

E-ISSN: 2706-9117 **P-ISSN:** 2706-9109 <u>www.historyjournal.net</u> IJH 2023; 5(2): 86-97

Received: 13-05-2023 Accepted: 19-06-2023

Ankita Chand

Post Graduate Student, Department of Ancient Indian History & Culture, University of Calcutta, Sahid Kshudiram Siksha Prangan, Reformatory Street, Alipore, Kolkata, West Bengal, India

Chronicles of Kalinga temple architecture

Ankita Chand

Abstract

Kalinga (core area covers present-day Odisha) is known for its distinct and impeccable temple architecture embellished with the exquisite sculptures and explicit ornamentation. It outspread from sixth to fifteenth century CE. The present paper attempts to describe the intricacies of Kalinga temple architecture including the basic structure, salient characteristics, construction techniques and phases of evolution, besides others. Based on fundamental structure, temples are broadly categorised into *Rekha deula* (tall building looking like mountain peak), *Pidha deula* (square building with pyramid-shaped roof) and *Khakhra deula* (rectangular building with truncated pyramid-shaped roof). A typical full-fledged temple has four distinct components, *Vimana* (sanctum), *Jagamohana* (hall of congregation and worship), *Nata mandira* (dancing hall) and *Bhoga Mandapa* (hall of offering). The temple elevation shows interesting resemblance with the limbs of human body. It can be divided into four parts along the vertical plane such as *Pista* (Platform on which temple stands), *Bada* (wall which is divided into horizontal sections), *Gandi* (trunk which is the tower of the temple) and *Mastaka* (head with capping elements). Hierarchy of command in temple construction are *Karta* (chief patron), *Mukhya Sthapati* (chief architect), *Sutra Grahani* (chief engineer), *Bardhanikas* (stone setters) and *Takṣaka* (the sculptor).

Keywords: Kalinga, temple architecture, garbhagriha, jagamohan, natamandira, bhogamandapa

Introduction

Kalinga is the ancient territory of east-central India. It covers most of the present-day Odisha, northern Telangana, northern Andhra Pradesh, and a portion of Chhattisgarh. Though the territorial boundaries of Kalinga have fluctuated with its rulers, the core area encompasses a large part of present Odisha and northern Andhra Pradesh [1]. In the Mahabharat (one of the two major Sanskrit epics of ancient India, the other being the Ramayana), the Kalingas have been mentioned as a major tribe. The other neighbouring tribes were the Angas (present-day Bihar), the Vangas (present-day South Bengal), the Pundras (present-day Bangladesh), and the Suhmas (present-day Bengal) [2]. Kalinga was annexed by the Mauryan emperor Ashoka in the 3rd century BCE as a result of Kalinga war. The headquarters of the Mauryan province of Kalinga was located at Tosali (perhaps present-day Dhauli, near Bhubaneswar in Odisha). After the decline of the Mauryan Empire, the region came under the control of the Mahameghavahana family, whose king Kharavela proclaimed as the 'supreme lord of Kalinga'. The Kalinga came under the control of Gupta in the 4th century CE. After the Guptas' withdrawal, it was ruled by several minor dynasties. These included the Vasishthas, the Matharas, and the Pitrbhaktas. In the 7th century, the Shailodbhava king Madhavaraja II as well as the Eastern Ganga king Indravarman claimed the title Sakala-Kalingadhipati (the lord of the entire Kalinga) [3]. During 8th-10th centuries, the Bhauma-Kara dynasty ruled the region, although they called their kingdom Tosala (derived from Tosali). The subsequent Somavamshi kings called themselves the lord of Kalinga, Kosala, and Utkala [4]. During 11th-15th century, the Eastern Gangas became the dominant power in the region. Their capital was initially located at Kalinganagara (presentday Mukhalingam in Srikakulam district of Andhra Pradesh), and was later transferred to Katak (present-day Cuttack) during the reign of Anantavarman Chodaganga in the 12th century [5]. The boundary of modern state Odisha does not always correspond to the ancient political divisions.

Etymologically the term temple is derived from the Latin word *Tempulum* which means a square or a rectangular place marked out for the purpose of worship ^[6]. In ancient Hindu *Sastras* (sacred text), the temple is referred as *Devagriha*, *Devalay*, *Devakula*, etc ^[7]. Hinduism includes not only religion, but also astronomy, astrology, grammar, mathematics,

Corresponding Author: Ankita Chand

Post Graduate Student, Department of Ancient Indian History & Culture, University of Calcutta, Sahid Kshudiram Siksha Prangan, Reformatory Street, Alipore, Kolkata, West Bengal, India International Journal of History https://www.historyjournal.net

law, medicine, politics, diplomacy, war, love, architecture and many other branches of knowledge. Therefore, it is more than just a religion, it is a way of life. In Hinduism, the concept of Temple originated probably during the Vedic period with the idea of God perceived in human forms [8]. such a form necessitated a habitation and a shelter that resulted in structural buildings. Therefore, temple represents all aspects of life - religious, cultural, educational and social. Apart from being a place of worship, the Hindu temple architecture, is also the cradle of knowledge, art and culture. Based on the architectural classification. Indian Hindu temple is divided into three principal styles, i.e. Nagara, Dravida and Vesara [9]. Nagara temple belongs to the region from the Himalaya to the Vindhy, Vesara from the Vindhy to the Krishna, and the Dravida from the Krishna to the Cape Camorin. However, an inscription of 1235 AD in the *mukhamandapa* of the Amritesvara temple at Holal in Bellary distrct of Karnatak speaks of a fourth style, i.e. Kalinga, in addition to the above three. The Kalinga has distinct form of temple architecture, known as Kalinga style of architecture, which is somewhat close to Nagara architecture of Northern India. It has a continuous succession, spreading from 6th to 15th century CE and flourished between 8th and 13th century CE [10].

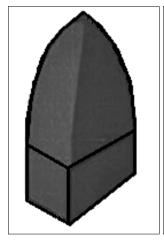
Basic Temple Structure

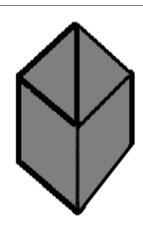
Depending on basic structure, Kalinga temples are broadly categorised into Rekha deula, Pidha deula and Khakhra deula. The word deula in Oriya language means a building structure. Rekha and Pidha type temples are essentially meant for accommodating Visnu and Siva deities. In contrast to these types, Khakhar type temples are few in number and usually accommodate Sakti deities (Goddess like Gauri, Kali etc.) [11].

Rekha deula is a tall building with a shape of sugar loaf, looking like a Shikhara (a Sanskrit word which means mountain peak). Rekha in Oriya means a straight line. It covers and protects the sanctum sanctorum (Garbhagriha, the womb-house). The prominent example of Rekha deula is Lingaraj Temple of Bhubaneswar.

The Pidha Deula is a square building, typically with a pyramid-shaped roof. It is the mandapa where the faithful are present. The example of Pitha Deula is the Jagamohana (assembly hall) of the Konarak Sun Temple.

Khakhra deula is a rectangular building with a truncated pyramid-shaped roof, like the gopuras. The name comes from Oriya word *Khakharu* which means pumpkin/gourd (a barrel shaped vegetable) because of the shape of the roof. The prominent example is Baitala Temple (dedicated to Goddesses Chamunda) of Bhubaneswar.





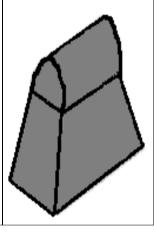


Fig 1a: Rekha Deula Basic Shape

Fig 1b: Pidha Deula Basic Shape **Fig 1c:** Khakhara Deula Basic Shape

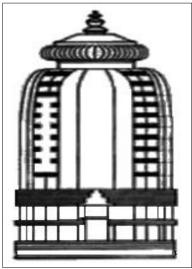






Fig 2b: Pidha Deula Sketch



Fig 2c: Khakhara Deula Sketch



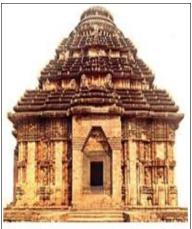




Fig 3a: Lingaraj Temple (Rekha Deula) Fig 3b: Konark Temple (Pidha Deula) Fig 3c: Baitala Temple (Khakhara Deula)

Site and Material selection for Temple Construction

For selecting the suitable site for temple construction, various aspects like type of soil, location and shape of the Plot, ground water level, etc. are taken into consideration. Colour, density, composition and moisture content of the soil discriminate between the best, medium, sub-medium and worst kind of soil for temple construction. According to Vastu Shastra (traditional Hindu system of architecture), the world is made of 5 basic elements (panchabhutaas), i.e. earth, air, water, space and fire. These elements are necessary to be in harmony to enjoy health, wealth, good relationship and prosperity. The temple layout is based on the principles of Vastu-Purusha-Mandala of Vastu Shastra that ensures harmony amongst panchabhutaas. Naga Bandheni is an intricate and ancient method in Shilpa Shastra (traditional Hindu system of arts and crafts), by which the temples direction and the auspicious moment for beginning the sacred construction is determined. A rectangular, square, elliptical or circular plot of land is selected in order of preference for temple construction. Like the present day Geomorphology, probably this is some ancient science which guides the architect to understand natural forces and build stable massive temple structures. In many instances, such depictions are seen on walls and motifs of the temples. A square or rectangular area is dug out depending on the type and combination of temple proposed at the centre of the selected plot of land and the foundation of a temple, pota and pitha is laid. The depth of the *Pota* (pit) is $1/3^{rd}$ of the height of the proposed temple, from plinth level [12]. The length and width of this *Pota* is always sufficiently broader than the diameter of the proposed temple. Hard stone slabs are laid at the bottom to create a level. Then with uniformly cut hard stones, the four walls of the *Pota* are erected and the outer perimeter space between the pit wall and ground is properly filled with soil. The Astadala Padma Chakada (eight petal lotus shaped stone slab) is then laid at the exact spot. The petals are aligned to the eight cardinal directions, i.e. north, north-east, east, southeast, south, south-west, west and north-west. The perpendicular line passing through the centre of this Astadala Padma Chakada determines the axis (rekha/meru) of the temple. The traditional method of such alignment is termed as Sanku. Thereafter, the Pota is properly packed up with large pieces of stone and soil, probably pressed down by elephants. The Pota is levelled off at ground level with huge and thick cut theodolite stones. Theodolite is a precision tool utilised for measuring angles in the horizontal

and vertical planes. The pitha (platform) is constructed with the layer of theodolite stones, corresponding to the shape and size of the ground plan. Pitha is the base of the temple which we see at various levels of elevation [13].

Kalingan temples are built using stones, barring very rare cases where clay bricks are used. Certain classes of stones are considered suitable and auspicious for the construction of temples. Shilpa Chandrika (an ancient architecture book) listed varieties of stone as ideal and specified the types those are used for certain portions of the temple. Name of these stones are Sahana, Chhita Sahana, Bada Pagada, Dhoba Kuṇḍa, Rasa Chiṇḍa and Niļa Kusāṇa [14].

Vastu-Purusha-Mandala in Temple Architecture

In Hinduism, a temple is a place for pilgrimage (Tirtha). It is a sacred site whose ambience and design attempts to display and celebrate the four important principles of Hindu way of life - the pursuit of artha (prosperity, wealth), the pursuit of kama (desire), the pursuit of dharma (virtues, ethical life) and the pursuit of moksha (release, self-Knowledge). The walk around in the temple for these necessary pursuits of life (artha, Kama, dharma and moksha) is called pradakshina or parikrama. The Vastu Purusha Mandala is an indispensable part of vastu shastra and constitutes the mathematical and diagrammatic basis for generating design.

According to Hindu mythology, in the beginning Brahma, the creator of the Universe, experimented with a new creature. He created a large cosmic man, who grew rapidly as he began to devour everything in his path to satisfy his insatiable hunger. When he became unmanageably big so that his shadow fell on the Earth like a permanent eclipse, the gods Shiva and Vishnu begged Brahma to do something before everything was destroyed by this Creature. Brahma realised his mistake and called the Astha Dikapalakas (the Gods of the eight cardinal directions). Together, they overpowered the monster and held it flat against the Earth while Brahma jumped on its middle. Then the Monster cried out to Brahma, 'You created me like this. So why am I being punished?' Brahma offered him a compromise and made the Monster immortal with the boon that he would be worshiped by any mortal that builds a structure on earth. He was named Vastu Purusha. According to Vastu Shastra, the 5 basic elements (panchabhutaas) of world are necessary to be in harmony to enjoy health, wealth, good relationship and prosperity. A mandala is a spiritual and ritual symbol in Hinduism representing the universe. For the construction of

International Journal of History https://www.historyjournal.net

Hindu Temples, the layout is prepared based on principles Vastu-Purusha-Mandala. Based on astrological calculations the border of the vastu-purusha-mandala is subdivided into thirty-two smaller squares called nakshatras. These squares are generated from a repeated division of the border of the single square. It denotes four times the eight positions in space; north, east, south, west, and their intermediate points (4x8). The thirty-two squares symbolises the recurrent cycles of time as calculated by the movements of the moon. Each of the nakshatras is ruled over by a *Deva*, which extends its influence to the *mandala*. Outside the mandala lie the four directions, symbolic of the meeting of heaven and earth and also represent the ecliptic of the sun-east to west and its rotation to the northern and southern hemispheres. The centre of the mandala is called the station of Brahma, the creator of the universe. Surrounding Brahma are the places of twelve other entities known as the sons of Aditi, who assist in the affairs of universal management. The remaining empty squares represent Akasha or pure space. Therefore, vastu-purushamandala forms a diagram of astrological influences that constitute the order of the universe and the destinies of human lives.

In large temples, *vastu-purusha-mandala* is often an 8x8 (64) square grid structure. The squares are called *padas*. Each *pada* is conceptually assigned to a symbolic element, sometimes in the form of a deity or to a spirit (*apasara*). In Hindu temple manuals, design plans are described with 1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36, 49, 64, 81 up to 1024 *padas*; 1 *pada* is considered the simplest plan, as a seat for a hermit or devotee to sit and meditate on, or make offerings with Vedic fire in front. The second design of 4 *pada* has a symbolic central core at the diagonal intersection, and is also a meditative layout. The *9 pada* design has a sacred surrounded centre, and is the template for the smallest temple. Older Hindu temple vastu *mandalas* use the 9 to 49 *pada* series, but the 64 *pada* is considered to be the most sacred geometric grid and is called *Manduka* ^[15].

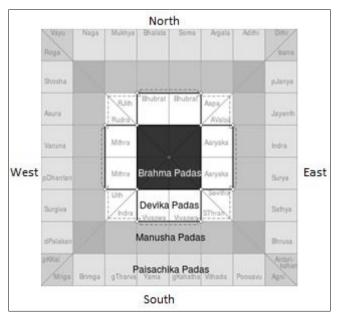


Fig 4: 8x8 (64) grid of *Vastu-purusa-mandala* for Hindu Temple Floor Plan



Fig 5: Circle and squares in Brahma Padas of Hindu temple

In a Hindu temple's structure, each concentric layer has significance. The outermost layers, Paisachika padas, signify aspects of Asuras (devil) and evil; the next inner concentric layer is Manusha padas signifying human life; while Devika padas signify aspects of Devas (God) and good. The Manusha padas typically houses the ambulatory. The devotees walk around in clockwise fashion through Manusha padas to complete Parikrama (or Pradakshina), which is located between good on inner side and evil on the outer side. In smaller temples, the Paisachika pada is not part of the temple superstructure. The Paisachika padas, Manusha padas and Devika padas surround Brahma padas, which signifies creative energy and serves as the location for temple's primary idol for darsana. Finally at the very centre of Brahma padas is Garbhagriha. The spire of a Hindu temple, (called Shikhara or Vimana), is perfectly aligned above the Brahma padas.

Hierarchy of Command in Temple Construction

According to Manusmṛti (an ancient legal text among the many Dharma sastras of Hinduism) there is a specific hierarchy of Command for the people involved in temple construction [16]. The Chief patron of the temple, generally the king of the state is designated as karta. Hence these devotional ancient architectures often reflect various sociocultural aspects of society of the time. The Chief Architect (Mukhya Sthapati) is the master of the Shilpa Shastras, Vastu Shastra, Dharma Shastra and mathematical calculations. Besides being a very knowledgeable person, Mukhya Sthapati is also a very pious man. He translates the vision of the karta into an architectural design based on stipulations of Vastu-purusa-mandala. Sutra Grahani is equivalent to Chief Engineer, as he is the person who translates the architecture into actual geometrical dimensions. He is equally proficient in all the required knowledge and most often is the son of the Mukhya Sthapati. The masons (called as Bardhanika) are the stone setters. The sculptor (called as Taksaka) is the stone artist who creates poetry in stone and does all the magnificent carvings and engravings of various forms that left us spell bound. Besides these primary set of specialists, various supportive functions are carried out by other people.

International Journal of History https://www.historyjournal.net

Construction Techniques of Temples

The available information of temple construction are collected from stone slabs, metal plates, palm leaves and manuscripts. The construction of temple was a long and tremendous process which sometimes used to last for years. The temple architecture portrayed the advancement of ancient Indian building sciences. One of the chief factors which provided these temples considerable degree of earthquake resistance was their configuration. The selection of symmetrical plans and layouts was important in seismic design. Symmetrical forms were always preferred from earthquake resistance as asymmetrical forms produces eccentricity between the centre of mass and centre of rigidity which results in the torsion and tends to stress the concentration. The square is selected as the basic unit and of triangle as the principle controlling the layout which concluded in strictly symmetrical plans. The layout was done on the basis of Indian Circle Method and with the help of instrument known as 'Shanku yantra'. The nature of main deity played a major role in determining the orientation of temple. The stone which was to be used for construction must have some quality features such as even colour, hard and perfect and pleasing to touch. The second stage was the craving of different parts of the temples according to the drawings and specification. The cutting and carving the stone was done according to pre defined shape. The joining was also pre decided and rough joinery was created while cutting. The tools required such as hammers, chisel were locally made and sharpened regularly. The sketching was done either by charcoal piece or sharpened bamboo pieces. The polishing was done using stone bars. The third and the final stage consisted of assembling of the parts which consisted of the actual construction of the temple. Ramps were constructed for the easy placement of heavy materials. The major joinery system used during the assembling of temple were mortise and tenon joint (peg is fixed between the two mortise cut out in two different stones and was used primarily used between two courses of masonry to avoid movement due to lateral forces) and lap joint. The usual thickness of stone used for wall varied form 800 mm to 1200 mm. The columns and beams were monolithic structure. The column consisted of 5 parts as two parts of base, one part as shaft and two as the capital of column.

Innovative techniques were used in temple construction. Generally Rekha temples are curvilinear, Pidha temples are pyramidal and Khakhara temples are noted for semicylindrical roof. The interior ground plan of rekha and pidha temples are generally square and exterior is embellished with vertical projections, while that of khakhra temples, it is rectangular (some with stellar or circular plans). Irrespective of styles, all the temples are remarkable for abundance of sculptures. The construction techniques are based on 'corbelling' principles (tying the walls with ceilings and stones held together by a system of counterpoise through balance and equilibrium) without mortar [17]. Required stones are quarried and carried to the temple site through the river or by the land routes. The temple is buried with earth or sand as it progresses in height. An inclined plane is made through which the stones are dragged to the required heights. On completion of the temple, the earth and/or sand is removed from the site [18].

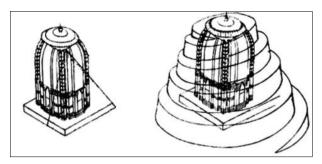


Fig 6: Sketch of Solid mud ramps/sand filling design used to carry stone slabs for temple construction

Intricacies of Temple Architecture

The typical Kalinga style temples normally consist of two distinct components *i.e.* first the main temple or the sanctum (Vimana) which is of rekha order and the second temple is the Jagmohana or the mukhamandapa/mukhasala which is usually of *Pidha* order. Whereas the *Garbhagriha* is meant for accommodating the deity and performing the rituals associated with the deity, the Jagamohana is used by the devotees for congregation, worship and darshan of the deity. In course of time with the gradual evolution and also to meet the growing need of the rituals of the prime deities, two more pidha structures such as Nata mandira (dancing hall) and Bhoga Mandapa (hall of offering) were added to the temple structures. Though all four structures jagamohan, (garbhagriha, natamandira bhogamandapa) were completely independent from each other, they were beautifully integrated to form a harmonious and compact entity [19]. These were placed mostly in same axial alignment and the general view of the structures from a distance gives an impression of a mountain range. Generally the temple complexes were enclosed by frontier walls but devoid of Gopurams (entrance tower), which are common in South Indian temples.

The constructive peculiarities of Kalinga temple is marked by uniqueness. The architects perceived the temple in the form of a human male figure or Purusha. Like human physical divisions of leg, thigh, waist, chest, neck and head, the temple had similar shapes and structures. Therefore, the elevation of Kalinga temple shows striking resemblance to that of the limbs of human body. Each vertical part of the temple has specific name corresponding to the body limbs. The main temple is always of Rekha designs with these special features such as- Pavement or Talapattana, Plinth or Pitha, Cube or Bada, Curvilinear Tower or Rekha or Rathaka. From the ground Vimana rises vertically to a height than is a curvilinear design up to the neck. From the base to the Gandi or trunk portion the rise is perpendicular and then the temple slowly inclines inward in a critical manner till the four reclining walls join together at the Beki or neck. Denticulated blocks of stone above the Beki are called Amalaka Sila. Above the Beki is the portion called Mastaka or crown which consists of the Amlaka (inverted Kalasa). On the top the Kalasa, comes the weapon of the deity (Ayudha) - trident or trishul in case of a Siva temple and disk-like weapon or *Chakra* in case of a *Vishnu* temple. Over that a flag (*Dhvaja*) is placed as auspicious mark. Thus a temple is represented as a Purusha. For Pidha type of temple, curvilinear Vimana is not there. The Gandi or trunk

International Journal of History https://www.historyjournal.net

rises from the ground perpendicularly upto a point and then the pyramidal roof is constructed on the four walls that looks much alike the shape of a thatched house from a distance.

In the full-fledged temples, the *Rekha* and *Pidha* (*Vimana* and *Jagamohan*) structures reveal interesting features. Both the *Vimana* and *Jagamohan* are divided into four parts along with the vertical plane such as *Pista* (Platform on which temple stands), *Bada* (wall which is divided into one or more horizontal sections), *Gandi* (trunk which is the tower or spire of the temple) and *Mastaka* (head with capping elements of *Amalaka* and *Kalasha* from bottom to top). In the early temples, the *Bada* is of three elements *viz. Pabhaga* (foot), *Jangha* (thigh), and *Baranda* (waist). Later on as the temples gained much height, the *Bada* became

higher. The Jangha portion got divided into Tala jangha (lower thigh) and Uppara jangha (upper thigh), with set of moulding called as Bandhana. Pabhaga, denoting the bottom part of the wall section is distinctly composed of five mouldings called as Khura, Kumbha, Pata, Kani and Basanta. These five mouldings are jointly called as Panchakarma. However, in the formative stage of architecture, the Pabhaga was consisting of either three or four moulding. Pista (Platform) is the plinth section of the main structure. In earlier period, Pista was not a general feature of temple architecture which got appearance during the period of Ganga dynasty. In Bhuvapradeep (a canonical text), there is reference to eight numbers of Pisthas. These are Padma Pistha, Simhapistha, Bhadra Pistha, Vedipistha, Khura Pistha, Kumbha pistha and Parjangha Pistha.

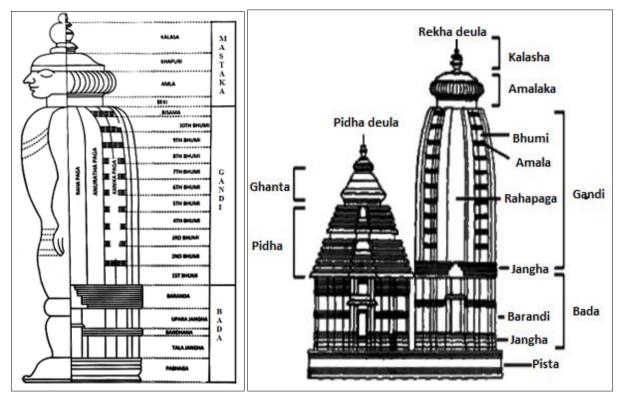


Fig 7: Comparison between a human body and a temple structure

Fig 8: Comparison between Rekha and Pidha order of temples

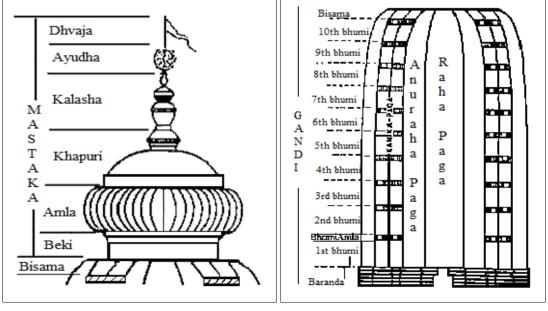


Fig 9: Detail of Mastaka

Fig 10: Detail of Gandi

International Journal of History https://www.historyjournal.net

The Rekha and Pidha order of temples display variations only in the nature of Gandi and Mastaka. The Gandi of the Rekha temples is characterised by a curvilinear outline and is usually inclined inward in a convex curve being pronounced clearly towards the top. This part underwent several changes in the course of its evolution. During the formative stage, the Sikhara was characterised by simple form, which assumed a soaring quality in the most representative specimens of the full-fledged Kalinga style [20]. In the temples of the mature phase it is found to have been more pronounced towards the top. The central projection of the Sikhara called as Raha Paga is normally relieved with *Chaitva* (window) designs. In the temples of Somavansi and Ganga period, the Raha is decorated with lion motif projecting in to the air. Another significant feature is the decoration of the Gandi with Angasikharas (cluster of miniature sikharas). This typical feature is borrowed from the chandella temples of Khajuraho (in Madhya Pradesh State and famous for *Nagara* style temples with erotic sculptures). This was experimented in the Raja Rani temple of Bhubaneswar. This was undoubtedly a clearcut departure from the Kalinga style. The clustering of Anagasikharas affected the broad contours of the Sikhara and the grandeur of the temple as a whole. So this clustering was abandoned thereafter, but the use of Angasikaras as decorative elements continued with differential treatments. The Mastaka (top section of the temple) consists of six elements, i.e. beki, amla, khapuri, kalasa, ayudha and dhvaja. The beki is the separating element from the gandi to the circular crowning element. It is the recessed cylindrical portion above the *Visama* and also known as *Kantha* (neck). Above this is placed the amla or amlakasila whose outer sides are ribbed and shaped like amla (amalaki fruit, scientific name Emblic myrebalan) or cutting shapes of the churning stick used for churning the curd. Above the amla is Khapuri which literally means skull. This is flattish and bell-shaped. The khapuri is mounted by the kalasa (the water pot), the most auspicious element of the temple. Sometimes the auspicious kalasa was made of gold. The crowning element of the mastaka section is the ayudha (the sacred weapon of the deity to whom the temple is dedicated). The *Dhvaja* (flag) is placed at the pinnacle of the temple, above the *Ayudha*. Whereas most of the Siva temples are mounted by trident (*trisul*), Visnu temples are mounted by wheel (*chakra*) as *Ayudha*.

The *gandi* section of the *pidha* temples is characterised by its pyramidal shape. It is made up of a number of *pidhas*, which diminish in a pyramidal shape in ascending order till the topmost *pidha* is reduced to half of the lowest one. The *pidhas* of the later temples are normally grouped into several tires' called as *Potalas*, which are separated from one another by recessed Vertical walls called *Kanti*. The *Pidha* temples are divided into five distinct types *viz. Dui chalia, Nahachalia, Kathachalia, Ghantasrimohan* and *Nadumohan*.

The Kalinga temples are remarkable for their plan and elevation. The temples are distinguished by vertical projections called *rathas* (on plane) or *pagas* (on elevation). The Gandi of Rehka deula is divided into several vertical projections (pagas or rathas). Depending on the numbers of projection, the Kalinga temples were called as Ekaratha, Triratha, Pancharatha, Saptaratha and Navaratha. The corner pagas (known as kanika pagas) are further subdivided into horizontal sections known as bhumi by miniature amlas (ribbed disc resembling amla fruit). The central paga is known as rahapaga and the next two as kanika paga and anu-raha paga. Ekaratha temples have square outer and inner plans. Triratha temples have one raha paga on the front and two kanika paga; while pancharatha temples have one raha, two anuratha and two kanika pag: the Saptaratha temples have two more kanika paga. The Navaratha temples have one raha paga, four anuratha paga and four kanika paga including two parikanika paga. Canonical texts associate the rathaka divisions of the temples with social divisions. The Navaratha, Saptaratha, Pancharatha and Triratha temples are provided with Brahmanical, Kshyatriya, Vaisya and sudra status in the religious and architectural fabric of the Kalinga state [21].

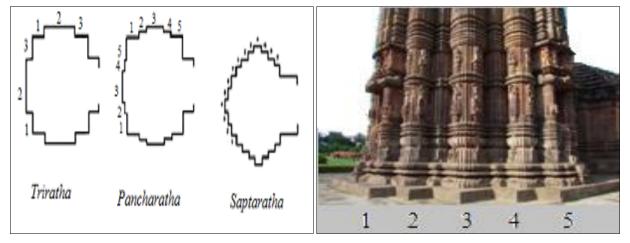
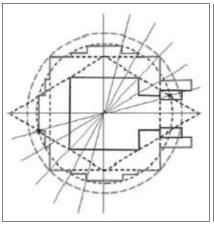


Fig 11: Ground plan sketch of Triratha, Pancharatha and Saptaratha Temples

Fig 12: Projections of a Pancharath Temple

International Journal of History https://www.historyjournal.net



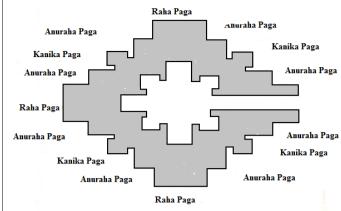


Fig 13: Geometric Plane of Pancharath

Fig 14: Ground plan of Pancharath Temple

With regard to the orientation of temples, there are no fixed rules. Although in most cases the temples face towards the east, but there are examples of temples facing towards north, south and west [22]. The other significant aspect about the temple building activity was that it had remained essentially an urban affair. Temples were built mostly in the centres of political and economic activity. Some of the important centres of Kalinga temples were Bhubaneswar, Jajpur, Khitching, Sonepur, Baud-Phulbani etc.

Temple Sculpture

The Kalinga temples are not only known for their architecture, but equally famous for sculptures with elaborate decoration which are meticulously crafted to perfection. The sculptures are of three types: constructive, representative and purely ornamental. These designs are governed by specifications laid down by *Silpasastra*. The vertical projections (*Pagas*) are designed as miniature

shrines with niches which contain different sculptures to beautify the temple. The canons of architecture contain details of designs and placement of icons and decorative motifs. In these temples, the sculptural art finds its supreme expression represented by the sculptures pertaining to various sects of Hinduism, the Saivism, Vaishnavism and Shaktism [23]. A wide range of sculptures adorn the temples which included *yakshas* and *yakhis* (the male and female deities associated with ancient fertility cults), heavenly musicians, cult icons, human poses and expressions, erotic motifs, soldiers, animal figures including mythical and composite figures and decorative designs like variety of scrolls and architectural motifs. The day-to-day themes like hunting, dancing, games, family life, etc. also got depicted through exquisite sculptures [24]. After 13th century there was a perceptible decline in the artistic merit of the decorative programmes of architecture.



Fig 15: Warrior and horse of Sun temple, Konark, also figured in Odisha State emblem



Fig. 16: Erotic sculptures of Sun temple, Konark



Fig. 17: Chariot wheel of Sun temple, Konark



Fig 18: Wall carvings in Jagannath temple, Puri



Fig 19: Sculptured griffin on main spire of Lingaraj temple, Bhubaneswar



Fig 20: Brahmeswar temple, Bhubaneswar

Phases of Evolution of Kalinga Temple Style

The Kalinga temples exhibit a systematic and a methodical way of evolution of plan forms through different phases of architecture. P S Mishra in 2012, in his research paper, 'Shape and geometrical study of fractal cosmology through Orissan Temple Architecture' has analysed the temple based on Plan area ratio, relation between height & time of construction, present slenderness ratio and the relationship between width & length of the local build and how all these factors have lead to the evolution of the Kalinga temple architecture. In brief, the temples of Kalinga portray an organic evolution from Parasuramesvara to Lingaraja through Mukteswara and Vaital, which ultimately culminated in Puri Jagannath temple and the Sun temple of Konark [25]. The scholars have categorised the evolution of Kalinga Temple style into 4 phases; the formative phase (6th century CE to 9th century CE), the medieval phase (9th century CE to 11th century CE), the mature phase (11th century CE to 13th century CE) and the decadence phase (14th-16th century CE) ^[26]. Most of the temples of formative phase (7th-9th century CE) were built by the Shailodbhavas and the Bhaumakaras. Among the early group of temples belonging to Sailodbhava period are Bharateswar, Lakshmanesar and Satrughaneswara temples situated on the left side of the road leading to the Lingaraj temple. The presuramesvara temple and Svaranajalesvara temple of Bhubaneswar; Gokarneswar, Yudhistira and Bhima temples on the top of Mahendragiri mountain near parlakhemundi and the Nilakantheswar temple on the top of the Jagamanda hill near the villge Padmapur in Gunupur are other representative specimens of the temples belonging to the early phase of temple building activity. Among all these, Parsurameswar Temple of Bhubaneswar is the bestpreserved specimen of the formative phase [27]. It was built by the Shailodbhavas in the first half of the 7th century CE. The most striking feature of the structure is the Jagamohana. It does not have the usual stepped pyramid roof like the other temples of Kalinga. Instead, it is rectangular in shape with the terraced roof supported by rows of pillars. This style of early Kalinga architecture is unique as it is not found in any other surviving temple. Only in the later period, the Jagamohanas started having the *Pidha* type roofs.

The temples of medieval phase (9th-11th century CE) were constructed by the later Bhaumakaras and Somavamshis. Rajarani Temple of Bhubaneswar is the well known representative of medieval phase. Creativity was seen not only in style but also in elevation. New features were introduced. Besides the building activity was widespread all over the nook and corners of Orissa. The representative specimens were the Sisireswara temple, the Markandeswar temple, the Vaital temple and the Mohini temple of Bhubaneswar, the temples of Nilamadhava and Siddheswar at Gandharadi near Baud in Phulbani district; the Bhringeswar temples at Bajrakot near Kaniha in Dhenkanal district, the Kanakeswar temple at Kualo in Dhenkanal district, the Manikeswara Siva temple in the village Suklesvara in Cuttack district etc. During this period Khiching, the ancient capital of Bhanja Kingdom of Mayurbhani became a great center of temple architecture in northern Orissa. Although majority of the temples were ruined, but some of them were repaired and provided with

original forms. The temple is built in the *pancharatha* style on a raised platform with two structures; a central shrine called the *vimana* (sanctum) with a *bada* (curvilinear spire) over its and a viewing hall called *jagamohana* with a pyramidal roof. The notable feature of the period was the introduction of rampant erotic sculptures due to the influence of *Vajrayana* philosophy (a fusion of *Mahayanic* and *Tantric* elements). Mukteswar temple at Bhubaneswar, which is considered as the gem of Kalinga architecture, was the last monument of the period.

The temples of mature phase (11th-13th century CE) were constructed by the later Somavamshis and the Gangas. During that period that the temple architecture reached the final stage and high watermark of glory was achieved. Almost all the component parts of the temples such as the Deula and Jagamohana became standarised. Jagamohana became an inseparable element of the temple structures. The Sikhara was treated with utmost grace, beauty, lightness and rhythm. The *gandi* was now embellished with angasikharas of different forms and sizes taking into account the peakness of the temples. The *amlakasila* supported by *deula charinis*, dopichha lions at the corners and seated divinities added beauty to the *mastaka* of the temples. The sculptures revealed excellence in modelling. In the iconography of the cult deities new elements were introduced. The addition of Ketu to the list of planets became permanent and the Nawagraha slab became an indispensable feature in later times. The reasons behind the emergence of new features in the temples were due the fact that the Somavamsic were ardent patrons of Saivism. They were originally the people from central India and had intimate knowledge about the temple architecture of Khajuraho. Ananta Vasudeva Temple and Ligaraj Temple of Bhubaneswar, Jagannath Temple of Puri are the classical examples of mature phase. ²⁸ All these temples have Vimana, Jagamohana, Nata Mandir and Bhoga Mandir; everything that is required for a mature phase Kalinga temple architecture. Where the Vimana is rekha type, all others (Jagamohana, Nata Mandir and Bhoga Mandir) have the pyramidal roof. The temple is built in the pancharatha style on a raised platform with two structures: a central shrine called the *vimana* (sanctum) with a bada (curvilinear spire) over its and a viewing hall called jagamohana with a pyramidal roof. Gangas were the most famous rulers of Kalinga. Their dynasty, which began its rule in the mid 11th century CE, sometimes competed with and sometimes allied itself with the Chalukyas [29].

Lastly in the Phase of decadence (14th – 16th century CE), the temple building activity came to a halt. Lack of royal patronage and decline of Hindu power resulted in the decline. Between 1238 and 1305, the Gangas successfully withstood Muslim infiltration from the north, but the dynasty collapsed when the sultan of Delhi penetrated Kalinga from the south in 1324. Subsequent Survayamsi Gajapati rulers who contributed significantly to Oriya language and literature and to the strengthening of the bonds of unity among the Oriyas were apathetic to temple building. They successfully diverted the attention of the people to the Jagannath temple at Puri and thus demoted the position of others deities and temples to subordinate positions. Of the few temples being constructed during this phase, the temples at Kapileswara at Bhubaneswar belonged to this period [30].



Fig 21: Bharateswar Temple, Bhubaneswar, 6th Century CE



Fig 23: Rajarani Temple, Bhubaneswar, 11th Century CE

From close study of temple plans, it is evident that the basic form of the temple has evolved out of a simple square [31]. These squares were scaled, subtracted or added one after another resulting into the geometrical evolution of the final

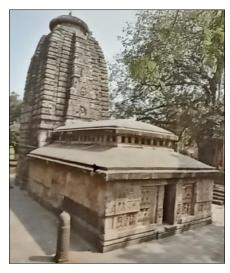


Fig 22: Parsurameswar Temple, Bhubaneswar, 7th Century CE



Fig 24: Ananta Vasudeva Temple, Bhubaneswar, 13th Century CE

plan following a step wise generation. This actually could have been the reason for the distinctive features or a commonality in the plans of Kalinga temples [32].

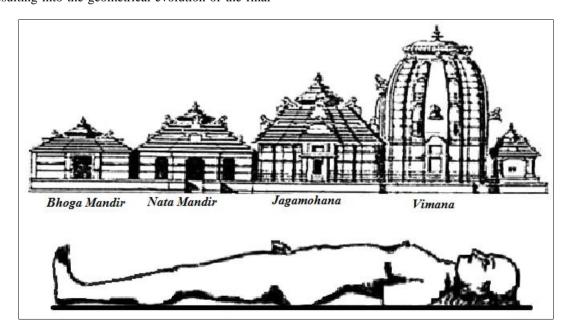


Fig 25: Floor plan of a typical Kalinga temple of mature phase and horizontal comparison with human body



Fig 26: Lord Lingaraj Temple of Bhubaneswar

Conclusion

Temples of Kalinga are not merely the religious sites. They have significant historical connotations and associated with traditions, customs and legends. The Temple Architecture holds an appeal that is magnetic and almost stupefying in its extravagance and mobility. The activities of temple construction flourished between 8th and 13th century CE without being disrupted with the changes of ruling dynasties and their affiliations. They are the architectural marvels, magnificent monuments and testimonies of bygone era. The towering, heavily sculptured spires of the temples are quite astounding. It is mind-boggling imagining the quality of work that went into creating them and their exquisitely carved bases. Described as 'poetry in stone' by Nobel Laureate Rabindranath Tagore, it shows the skill with which the local craftsmen created such splendid structures. Although centuries of neglect and vandalism have destroyed some of these temples, many of them are still in their original forms. Not only the list of the temples, even the architectural features and the technical intricacies of Kalinga temples are endless. These temples are the symbols of Odisha's cultural heritage and remain an eye-opener even today. In this article, only glimpse of important aspects along with some representative temples are discussed. There is a huge scope for further in-depth study to know, understand and appreciate the Kalinga temple architecture.

Acknowledgements

The first author is thankful to parents for arranging her visit to Bhubaneswar, Konark and Puri to see few classical temples of Kalinga architecture. The motivation and guidance received by the first author from her father is also acknowledged. The insights gained by the first author while visiting to museum-cum-interpretation centre at Konark Sun Temple helped immensely in writing the article.

Citations

- 1. Majumdar, p.1.
- 2. Dineschandra Sircar, p. 168.
- 3. Tripathy 1997, pp. 64-65
- 4. Smith 1994, p. 25.
- 5. K.S. Behera (2005), p.1-2.
- 6. Parashar Rinku, (2016). p 117-121
- 7. Fletcher, Sir. Banister, (1992)
- 8. R.P. Mohapatra (1983), p. 13
- 9. George Michell (1988), p. 88.
- 10. James Fergusson (1910), p. 414.
- 11. K.S. Behera (1993), p.3.
- 12. Mishra P.S. (2010).
- 13. Stella Kramrisch (1946).
- 14. Panigrahi, K.C. 1981.
- 15. Khan, J. A. and Varadarajan, D. 2016.
- 16. Parida, A.N. (1999). pp. 97–101.
- 17. James C. Harle (1994). pp. 251-254
- 18. Gupta, S.P. and Shashi Prabha Asthana. 2002.
- 19. Parashar and Bandyopadhyay (2016), pp. 117-121
- 20. Sen, Sailendra (2013). pp. 121-122.
- 21. Heather Elgood (2000). pp. 80-81.
- 22. Ray, SS and Mishra, Kajri (2016).
- 23. Mukherjee, Prabhat (1981). pp. 7-8.
- 24. Karuna Sagar Behera (2005). pp. 1–2.
- 25. Bose N.K., (1982).
- 26. Parashar and Bandyopadhyay (2016), pp. 117-121
- 27. JC Heesterman (1985), pp. 93-94,
- 28. Eschmann, Anncharlott (1978) p. 537.
- 29. Pradhan, Sadasiba (2009). pp. 1-2
- 30. Ajay J. Sinha (2000).
- 31. Patrick Olivelle (1992), pp. 147-151
- 32. Chand D.S. (July-2005). Pp. 49-51.

References

- 1. Behera KS. Temples of Orissa, Orissa Sahitya Academy, Bhubaneswar; c1993. p. 3.
- 2. Behera KS. Konark: The Black Pagoda, Government of India Press; c2005. p. 1-2.
- 3. Bose NK. Canons of Orissan Architecture, Cosmo Publication Kolkata; c1982.
- 4. Brockman NC. Encyclopedia of Sacred Places, ABC-CLIO LLC. California; c2011. p. 212-213.
- 5. Chand DS. Orissan Temple Architecture, Orissa Review; c2005. p. 49-51.
- 6. Eschmann A. The Cult of Jagannath and the regional tradition of Orissa, University of California, California, San Francisco; c1978. p. 537.
- 7. Fergusson J. History of Indian and Eastern Architecture, London; c1910. p. 414.
- 8. Fletcher SB. The History of Architecture, CBS Publishers and Distributors, New Delhi; c1992.

- 9. Gupta SP, Asthana SP. Elements of Indian Art: Including Temple Architecture, Iconography and Iconometry, New Delhi; c2002.
- 10. Heather E. Hinduism and the Religious Arts, Bloomsbury Academic; c2000. p. 80-81.
- 11. Heesterman JC. The Inner Conflict of Tradition: Essays in Indian Ritual, Kinship, and Society, University of Chicago Press; c1985. p. 93-94.
- 12. James CH. The Art and Architecture of the Indian Subcontinent, Yale University Press; c1994. p. 251-254.
- 13. Khan JA, Varadarajan D. Bindu and Mandala: Manifestations of Sacred Architecture, Adv. Sci. Lett. 2016:10:1-5.
- 14. Majumdar RC. Outline of the History of Kalinga. Asian Educational Service; c1996.
- 15. Michell G. The Hindu Temple: An Introduction to its Meaning and Forms, The University of Chicago Press, Chicago and London; c1988.
- Michell G. The Hindu Temple: An Introduction to Its Meaning and Forms, University of Chicago Press; c1988.
- 17. Mishra PS. Shape and geometrical study of fractal cosmology through Orissan Temple Architecture, ABIT PMCA Annual Function Souvenir; c 2010. p. 15-19.
- 18. Mohapatra RP. Traditions in Architecture, in Raicharan Das (ed.) art Traditions of Orissa, Orissa Sahitya Academy, Bhubaneswar; c1983. p. 13.
- 19. Mukherjee P. The History of Medieval Vaishnavism in Orissa, Asian Educational Services; c1981. p. 7-8.
- 20. Panigrahi KC. Archaeological Remains at Bhubaneswar, Second edition, Cuttack; c1981.
- 21. Parashar R, Bandyopadhyay A. International Journal for Innovative Research in Science & Technology. 2016;2(10):117-121.
- 22. Parashar R. Temples of Odisha- the Geometry of Plan Form, IJIRST. 2016;2(10):117-121.
- 23. Parida AN. Early Temples of Orissa (1st ed.), Commonwealth Publishers, New Delhi; c1999. p. 97-101.
- Patrick O. The Samnyasa Upanisads: Hindu Scriptures on Asceticism and Renunciation, Oxford University Press; c1992. p. 147-151.
- 25. Pradhan S. Lesser Known Monuments of Bhubaneswar. Lark Books, Bhubaneswar; c2009. p. 1-2.
- 26. Ray SS, Mishra K. Odisha: An architectural odyssey, Bloomsburry; c2016.
- 27. Sen S. A Textbook of Medieval Indian History, Primus Books; c2013. p. 121-122.
- 28. Sinha A. J Imagining Architects: Creativity in the Religious Monuments of India, University of Delaware Press; c2000.
- 29. Sircar D. Studies in the Geography of Ancient and Medieval India. Motilal Banarsidass; c1971.
- 30. Smith W. The Mukteśvara Temple in Bhubaneswar, Motilal Banarsidass; c1994.
- 31. Stella K. The Hindu Temple, Motilal Banarsidass; c1946. p. 135, context: 40–43, 110–114, 129–139.
- 32. Tripathy S. Inscriptions of Orissa. I Circa 5th-8th centuries A.D. Indian Council of Historical Research and Motilal Banarsidass; c1997.