INDIAN TEMPLES

136 PHOTOGRAPHS
CHOSEN AND ANNOTATED

BY

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WITH A PREFACE BY

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PREFACE

In classical times India was the land of wonders. Four hundred years before the Christian era, a Greek physician, Ctesias of Cnidus, chronicled the extraordinary tales of India which were current at the Persian court. When Alexander the Great’s Macedonian troops crossed its boundaries and entered the Punjab, they were amazed at the appearance of the streets in Taxila: these soldiers who had traversed so many countries suddenly felt themselves in another world. And after more than two millenniums, while the face of the earth has been transformed by so many successive revolutions, the traveller landing at Bombay still feels the same shock of surprise: ascetics with strange marks on their foreheads, their nakedness smeared with ashes, charmers with their snakes gliding round them, shouting processions, crowds in religious ecstasy, the childish and grandiose images that obsess the sight, all these bear witness to a different manner of life. Europe and the Near East also have their saints and shrines, pilgrimages and pilgrims, festivals and ceremonies ordained by religion, but in India religion is the framework of daily life, always apparent. Here humanity is steeped in divinity, and by whatever name he worships Him, each man sees God, hears God, is a part of God and lives in God every minute of his life; even the humblest are not cut off, and the hymns which rise from the rice-fields are often as dignified and as moving as the poets’ psalms. A racial characteristic? But racially India is the most mixed country in the world, and all shades of colouring, from pure white to jet black, are to be found among her three hundred million inhabitants. The effect of the climate? Nothing can be less uniform than her landscape: the eternal ice of the Himalayas, the burning Thar desert, wide river valleys, rugged plateaus, here cotton, elsewhere wheat, maize and millet, crops as various as the land. Yet there is one common factor of capital importance: the monsoon, that alternating rhythm more violent than the seasons—the relentlessly clear sky, first glowing, then blazing, the sudden rush of heavy clouds and then the deluge, the unloosing of thunder and lightning, the wild growth of vegetable life, of animal life and of all the forces of nature inimical to man. Man too small for Nature; human life conceived in terms of the drama of the skies, the eternal round of birth and death, the poor human being emptied of its substance and reduced to the ephemeral play of shadows or illusions—these are the common factors of India’s genius on which the dazzling structures of her philosophies and religions have been reared.

Until quite recently, the history of India began with the Vedic hymns. Invaders, coming from the common stock from which Europe would receive the Greeks, the Latins, the Celts, the Germanic peoples and the Slavs, were supposed to have passed through Trans-Caspian Asia, leaving the germ of the Iranian peoples, and crossed the Indus. Their gods were still closely associated with natural phenomena, the god of the thunder-bolt, of fire, of the moon, etc., though already overlaid with ritual conceptions and speculations. Written in very archaic Sanskrit, the hymns constitute the four great collections of Vedas, assigned by most authorities to the period 1500-1000 B.C. Beyond that time, India’s past was dark. But the horizon has suddenly receded in the last few years. Systematic excavations since 1921 at Mohenjo-Daro in Sind and at Harappa in the Punjab have shown us a well-developed civilization, rich in works of art, and with a system of writing, which repeated investigations prove to date from about 2500 B.C. In the Vedas there is no mention, no trace of this civilization which flourished on the very soil that the Vedic Aryans later occupied. At present we have no means of bridging this perplexing gap, while on the other hand there are obvious connexions with Elamite and Sumerian culture, attested by positive facts. The archaeologist who directed these sensational excavations, Sir John Marshall, has attempted to discover in the imagery of Mohenjo-Daro the early features of the pantheon which was later to be adopted by Sanskrit India, but his hypothesis awaits verification. Prehistoric India also knew the religion of the megalithic period, and dolmens, menhirs
and cromlechs are found throughout the length of the peninsula; the southern group has recently been the subject of a careful investigation. The Vedie period has not, so far as we know, left any religious monuments, and there is little hope of finding any worship, endlessly complicated and refined, and associated with meticulous ritual, never reached the collective stage. Each of the sacrifices which constituted worship was offered for the exclusive benefit of the sacrificer, the head of a clan or of a family; each sacrifice was independent, with its own beginning and ending, and could be inserted without further mediation in the web of the greatest sacrifice of all, the life of the universe itself. A religious revolution was necessary before religious monuments could develop.

This revolution took place in India towards the sixth century before Christ, and was part of a vast movement which seems to have shaken the whole world, from China with Confucius and Lao Tse to Iran with Zoroaster and Greece with Pythagoras. Among the teachers who came to preach in India a gospel of salvation, free from the old liturgical and ritualistic fetters and founded on reason or mystical experience, two succeeded in laying a firm foundation for future growth. Both were born in the central Ganges valley, between the holy river and the sacred Himalayas, at a propitious time when a political revolution was also in progress, a revolution that was to replace clans by states, and prepare the way for an empire transcending states. Mahavira founded an ascetic brotherhood, governed by a meticulous system of rules, with the fundamental doctrine of the absolute sanctity of life—ahimsa, the famous 'non-violence' upon which Gandhi is today trying to build a new India. Mahavira taught his disciples a peculiar method of discussion, and a cosmology in which mathematics has a large place. He rejected the idea of a supreme god, but admitted an immense pantheon of petty deities, apparently better off than man, but subject to the same vicissitudes without the possibility of that supreme liberation which is reserved for the chosen saints on earth. Out of these elements grew the religion called Jaina, or Jainism, because one of the titles of its founder was 'The Victorious' (in Sanskrit, jina), given him for his triumph over error and delusion. The Jaina cult still pursues its dim destiny today, after twenty-five centuries: it has spread all over India, but its ancient centres of activity are still maintained in Gujarat, Bengal and the Deccan, and there is some revival in its importance, thanks to a few outstanding Jain saints and scholars. Its adherents come chiefly from the merchant class, the banias, and they have never ceased to erect, with unrivalled generosity, admirable monuments of their faith. Excavations at Mathura have revealed the splendour of their temples at the beginning of the Christian era, and Girdar, Palitana and Mount Abu are some of the glories of the religious architecture of India. It is an architecture of immensely rich congregations: precious materials, delicate and careful work with a fine sense of proportion, but lacking the lyrical impulse which animates and transfigures stone.

This lyric note which is absent from Jain architecture was to find full, though almost unwilling, expression in Buddhism. Mahavira's contemporary, Prince Siddhartha, when he attained the enlightenment that made him a Buddha (in Sanskrit buddha means literally 'the man who has woken up'), believed that he had found in the purely rational law of causality the origin, nature and cure of the suffering inseparable from existence. Never before had a human soul contemplated this suffering with such pitiful yet unruffled sympathy. Fathers and Doctors of the church might deduce profound metaphysical systems, based on the negation of personality, from his teachings, but the emotional masses worshipped in the Master, the apostles and saints, and then in the infinitely varied Buddhias, the heroes of gentleness, patience and charity, of sublime sacrifice exalted to frenzy. A life of Buddha, surreptitiously introduced to the Christian church, has even given a new saint to the western calendar. The heavenly gods, belittled as in Jainism, were eclipsed by the man who had left his footprints in the soil and his mark in the soul. The places consecrated by his presence were worshipped, his birth-place, the terrace of the Enlightenment, the first preaching, the miracles, his final entry into Nirvana, etc.; his relics were worshipped. First, following the custom widespread in the East, men raised mounds of earth and stone; on these were planted symbols, the wheel of the Law, the umbrella of Sovereignty; the mound
was encircled by a railing; gradually stone replaced impermanent wood, and thus the stupa in its classical form was created, of which Sanchi is a perfect example. The monks were vowed to an itinerant life, but were forced to settle during the three months of the monsoon. Following their Master's example, the 'beggars' (Sanskrit, bhikhu) made the best of natural shelters in caves and grottoes; but the church grew and became wealthy, rest-houses were built for the passing monks and became monasteries. Clearly as the result of their respect for tradition, caves were adapted; they were hollowed out, divided into cells, and decorated. The primitive worship had developed also; Buddhism had its liturgy and its collective rites. Corporate life had demanded a monastery, the monastery demanded a chapel, a temple. In the mountain retreats beloved by hermits seeking peace, coolness and water, arose wonderful shrines, at Karli, Kanheri, and Ajanta; painting and sculpture, enriched by the passage of Greek artists, were enlisted for the glorification of the Master. In the north-west, at Gandhara where Greek princes had ruled for two centuries, a hybrid art had developed in which the canons and conventions of Graeco-Roman studios had been put at the service of Asia. A complete Buddhist imagery was there elaborated which was to spread to China, to the East Indies, and utterly to transform the orthodox doctrine. Progressively invaded by popular beliefs, by magic and sorcery, deformed by the very expansion that carried it amongst peoples whose genius was foreign to India's, Buddhism grew closer to the popular cults of Brahmanical Hinduism. It was on the point of being absorbed into Hinduism when the Muslim conquest destroyed its monasteries, scattered its monks, broke the hierarchical skeleton which kept it together, and swept it from Indian soil.

Hinduism is a convenient name to embrace the innumerable cults which, though centred in an infinite diversity of deities, have nevertheless the common characteristics which are at the basis of Brahmanical orthodoxy: theoretical recognition of the Vedas as the absolute authority, a condition which is not very irksome as the Vedic canon has never been officially constituted; the organization of society in castes, a condition evidently inherent in the Indian genius since religions introduced from outside—such as Islam and Christianity—have to struggle against the reversion to caste-ideas within their own churches; the supremacy of the Brahmin, who by right of birth is a 'god on earth'; and respect for the cow, which is sacred and inviolable. With these reserves, the grossest jungle cults have as much right in the Hindu pantheon as the entirely spiritual conceptions of the philosophers. Hinduism has never attempted, desired or been able to organize itself into a regular hierarchy with one supreme head; it has persisted in living in systematized anarchy, and has derived its strength from this. For thousands of years its spread amongst the aboriginal tribes of Central India has been accomplished by taking into its pantheon, by the simple method of arbitrary assimilation, all the vast company of gods, demons, genii, and spirits born of the imaginations of these wild peoples. It is in this way that the great figures of the Hindu religion have grown, Siva, Vishnu, Durga, etc.; the multiplicity of their titles still reminds us of the great number of divinities which have gone to their making.

The Hindu temple, in spite of the considerable modifications it has received in the course of time, still expresses the individual character of Vedic rites. There is no collective service, and no nave where the faithful can assemble for corporate prayer. The temple is the personal dwelling-place of the god, who lives there in human fashion, in a statue or symbol. The priests' function is to provide for the needs of the god's daily life: to wake him with music, bathe him, make offerings for his meals, and pleasure him in all sorts of ways, mainly by reciting litanies, hymns and psalms. The priest is also the indispensable intermediary between the god and his worshipper, the sacred and the profane. The worshipper brings his homage and offerings, and the priest renders them acceptable to the god, and in the last resort receives them himself.

There is no 'sabbath' in the Hindu religious life, no fixed day of rest recurring at short intervals, but the calendar is full of festivals which are the occasions of fairs and pilgrimages: man's innate love of travel is all the time causing pious tourists to set out on the Indian roads, more attracted than intimidated by great distances. A pilgrimage which only attracts tens of thousands is negligible; visitors to Prayag (Allahabad),
Benares and Puri are numbered in hundreds of thousands; and it is therefore no matter for surprise that temple amenities include huge kitchens and huge bathing-places. The spiritual centre of the temple is the Holy of Holies, where the god dwells in a specially sacred statue: above this shrine rises a many-storied tower from which the style of the whole edifice may be deduced. There are three main styles in Indian architecture: the rectangular Nâgara in the north; the rounded Vesara, typical of the Andhra district, on the east coast; and octagonal Dravidian in the south. In front of the central shrine stand open, pillared pavilions which house sacred images, the god’s ear, washing-places and a dancing hall for the two famous ‘bayaderes’. Dravidian temples are also characterized by massive pyramidal structures over the gateways connecting the successive courtyards that compose the temple precincts. Usually the surfaces of all the buildings are covered with a rich profusion of decorations, often images disconcerting to western aesthetic conceptions where the Indian sculptor has in his own way tried to interpret the superhuman nature of the powers with which religion has populated his universe.

Alongside these technically exquisite buildings, architecture has piously maintained the tradition of the ancient rock-hewn shelters: like Jainism and Buddhism, Hinduism has its underground temples, for example the Elephanta caves near Bombay, which the earliest European travellers took to be monuments of Alexander and Porus. Sometimes even, thanks to better tools, the solid rock has been cut back, and shrines, statues and columns hewn from the living rock as in the wonderful Kailasa temple at Ellora or the famous rath at Mahabali puram, where the rocks scattered on the seashore have given birth to a fantastic city of temples and sculptures which take their place amongst the greatest works of art.

Besides its indigenous religions, India has received other great religions from outside: Christianity, implanted from very early times in South India, Judaism which preceded it there, and Zoroastrianism brought to Gujarat by fugitives from Mohammedan persecution in Persia. But none of them gave new treasures or inspiration to Indian architecture. It was left to the strongest adversary of Indian civilization, Islam, to renew and transform Indian art. Iconoclastic Islam, responsible for so much destruction and so many massacres, substituted the spiritual brotherhood of all believers for the hierarchical caste system, and a sober nobility of line and proportion for the wild exuberance of Hindu images. Wherever it has passed, Islam has raised mosques, minarets and mausoleums in token of its faith, but in the religious atmosphere of India the mosques, minarets and mausoleums have attained a dignity and beauty greater than anywhere else. Only the Taj Mahal can compare with the glory of the Parthenon: Agra and its environs are rivals of Greece. The Great Moguls who gave form to these grandiose and magnificent conceptions did not disdain the help of artists from Europe, and in raising these monuments to their glory they glorified the collective work of the human genius.

While we have no didactic purpose in offering this album to the public, we have tried to avoid meaningless disorder. The works of art are framed by Nature and pre-history, and within this frame we have followed as far as possible chronological or topographical indications, without making artificial groupings of Buddhist, Hindu and Mohammedan monuments. The photographs of Nepal have been reserved till the end, and placed almost independently, not from personal predilection (which would be excusable), but because Nepal in its Himalayan isolation presents a synthetic view of India as she was before the Mohammedan invasion. There the Buddhist buildings are not archaeological curiosities, but centres of a living faith like the Hindu temples. Moreover in Nepal are to be found, still standing, examples of the wooden architecture which preceded and explain stone architecture, but which have totally disappeared from India. The photographs reproduced in this section are due to the ever-generous kindness of the late Maharaja Chandra Sham Shere, who died in 1929.

SYLVAIN LÉVI
PILIER DE LA PORTE ORIENTALE DU STOÛPA DE SĀNTCHI
AMARĀVATĪ — ADORATION DU STOUPA PAR LES NĀGA
MIRACLE OF THE MUST ELEPHANT
27. AJANTA. — ROCK-CUT BUDDHIST TEMPLES

27. AJANTA. — SANCTUAIRES BOUDDHIQUES CREUSES DANS LA FALAISE.
29. AJOJNTÁ. — FRESCO. SCÈNES DE PALAIS
31. AJANTA — BUDDHA ENTERING NIRVANA
33. BODH GAYA. — ENTRÉE DU STOUPÀ ET LE FIGUIER SACRÉ
AHMEDABAD. - LA MOSQUEE DE OJAM
ALLAHABAD. ANNUAL PILGRIMAGE TO THE CONFLUENCE OF THE GANGES AND JUMNA

61. MARCHAND DE BRACELETS

62. VISHNUITE SADHU

63. UN SADHU VISHNOUTE DEVANT SA TENTE

64. SICK SADHU RECEIVING GIFTS

65. UN SADHU INFIRME RECEVANT DES OFFRANDES

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ELLORA. — LE KAILASA. FIGURE: VOLANTE
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NOTES

1. SIMKHAD—SINHACHAU PEAK, 22,629 ft. In the Kangchenjunga massif. A telephoto view.

2-3. PREHISTORIC BURIAL, RING AND BOLKEM. The Paleri Hills (Madura District, South India) contain a large number of prehistoric remains, but the purpose of the many dolmens and circles of stones is not known.

4. DHAULI—ROCK-CARVING ELEPHANT. (Orissa). A monolith, of which the carved portion represents the forequarters of an elephant. A long inscription (257 C.E.) is cut on the rock. It is one of the many edicts which the emperor Asoka had engraved throughout his vast empire (cf. 9).

5-8. BARHUT—MEDALLION FROM THE STUPA. (Central India). The sculptures on the stone railing surrounding the Barhut stupa (second century B.C.—cf. Sanchi stupa, 10) represent, with most careful exactitude, episodic in the life of the Buddha and the former lives (Jatakas) in which the future Buddha incarnated in various forms, was the hero of edifying adventures. The sculptors have often pictured a series of episodes within the frame of a single medallion, which explains why the same figure sometimes recurs. The angle of the photos corresponds to that of the medallions on the pillars surrounding the stupas.

5. MAYA'S DREAM. Queen Maya, the future mother of Buddha, is seen reclining. Three female servants stand beside her. In her sleep she dreams that a white elephant descends from the sky and enters her right thigh. The next day Brahmans interpret the dream to mean that a son will be born in her who will have all the signs of a great king.

6. JATAKA OF THE STAG. Once the Buddha was a compassionate stag. Here he is seen saving the life of a merchant drowning in the Ganges. Buddha carries the merchant on his back to the bank, where a hind is drinking. But the merchant is a treacherous man who lures the stag within bowshot of the King of Benares. Just as the king is about to loose his arrow (right) the stag speaks, and his holy words impale the hunter. The king is shown again in the centre of the medallion, listening with joined hands to the marvellous animal.

7. LEGEND OF THE GANESHE. In Benares. The merchant Amatapindaka had invited the Buddha to visit the town of Sravasti, and only the garden of Prince Jets appeared worthy to receive the Blessed One. The Prince demanded from the buyer the most precious of golden pieces necessary to cover the land completely. To the left of the medallion, men are seen making a buffalo-cart full of pieces of gold and arranging them on the ground. In the centre, the merchant is making a libation to consecrate the gift. The presence of the Buddha is indicated by the tree in the foreground (cf. 11, 12, 33).

8. JATAKA OF THE GREAT MONKEY. Once the Buddha was the king of 80,000 monkeys, who were gathered together on the banks of the Ganges. One day the King of Benares surrounded the tree and threatened the monkeys with his arrows. But their leader had them be of good cheer. He crossed the river with a great leap and clung to a tree on the far bank, made himself into a bridge which saved the lives of his 80,000 monkeys. Here the river is represented by wavy lines in which fishes and a tortoise are swimming. The King of Benares, marvelling at the monkey-chief's devotion, orders two of his servants to stretch out a striped rug into which the chief can let himself fall when he is extinguished. At the bottom, the King of Benares is listening to the edifying words of the king of the monkeys. Both are seen seated in the foreground.

9. LAURIYA NANDAAGARH—ASHOKAN PILLAR. A Buddhist pillar set up by order of the emperor Asoka and bearing an edifying inscription (cf. 4). The monolithic shaft is of hard sandstone polished to a degree that has never been equalled. The capital is in the form of a bell-shaped, hanging lotus, topped by a seated lion.

10. SANCHI STUPA. (Bhopal). A stupa is a hemispherical monument of bricks or stone. It is surrounded by a stone railing, broken at each of the cardinal points by a monumental gateway, profusely sculptured. It is a commemorative monument, often erected on top of relics. Pilgrims have to walk around the stupas. Sanchi stupa is one of the oldest third—one century B.C.) and best-preserved (see the detail in Plates II, 12, 13, 14). In the background of the picture, on the right, a second less important stupa is visible.

11. NORTH GATE OF SANCHI STUPA. Two vertical pillars support, on two imposing capitals (four elephants back to back), three superimposed architraves. Each of the faces of these various component parts is decorated all over with small relief-sculptures illustrating the Buddhist legend. Although he is present in most of the scenes, the Buddha is never shown in human form. In the early stages of Buddhist art in India, the artist only suggests the Buddha by means of various symbols, distinct from his fear of committing outrage.

12. DETAIL OF EAST GATE AT SANCHI. Here we are able to study some of the Buddhist symbols (cf. 11) the young elephant represents the Conception (cf. 5); the tree (lower architrave), the Enlightenment (cf. 35); the wheel (between the architraves), the First Preaching; the stupa (upper architrave), the death of Buddha and Nirvana (cf. 31). On the middle architrave is seen the Great Renunciation; the riderless horse moving towards the right symbolizes the Buddha riding away from his father's palace. His presence is indicated by the royal umbrella held by his faithful horse. The horse is seen again kneeling before his master (symbolized, on the right, by two feet) who has just embraced the religious life. On the lower architrave, the emperor Asoka (cf. 4), followed by a crowd of warriors and servants, is seen stepping from his kneeling elephant to worship the sacred Bo-tree (cf. 33, 34),
13. YAKSHINI ON EAST GATE AT SANCHI. The forest fairy is holding the branches of a tree (cf. 23).

14. PILLAR OF THE EAST GATE AT SANCHI. Behind the sculptured pillar is seen the stone balustrade surrounding the stupa (cf. 10), and in the background the narrow brick courses of the stupa itself. The carved bas-reliefs on the pillar represent, from the top downward: the discipies of Buddha in the attitude of adoration; below, the Bo-tree (cf. 12), symbol of the Enlightenment at Buddha Gaya (cf. 35); below, the scene of the conversion of the Kasyapas; a flood is carrying away trees and animals (upper portion), while the Buddha divides the waters and keeps a patch of dry ground for himself (here represented by the narrow white rectangle). A boat carrying heretical ascetics—the Kasyapas—approaches, but they are confounded at the sight of this miracle. They reappear in the foreground in the attitude of adoration. The lower bas-relief shows King Bimbisara in a chariot with two horses (bottom), leaving his city (the houses on the right) to visit the Buddha.

15. MUKTA—STONE BUDDHA. This statue of pink sandstone, locally quarried, is 7 ft. high. The Buddha is wearing a monk's robe, which clings closely to his body and reveals its lines in accordance with the traditions of classic Indian art (fifth century a.d.). The stylized draped figure is daintily chiselled. The small prostration on the top of the head is one of the characteristic marks of the Buddha. The enlarged lobe of the ear is due to the heavy castings which he wore as a young prince. The large urnule is decorated with concentric bands of floral designs.

16. BHAGA—BUDDHIST TOWER. (Second century B.C.) The basilica plan (a nave 59 ft. long by 25 ft. high with two low and narrow aisles) ends in an apse with ambulatory. The architectural and decorative elements are stone versions of a wooden building. At the end of the nave stands the altar, in the form of a small stupum, on which the faithful could walk.

17. KAILAS OF THE BUDDHIST CAVES. (First century A.D.) This is decorated with figures in high relief. The sculptures still imitate timber-work. On the right, elephants are used as eunyates. The interior of the temple is lighted by the rectangular doorway and the large open arch above it.

18. KAILAS—THE BUDDHIST TEMPLE. This is one of the most famous rock-cut temples. It is the largest (88 ft. by 25 ft.) and most harmonious. The plan is the same as at Bhaja (cf. 16). A series of pillars separates the nave from the aisles. The octagonal shafts, with swelling bases and capitals, are topped by a series of sculptured to represent animals with human riders. The altar in the background is in the form of a stupum. The 30-ft. vault is decorated with false arch bands.

19. KAILAS—DETAIL OF PILLARS.

20. AMARAVATI—NAGAS WORSHIPPING. A marble fragment from the stupa at Amaravati (Nellore District, First century A.D.). The bas-relief shows one of the eight stupas erected after the death of Buddha to conserve relics of the Master. Seven of these monuments were raised on Indian soil, and the eighth was entrusted to the Nagas (subterranean spirits related to the snakes). Here they are given human shape, and in a wide head is displayed above their heads.

21. AMARAVATI—MIRACLE OF THE MUST ELEPHANTS. A mad elephant is let loose in the town when the Buddha is begging alms, and it destroys houses and tramples on the passers-by. The inhabitants flee in terror, and the disciples (on the right) following the Master vainly entreat him to return to the monastery. The benevolent power of the Buddha, however, overcomes the elephant, which kneels at his feet (on the right). Some princesses watch the scene from their balcony above.

22. ATHOS—AERIAL FIGURES. (Sixth century). Two emal vesting heavy jewels are represented with legs bent in the manner conventional to flight. A scarfe waves over their heads (cf. 23).

23. MUTTA—GODDESSES. Upright of a balustrade (second century A.D.) decorated with feminine figures in various attitudes, standing on devils. Above each stand a couple, seen from the waist up, behind a balustrade. The exaggerated hips, narrow waists, full breasts and thighs are all characteristic of the Hindu conception of the female form. All down the centuries, Hindu artists have delighted in these harmonious curves (cf. 13, 83).

24-6. GRACCO-BUDDHIST BAS-RELIEFS. After the conquest of Alexander, north-west India remained for two centuries under the dominion of Greek princes who successfully introduced Hellenic civilization. Sculptors of Greek origin adapted their canons and plastic conceptions to Buddhist iconography, and thus gradually a Graeco-Buddhist art—the Gandharan school—developed. Its works have obvious classical characteristics.

24. Six male figures, wearing loin-cloths shaped like vine leaves, with exaggerated stomach-muscles. They are sea-divinities, and each holds a paddle in his left hand, except the personage on the extreme left, who is leaning on his paddle in the attitude of Hercules resting on his club. (Height, 6½ inches.) (Brit. Mus.)

25. A frieze of little Lutes holding up a garland. Between each of these pairs of standing figures is a child, whose wings form a scroll pattern.

26. This bas-relief represents one of the Buddha's former lives (cf. 5-8). He was then King of the Sibas, and is seen seated on the left. A dove (bottom, left) pursued by a hawk (above) seeks the king's protection. The king saves its life, but in order not to deprive the hawk of food he offers to redeem the dove with an equal portion of his own flesh. A servant is seen cutting flesh from his leg. But in the scene (centre) the dove is still the heavier, so the king offers his whole body. Then the two birds resume their divine form (the serpent's figures on the right) and heal the king of his wounds. (Brit. Mus.)
27. **Ajanta**—**Rock-Cut Buddhist Temples**. Ajanta is situated in the Deccan mountains, and the Buddhist monasteries (first to seventh centuries) have been cut in the face of a steep cliff which overlooks a wooded valley with a stream at its bottom. The mouths of a number of caves can be seen half-way up the cliff, on the right. There are 29 caves altogether (temples and cells), connected by paths or steps.

28. **Ajanta**—**Facade of Cave XIX**. Entirely cut in the living rock, this is one of the best-preserved caves. Most of the reliefs which decorate it represent the Buddha or Buddhist personages.

29. **Ajanta**—**Fresco of Palace Scenes**. (Cave XVII) Ajanta contains the most important group of Buddhist paintings in India, most of the caves being adorned with frescoes which are more or less well preserved. On the right a pair of lovers are seated in front of a palace, in the shade of a veranda supported on slender pillars. Through the window on the left, the faces of two lovers watch the procession passing. A prince and princess, recognizable by their umbrellas, are passing among trees and flowers, followed by their servants.

30. **Ajanta**—**Fresco of a Bodhisattva**. This bust of a bodhisattva (a future Buddha) is part of an important fresco in Cave I. The figure is wearing a tall, richly ornamented diadem, heavy ear-rings and two pearl necklaces. Effects of light and shade are produced by the use of pale or deep colours.

31. **Ajanta**—**Buddha Entering Nirvana**. This picture is taken from the central aisle of Cave XXVI, and in the foreground is seen the line of pillars separating the nave from the aisle. Sculptured on the wall in the background is a scene from the Parinirvana (the death of Buddha). Between two trees, minutely in flower, the Buddha resides on his right side, foot on foot. His disciples surround him, weeping, while the Gandhavas (spirits of music) fill the air with their melodies (upper portion). The Buddha meditates and gradually passes into Nirvana.

32. **Ajanta**—**Cave XXVI**. In its plan and general arrangement this cave resembles Karli (cf. 18), but the greater importance given to sculpture (highly decorated frieze, capitals and pillars) indicates a later period (seventh century). The steps-shaped altar is adorned with many reliefs, with the Buddha seated on a throne in European fashion in front.

33. **Buddha Gaya**. (Bihar). The temple of Buddha Gaya (height, 200 ft.) is built on the site of a shrine erected by the emperor Asoka (cf. 4). It commemorates the moment when the Bodhisattva (future Buddha), meditating under the tree of Intelligence (Bodhi), attained Enlightenment and acquired the quality of Buddha. The tree of which the foliage is seen in Plate 33 is one of the many successors of the sacred Bo-tree. It is one of the principal places of pilgrimage for Buddhists. In the earliest Indian Buddhist art the tree alone was enough to evoke the scene of the Enlightenment (cf. 13, 14).

35. **Ceylon**—**Rock Fortress at Sigirya**. This huge rock, dominating a vast plain, was used as a fortress in the 5th century. Rooms decorated with frescoes and little shrines were hewn in the rock, and later all the galleries were used as a Buddhist monastery.

36. **Ceylon**—**Anuradhapura**. Anuradhapura was the capital of Ceylon from the fifth century B.C. until it was abandoned in the eighth century A.D. for Polonnaruwa. The great city was quickly overrun by the jungle, and today there only remain traces of religious monuments, monasteries and dagobas (stupas).

37. **Buddhist Stupa at Anuradhapura**. The Thuparama dagoba is a small stupa erected in the third century B.C. on a Buddhist relic, and later restored. Like most of the Sinhalese monuments it is surrounded by short granite columns.

38. **Ceylon**—**Polonnaruwa**. The 'House of Relics' is a small circular temple in brick, set on a base of three stone terraces, on the western of which stands a ring of columns (cf. 37). A seated Buddha is seen in the centre.

39. **Ceylon**—**Polonnaruwa**. These groups of columns are doubtless the remains of ancient temples, but their function is still somewhat obscure.

40. **Ceylon**—**Sacred Tank at Anuradhapura**. Now buried in the jungle.

41. **Ceylon**—**Ruined Temple at Polonnaruwa**. The plan is a long, narrow rectangle. In the front, the high walls are decorated with fluting. Small reliefs adorn the Ascenders of the steps. On either side are winged serpents, guardians of the temple, in high relief. At the far end of the nave is a colossal image of the Buddha (height, 50 ft.).

42. **Ceylon**—**Mihintale**. A stupa commemorating the meeting of the brother of the emperor Asoka (cf. 9) with the king of Ceylon. After this meeting the king and all his court embraced Buddhism.

43. **Kashmir**—**Vishvamitra in the Karakhanj**. The valley here, between Pasa and Missar, is about 10,000 ft. above sea-level.

44. **Kashmir**—**Temple at Buniar**. Like most of the temples of Kashmir, the little Buniar temple is characterized by triangular pediments, tribhota arches and fluted pillars, showing the influence of western classical architecture. The temple stands in the middle of a rectangular cloister with tribhota arches.

45. **Mount Abu**—**Temples**. Mount Abu forms part of the Aravalli Mountains (southern Rajasthan). The little village of Dilwara (altitude, 4,500 ft.), standing amidst majestic scenery, contains four Jain temples (cf. Preface). They are built entirely of marble, crowned by cupolas, and their sober exteriors contrast with the richness of the interior decoration.

46. **Mount Abu**—**Interior of a Jain Temple**. The great hall and cupola of the Jain temple of Tejpal (1232) are famous for their Buddhist decoration. All the architectural elements of this white marble temple are adorned with a wealth of delicate sculptures. On the cupola, a series of statues in the round represent the twenty-four Jinas.

47. **Amrekar**—**Hathising Temple**. This Jain temple is modern (1848), and in the Jain style. The exuberant sculptured decoration recalls the Mount Abu temples.
48. AIZMIR.—JAMI MASJID. Built c. 1423 by Ahmad Shafi.
49. AJMER.—MOQUE. The portico of the Mosque of Altamish (early thirteenth century) is made up of seven arches, the central arch being 56 ft. high and 22 ft. wide. Each arch is framed by three lines of Kufic and Arabic characters and by delicately sculptured scroll patterns. A sunken dome is seen through the central arch.
50. AMARNA.—BY THE LAKE. Women are lifting their brass water-pots. In the background white marble palaces, half hidden by the trees, are reflected in the lake.
51. THE ROAD TO Agra.—A scene on a main road.
52. DELHI.—THE IRON PILAR. The Quibb Mosque (1195) derives its name from the famous saint of Baghdad. The porch seen here is composed of eleven arches, decorated with delicate foliate patterns and Arabic characters. The pillar (height, 33 ft.) in the forecourt is of solid iron. Its sculptured top is missing. The pillar is reputed to have been erected in Mogulna in the 15th century, and later brought to Delhi.
53. DELHI.—QUAT MINAR. This is a minaret constructed independently of the mosque. It is 238 ft. high and dates from 1232.
54. DELHI.—JAMI MASJID. The hour of prayer at the Great Jami Mosque (1644-51). Notice the collective worship of the Mussalmans, which contrasts with the individual character of Hindu worship.
55. Agra.—TAI MAHAL. This famous tomb, built by Shih Jahan (1632-48) in memory of his young wife, rises with its slender minarets in the midst of magnificent gardens, where pools and basins reflect the dazzling white of its marble walls. It is the result of collaboration between Indian, Turkish and European artists, who used only the rarest stones in their restrained decoration—porphyry, agate, lapis lazuli, and malachite. Its height is about 230 ft.
56. FATEHPUR SIKRI.—JAMI MASJID. A few miles from the city is Fathpur Sikri, the city of palaces and temples built of red sandstone by Akbar in the first half of the 16th century. It was destroyed by the Moguls in the 16th century, but the city has been restored and the great Minar, built by Akbar, has been restored.
57. DELHI.—HUMAYUN'S TOMB. Humayun, the founder of the Mogul empire, was buried here about 1600, and in style it recalls Persian mosques. It is adorned with cypress trees, and the marble columns are typical Persian style.
58. Agra.—RAHIL Daulat's Mausoleum. This monument, the last of the Mogul tombs, is the tomb of the last Mogul, I'timad ud-Daula.
59. Bhopal.—ISLAMIA MOQUE. The monuments of Bijapur, very similar in style to those of Golconda, are far and away the most remarkable in the Deccan. The tomb of I'timad ud-Daula (1628-30) is one of the most beautiful monuments in India.
60. Suraj (THE SUN).—HINDU ART OF THE INDIAN subcontinent. This bronze relief shows him standing between two acolytes, holding a lotus flower in each hand. The tall diadem, various jewels, draperies and floating scarves are familiar adornments of Indian deities. Here the priestly pose of Surya and the rather narrow hips of the male figures are more specialized characteristics of North Indian art.
61. Allahabad.—ANNUAL PILGRIMAGE TO THE CONFERENCE OF THE GANGA AND JUMNA. During this pilgrimage, which lasts for the whole month of January, an immense camp is improvised. There are to be seen drums, trumpets, shrines, open-air kitchens, money-changers, barbers, and sellers of offerings, ornaments and fruit. Here and there sadhus meditate, hold discussions, and read the sacred books.
62. Benares.—THE GHAT. Benares, the religious capital of India, has been a holy city from time immemorial. It is the most important of the seven cities sacred to Brahmanism (cf. 107). Of the 1,500 Hindu temples and innumerable small shrines in the city, only a few are dedicated to Vishnu, the rest being consecrated to Siva. The majority were not built before the eighteenth century. The town is on ground about 90 feet above the level of the river, and monumental stairways (ghats) lead to the river bank on which rise lines of palaces and temples. In the background can be seen the confiding crowds of pilgrims, while sacred cows walk freely over the steps in the right foreground.
63. Benares.—PILGRIMS BATHING IN THE GANGA. A view of the ghats from the river. Several times a day, close-packed crowds of pilgrims descend the wide stairways which lead to the holy river. Men and women, no matter what their caste, immerse themselves together in the Ganges and are cleansed of all their sins (cf. 97). In the foreground (right centre) can be seen the sacred pot on which the faithful 60 holy water to treasure in their far-off homes. The big palm-leaf umbrellas shelter Brahmans or sadhus in meditation (cf. 62).
64. Benares.—PILGRIMS ON THE GHAT. Fully-dressed women are bathing in the Ganges. When they have finished their ablutions, they put on new saris, spreading their wet ones to dry on the stairways and palanquins.
65. Benares.—THE GHAT. Sunrise by the Ganges. On the left a sadhu is meditating under his umbrella, and saris are spread out on the steps (cf. 65).
66. Benares.—PILGRIMS ON THE GHAT. A close-up of pilgrims crowded on the river bank.
70-72: CALCUTTA.—THE KALI TEMPLE. The goddess Kali is Siva's spouse and his destructive force. The most famous temple dedicated to her is at Kalighat, near Calcutta. (72) Two little goats (right) are about to be sacrificed in front of the temple, and the faithful are bowed in prayer. The sacrificer...
is standing, invoking the goddess with joined hands. (70) In the same courtyard a woman is sitting on the ground in deep meditation, with a brass pot containing holy water in front of her. In the background stands a man with a drum, which he beats to drown the cries of the sacrifices. Beside them (71), men squat round the fire-altar, holding sacred texts in their hands as they meditate in front of the holy flame.

73. BHUBANESWAR—A SACRED TANK. Bhubaneswar (Orissa) contains no less than 500 temples, altars, or Brahmansical shrines of all sizes. In the foreground the faithful are making their ablutions and drinking from the tank, whose waters have an exceptional purifying value, as it is reputed to be fed by all the holy rivers and lakes of India.

74. BHUBANESWAR—LINGARAJ TEMPLE. This is the most perfect example of North Indian Hindu architecture. It is a sort of curvilinear pyramid, and the sharply edged vertical ribs exaggerate its height (nearly 200 ft.). It is surmounted by a flattened knob, and surrounded at the base by many small shrines. Lingaraja is one of the names of Siva, who is usually represented by a lingam, the symbol of fertility.

75. BHUBANESWAR—DETAIL OF LINGARAJ TEMPLE. Here can be seen the mass of superimposed horizontal courses, with small shrines in the foreground.

76. BHUBANESWAR—A SACRED TANK. Another view of the tank shown in Plate 73, with the great temples in the background.

77. PURI—ANNUAL PROCESSION OF JAGANNATH'S CAR. More than a hundred thousand Hindus flock to Puri, from all quarters of India, at the time of the great pilgrimages. It is a town of narrow streets, widely slashed by the avenues down which the huge procession passes. In the distance can be seen the Jagannath temple, to which 10,000 people (priests, keepers, servants and gids) are attached. The gifts brought by pilgrims reach a prodigious total each year. Here can be seen part of the crowd, some of whom are dragging the monumental car (height, 45 ft.) on its sixteen wheels. The car supports the image of Krishna, the shepherd-god (avatar of Vishnu, cl. 100).

78. KANAKABATI—BASE-RELIEF OF A WHEEL ON THE SUN'S CHARIOT. (Orissa.) This is one of the many wheels carved on the wide base of the temple consecrated to the Sun (1240). The temple itself represents the Sun's chariot.

79. KANAKABATI—THE BLACK FAGODA (SUN TEMPLE). There are also delicate sculptures on the base of the temple: legends, apurific divinities (agás), and hugging couples are represented.

80. KAJARAO—PANORAMA OF TEMPLES. At Kajarao in Bundelkhand are grouped about thirty temples dedicated to Siva. Vishnu or Jina. They date from about 950 to 1050.

81. KAJARAO—BASE OF A TEMPLE. This close-up shows the considerable importance given to the base, which is adorned with many horizontal and vertical mouldings which catch the light.

82. KAJARAO—TEMPLE OF KANDARIYA MAHAROD. This Siva temple recalls the structure of the towers of Bhubaneswar (pl. 74). The impression of height (130 ft.) is emphasized by the pyramidal form, the high base and the wide platform.

83. KAJARAO—BASE-RELIEFS. The whole surface has been cut by the sculptors' chisels and trowels. A rich variety of mouldings, nearly all with foliage motifs, and sculptures in high relief decorate the prominent curves in the base. On either side of the central niche a female divinity stands holding the branches of a tree (cf. Plates 13 and 23).

84-85. At Ellora (Berr) is the largest group of rock-cut temples in India (fourth to tenth century). The caves extend for more than a mile in the face of a steep cliff which overlooks a vast plain. Three successive groups of caves can be distinguished, Buddhist, Brahmansical and Jain.

86. ELLORA—NAGHULI HALL. Cave XI has three stories, and is remarkable for the sober power of its pillars, cut in the form of parallelepips and crowned with an arrow rectangular capital. On each story, the space between the pillars and the well visible behind constitutes a veranda, while behind the wall is a large room used as a shrine.

87. ELLORA—CENTRAL SHRINE IN THE KAILASA TEMPLE. The Kailasa temple (No. XVI, eighth century) is the most astounding of all the rock-cut temples at Ellora. It is called the Paradise of Siva (cf. 88). A block of the cliff has been hollowed out and sculptured, and in the centre of the cleared space rises the main shrine carved in the living rock. The temple is dedicated to Siva. Small caves are cut in the surrounding walls, and this picture is taken from one of them (notice the shadowed cornice at the top). It shows the two-storeyed central shrine from the south-west. A wealth of sculptures illustrating legends decorate all its faces. On the right, the frieze on the base is composed of lions, elephants and fantastic animals in high relief.

88. ELLORA—TANTRA TEMPLE. Another picture of the Kailasa temple, showing the top of the cliff behind. Behind the monolithic pillar is the mass of the inner shrine, entered by a monumental porch (left).

89. ELLORA—ELEPHANT FRIEZE IN THE KAILASA TEMPLE. A series of figures appear to supporting the temple decorate the base of the shrine (cf. 85).

90. ELLORA—SIVA, PARVATI, AND RAVANA. The Paradise of Siva is a silver mountain. Kailasa, a Himalayan peak, (1), from which, with his spouse Parvati, Siva rules the world. One day the demon Ravana, angered, to carry off the mountain for himself. He is seen in the lower part of this picture, with ten hands, at being the mountain with his ten arms. Above him are seated Siva and Parvati, surrounded by divinities and spirits, and Siva is keeping the mountain firm by the pressure of his foot. This is one of the bas-reliefs on the central shrine of the Kailasa temple (cf. 85).

91. ELLORA—BOAR INCARNATION OF VISHNU. In the Ravana Ka Khai shrine striking bas-reliefs decorate the spaces between the sculptured pilasters. Vishnu (cl. 100), transformed into a gigantic boar, once dived to the bottom of the sea to retrieve the submerged earth. Here we see him, with a boar's head and
human body, trampling on the sea demon who had held the earth prisoner. The earth, in the form of a goddess, is standing on her deliverer's left hand.

90. ELLORA—DANCE OF SIVA. This bas-relief is from the same shrine. Siva the many-armed is dancing the Tamudava (cf. 95). On his right, seated musicians accompany him on the flute and drum: on his left, his spouse, Parvati.

91-2. ELLORA. Among the bas-reliefs on the central shrine of the Kailasa temple are these two flying figures, similarly poised. Plate 91 shows in detail the panel appearing on the right of the first story in Plate 88.

93. ELEPHANTA—SAIVA TEMPLE. Elephanta Island, in Bombay harbour, contains an important Saiva rock-cut shrine. The 15-17 ft. pillars have unusual fluting and are topped by capitals of flattened bulbous shape.

94. ELEPHANTA—TEMPLE (THREE-HEADED BUST OF SIVA). This bust (the third head is hidden by the pillar in the foreground) represents three different aspects of Siva (cf. 95): the Creator and the Destroyer, while the third head is supposed to represent his spouse, Parvati. The huge image is set in a niche (23 ft. by 19 ft.) in the back wall of the shrine. To right and left stand Dvarapalus (doorkeepers), accompanied by a grotesque dwarf.

95. SOUTH INDIA—DANCE OF SIVA (BRONZE). [Fourteenth century. Madras Museum. Height, 2 ft. 6 in.] Between the cosmic presides (cf. 100) Siva dances the mystic dance (Tamudava) which creates and destroys the worlds. Surrounded by a flaming aureole (the circle of the world) he tramples on the demon of evil. The manifestation of Siva as King of the Dance is one of the most widely worshipped in South India, where dancing plays an important part in religious ritual.

96-101. MAHABALIPURAM. Mahabalipuram, or Seven Pagodas, is situated on the coast south of Madras. Its temples and bas-reliefs are cut out from living rocks.

96-8. THE DESCENT OF THE GANGES. (Ensemble, 97; detail, 96 and 98.) This giant image, dating from the seventh century, is cut in a granite rock 90 ft. long and 43 ft. high. It pictures the following legend: Once upon a time the Ganges flowed in the Heavenly Paradise, but in order that the holy river might purify the earth a pig king undertook a severe penance. For a thousand years he stood with his head lifted high (see 97, left of the central rift). At last the goddess Ganga, moved by his great piety, consented to come down to the plains of India. The god Siva to spare the earth from the terrible shock, climbed the snowy crest of the Himalayas. The waters fell upon his head and were stayed, and after many years they escaped and watered the land.

The sculptors of Mahabalipuram have pictured the moment when the Ganges reaches the earth. Eager to witness the miraculous descent of the river, an immense crowd of divinities, guardian spirits, men and animals flock together in a common joy. Walking, running, or flying, they converge rhythmically towards the centre of the composition, where the Ganges is represented as a river god.

99. MAHABALIPURAM—MONOLITHIC MONUMENTS. [Seventh century.] These small temples (ratha, chariots) and the central elephant are cut in the living granite.

100. MAHABALIPURAM—VISHNU RECLINING ON THE SNAKE ANANTA (SHesh). This bas-relief is known in the wall of a rock-cut temple. In the Brahmansical trinity, Vishnu is the preserver of the world (cf. 95). In the interval between two creations, he reclines for thousands of centuries on the many-headed snake Ananta [cf. 96]. At each cycle of creation a lotus springs from his navel, from which is born Brahma, the creator of the universe. To each of these cycles corresponds a new incarnation (avatar) of Vishnu to save the world (cf. 97, 99, 114, 116).

101. MAHABALIPURAM—THE SIVA TANK. The masonry of this temple (end of the eighth century) are crowned by small pavilions with cornice roofs, a characteristic which persists in various stages of development in all South Indian temples (cf. 105 and 109-15). The waves of the sea break against the base of the temple.

102-15. The temples of South India are often varietal towns. Sometimes they struggle over an area of 15 acres, with their many wells—whether concentric or not—bearing witness to successive extensions. One is lost in a maze of galleries, gateways, sacred tanks, dwelling houses for the temple servants, stables for the sacred animals, and barracks. The most characteristic parts of the temple are: the shrine itself; the gopura (a high pylon-shaped door, cf. Plates 105, 109, 110, 113, 115); and the mandapa, a construction varying according to whether it was used to house images of the gods (cf. Plates 106, 107, 109, 110) or as an ambulatory for Brahmins (cf. Plates 102, 108). The mandapa has no walls; and its roof is supported on monolithic columns.

102. VIJAYANAGAR—ENTRANCE TO THE TEMPLE OF WITTOHA. (Mysore.) Deserted today, Vijayanagar was a flourishing town in the sixteenth century. The Vaishnava temple of Wittoba dates from this time, and here we see part of its mandapa, the ball of a thousand richly carved monolithic columns.

103. BELUR—TEMPLE OF CHENNA KESHAVA. (Mysore.) A group sculptured in the round, in the Vaishnavite temple of Kesava (early twelfth century). According to the legend, the goddess Durga or Kali (cf. 76) borrowed Vishnu's weapons in order to fight against Mahesa, the buffalo-headed giant. Here the goddess's sword is about to transfix the giant, who is given a fantastic animal body. In the background is the facade of the temple, adorned with a wealth of bas-reliefs.

104. SAGARA TEMPLE TANK IN A MYSORE VILLAGE. The ritual immersion of images of the gods in the sacred tank is taking place.

105. OLD GOPURAM ON THE ROAD FROM TIRUPATI TO TIRUMALAI. This gopuram is built on the roadway, which is often stepped, running from the low-lying town of Tirupati to the temple on the top of Tirumalai hill. The
whole of the 7-mile road is holy ground, an immense shrine, and the faithful make their long pilgrimage along it in bare feet. The hill-top is just visible to the right of the picture.

106. TIRUPPATTUR. Hundreds of pilgrims climb daily to the summit of this rock to see Brahmins feeding the sacred cobra. Below the rock is a rectangular tank, with a small mandapa in its centre, and the vast Indian horizon bounds the view.

107. TRICHINOPOLY.—THE ROCK, SEEN ACROSS A SACRED TANK. In the centre of the tank is a small mandapa, or altar. On the famous Rock (height, 270 ft.), a strong fort and a Siva temple were built about 1660.

108. TRICHINOPOLY.—TEMPLE OF SRI RANJAMI. The great Vaishnavas temple of Sri Ramana (c. 1690) is situated about a mile from Trichinopoly. Here we see the north face of the hall of a thousand columns (cf. 102). The exterior pillars, monolithic 20 ft. high, are cut in the form of prancing horses with riders, the fore-legs being supported by dwarf figures and animals.

109. CONJERUM.—TEMPLE OF SRI DEVARAJA SWAMI. Conjeveram or Kanchi is known as the Benares of the South, and is one of the seven cities sacred to Brahmanism (cf. 65). The town has the unusual distinction of being consecrated both to Siva and Vishnu. In the courtyard of the Vaishnavas temple seen here are grouped a small mandapa supported on four delicate pillars, two slender monolithic columns destined to carry a lantern and banner, and in the background a gopura, a high doorway in the sanctuary wall. On the wall on the left the U-shaped sign of Vishnu is painted in white.

110. CONJERUM.—SACRED TANK AND GOPURAM. In the centre of the sacred tank is a small mandapa, where images of the gods are sometimes deposited. Worshipers are making their ritual ablutions on the steps, and two gopurams are seen in the background.

111. TANJORE.—ENTRANCE TO THE GREAT TEMPLE. To reach the shrine (cf. 112) it is necessary to pass through a flight of sixty stone steps and many gateways (gopurams). The gopuram seen here is of a late period (eighteenth century). Through the door can be seen the bull Nandi, on which Siva rides (cf. 114). It is a great granite monolith with horns, like bronze thongs, to the oil which worshipers pour over it.

112. TANJORE.—THE SHRINE OF THE GREAT TEMPLE. This shrine (height, 200 ft.), built c. 1000, is the climax of Dravidian art. Contrary to the practice of later times, it dominates all the other temple buildings. Of pyramidal shape, its sober decoration is in marked contrast to the 'bhamboyan' style of later periods. In the foreground is one of the surrounding walls of the temple, with a small pavilion at the angle. Another surrounding wall is visible on the extreme right.

113. MADURA.—TANK OF THE GOLDEN LILIES. The huge tank at Madura (early seventeenth century), the most famous of South Indian tanks, is dedicated to Siva and his spouse Minakhi (the goddess with fish's eyes). It extends over an area of 15 acres and contains nine gopurams. This picture is taken from the colonnade at the foot of the tallest (150 ft.) and most recent, and shows two of the other gopurams.

114. MADURA.—GOPURAM. A thousand and one Brahmanical divinities are carved on the sides of the main gopuram. They are in the round and brightly painted. Below, on the left, can be seen Siva dancing (cf. 98). Siva is seen again in the centre with his spouse Parvati, riding the bull Nandi, and flanked by his two sons, elephant-headed Ganesh and riding a peacock. Above, gods (right) and demons (left) have wound the snake Shesh round the mountain so that they may burn the sea of milk and obtain the drink that bestows immortality. A tortoise, avatar of Vishnu, supports the mountain.

115. MADURA.—A GOPURAM. Seen from within the temple walls.

116. KUMBAKONAM.—DANCE OF HANUMAN. The procession of images of the gods is followed by groups of Brahmins singing sacred verses and by dancers miming mythological scenes. The dancer shown here represents Hanuman, one of the heroes of the Ramayana.

117. DANCE OF SIVA (SOUTH INDIA). A bronze statue from the Madras Museum (cf. 95).

118. FOREST IN SEKIM. (Eastern Himalayas.)

119. KANCHEJANGA (28,166 ft.) FROM DARJEELING. Darjeeling is a hill station (altitude, 7,500 ft.) not far from the frontiers of Sikkim, Bhutan, Nepal and Tibet. Kanchanjunga peak, which is visible in the distance, is the second highest mountain in the world. Although as the crow flies it is about 50 miles from Darjeeling, its huge mass of rock and ice seems to dominate the town.

120. 31. The appearance of many of the places pictured has been cruelly altered by the earthquake which devastated northern India in January 1933.

121. NEPAL.—NILEMANTHA, VISHNU RECUMBENT ON THE SNAKE. This black granite statue in the middle of the tank is reputed to be of supernatural origin, and many Brahmins make the pilgrimage to it.

122. NEPAL.—TEMPLE AT PASHUPATI. Pashupati is the most sacred Brahmanical shrine in Nepal. The Bagmati river upon which it stands is considered as holy as the Ganges, and many pilgrims are to be seen on the ghats, bathing in its purifying waters (cf. 65). The smoke on the left is rising from a cremation-fire, and the ashes will be sprinkled in the river. Temples, rest-houses for pilgrims and royal tombs line the river, and the Himalayan wall towers mistily in the distance.

123. NEPAL.—TEMPLE AT CHANGU TARANAYAN. The Vaishnava shrine of Changu Narayan is a typical Nepalese temple. It is a two storeyed pagoda, of a type which is common in the Far East but not found in India except in the Nepalese temple at Benares. On each storey the roofs curve towards and turn up at the angles. The temple is built on a square terrace, and a stairway flanked by two guardian dragons leads to each face. All parts of the temple, doors, pillars, pediments, friezes and cornices, are overlaid with ornamental carvings in wood or metal. The conspicuous beams on which the roof is supported are carved to represent many-armed deities. Little bells are hung all around the edge of the roofs, and
tinkle in the slightest breeze. The bronze balls outside the temple are to frighten away evil spirits (cf. 128). The two columns on either side of the entrance display the attributes of Vishnu above their lotus capitals; the disc on the left and the sword shell on the right.

123. NEPAL.—COLOMBEL BUDDHAS NEAR SWAYAMBHUNATH. The shrines of Swayambhunath are the most holy places of Buddhism in Nepal. They are situated on the top of a wooded hill near Kathmandu, to which leads a steep path cut in steps and lined with a multitude of little stupas and huge statues of Buddhas.

124-5. NEPAL.—SWAYAMBHUNATH. The principal temple of Swayambhunath is a massive round stupa (notice the development of the shape as compared with Plate 10) from which rises a high spire consisting partly of a series of superimposed horizontal discs. The spire rests on a rectangular base, and each face is decorated with two large, open eyes painted in red, black and white; this is the symbol of Adi-Buddha, the primordial Buddha, to whom the temple is dedicated. Round the shrine are many other monuments, small altar-stupas in the foreground and a pagoda on the right.

126. NEPAL.—KRISHNA TEMPLE, PATAN. Patan was once a prosperous capital, but was laid waste at the end of the eighteenth century. In its upper part the Radha-Krishna temple recalls the classical style of North India (cf. Plates 74, 80), and in the little pavilions on each story the style of Akbar’s buildings (cf. Plate 56). According to the usual custom, a column facing the temple carries the image of a king worshipping. A pagoda is seen on the right.

127. NEPAL.—TEMPLE OF MIN-NATHI, PATAN. This is a pagoda similar in style to that of Changu Narayan (cf. 122). The long banner falling from the upper part of the spire is of carved metal. The fantastic statues of people and animals standing to right and left of the doorway are reminiscent of Chinese sculpture.

128. NEPAL.—TEMPLE OF SURJ-BINAYAKA GANESHA, BEHAGAN. This temple is dedicated to one of the aspects of the elephant-headed god Ganesha, son of Siva (cf. 114). In front of the shrine stands a pillar with lotus capital supporting the rot on which Ganesha rides. On the left is a great bell. It is fixed, and is sounded by moving the slapper. Its ringing frightens demons away from the temple door, and for the same reason rows of little bells which tinkle continuously are hung from the portico.

129. NEPAL.—TEMPLE AT BEHAGAN. On the left a small shrine is built on an imposing five-stepped base. The stairway is flanked by statues of fantastic animals. On the right is a three-storied pagoda on a tall base. The first story is surrounded by a portico supported on slender columns.

130-31. These pictures bear witness to Nepalese skill in wood-carving.

132. MOHENJO-DARO, 2500 B.C. See Preface. Three views of a bronze statuette of a dancing girl. One arm is loaded with bracelets.

133-5. SEAL. Hundreds of seals, engraved in stone, ivory, stelate and pottery, have been discovered at Mohenjo-Daro, and nearly all of them are inscribed with symbols which have not yet been deciphered. Usually they bear the figure of an animal; the seal at the top, which is the commonest type, represents what appears to be an animal with one horn standing before a ritual object (incense-burner?). Below is a humped ox. The third seal shows a person sitting with crossed legs, in the Indian style. Two horns crown his head and four animals stand round him: on his right an elephant and a tiger, and on his left a rhinoceros and a buffalo.

136. A stelate but of a peculiar ethnic type. The beard and hair are indicated by incised lines. The sun is strongly stylized. The garment is decorated with trefoils.

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