valuable information about the sūtradhāras; eleven of them are mentioned in the records. Of these Sangama is referred to as an "excellent" sūtradhāra; Sāmbhūka and Śreshṭhī respectively are mentioned as executor of a Vishṇu temple and maker of a white maṇḍapa, attached to a Śāntinath temple. Bālasimha was regarded as "foremost among the sūtradhāras", while Pīṭhe is eulogised as "conversant in the Viśvakarma-śāstra" and "planner of several edifices". Others who are mentioned only as sūtradhāras are Sūrāk, Kamalasimha, Nāmadeva, Ananta, the son of Galhaṇa, and Maheśvara. 164

In the above list, it is found that sometimes the father is an ordinary craftsman while his son reaches the rank of a sūtradhāra. There is also an interesting case of śilpī Sarvānanda who was appointed a karaṇika and wrote a eulogy which was engraved by Vidyānanda. The two, Sarvānanda and Vidyānanda, may have been related to each other. In another Kalachuri inscription there is reference to a superintendent of writing who had his statue installed. The sometimes of the same status installed.

The kings of the Ratanpur branch of Kalachuris also were great builders and their inscriptions or those of their region offer quite a few names of artists employed for engraving records or building temples and other edifices. Of these artisans Hāsala is described as "intelligent and repository of all the śilpa-vidyā". Lakṣmidhara and his sons Dharaṇīdhara and Chāndārka also find mention in these epigraphs. Amongst the rūpakāras of this region, reference is made to Pālhūka, Ratnapāla, and Dityan. The rūpakāra, "sculptor", Devagaṇa had a very special place, as he was the "foremost amongst sculptors" and his eminence was recognised to the extent that the sūtradhāra Sāmpula served under him when they made a temple

¹⁶³ For the details of these artists mentioned in the inscriptions of the Tripuri branch of the Kalachuris, cf., C.I.I., IV (i), pp. 230, 251, 307, 336, 317, 204, 224, 324, 374, 343, 363.

¹⁶⁴ Ibid., IV, pp. 204, 224, 230, 235, 311, 317, 324, 336.

¹⁶⁵ Ibid., p. 259.

¹⁶⁶ Ibid., p. 587.

¹⁶⁷ Ibid., 401, 407.168 Ibid., pp. 477, 461, 483 (also 494), 631.

of Bilvapāṇi Mahādeva. Sāmpula himself is first mentioned as a $s\bar{u}tradh\bar{a}ra$ and then in a later inscription he is referred to only as a $r\bar{u}pak\bar{a}ra$. However, his merit and skill in his craft was enviable and the inscription eulogises him as one "who has seen the farthest shore of the ocean of various crafts".

In the inscriptions of the Kalachuris of Ratanpur branch, Dhanapati and Iśvara find mention as "skilful" and "best" śilpīs. Jātū is described as the knower of śilpa-vijñāna, the "science of śilpa". Chhītaku is also described similarly. He had an excellent pedigree, and is said to have belonged to the Kokāsa line of artists. The artists of the Kokāsa family "had attained a mastery in many crafts and (were) experts in the art of sculpture". Chhītaku's father Manmatha, and brother Manḍana, "a reader of scriptures", were far-famed artists in the fifteenth century and they claim their participation in the building of monuments of Ratanpur. The Kalachuri records (as well as others which are dated in the Kalachuri era) refer also to certain other sūtradhāras—Nāmadeva, Ratnadeva Dharanīdhara, and Nāmala. 169

The Paramāras of Malwa were one of the important dynasties of central India and their inscriptions indicate the existence of various categories of artists like $r\bar{u}pak\bar{a}ra$, $\hat{s}ilp\bar{\iota}$, $vij\bar{n}\bar{a}nin$ in their realm. References to some of them have been made earlier.

The Dynasties of Eastern India. In the eastern India, including the north-east and the south-eastern regions under the Somavamśīs and the Gangas, artists flourished under the rulers' patronage. In the inscriptions of the Pālas and Senas, the engravers and the artists who find mention are: Taṭaṭa; the śilpī Mahīdhara (son of Vikramāditya of Posali); the śilpīs Saśidhara, Pushyāditya (son of Chandrāditya) Saśideva (son of Hriddeva), all of Posali; Amrit, the pupil of Indranīlamani; Rāṇaka Śūlāpaṇi, the "crest-jewel of the śilpī-guild of Vārendra"; Bhavanakadasa; and Tathāgatasara. 170

¹⁶⁹ For the above-mentioned artists, cf., C.I.I., IV, pp. 441, 456, 556 f; 490; 515, 511, 543, 556 ff.; 561, 573, 579, 586, 652. For the other engraver-artists from central India, cf. Bhandarkar's List, 1329, 1876, 1887.

¹⁷⁰ cf. Bhandarkar's List, 1610, 1625, 1632, 1637, 1639, 1683, E.I., XXIX, pp. 5, 13; XIX, 57.

The other ruling dynasties of eastern India—the Chandras, the Bhauma-Pālas, and the other kings of Assam-also had their own artists. Among these the most eminent seems to have been Someśvara who is addressed as a śilpāvin-Māgadhah, "Magadhan artist" in the Silimpur stone inscription of the time of Jayapāladeva of Kamarupa.¹⁷¹ Incidently, this inscription attests to the extent of mobility which the artist of Magadha achieved in going over to Kāmarūpa. And irrespective of this physical mobility, the artist claims his association with Magadha, a point stated by Tārānath about the individual artists and their loyalties to their schools. The other engraver-artists mentioned in the records of this region were Vinīta, a taksakāra, Ratoka, and Madhusūdana. 172

The inscriptions of the Soma and the Ganga kings of Orissa and Andhra refer to several engravers and quite often they are titled as vijñānin. This epithet, as pointed out earlier, is found in the cases of certain Chandella, Kalachuri, and Paramāra artists also. It is likely that it was applied to artists who were vijña, "proficient", in śilpa-vijñāna, and in rank, were superior to śilpīs, as seems to be suggested by the case of Pālhana, a Chandella artist. Sircar defines vijnanin as "an artisan; same as śilpī; epithet of an artisan who is usually the engraver of an inscription". This epithet is also found in cases of the engravers of the records relating to the Ranakas of Bihar and Orissa, to the chiefs of the former Baudh State of Orissa, as well as to the Soma and the Ganga Kings. In the galaxy of such artists occur such names as vanik suvarnakāra, "goldsmith", Sivanāga, the son of Pandi; Lokanāth; Harivardhana. 174 The inscriptions of the Somas of Orissa refer to Samgrāma, the son of Rayana Ojjha; to the vijnānin Mādhava, the son of Vasu; to the thakkura Panaka; to the vijnanins Vasuka, Madhumanthana, Sankhuka, Vaheru, and Mangaka, 175 etc. The records of the Ganga kings likewise offer several names

¹⁷¹ Bhandarkar's List., 1727.

¹⁷² Ibid., 2062, 1519.

¹⁷³ Sircar, D.C., Indian Epigraphical Glossary, p. 373.

¹⁷⁴ Bhandarkar's List, 2055, 2102; E.I., XXIX, 219.

¹⁷⁵ Bhandarkar's List, 1557, 1560, 1565, 1567-69; E.I., XXXIII, 268. It is likely that artisans lived in their well-defined localities, consisting of lanes and streets, cf., Sircar, D.C., E.I., XXXIII, 273.

of the engravers who sometimes enjoyed position of authority in the administrative system. For instance, there is a reference to an engraver Sarvachandra who was the son of a bhogika Chandichandra; or the aksāśālin, "goldsmith" Khandimalla who is sometimes mentioned as a sāmanta, a "feudatory chief". 176 The Ganga records also refer to a śilpī Lokāvī; to vijñānin Devapila; to sūtradhāras Nāmakāñcheyemācharin and Śivakara; to the tamrakara, "brazier", Pannadi-rana; and to artisans without any such title like Karaki Mentoja. 177

The Dynasties of Western India. Some scholars have defined certain strains of style in the temple architecture of India, and have tried to fix them within a reasonable chronological framework. 178 The exercise could be carried further by including the evolution of sculptures within those strains of architectural growth. It has been suggested that in the western region the scheme of architectural and sculptural compositions tends to conform to certain texts such as Vāstusāra and Vāstuvidyā. 179 The epigraphic evidence available, seems to confirm this supposition. It is likely that monuments raised over the centuries in this area, as well as others conformed to the prevalent traditions of silpa which at some point of time were recorded in the form of canonical texts such as above. For instance, a Chittorgarh fragmentary inscription of the time of the Guhila King Kumbhakarna¹⁸⁰ specifies various types of pillars and quotes two authorities, Java and Aparajita, on the subject. There is some evidence available about the sūtradhāras of the time of Kumbhakarna to whose time the above inscription belongs. These sūtradhāras, Jaita and his five sons referred to earlier, were responsible for constructing temples, a fort, and other edifices for Kumbhakarna. In these constructions the canons available might have been made use of. An inscription of the

¹⁷⁶ Bhandarkar's List, 2048; E.I., XXX, 26.

¹⁷⁷ Bhandarkar's List, 1091, 2068, 2066, 1526, E.I., XXXI, 248 f. (line 154); XXX, 26.

¹⁷⁸ Dhaky, M.A., Bulletin of the American Academy of Benaras, I, p. 35 and notes.

¹⁷⁹ Ibid.

¹⁸⁰ Bhandarkar's List, 1860.

reign of the Guhila King Rāyamalla of Mendapāta branch, refers to the sūtradhāras Govinda and Isamde, the son of sūtradhāra Mandana. 181 It is not certain whether this Mandana was the same as the composer of several silpa texts, but it does indicate a tendency amongst the artisans, following a particular school, naming the members of their family after the progenitor of the school. This too would suggest a compatibility of schools of artists with the canons of silpa prevalent in the regions of their currency.

In the records of western India, reference to the sūtradhāras abound and the information corresponds to the prolific building-activity in the region. In the records of the Chālukya (Vaghela) rulers of Gujarat are several references to the sūtradhāras and their patrons. We know of Bhimadeva II and his sūtradhāra Ālada; of Mahārāja Vīra-Dhavala-deva and his sūtradhāra Kālada, the son of Prahlada-Govinda; of Pūnasimha the son Nāhada. 182 The similarity in the names of these artists suggests the possibility of existence of the same family of artists serving successive masters.

The epigraphs of the time of the Guhilas of Rajasthan similarly, have references to the sūtradhāras existing parallel to the kings of the dynasty. The Paldi inscription of Guhila Arisimha (V.S. 1173) refers to the sūtradhāra Kesarin. This record also mentions building of a temple at Paldi. It was consecrated on completion by an astrologer and had an officerin-charge for general arrangements relating to the construction. 183 The Chirwa praśasti of Samarasimha was "engraved by Kelisimha with further help from śilpī Delhana". 184 Besides these artisans, there were others also, like Sajjana; the sūtradhāra Karmasimha; and sūtradhāra Bhaila, the son of Rājuka. Bhaila is mentioned as the engraver of the Chatsu inscription of the Guhila Baladitya, in which there is a reference to the raising of Murārī temple.185

The sūtradhāras working under the Chāhmāna rulers of Naddula, śākambharī, and Ranathambhor were eminent in

¹⁸¹ Ibid., 1536.

¹⁸² Ibid., 452, 491, 577, 611.

¹⁸³ E.I., XXX, 8 f.

¹⁸⁴ Bhandarkar's List, 579.

¹⁸⁵ Ibid., 583, 610, 1537.

their work. There is definite evidence in case of some of them regarding their contribution to the architectural activity. The Nadlai stone inscription of the Naddula Chāhmāna King Kelhana refers to the building of a mandapa, an aksasama, and dāma in the temple of Bhivadeśvara. This work was done by Pāhini the son of sūtradhāra Mahaduā whose wife was named Jasadevī. In this work, Pāhini was assisted by the sūtradhāras Mahīdarā and Imdarāka. The inscription further relates that these constructions cost 330 drammas and were made of stones and bricks. 186 In the inscriptions of the region reference is also made to the sūtradhāra Jisavarin, the son of Jisapāla; and to Bhīmasimha the brother of Gugga. Amongst the engravers, we have Goshasimha; Devala, the son of Nana; and Gajuka, the son of Trivikrama. 187 The sūtradhāra Chandeśvara is mentioned in an inscription of the Paramāras of Chandrāvatī, which also refers to the sūtradhāra Palhana. Chandeśvara himself was the son of Dhandhala and grandson of Kelhana. 188 Kiradu in Rajasthan is famous for its Vaishnava and Saiva temples and a local inscription of the year 1161 refers to a sūtradhāra Jasodhara, who may have contributed in building of these temples. 189 In the inscription, however, he appears only as an engraver. Some other inscriptions from Rajasthan refer to śilāśrī, son of Dandi; to Bhīmasimha; and to Gajuka, son of the sūtradhāra Trivikrama. 190

The region-wise documentation of material concerning the $s\bar{u}tradh\bar{u}ras$ and the other categories of artisans clearly indicates that they were in great demand and were spread over in different parts of the country. This evidence is in no way small enough to be ignored. It clearly spells out the existence of classes of artists parallel to the kings and dynasties, and implicity as well as explicitly suggests their interaction in the domain of art-activity. However, merely a study of the distribution-pattern of these artisans will not be useful in itself unless it is utilised to explain their role in the evolution of the

¹⁸⁶ E.I., XI, 47. The Sūtradhāra Mādhava (Mahaduā) finds mention again in another record. cf., E.I., XI, 67.

¹⁸⁷ Bhandarkar's List, 561, 581, 590, 592, 625.

¹⁸⁸ Ibid., 454, 488.

¹⁸⁹ Ibid., 312.

¹⁹⁰ Ibid., 564, 817, 623; E.I., XXXI, 54; XIX, 52.

styles in their respective regions. With a documentation on these lines, attempts at relating the distinctive features of edifices with the artisans of the regions will be necessary. Such studies on a micro-level may help in establishing the advent and growth of distinctive styles and their different strains in which the interaction of the canons of art and their practitioners as well as their correspondence or the lack of it, will have to be precisely made out. As it happens, various field studies have usually attempted to establish a synchronism of the canons and monuments to the degrees possible without seeking to define the contributions of artisans who, manually and through their skill, were instrumental in flowering of the art-activity. In the wider perspective of defining the parallel or linear growth of art-activity, reinforced with its distinct or hybrid idioms and mannerism, it is necessary to comprehend the practitioners of the craft and their total role.

Chapter Three

Artists as Depicted in Reliefs

THIS chapter deals with more of the panels in which artists have been depicted as engaged in their work. Some such panels have already been described in the previous chapters, particularly the one from Bharhut. Two such panels are known from Khajuraho. Of these, one on a wall of a side-temple in the Laksamaneśvara temple complex, represents a scene of a śilpīśālā, "artisan's workshop", where the chief-śilpī is shown sitting surrounded by smaller figures of the apprentices. While the silpi engraves on a slab of stone, with rapt attention, his apprentices surrounding him seem to be watching his action (Plate II). In the other panel, now preserved in the Khajuraho Museum, the śilpī is depicted as engaged in giving the required shape to a block of stone, on which he is shown seated. He holds a pick in his left hand and his raised right hand holds hammer intended to depict the motion required for hammering. His torso is drawn and taut and conveys the feeling of action meant here. Immediately behind him is a female figure, defaced, looking at the action. There are two more figures behind her. In front of the silpī are six figures of karmikas, "labourers", carrying a finished block of stone, probably a capital of a pillar, which is suspended with ropes from a pole shown across the shoulders of the labourers. Behind the labourers is a couple in an amourous pose, intended for

decoration of the panel. The couple do not seem to have any bearing on the rest of the composition (Plate III).

A panel from the Surya temple of Konark in Orissa has been identified by Bhattacharya as representing a community of artists along with the King Narasimhavarmana. Khandalavala, however, disgrees with this identification and refers to it as a depiction of the King with a community of poets and writers of his court.¹

¹ Khandalawala, K. J., Lalit Kala, 8, p.88.

The History of Image Makers According to Taranath*

INTHE ancient period, the human artists possessed miraculous power and their artistic creations were astounding. In the Vinayavastu etc., it is clearly said that the statues made and pictures drawn by them created the illusion of being the real objects. For about a hundred years after the parinirvāṇa of the Teacher, there were many artists like them.

As afterwards there was none of them any more, the celestial artists appeared in human guise and made eight wonderful images for worship in Magadha, like those of the Mahābodhi and Mañjuśrīdundubhīśvara. The chaityas of the eight sacred places and the inner boundry walls of Vajrāsana were built by the Yakṣa artists during the period of Aśoka and the Nāga artists built many (images) during the time of Nāgarjuna.

The (images) thus made by the Devas, Nagas and Yaksas created the illusion of the real objects for many years. In the later period, under the influence of time such creations were no more and there remained practically none with the knowledge of the technique concerned.

After that, for a long time there developed the traditions of different artistic techniques depending of the individual talents of various artists. There remained no uniform tradition of the technique (of image-making).

Later on, during the period of king Buddhapakṣa there lived an artist called Bimbasāra, who produced the most wonderful architectural sculptures and paintings: these could be compared to those of the celestial artists of the earlier period.

Numerous artists became his followers. This artist was born in Magadha. Therefore, the artists following his school were said to belong to the school of the madhya-deśa art, wherever they might have been born.

During the period of king Sīla, there was an extraordinarily skilled icon-maker called Srigadhari, who was born in the region of Maru. He made many sculptures and paintings in the tradition of the Yakṣas. The school following his technique is known as the school of old western art.

^{*} From Tārānath's History of Buddhism in India, edited by D. P. Chattopadhyaya.

During the time of king Devapāla and Śrī Dharmapāla, there lived a highly skilled artist called Dhīman in the Vārendra region. His son was called Bitpala. These two followed the tradition of the Naga artists and practised various techniques like those of metal-casting, engraving and painting. The tradition of the technique of the father became different from that of the son. The son used to live in Bhamgala. The cast-images made by the followers of both of them were called the eastern icons, wherever those followers might have been born.

In painting, the tradition of those that followed the father was called the tradition of eastern paintings, while those who followed the son were known as belonging to the school of the madhya-deśa painting, because this was widespread mainly in Magadha.

In Nepal also the earlier tradition of art was similar to the old western (style of Indian art). The paintings and bell-metal castings (of Napal) of the middle period are said to belong to the Nepalese school, though these resemble the eastern (Indian art). No distinct (tradition) is found (in Nepal) in the later period.

In Kashmir also was followed the tradition of the early central art and of the old western (Indian art). In the later period one called Hasurāja introduced new technique both in sculpture and painting. It is now

called the art of Kashmir.

Skilled image-makers abounded in every place wherever the Law of the Buddha flourished. In the regions that came under the influence of the mlecchas declined the art of image making and the regions under the influence of the tirthikas had only inferior image-makers. That is why, practically nothing survives today of the tradition of those mentioned above.

In Pu-khan and southern India still thrives the tradition of image-making. But it is clear that their tradition of art did not reach Tibet in the past. In the south, there exist numerous followers of the three, namely Jaya,

school of the instituted state, wherever they might have been born.

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