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Where are the Kings? Sites of Birth and Death of Campantar

Uthaya Veluppillai

According to several scholars, in medieval Tamil Nadu, between the middle of the ninth and the end of the thirteenth century, Cola kings are acclaimed as great builders of temples and exemplary patrons of religious activities, promoting for instance the Tamil Saiva Bhakti textual tradition.¹ This tradition is based on the *Tirumurai*, the Tamil Śaiva canon, which is composed of twelve books. The first seven books constitute the *Tēvāram*, a corpus of 798 devotional hymns composed in Tamil in the second half of the first millennium and attributed to three poets: the *mūvars*, that is Tiruñanacampantar (Campantar), Tirunavukkaracar (Appar) and Tirucuntaramūrtti (Cuntarar). Each devotional hymn of the *Tēvāram* is dedicated to Siva in one of his manifestation in a site precisely located on the present-day map of Tamil Nadu. Exception is made for the Kailāsa and 48 potu hymns which are not related to any particular places. Thus, the 276 places celebrated in the *Tēvāram* are called *pātal perra talams* (literally "sites which obtained hymns"). The link of Tamil devotional literature to temples and royal patronage is presented as a well-established fact in secondary literature:

¹ Important recent scholarship has exposed the limits of this common assumption and emphasised for example the importance of women in patronising temples during the Cōla period (Kaimal 2003 and Orr 2000: 65–87).

The Cola kings, from Vijayālaya who re-established the Cola rule with Tanjore as capital city, as well as the late Pāṇḍyas, all had sacred temples, which were celebrated in the $T\bar{e}v\bar{a}ram$, built in stone; they had sacred images of the $m\bar{u}var$ s installed there; they gave the necessary agreements (i.e. they granted endowments) for the daily worship, pomp of the festivals, and the daily recitation of hymns in these sacred temples. (Vellaivāranan 1994: $28-29^2$)

The Pallava successors of Mahendravarman I and the Tamil Cōlas who consolidated their power in the Tamil region in the tenth century were great patrons of the Tamil *Bhakti* groups. The Cōlas, in particular, favored Śaivism and gave royal support to the institutions and practice of Tamil Śaivism. (...) The Cōla kings enlarged and rebuilt extant Śiva shrines and built great structural temples in stone, particularly in the places visited by the Nāyaṇārs, now called *pāṭal peṛra talam*, 'a place sung by the saints.' (Peterson 1989: 13–14)

The collection and organization of the hymns and the ritual of hymnsinging in temples were also made under direct royal initiative and patronage. The Vaiṣṇava hymns were collected in the late tenth century AD by Nāthamuni. The Śaiva hagiology received particular attention in the periods of Rājarāja I (985–1014) and Kulottunga II (1133–50). Closely linked with the collection of hymns was the apotheosis of the Śaiva hymnists and the installation of their images in Śiva temples from the period of Rājarāja I. (Champakalakshmi 1996: 73)

The association of devotional texts with temples, material or not, is incontestable. The *Tēvāram* hymns were written between the seventh and the ninth century in a context of sites/temples, the abodes of Śiva, which offered them, since the end of the ninth century, at the latest, a cultic frame in which the singing of these poems became institutionalised.³ Later on, the





² My translation of: tañcaiyait talainakarākak koņţu cōlar āţciyai mīṇṭum nilaiperacceyta vicayālayan mutalākavuļļa ellāc cōlamannarkaļum pirkālap pāṇṭiyarkaļum tēvārap pāṭalperra tirukkōyilkaļaik karraļikaļākki anku mūvar tiruvuruvankaļai yeluntaruļac ceytu nāļvalipāṭṭirkum tiruvilāc cirappirkum tirukkōyilkaļil nāṭōrum tiruppatikam viṇṇappañceytarkum vēṇṭum nivantankaļai valankiyuļļārkaļ.

The most ancient inscription available mentioning the singing of the hymns (SII 3, No. 43, l. 32–33) is dated to the 17th regnal year of Vijayanantivikkiramapamnar who is identified as Nandivarman III (Gros 1984: viii), which means that the date corresponds to circa 863. Nevertheless, this inscription of Tiruvallam temple in the district

temples received the poets' images which were installed and worshiped.⁴ The temples are also presented as a place of safeguarding of these hymns because they used to play a role in the preservation of the manuscripts on which the hymns were written down.⁵ Thus the temples seem to have played a primary role in the elaboration, the practice, the transmission and the conservation of the *Tēvāram* hymns in the medieval period.

The relation between, on the one hand, these texts, their authors and the temples they celebrated and, on the other, the royal patronage seems to be less obvious when studying the precise pattern of the patronage of hymned places (*pāṭal peṛra talams*).

In this paper, focusing on two little studied famous places of the Tamil Śaiva Bhakti textual tradition situated in the delta of the Kāvēri, i.e. Cīrkāli and Āccālpuram, I would like to highlight the importance of local patronage in the development of Śaiva Bhakti textual tradition in medieval Tamil Nadu. According to tradition, Cīrkāli and Āccālpuram are the places of birth





of Chingelput is a copy of an original which was destroyed during the renovation of the *maṇḍapa* (l. 1–2). So the authenticity of the information it contains, particularly about the date, remains contestable.

The first datable reference to images of the *mūvars* is found in an inscription of the royal temple of Tanjore (SII 2, No. 38) and dates to the reign of Rājarāja I (985–1014).

In the temple, the manuscripts were generally kept in a room called tirukkaikkōṭṭi where the hymns were also sung (see for example ARE 1908, Nos. 203, 414, 454; ARE 1928-29, No. 350; ARE 1918, No. 381, edited in Veluppillai 2013: 296-301). According to Rangaswamy (1990 [1958]: 23), tirukkaikkōtti is a tamilised form of the Sanskrit śrihastagoṣṭhī and could derive from the fact that the hymns were sung by a group (goṣṭhī) beating the rhythm with the hands (hasta). Nevertheless, the term śrīhastagosthī is not attested in any Sanskrit texts as pointed out to me by D. Goodall. The hypothesis of Swamy (1972: 108) that tirukkaikkōtti refers to a committee working in the temple rather than a space dedicated to the singing is not convincing to me because of the inscriptions mentioned above. In an example given by Hardy (2001 [1983]: 643) in order to underline the Tamil substrate of the language of the Bhāgavatapurāna, the author states that the term Kāmakoṣṇī found in the text is a faulty re-sankritisation of the Tamil name of the temple Kāmakōṭṭi in Kāñcīpuram because the Tamil word kōṭṭi, like kōṭṭam ('temple'), is derived from the Sanskrit koṣṭha meaning 'treasury' and not from koṣṇī which is meaningless. Thus, I suggest that tirukkaikkōṭṭi is not a tamilised form of the Sanskrit term śrīhastagosthī but that the latter is a weak sankritisation of a word which probably refers to a space in the temple (kōtti, kōttam from st. kostha) associated with the hands (Tamil kai). See also CEC 26 in table 2.

and death of one of the *Tēvāram* hymnists, Campantar. Two shrines dedicated to Campantar were active in the twelfth century in these two temple complexes which present inscriptions from the twelfth century onwards, and which are today administered by the Dharmapuram mutt. I will first present the poet Campantar (his work, legend and iconography) and then I will concentrate on the two sites of Cīrkāli and Āccālpuram using available textual and archaeological data.

1. THE POET CAMPANTAR

A portrait of Campantar may be drawn from two main types of data, texts and sculpted tradition.

The first three books of the *Tēvāram* containing 385 hymns are attributed to Campantar. Among these poems 67 are dedicated to Cīrkāli and one to Āccālpuram. The hymns attributed to Campantar are characterised by a fixed structure. Contrary to the other two authors of the *Tēvāram*, Campantar is said to have used refined and complex literary figures (Veluppillai 2013: 37–43). His 'signature' in the last stanza of the hymn contains some indications about his identity. We learn that Campantar is a brahmin of the *kauṇḍinyagotra*, hails from Kāli (Cīrkāli), knows the *Veda* and is an expert in Tamil. In the poems attributed to Appar and Cuntarar, Campantar is mainly described as a Tamil poet from Cīrkāli.

The legend of Campantar was shaped in several texts in the eleventh—twelfth centuries and was fixed in the twelfth century in the *Periyapurāṇam*, the hagiography of the 63 Śaiva devotees, composed by Cēkkilār. In this work 1256 stanzas, which amount to more than one quarter of the entire





For a critical study of the hymns attributed to Campantar which celebrate Cīrkāli or which contain autobiographical references, see Veluppillai (2013: 54–64; 129–131).

In 90% of poems of 11 stanzas, the 8th stanza is dedicated to the myth of Rāvaṇa lifting the Kailāsa, the 9th stanza depicts the myth of Lingodbhava where Viṣṇu and Brahmā have to recognise the supremacy of Śiva, the 10th stanza is a severe critique of the Jains and of the Buddhists and the 11th and the last stanza is the final protection (*tirukaṭaikkāppu*) containing the 'signature' of Campantar. Among the 385 *Tēvāram* hymns attributed to Campantar 42 contain 10 stanzas and 13 have 12 stanzas. The remaining poems are made up of six (III.24), seven (I.81; III.100), eight (III.50 and 99) and nine (I.106; III.33 and 36) stanzas.

text, describe the *purāṇam* of Campantar. According to this Tamil composition Campantar was born in a brahmin family of Cīrkāli. At the age of three he obtained divine knowledge by drinking the milk of Pārvatī and started singing poems celebrating the glory of Śiva (st. 1952–1996).

His legend is organised around six pilgrimages. The first one is to Kōlakkā (st. 1998–2003), to the North-West of Cīrkāli. The second and the third pilgrimages (st. 2010–2025) are, like the first one, very short and took place to the South-Est of Cīrkāli, including for example Nanipalli, Talaiccaṅkāṭu and Veṅkāṭu. During the fourth pilgrimage (st. 2040–2153), Campantar goes to Tillai (Chidambaram) and its surroundings, then comes down to the West in the region of Cēyñalūr, etc. The fifth pilgrimage is longer in time and distance (st. 2177–2848). It covers the areas of Trichy, and sites like Āvaṭutuṛai, Mayilāṭutuṛai, Ārūr and Maṛaikāṭu, and finally Ālavāy (Madurai). The sixth and last pilgrimage (st. 2860–3043) is to the North of Cīrkāli: in Tiruvaṇṇāmalai, in Kāñcīpuram and in Mayilāpuri (Chennai). So according to the *Periyapurāṇam*, Campantar walked through the entire Tamil land and thus propagated Tamil Śaiva Bhakti in this territory with his hymns.

During his different pilgrimages his poems created miracles. He saved lives, fed people, cured patients, closed the temple doors opened by Appar, etc. And in Madurai his hymns defeated the Jains and converted the Pāṇḍya king to Śaivism. Finally, on the day of his wedding in Āccālpuram he entered, along with the bride and the guests, a pillar of light created by Śiva and attained the feet of this god.

Campantar is often represented as a child playing cymbals or as a child dancing like Kṛṣṇa. His finger points to the sky whereas the hand of the dancing Kṛṣṇa makes the *abhayamudrā* (Dehejia 1987; Lefèvre 2001).

The earliest available representation of Campantar in stone can be dated to the middle of the tenth century and is located on the southern wall of the Vasiṣṭheśvara temple in Karantai, near Tañcāvūr (Tanjore). The study of the epigraphical corpus of this temple and the location of







Kolakkā is at 12 minutes walking distance from Cīrkāli (see Barnoud-Sethupathy 1994: 47–48). According to the legend of Campantar Śiva gave him cymbals there to beat the rhythm.





Fig. 14.1. Campantar playing cymbals, south face, Vasiṣṭheśvara temple in Karuntaṭṭāṅkuṭi (photo by U. Veluppillai, 2011).



Fig. 14.2. Appar holding a hoe, south face, Vasiṣṭheśvara temple in Karuntaṭṭāṅkuṭi (photo by U. Veluppillai, 2011).

the image on the wall in relation to the inscriptions framing the image allow me to date the image of Campantar between 909 and 1015 (Veluppillai 2013: 187-189). On the south wall of the main shrine, pradaksina-wise, there are a linga, Campantar playing cymbals (fig. 14.1), a dancing Śiva (so-called Natarāja), Appar in the forest (fig. 14.2) and a Bhikṣāṭana walking in the pine forest.9 The images of Siva are two or three times taller than those of the poets. I suggest that Appar and the mendicant Siva are linked to each other through the theme of the forest and that Campantar and the dancing Siva are linked through the theme



Fig. 14.3. Child Campantar holding a cup, Musée Guimet, Inv.-no. EG 2144 (photo by C. Schmid, 2015).

of the music. With the exception of their distinctive attributes, hoe and cymbals, Appar and Campantar are wearing the same ornaments, the same dress and are of the same size and proportion. They are standing and wearing a *kaupīna*, loin-cloth worn by adult figures. Their hair-dress is a tonsure and the only ornaments they wear are ear-pendants, rosaries (on the forehead and neck), arm-bands and bracelets. There are no attributes, jewels or any other marks that characterise the image of Campantar as one of a child. When Campantar is represented as a child he is naked, wears a specific belt and sometimes the *channavīra*, as in a bronze sculpture from Musée Guimet (fig. 14.3). Because of the resemblance of the Campantar





⁹ Appar is standing near a small *linga* and holds a hoe. In the background vegetation (plants, trees) indicates that he is in the wild. In the case of the image of Bhikṣāṭana vegetation is not represented but the presence of a woman at his side illustrates the episode of his walking in the pine forest and seducing the sages' wives.

Wearing the *kaupīna* is a distinctive feature of the medieval *śaivācārya*s of Eastern India (Chattopadhyay 2013). I would like to thank A. Griffiths for pointing me out this study.

of Karantai to the image of Appar, I propose that this earliest available image of Campantar in stone depicted him as an adult like Appar. On this ground, I suggest that the legend of the child Campantar is not definitely established at that time; several streams were in existence in the tenth century before one of them took over. It is worth noting that in this pioneer site in the representation of Campantar and Appar, where there are two royal donations (SII 5, Nos. 1405 and 1409), there is no mention of the singing of the *tiruppatikam* (Tamil Bhakti hymns) in the epigraphical corpus. Moreover, Karantai is not one of the sites celebrated in the $T\bar{e}v\bar{a}ram$.

In epigraphy, the first reference available and datable to an image of Campantar is found in an inscription engraved on the Brhadīśvara of Tanjore (SII 2, No. 38) that mentions a donation of seven copper images by the chief manager of the royal temple at the beginning of the eleventh century. Campantar is referred to by the name Tiruñāṇacampantaṭikaḷ (l. 25). He is described as having two arms and adorned with jewels including a belt (tiruppaṭikai, l. 26), which is a specific ornament of women and children. Thus it seems that the earliest image donated in a royal temple is a representation of Campantar as child. Does it suggest that the Bhakti, expressed through this donation in a royal context, honoured this devotional figure once his legend as a child conqueror in the name of Śaivism was formed? By giving the image of the child Campantar the donor, i.e. the king's manager, did not install the figure of an adult poet but that of a child who is a Śaiva leader.

After the twelfth century references to Campantar images become more common in epigraphy and particularly in sites linked to his hagiography. Shrines and monasteries were dedicated to him. Campantar appears from that time onwards as one of the main figures of the Tamil Śaiva Bhakti textual tradition in medieval Tamil Nadu.

In the following two sections I will investigate the involvement of the ruling power in the development of this tradition by studying the patronage of two famous *pāṭal peṛra talam*s which are the places of the birth and death of Campantar according to his legend.

¹¹ See Swamy (1972: 113–115), Vēnkatarāmaiyā (2005), and Veluppillai (2013: 184–187).

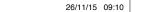
2. CĪRKĀLI, THE BIRTH PLACE OF CAMPANTAR

Cīrkāli is celebrated in 71 hymns of the *Tēvāram*. Among these, 67 are attributed to Campantar, three to Appar and one to Cuntarar. Traditionally Cīrkāli is glorified under 12 names which are Piramapuram, Vēņupuram, Pukali, Venkuru, Tonipuram, Taray, Cirapuram, Puravam, Canpai, Cirkali, Koccai and Kalumalam.12

Today the city is called Cīrkāli and the *linga* Brahmapureśvara. In the inscriptions found in the Siva temple the linga was called Uţaiyār Tonipuramutaiyar and the city Kalumalam. After the thirteenth century we sometimes find the name Cīkāli or Kāli for the city. Kalumalam is a brahmadeya of the Kalumalanāţu which is in the regional division of Rājādhirājavaļanātu. 13 So, only three names out of these twelve toponyms appeared in medieval historical data: Cīkāli, Kalumalam and Tōnipuram.

Three shrines form this temple complex: one is dedicated to Siva, one to Campantar (both of them date from the twelfth century) and one to the goddess (which I propose to date after the seventeenth century¹⁴). A monastery was functioning in the thirteenth century. It was named after Campantar¹⁵ and was situated to the north of the temple (SII 8, No. 205) and ARE 1918, No. 10). It is never expressly named in the inscriptions of Cīrkāli but several epigraphs mention chiefs, lands and gardens belonging to the monastery.¹⁶







On the foundation myth related to each of the twelve toponyms, on their historicity and on the question regarding the interpolation of some hymns containing these twelve names, see Veluppillai (2013: chapter 3).

¹³ A brahmadeya is land given to brahmins and administered locally by them through an assembly (sabhā); cf. Karashima (2001 [1966]), Stein (1980: chap. 4), Champakalakshmi (2004 [2001]) on the particular cases of brahmadeya called taniyūr and Veluthat (1993: 196-211) for a study including the present Kerala. On the geography and the political division of the Colanatu, cf. Subbarayalu (1973).

¹⁴ See Veluppillai (2013: 347).

¹⁵ The monastery was precisely named Tirumuraittevāraccelvan, "the fortunate of the Tēvāram of the Tirumurai." Because most of the monasteries were named after the mūvars (Swamy 1972: 113-118) and because Cīrkāli is the birth place of Campantar, I think that the designation Tirumuraittevaraccelvan is qualifying Campantar.

¹⁶ Cf. in table 1 CEC 6, 17 and 21. According to the information I gathered from the temple office there used, until about 60 years ago, to be a monastery in front of the

The Cīrkāli epigraphical corpus (CEC) I present comprises a total of 55 inscriptions (ARE 1896, Nos. 123–125; ARE 1918, Nos. 360–401; SII 12, Nos. 210–211, 252–253; SII 5, Nos. 988–990), only seven of which have been published. Mahalingam (1992: 547–554) collected the summaries from the ARE and the SII for 32 inscriptions and tried to date them precisely. I review the date of 37 epigraphs from the twelfth to the end of the sixteenth century (see tables 1 and 2). The corpus is dated with the regnal years of monarchs of various dynasties: the Cōlas (from Kulottuṅga II to Rājarāja III), the Pāṇḍyas (Māravarman Vikrama Pāṇḍya IV), the late Kāṭavars proclaiming themselves as Pallavas (Kōpperuñciṅkan II) and the Vijayanagara kings (Viruppaṇṇa, Kṛṣṇadeva and Veṅkaṭadeva).

2.1. THE ŚIVA TEMPLE

All the inscriptions of the Siva temple are found today on the walls and base of the *maṇḍapa*, the *prākāra*, the inner gallery and the *gopura*. The earliest inscription dates to 1184 (CEC 1) under the reign of Kulottuṅga III and the last one is a Vijayanagara inscription of 1598 (CEC 23). It is worth noting that there is not a single inscription on the wall of the main shrine. It is possible that originally there were inscriptions engraved there and that during some hypothetical renovation before the twelfth century they disappeared. Moreover, Cīrkāli is associated with the myth of the deluge (Shulman 1980: 58–59 and Veluppillai 2013: chapter 3) and is situated at twelve miles from the coast. A flood might have destroyed a temple constructed in perishable materials. In any case there is no archaeological





northern *gopura* which was run by a disciple of the Dharmapuram monastery. No trace of it remains today.

The CEC gathers 37 inscriptions that I present according to a possible chronology and 18 fragments. The texts of all these 55 inscriptions has been edited in Veluppillai (2013: chapter 7).

Behind the main *sanctum* there is today a two-storeyed building of the eighteenth–nineteenth century housing Śiva-Tōṇiyappar on the first floor and Śiva-Caṭṭainātar on the second.

¹⁹ See Branfoot (2013: 23) who considers "the temple renovations – and specifically the replacement of the *vimāna* – as an ongoing process of remaking the past" in South India.

During the tsunami of 2004 many small temples of the coast were badly damaged and the flood inundated Cīrkāli.

trace or epigraphical reference to a renovation conducted before, or even after, the twelfth century.

There is no royal donation. The king is mainly mentioned with his regnal year for dating the inscriptions. Even though the king is mentioned in four inscriptions, he is not directly involved in the transaction recorded. In the first occurrence, in the thirteenth century Rājarāja III sent an order to auction the lands of traitors and his *meykkīrtti* is engraved (CEC 7 and 8).²¹ Secondly, in the fourteenth century, a devoted subject of the Pāṇḍya country installed images of the king Māravarman Vikrama Pāṇḍya IV and his queen and established their cult (CEC 6). Then, in the fifteenth century, a person named Kōneridevamahārāja from Kāncīpuram gave the order to restore the practice of giving the village taxes to the treasury of the temple (CEC 20). Finally, in the sixteenth century, an inscription records the *biruda* of Viṭṭhaladevamahārāja (CEC 24²²). Thus, the king or his family did not donate to this temple.

The main donors are local people. They belong to villages situated in a perimeter of 20 to 25 kilometres around Cīrkāli. Among these donors were an officer from Palaiyanūr who gave two lamps (CEC 1), a landlord from Karuppūr, also the representative of palanquin bearers, who gave lands to provide betel leaves and areca nuts (CEC 2), a group of men from Veṇṇaiyūrnāṭu belonging to the coastal army who gave a lamp (CEC 3), a woman and her daughter from Palaiyanūr who gave lands to make a flower garden (CEC 4), a brahmin from Nālūr who gave lands to make a flower garden (CEC 10), a landlord from Āṇaṅkūr who gave lands for the same purpose (CEC 11), the temple employees who gave to the *paṭimattār* of a Cāttaṇ temple in order to bring the image of Cāttaṇ in procession to the sea (CEC 12), a landlord from Kūṭalūr who gave lands to feed Śiva (CEC 13) and a man from Uyyakkoṇṭārvaḷanāṭu who gave land (CEC 14).²³







This *meykkīrtti* is unpublished. I could not reconstruct the text as it is badly damaged and the stones have been reset in disorder during the renovation of the wall.

I did not find this inscription *in situ* and the rubbings are not available in Mysore. So we have to rely only on the ARE summary where it is stated that the inscription records the *biruda* and the genealogy of the king Vitthaladevamahārāja.

²³ The status of this donor is not clear. The transaction also involves the landlord of CEC 13. The mention of a tutor (*mutukan*, l. 5) suggests that the donor may belong to a lower caste.

So, on the one hand, the study of the inscriptions of Śiva temple makes clear that patronage is the exclusive affair of local people, natives of places near Cīrkāli. Not a single king made any donation to the temple. The figure of the ruling power did make a little appearance through royal eulogies and orders (CEC 7 and 8); nevertheless the king, or his entourage, did not participate in the patronage of this temple, in promoting, in any way, Tamil Bhakti. The mentions of the kings in this temple (CEC 6, 7, 8, 20 and 24) remained in the political, territorial and administrative fields and did not indicate their faith nor their religious and devotional activities. On the other hand, it is striking that in the inscriptions of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries on the walls and bases of the Śiva temple, from CEC 1 to CEC 14, there is absolutely nothing which can be related to the tradition of Tamil Śaiva Bhakti (cult of the saints, singing of Tamil hymns, etc.). Are these features to be related to the fact that there was in the twelfth century, at 50 metres distance, a shrine dedicated to Campantar?

2.2. THE CAMPANTAR TEMPLE

All the available inscriptions of the Campantar shrine are on the walls and base of the main shrine, on the base of the *maṇḍapa* and on the *prākāra*. The earliest inscription dates from 1135 (CEC 25) under the reign of Kulottuṅga II—it is the earliest inscription still available in the entire temple complex—and the last one is an inscription of 1219 (CEC 35).

As in the Śiva temple there is no involvement of kings here either. No donations to this temple were even made by any king or member of the royal family. The main donors are brahmin village assemblies (*sabhās*). Indeed, the assembly of Kalumalam, i.e. Cīrkāli, gave lands to feed Campantar with milk rice (CEC 25); then it gave lands to open the place where manuscripts of the *Tirumurai* were kept, to replace the damaged ones and to put in new manuscripts—this work had to be done by an expert in Tamil (CEC 26);²⁴ finally, the assembly of Kalumalam gave lands for the music teachers of





The ARE 1918, No. 381 presents the following summary: "gift of land for setting up images (?) and restoring those that had been already set up and had suffered damage." Because of the misreading of the ARE this inscriptions has been neglected. There is in this epigraph the earliest extant mention of the word "tirumurai" (cf. Veluppillai 2013: 139–143).

the village who were linked to the Campantar temple (CEC 36). Other *sabhās* also sponsored this shrine. The assembly of Talaiccaṅkāṭu gave land to feed Campantar with milk rice (CEC 27), the assembly of Tiruvālināṭu exchanged lands to feed him with milk rice (CEC 29) and the assembly of Kulōttuṅkacōlaccaruppetimaṅkalam, in Āccālpuram, gave land to establish a flower garden on his behalf (CEC 28).

Nevertheless a few private individuals also appear in the inscriptions of Campantar shrine: a donor belonging to the *parikkirakam* (a group carrying out the protection of the village) from Vīracolanallūr in Kalumalam gave land to feed the image of Mankaiyarkkaraci²⁵ installed in Campantar temple (CEC 30); a landlord from Venmani gave land to feed Campantar daily, on auspicious days and during the annual festival (CEC 31); and a donor from Kankaikonṭacolapuram gave money to repair the enclosure of Campantar temple (CEC 35).

Through the study of the inscriptions of the Campantar shrine it is again evident that the patronage of the Tamil Śaiva Bhakti tradition here is conducted by the locality and particularly by the brahmin assemblies in the surroundings of Cīrkāli.

I suppose that the temples of Siva and Campantar were separated originally with a distinctive administration and a distinct "public" and that they were brought together after the fourteenth century. Indeed up to that period the inscriptions of the Siva temple do not mention the Campantar shrine and vice-versa. After the fourteenth century the inscriptions are only engraved on the Siva temple even if they record a donation to the Campantar shrine. The donors are still local. They are mainly brahmins who worked or lived near the temple. For example in an inscription of 1393 (CEC 17), a piece of land of $60 \ v\bar{e}lis^{26}$ is divided into seven parts: one to Campantar, one to a initiate named Aruṇagiriśiva, one to an officiant, one to the head of the monastery, one to another officiant and one to a watchman.







²⁵ Mankaiyarkkaraci is one of the 63 Śaiva devotees. According to the legend she is originally a Cōla princess who married a Pāṇḍya king. She is one of the rare 'royal Bhakti' figures found in the *Campantar purānam*.

²⁶ A *vēli* is a land measurement equivalent to 20 *mā*s. The size of land here, 60 *vēli*s, corresponds generally to the extent of an entire village (Karashima 2009: 69).

The study of the epigraphical corpus of temple complex of Cīrkāli, the birth place of Campantar, underlines the importance of local patrons and local devotional communities in the development of the temple in the medieval period. The administrative officers and powerful landlords endowed the Śiva temple whereas the local brahmin assemblies donated to the Campantar shrine. The development of the Tamil Śaiva Bhakti in Cīrkāli temple depended only on local Bhakti while the royal *bhakta*s are absent. What is the configuration in Āccālpuram, the place where Campantar attained liberation?

3. ĀCCĀĻPURAM, THE PLACE OF CAMPANTAR'S DEATH

In the *Tēvāram* corpus only hymn III.125 attributed to Campantar is dedicated to the site of Āccāļpuram which was called Nallūrperumaṇam or Perumaṇanallūr. According to the *Periyapurāṇam* (st. 3053–3153), Campantar agreed to marry the daughter of Nampāṇṭār Nampi, a brahmin from Perumaṇanallūr. On the wedding day, while circumambulating the fire, Campantar wanted to reach the feet of Śiva. Campantar and his wife then went to the temple. As Campantar sang, the temple disappeared and Śiva appeared in the form of a pillar of light asking Campantar and his guests to go into the light to attain him. Campantar sang again and invited his guests to get into the light. Once everybody had entered the light, Campantar, holding his wife's hand, walked around the pillar of light and went in. The pillar disappeared and the temple re-appeared as it was before.²⁷

The temple is situated at approximately 10 kilometres north-east of Cīrkāli. Nineteen inscriptions have been registered and summarised (ARE 1918, Nos. 522–540; table 3, below). Out of these, eight have been recently published in Āvaṇam by Vijayavenugopal et al. (2010; 2013). The inscriptions are engraved on the southern, western and northern base of the main shrine, on the southern wall of the maṇḍapa, on the first prākāra and on a slab near the dhvajastambha. The earliest inscription dates from 1121 (AEC 1) under the reign of Vikrama Cōla and the last one is an inscription of 1682 under the Maratha Ekoji I (AEC 19).





²⁷ The celebration of Campantar's wedding and his fusion with the divine used to be celebrated during the annual temple festival in Āccālpuram. In May 2005 I observed this event, which has not been celebrated for the past few years due to financial restrictions.

Today the city is called Accāļpuram and the *liṅga* Šivalokatyāgeśa. In the inscriptions, the *liṅga* is called Uṭaiyār Tiruperumaṇamuṭaiyār and the village Pañcavan Mātēvi alias Kulōttuṅkacōlacaruppetimaṅkalam in the Veṇṇaiyūrnāṭu.²⁸

The temple complex contains two main shrines: one for Śiva, datable to the twelfth century, and one for the goddess which can be dated after the thirteenth century (AEC 11). Even though the inscriptions mention a separate shrine for Campantar and his wife Cokkiyār in the twelfth century (AEC 13),²⁹ the small superstructure situated in front of the Śiva temple today is a very recent one. It seems that the ancient shrine, if this is really its original location, has been entirely remade. The epigraphical data also contain information about a monastery (AEC 8) in the beginning of the twelfth century named Paracamayakoļari after Campantar with reference to his hostility towards heretics (AEC 1).

In studying the Accalpuram epigraphical corpus (AEC) in table 3, it appears that the kings were not much involved in its patronage. Indeed, apart from their mentions in the regnal year for dating the inscriptions, the kings are mentioned only four times. The meykkīrtti of Kulottunga II is recorded in AEC 2 but the registered transaction does not depend on the ruling power. Even though AEC 4 and 6 register the meykkīrtti of Rājādhirāja II, the recorded transaction deals with an order of the local brahmin assembly to reduce several taxes applied to the temple lands. The engraving of a meykkīrtti does not signify that the king is involved in the transaction. It may just be a way to give importance and prestige to local transactions.³⁰ The unique direct involvement of the king seems to be recorded in AEC 3 which registers a royal order, executed by the assembly, to cancel taxes on temple lands. The kings did not personally donate to the temple. Then, two cases of indirect involvement of the royal authority can be traced through the intervention of its scribes, tirumantira ōlai, not as donors but as administrative representatives: Malaiyappiyarāyan who





²⁸ The assembly of this brahmin village is among the donors to the Campantar temple of Cīrkāli (CEC 28).

²⁹ It seems that AEC 13 is the most ancient source which gives the name of the wife of Campantar. The *Periyapurāṇam* does not mention it.

³⁰ See Francis & Schmid (2010).

worked under Rājādhirāja II (AEC 5) and Neriyuṭaiccōlamūventavēļān who was active under Kulottuṅga III and Rājarāja III (AEC 11).³¹

The donors are generally local people. A certain Pirutukankāyar from Purakkuṭi gave land to feed and worship dancing Śiva (AEC 9 and 10). A landlord from Nerkunram constructed the goddess' shrine and gave it a piece of land. Several military officers made a grant of land to the temple (AEC 19).

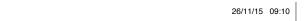
The brahmin village assembly of Kulottuṅgacolacaturvedimaṅgalam alias Pañcavan Mādevi appears to be one of the main promoters of Tamil Śaiva Bhakti in this temple. This assembly gave lands to conduct the procession of Campantar and his wife Cokkiyār in Tiruveṅkāṭu, Tirunaṇṇpalli, Tiruvākkur and Perumpaṛrapuliyūr in AEC 13. Two other inscriptions register grants made to Campantar.³² The assembly of Parākramacolacaturvedimaṅgalam gave land to feed Śaiva devotees in the Campantar monastery called Parasamayakolari (AEC 1). A local individual from Kulottuṅgacolacaturvedimaṅgalam gave land to establish a flower garden for Campantar's shrine (AEC 7). In short, the patronage of Campantar's temple and monastery was principally conducted by very local agents such as the local political authority, the village assembly of Kulottuṅgacolacaturvedimaṅgalam and a private individual from this same village.

According to the available data, there is no differentiation between the categories of donors in this temple as in Cīrkāli, but it is obvious that here too the patronage of the site was very local. Kings were not involved in this patronage.

Conclusions

In secondary literature, as quoted in the introduction, the Cōla kings are described as having taken the lead in the development of the Tamil Śaiva Bhakti textual tradition in temple context. Indeed, the ruling power is said





³¹ See also CEC 7 in table 1.

Without any proof I can only suppose that, like in Cīrkāli, inscriptions recording grants to Campantar could have been engraved on the ancient shrine of Campantar.

to have established the ritual singing of the hymns, the worship of the saints in temples, the compilation of the Tamil Saiva canon, the *Tirumurai* and to have rebuilt temples which have been hymned. This common opinion is mainly based on three arguments: the concentration of *Tēvāram* temples in the Colanațu, the exceptional royal temple inscriptions of Tanjore and the text of the Tirumuraikantapurāṇam, "legend of the formation of the Tirumurai." 70% of the Tēvāram hymns celebrate temples situated in the Colanatu, which corresponds to the delta of the Kaveri river: 556 hymns sing the glory of Siva in 191 temples concentrated in the Colanatu, a political and administrative territorial division named after the dynasty. The systematic use of the dynastic label "Cola" in secondary literature to qualify many different artistic and religious productions and activities that occurred in the region of the Kāvēri river during the reign of the Cola dynasty, such as "Cola bronzes," "Cola temples," etc. is one of the reasons that brought in the commonplace of crediting the Cola kings with the patronage of artistic and religious developments of this era. But, it has been demonstrated that Cola kings were far from being the leaders in the construction or patronage of temples (Kaimal 1996 and Orr 2007: 118–119). Although the patronage of Tamil Saivism conducted by Rājarāja I Cōla is obvious in the royal temple of Tanjore at the beginning of the eleventh century,³³ it remains an exceptional practice. The Tanjore manifestation of royal devotion has however been the principal argument used in secondary literature to identify the king of the *Tirumuraikantapurānam* as Rājarāja I. The *Tirumuraikantapurāṇam* narrates the legend of the compilation by a Cola king of the Tamil canon, the *Tirumurai*. This text is attributed to an Umāpati from Chidambaram and is dated to the fourteenth century.³⁴







Inscriptions of the Brhadīśvara temple in Tanjore record the installation of the images of the three *Tēvāram* poets (SII 2, No. 38), the employment of 48 singers of Tamil hymns (SII 2, No. 65), and the installation of the images of Śaiva devotees (nāyanmārs) like Candesa (SII 2, No. 29), Meypporul (SII 2, No. 40) and Ciruttontar (SII 2, No. 43). A few narrative panels represent the legend of Kannappar and Candeśa.

The *Tirumuraikantapurānam* narrates how Nampi Āntār Nampi, patronised by a king named Rājarāja Abhayakulaśekhara, found the manuscripts of the texts in Chidambaram and compiled them into a corpus. See Rangaswamy (1990 [1958]: 19-24), Vellaivāraņan (1994: 9-15), Gros (2001: 23-24), Prentiss who analysed the creation of the canon (2001a) and translated the text (2001b), and Veluppillai (2013: 136-143) for a historical discussion of the text.

There are no historical sources that permit to affirm that "the collection and organization of the hymns and the ritual of hymn-singing in temples were also made under direct royal initiative and patronage" (Champakalakshmi 1996: 73). Based on CEC 26, I argue that we do not need in the twelfth century a divine intervention nor a royal support to find in a room of the temple a corpus named *Tirumurai* which was locked in and eaten by ants. Here, the local brahmin assembly gave the order to a Tamil expert to clean, copy and reset the *Tirumurai* manuscripts. And thus, it participated to the preservation and the transmission of this textual tradition.

Contrary to what might be expected from two famous places of Tamil Śaiva Bhakti deeply linked with Campantar's legend and cult, we are dealing here with local temples and local donors. The kings seem to have stayed out of the cult of the saint Campantar and of the ritual of hymn singing in these two sites whereas, in contrast, brahmins, through the authority of the village assemblies, were very active. It is surprising to read that "the Cōlas kings enlarged and rebuilt extant Śiva shrines and built great structural temples in stone, particularly in the places visited by the Nāyaṇārs" (Peterson 1989: 14) when in the places of birth and death of one of the *Tēvāram* hymnists there is no kind of royal involvement in the religious activities of the temples.

The twelfth century appears to be a turning point in the history of the cult of the Śaiva devotees with the elaboration of the *Periyapurāṇam*. This text might have brought a kind of "boosting" to this cult and to the hymns which the *bhaktas* are supposed to have composed, as is observable in CEC 26. And it seems that, since the twelfth century, local actors, here predominantly the brahmin village assemblies, supported and promoted Tamil Śaiva Bhakti freshly celebrated in the *Periyapurāṇam*, a new masterpiece on the legends of Śaiva saints. As the ruling power was absent in the patronage of these two sites, local authorities by associating themselves with patronage of these places sacred to Campantar, and so by protecting these religious institutions, might have tried to gain some kind of prestige and to strengthen their position in the society.

Appendix: Tables of the Epigraphical Corpora of Cīrkāli and Āccālpuram

The summaries in these tables are mine. In tables 1 and 2, I present 37 out of the 55 recorded inscriptions of the Cīrkāli epigraphical corpus (CEC) in a probable chronological order on each part of the temple complex (Śiva's temple: mandapa, prākāra and inner gallery; Campantar's temple: main shrine, mandapa and prākāra). In my thesis I edited and translated or, when that was not possible, summarised the inscriptions (see Veluppillai 2013: chapter 7).

In table 3, I present in a chronological order the summaries of the Accalpuram epigraphical corpus (AEC). This work is based on the different publications, on a reading in situ and on the photographs taken by the EFEO in 2006 and myself in 2013.

Table 1. The Cīrkāli Epigraphical Corpus, Śiva temple. 35

	Location	Reference	Date & Summary
CEC 1	Śiva's temple maṇḍapa, southern wall.	ARE 1918 No. 363	6 th RY of Kulottunga III, i.e. 1184 CE. Grant of land to provide daily oil for two lamps for/at the Tōṇipuramuṭaiyār (Śiva) temple. The donor is Vāṇātirāyan alias Karuṇākaratevan Vetavanamuṭaiyān, an administrative agent and a landlord from Palaiyanūr in the Melmalaippalaiyanūrnāṭu of the Jeyankoṇṭacolamaṇṭalam. ³⁶
CEC 2	Śiva's temple maṇḍapa, southern wall?	ARE 1918 No. 360	7 th RY of Kulottunga III, i.e. 1185 CE. Grant of land to provide daily and forever betel leaves and areca nuts to the divine couple. The donor is Utaiyañceytan Tali alias Colentiracinka Vilupparayan, a landlord of Karuppūr. He assumed the function of <i>cāmutāyam</i> , ³⁷ representative of palanquin bearers.

For the proper names presented in the three tables I reproduce the spelling found in the epigraphical texts themselves, that is, for instance, I do not restore \bar{e} and \bar{o} where expected.





³⁶ On the identification and the career of this donor see Veluppillai (2013: 231–233).

On the meaning of the word *cāmutāyam* see Veluppillai (2013: 237–238).



	Location	Reference	Date & Summary
CEC 3	Śiva's temple maṇḍapa, northern basement.	ARE 1896 No. 125 ARE 1918 No. 365 SII 5 No. 990	9 th RY of Kulottuṅga III, i.e. 1187 CE. Grant of land to maintain a perpetual lamp offered to the divine couple. The donors are from Veṇṇaiyūrnāṭu and belong to the costal army.
CEC 4	Śiva's temple maṇḍapa, northern and western walls.	ARE 1896 No. 124 ARE 1918 No. 364 SII 5 No. 989	14 th RY of Kulottunga III, i.e. 1192 CE. Grant of five lands to establish flower gardens for Śiva. The donors are the daughter and the grand-daughter of Jenanātakarpakam Araiyan, a landlord of Āṇānkūrkkunram in the Naṭuvilnāṭu alias Irājarājavaļanāṭu. They are, respectively, Etirilāpperumāļ, the wife of Uṭaiya Nāyakan, a landlord of Vetavanam and Palaiyanūr, and Umaiyālvi, the wife of Tiruvekampamuṭaiyān Nāyan, a landlord of Perumpūr.
CEC 5	Śiva's temple maṇḍapa, southern wall.	ARE 1918 No. 362	17 th RY of Rājarāja III (?), i.e. 1233 CE (?) Damaged. Gift of a golden vessel (<i>vaṭṭil</i>) to offer drinking water to Śiva. The donor's name is missing in the lacuna, but the transaction is connected to the brahmin community (<i>paṭṭar</i>).
CEC 6	Śiva's temple maṇḍapa, southern basement?	ARE 1918 No. 366	6th RY of Māravarman Vikrama Pāṇḍya IV, i.e. 1339 ce. Grant of land made by Uṭaiyanāyakaṇ, a landlord of Eṭṭirāma Poṇparri of Naṭuvilkūrru in the Milalaikkūrram (Pāṇṭimaṇṭalam), for the images of Uṭaiyār Irācākkaṇāyaṇār (the king Māravarman Vikrama Pāṇḍya IV) and of Marakataccokkiyār (the queen) he installed on the border of the temple sacred tank. The gift was meant to worship these images, to maintain a garden named after the king's image name, for the brahmins and to feed māheśvaras (devotees) who may come to eat at the monastery.





	Location	Reference	Date & Summary
CEC 7	Śiva's temple prākāra, eastern wall.	ARE 1918 No. 392	8 th RY of Rājarāja III, i.e. 1224 CE. Starts with an unpublished Rājarāja III's meykkīrtti: cīr maṇṇi malar makaļum cī[]c celviyum. Then, it deals with a land forfeited and sold in auction (l. 7–11). Finally, a royal order re-recorded the transaction (l. 14). ³⁸
CEC 8	Śiva's temple prākāra, eastern wall.	ARE 1918 No. 393	8–10 th RY of Rājarāja III, i.e. 1224–1226 CE. Royal order to sale in auction lands forfeited from traitors (l. 1–5). Records the new <i>devadāna</i> status of lands belonging to the temple (l. 5–9).
CEC 9	Śiva's temple prākāra, northern wall.	ARE 1918 No. 393 ³⁹	10 th RY of Rājarāja III, i.e. 1226 CE. Records the new <i>devadāna</i> status of lands belonging to the temple.
CEC 10	Śiva's temple prākāra, northern wall.	ARE 1918 No. 390	18 th RY of Rājarāja III, Wednesday 11 th January 1234 CE. Grant of five lands for establishing a garden and providing flowers for Śiva. The donor is a brahmin from Nālūr named Mātevapaṭṭaṇ.
CEC 11	Śiva's temple prākāra, northern wall.	ARE 1918 No. 389	24 th RY of Rājarāja III, i.e. 1240 CE. Grant of land to establish a garden and provide flowers for Śiva. The donor is an administrative agent, Puṛṛiṭaṅkoṇṭāṇ Vayiranallūḷāṇ Araiyaṇ from Āṇaṅkūr in the Naṭuvilnāṭu.
CEC 12	Śiva's temple prākāra, southern wall.	ARE 1918 No. 391 SII 12 No. 253	Köpperuñcińkan II, i.e. circa 1243 CE. Grant of land made by the Śiva temple employees to the <i>paṭimattār</i> of Cāttan temple so that the latter might go procession to the sea.

The identification of the "royal secretary" Neriyuṭaiccolamūventavēļān and a close study of his service have permitted me to identify the ruling king as Rājarāja III (Veluppillai 2013: 256–258).





³⁹ CEC 8 and CEC 9 have been reported together. Because CEC 9 is not the direct continuation of CEC 8 and because it is engraved on a different wall I consider it a different inscription and present it separately.



	Location	Reference	Date & Summary
CEC 13	Śiva's temple prākāra, eastern wall.	ARE 1918 No. 394 SII 12 No. 210	19 th RY of Kōpperuñciṅkaṇ II, Wednesday 24 th January 1263 ce. Grant of land to feed Śiva. The donor Tevarkaḷtevaṇ is a landlord from Kūṭalūr in the Jayakoṇṭacoḷavaḷanāṭu.
CEC 14	Śiva's temple prākāra, eastern wall.	ARE 1918 No. 395 SII 12 No. 211	19 th RY of Kōpperuñciṅkaṇ II, i.e. 1263 ce. Grant of land. The donor is Iḷantevaṇ Poṇṇampalakkūttar Ciṅkāravaḷamuṭikavittāṇ. ⁴⁰
CEC 15	Śiva's temple inner gallery, northern base- ment?	ARE 1918 No. 371	1384 CE. Damaged. Order from a brahmin, Tiruñāṇacampantapaṭṭaṇ, addressed to those who planted areca trees to offer areca nuts.
CEC 16	Siva's temple inner gallery, northern base- ment?	ARE 1918 No. 370	Friday 29 th December 1391 CE. Grant of land to give bath to Śiva and Campantar. The donor could be the signatory Tirumañcaṇamalakiyāṇ who is probably in charge of the bath.
CEC 17	Śiva's temple inner gallery, western base- ment?	ARE 1918 No. 373	1393 or 1394 ce. Grant of land that has to be shared in seven parts and given to Campantar, an initiate named Aruṇagiriśiva, Rāmanādha bhaṭṭar, the chief of the monastery Tirunerimālikai, the priest Tiruñaṇacampantar paṇṭitar, the supervisor Kālikarpaka Kāśyapaṇ bhaṭṭar and to another person (the text is damaged). The donor may be Dharmmacātaṇappaṭṭaṇ, the brahmin who gave the order to engrave the transaction on copper plates.
CEC 18	Śiva's temple inner gallery, southern base- ment?	ARE 1918 No. 400	Wednesday 6 th March 1398 CE. Deals with the constituting details of the salaries of the employees of the temple. The signatories are the temple officers (cikāriyam, paṭṭar, kaṇakku, etc.).

 $^{^{\}rm 40}\,$ The donor of CEC 13 and his grant are mentioned.







	Location	Reference	Date & Summary
CEC 19	Śiva's temple inner gallery, western base- ment?	ARE 1918 No. 372	Siddhārti varuṣam. Grant of land to Śiva and Campantar. The signatories are a group of brahmins. They seem to be the donors (kuṭuttom, l. 3).
CEC 20	Śiva's temple, gopura, northern wall.	ARE 1918 No. 396	Wednesday 29 th October 1488 CE. Order of Koneridevamahārāśa stipulating that the taxes of 42 <i>vēli</i> lands in several villages have to re-integrate the temple treasury as previously.
CEC 21	Śiva's temple, gopura, southern wall.	ARE 1918 No. 397	Friday 11 th April 1511 CE. Registers that the chief of the monastery gave out for rent lands belonging to the temple.
CEC 22	Śiva's temple, gopura, eastern inner basement.	ARE 1918 No. 399	circa 1535 CE. 41 Grant of land donated by Irāmappanāyakkar, son of Koṭal Vacavaṇanāyakkar, in order to offer, along with the food, different items (appam, vaṭai), areca nuts and betel leaves dur- ing the worship (canti) established in the name of the king Kṛṣṇarāyaṇ.
CEC 23	Śiva's temple, gopura, southeastern inner wall.	ARE 1918 No. 398	Monday 28 th August 1598 CE. Registers the installation of the image of Āpaduddhāraṇar ⁴² and a grant of land to give it the grand bath (mahābhiṣekam) for the merit of the rājaṛṣi Viṭṭaleśvaraccolakoṇār. The donor is missing in this damaged inscription.
CEC 24	Śiva's temple inner gallery, southern base- ment?	ARE 1918 No. 401	Sixteenth century. Records the titles (<i>biruda</i>) of the king Viṭṭhaladevamahārāja and describes his genealogy.





 $^{^{\}rm 41}\,$ The donor appears in an inscription of Tiruviṭaimarutūr (SII 23, No. 271) dated to 1535.

⁴² Āpaduddhāraṇar is the name of the form of Bhairava who is actually the main attraction of Cīrkāli temple. In Tamil he is called Caṭṭainātar because he wears Viṣṇu's skin as a coat (Veluppillai 2013: 363–369).

Table 2. The Cīrkāli Epigraphical Corpus, Campantar temple.

	Location	Reference	Date & Summary
CEC 25	Campantar's main temple, southern basement.	ARE 1918 No. 380	3 rd RY of Kulottunga II, Monday 19 th August 1135 CE. Grant of land to feed with milk rice Campantar (Āļuṭaipiḷḷaiyār). The donor is the brahmin village assembly (sabhā) of Kalumalam (Cīrkāli).
CEC 26	Campantar's main temple, southern wall.	ARE 1918 No. 381	4 th RY of Kulottunga II, ⁴³ i.e. 1136 CE. Grant of land to re-open the <i>tirukkaikoṭṭi</i> of Campantar's shrine where were kept the manuscripts of the <i>Tirumuṛai</i> in order to replace the damaged pieces. The donor is the brahmin village assembly (<i>sabhā</i>) of Kalumalam.
CEC 27	Campantar's main temple, northern basement.	ARE 1918 No. 374	10 th RY of Kulottunga II, Wednesday 27 th January 1143 CE. Grant of land to feed with milk rice Campantar. The donor is a group belonging to the brahmin village assembly (<i>mūlaparuṣai</i>) of Talaiccankāṭu in the Ākkūrnāṭu.
CEC 28	Campantar's main temple, northern wall.	ARE 1918 No. 378	10 th RY of Kulottuṅga II, i.e. 1143 CE. Grant of land to establish a flower garden and to provide various offerings to Cam- pantar. The donor is the brahmin village as- sembly Kulottuṅkacolaccaruppetimaṅkalam of Āccālpuram.
CEC 29	Campantar's main temple, northern wall.	ARE 1918 No. 377	12 th RY of Kulottuṅga II, i.e. 1145 ce. Exchange of land made by the brahmin village assembly of Tiruvālināṭu. The newly granted land is, as the previous one, reser- ved for feeding with milk rice Campantar.

 $^{^{43}}$ The ruling king was not identified in the ARE and the text was not dated. The location of this epigraph engraved above CEC 25, the proximity of the regnal years of CEC 25 and 26, and the mention in both epigraphs of the same assembly member allow me to argue that CEC 26 dates to the 4^{th} regnal year of Kulottunga II.





	Location	Reference	Date & Summary
CEC 30	Campantar's main temple, northern wall.	ARE 1918 No. 375	12 th RY of Rājarāja II, Monday 21 st April 1158 CE. Grant of land to feed the image of Maṅkaiyarkkaraci Nācciyār set up in Cam- pantar's shrine. The donor is a <i>parikkirakam</i> (group carrying out the protection of the village) from Vīracōlanallūr in Kalumalam.
CEC 31	Campantar's main temple, southern basement.	ARE 896 No. 123 ARE 1918 No. 379 SII 5 No. 988	11th RY of Rājādhirāja II, i.e. 1174 ce. Grant of land to feed Campantar daily, on auspicious days and during the annual festival. The donor is Āṭkoṇṭanāyakaṇ Titunaṭṭapperumāḷ, a landlord from Veṇmaṇi.
CEC 32	Campantar's main temple, northern basement.	ARE 1918 No. 376	6 th RY of Kulottunga III, Thursday 1 st March 1184 CE. Exchange of land between the representatives of Campantar's temple and the officer Utayañceytān Centāmaraikkaṇṇaṇ alias Ticaiviḷaṅkucoḷa Viḷupparaiyan, a landlord from Veḷūr in the Tirunaṇaiyūrnāṭu.
CEC 33	Campantar's temple maṇḍapa, northern basement.	ARE 1918 No. 382	Thirteenth century. Copies on stone of documents dealing with the properties tirunāmattukkāṇi of the brahmadeya Kalumalam.
CEC 34	Campantar's temple maṇḍapa, northern basement.	ARE 1918 No. 383	3 rd RY of Rājarāja III, Wednesday 13 rd February 1219 CE. Lists of lands in Tirumullaivāyil purchased as <i>tirunāmattukkāņi</i> of Campantar.
CEC 35	Campantar's temple <i>prākāra</i> , southern wall.	ARE 1918 No. 388	3 rd RY of Rājarāja III, i.e. 1219 CE. Gift of money and gold to repair the enclosure wall of Campantar's shrine. The donor is Ārampūṇṭāṇ, son of Vempaṇ Vaiciyār, lord of Vāṇamāḷikai on the great street Uttamacola, in the northern part of Kaṅkaikoṇṭacolan enclosure, in Kaṅkaikoṇṭacolapuram.







	Location	Reference	Date & Summary
CEC 36	Campantar's temple <i>prākāra</i> , eastern wall?	ARE 1918 No. 387	Thirteenth century? Grant of land to maintain the music teachers who were associated with Campantar's shrine. The donor is the brahmin village assembly of Kalumalam.
CEC 37	Campantar's temple <i>gopura</i> , southern side.	ARE 1918 No. 386	? Gift to finance temple works. The donor's name is missing.

Table 3. The Accalpuram Epigraphical Corpus.

	Location	Reference	Date & Summary
AEC 1	Śiva's temple prākāra, western wall.	ARE 1918 No. 534	3 rd RY of Vikrama Cōla, i.e. 1121 CE. ⁴⁴ Grant of land to feed Śaiva devotees and the <i>ānṭār</i> (literally the gods) who may come to the Paracamayakolari monastery (l. 4). The donor is the assembly of Parākramacōlacaturvedimaṅgalam in Veṇṇaiyūrnāṭu.
AEC 2	Śiva's temple basement, western and southern wall.	ARE 1918 No. 523	Kulottuṅga II, circa 1133 CE. 45 Starts with the <i>meykkīrtti</i> commencing with <i>pūmēvivaļar</i> . Seems to register a grant of land for the expenses of the temple of Śiva Tiruperumaṇamuṭaiyār.





⁴⁴ The epigraph contains ten long lines. During the restoration of the enclosure cement was put between the stones. Due to this, the lines 1 and 7 have become mostly unreadable. Although the name of the ruling king Vikramacoladeva (Vikrama Cola) is still readable *in situ*, the regnal year is totally covered by cement. The information about the date given here is based on the ARE and T.V. Mahalingam (1992: 539).

⁴⁵ T.V. Mahalingam (1992: 539) proposed this date because the royal eulogy praises Kulottunga II. The regnal year is not readable in this epigraph engraved on stones which seem to have been displaced and which are now damaged.

	Location	Reference	Date & Summary
AEC 3	Śiva's temple prākāra, northern wall.	ARE 1918 No. 528 Āvaņam 24 No. 23.2 ⁴⁶	Kulottuṅga II, Monday 11 th January 1143 CE. ⁴⁷ Registers a royal order making the lands belonging to Śiva's temple tax-free. The order is executed by the village assembly of Kulottuṅkaco <u>l</u> acatturvetimaṅkalam.
AEC 4	Śiva's temple prākāra, eastern wall.	ARE 1918 No. 539	Rājādhirāja II, circa 1163 CE. Starts with the <i>meykkīrtti</i> commencing with [<i>kaṭal</i>] <i>cūlnta pār mātarum.</i> ⁴⁸ The epigraph is unfinished and built in. The third and the last line is incomplete. The inscription contains unengraved spaces and ends with the name of the king Rājādhirāja.
AEC 5	Śiva's temple basement, northern and western wall	ARE 1918 No. 522 Āvaṇam 21 No. 10.4 ⁴⁹	10 th RY of Rājādhirāja II, i.e. 1173 ce. ⁵⁰ Fixes a quantity of salt, sandal paste, etc. to be given to the temple and provided by the village of Nallūr alias Mahipālakulakālapperaļam. The transaction is signed by the royal scribe officer tirumantira olai [XX]va neriyuṭaiyān malaiyappiyarāyan (l. 11–12).

⁶ In the edition of this inscription in *Āvaṇam* 24, No. 23.2, there is a confusion. Indeed, the first line of the epigraph reported in ARE 1918, No. 526 is presented as the first line of ARE 1918, No. 528 and vice versa (see *Āvaṇam* 21, No. 10.2).





This is the date proposed by the ARE 1919, part I, appendix E according to astronomical details and followed by T.V. Mahalingam (1992: 539). Vijayavenugopal et al. (2010: 42), without any explanation, placed this epigraph under the 10th regnal year of Kulottunga III, in 1188.

⁴⁸ This version of the *meykkīrtti* commencing with [*kaṭal*] *cūlnta pārmātarum* is identical to the one registered in ARE 1918, No. 538 (AEC 6) and is slightly less developed than the version presented by Cuppiramaṇiyam (1983: 139).

Only the first seven lines engraved on the northern base have been published in *Āvaṇam*. The next five and last lines engraved on the western base are missing in the edition. They recapitulate the transaction and give the name of the royal scribe Malaiyappiyarāyan who signed it.

The dating range of twelfth– thirteenth centuries proposed in *Āvaṇam* can be here refined because of the identification of the royal scribe officer Malaiyappiyarāyan and thus of the king under whom he worked, Rājādhirāja II (see SII 5, No. 646 and SII 6, No. 438).



	Location	Reference	Date & Summary
AEC 6	Śiva's temple prākāra, southern wall.	ARE 1918 No. 538 Āvaṇam 21 No. 10.1	14 th RY of Rājādhirāja II, i.e. 1177 CE. Starts with the <i>meykkīrtti</i> commencing with [<i>kaṭal</i>] <i>cūlnta pār mātarum</i> . Order of the assembly of Pañcavaṇmātevi alias Kulottuṅkacolacaruppetimaṅkalam reducing several taxes on lands and fixing the duties and privileges of certain classes of persons (slaves, women, etc.). ⁵¹
AEC 7	Śiva's temple prākāra, western wall.	ARE 1918 No. 531	13 th RY of Kulottunga III, Wednesday 22 nd November 1195 CE. ⁵² Grant of land to provide a flower garden for Campantar. The donor is Jayantikaruṇālaiyaṇ alias Tiruvātavūrpiḷḷai, a resident of Apaiyamāṇikkacceri in Kulottunkacoḷacaruppetimankalam.
AEC 8	Śiva's temple basement, southern wall.	ARE 1918 No. 524	12 th century? ⁵³ Damaged. Registers a grant of land to the temple for the maintenance of a monastery. The donor's name is missing.
AEC 9	Śiva's temple prākāra, western wall.	ARE 1918 No. 532	24 th RY of Kulottuṅga III, i.e. 1202 CE. Grant of land to feed and worship Nāyaṇār Paṇ Pataikka Āṭūvār ⁵⁴ installed in the temple. The donor is Pirutikaṅkāyar from Puṛak[kuṭi].
AEC 10	Śiva's temple prākāra, western wall.	ARE 1918 No. 534	24 th RY of Kulottuṅga III, i.e. 1202 CE. Copy of the grant made by Pirutikaṅkāyar from Purakkuṭi. ⁵⁵





⁵¹ A detailed study of this epigraph is presented in ARE 1919, p. 97–98.

⁵² This is the date proposed by the ARE 1919, part I, appendix E, according to astronomical details and followed by T.V. Mahalingam (1992: 541).

⁵³ Because of the emplacement of this epigraph and of its delicate palaeography, I am tempted to date it in the twelfth century as the other inscriptions engraved on the main shrine base (see AEC 2 and 5).

⁵⁴ Seems to be a name of dancing Śiva meaning literally "he who dances quivering the melody."

⁵⁵ I did not find this inscription in situ. I follow the information given in the ARE 1918, No. 534.

	Location	Reference	Date & Summary
AEC 11	Śiva's temple prākāra, western wall.	ARE 1918 No. 530 Āvaṇam 24 No. 23.4	32 nd RY of Kulottunga III, i.e. 1211 CE. Grant of land to the goddess shrine constructed by the donor himself, Candracekaran Pañcanativāṇaṇ, a landlord from Neṛkunṛam in Kulottunkacolavalanāṭu. The royal scribe officer tiruma[n*]tira olai Neṛiyuṭaiccolamuventavelān 56 signed the transaction (l. 10).
AEC 12	Śiva's temple prākāra, western wall.	ARE 1918 No. 533	36 th RY of Kulottunga III, Tuesday 21 st January 1214 CE. ⁵⁷ Grant of land to feed the <i>apūrvin</i> (stranger) who comes to worship at the temple. ⁵⁸
AEC 13	Śiva's temple prākāra, northern wall.	ARE 1918 No. 527 Āvaṇam 21 No. 10.3 ⁵⁹	2 nd RY of Rājarāja III, i.e. 1218 CE. Order and grant of land made by the village assembly to provide worship and food for the images of Campantar and Cokkiyār which go in village procession through Tiruvenkāṭu, Tirunannipalli, Tiruvākkūr and Perumparrapuliyūr and which stopover in the temple of Kai[lāsa]muṭaiyār for the offerings. The assembly orders also to worship in front of the brahmins who came as apūrvin (l. 6).
AEC 14	Śiva's temple prākāra, northern wall.	ARE 1918 No. 526 Āvaṇam 21 No. 10.2 ⁶⁰	17th RY of Rājarāja III, Saturday 14th May 1233 CE. 61 Order of the <i>mahājana</i> , village assembly, who abolished the tax of <i>sabhāviniyokam</i> applied on the temple lands.





⁵⁶ This royal officer appears in CEC 7.

⁵⁷ This is the date proposed by the ARE 1919, part. I, appendix E according to astronomical details and followed by T.V. Mahalingam (1992: 542).

 $^{^{58}\,}$ I did not find this inscription in situ. I follow the information given in the ARE 1918, No. 533.

In this edition two lines covered by cement—one after the second line and one at the very end—remain unmentioned.

 $^{^{60}}$ Concerning the edition of this epigraph, see above, footnote 46 on AEC 3.

⁶¹ This is the date proposed by the ARE 1919, part I, appendix E, according to astronomical details and followed by T.V. Mahalingam (1992: 542).



	Location	Reference	Date & Summary
AEC 15	Śiva's temple prākāra, northern wall.	ARE 1918 No. 529 Āvaṇam 24 No. 23.1 ⁶²	18 th RY of Rājarāja III, i.e. 1234 CE. Long list of lands belonging to the temple.
AEC 16	Śiva's temple maṇḍapa, southern wall.	ARE 1918 No. 536	9 th RY of Jaṭavarman Sundara Pāṇḍya, i.e. 1312 ce. 63 "Records sale of land to a certain Kaṇḍaṇ Śōlaṇ Śōliyadaraiyaṇ of Taṇḍalai in the eastern division of Milalai-kūṛram which was a district of Pāṇḍi-maṇḍalam, by two residents of Rājasūrya-chaturvēdimaṅgalam in Veṇṇaiyūr-nāḍu."64
AEC 17	Śiva's temple maṇḍapa, southern wall.	ARE 1918 No. 537	9 th RY of Jaṭavarman Sundara Pāṇḍya, i.e. 1312 ce. Related to the transaction contained in AEC 16.
AEC 18	Śiva's temple maṇḍapa, northern wall.	ARE 1918 No. 525 Āvaṇam 24 No. 23.3	8 th RY of Māravarman Parākrama Pāṇḍya, Wednesday 30 th April 1343 CE. ⁶⁵ Built in at the beginning and at the very end. Other engraved stones here and there in the northern wall of the <i>maṇḍapa</i> may belong to this epigraph. Seems to refer to the lands received between the 10 th regnal year of Kulottuṅga and the 7 th regnal year of Parākkkiramapāṇṭiya and gives a list of lands.
AEC 19	On a slab near the <i>dhvaja</i> - stambha. ⁶⁶	ARE 1918 No. 540 IMT 110	Ekoji I, 5 th April 1682. Grant of land situated in Caṇḍeśvaranallūr made by several officers to the temple.

⁶² The edition of this epigraph presents only seven lines. There are actually 26 long lines in this lengthy inscription which covers a great part of the northern wall.





⁶³ In the ARE, appendix E, it is noted that the dates of ARE 1918, Nos. 536 and 537 "presumably found near each other are both erroneous."

⁶⁴ I reproduce here the summary of the ARE as I could not find and read this epigraph *in situ*.

⁶⁵ This date is proposed in ARE 1919, part I, appendix E, according to astronomical details. However it is clarified in ARE that the "*tithi* was 6th, not 5th in the bright fortnight."

⁶⁶ This slab is no longer visible. It may have been covered by bricks. All the information given here is based on the edition of the IMT.

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ABBREVIATIONS

AEC	Āccāļpuram Epigraphical Corpus. Followed by number as given in table 3.
ARE	Annual Report on Epigraphy. Followed by year of copy and number.
CEC	Cīrkāli Epigraphical Corpus. Followed by number as given in tables 1 and 2.
IMT	Inscriptions of the Marathas of Thanjavur, 1987.
RY	regnal year.
SII	South Indian Inscriptions.

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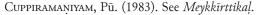
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