CHAPTER V

COMMODITIES OF TRADE AND OTHER ANTIQUITIES

The practice of buying and selling of commodities within India and with other countries played a vital role in the economic prosperity of the country. For exporting or selling goods to others, it was necessary to put aside the surplus. These were traded in foreign markets, and in exchange, goods were required to be brought to India and sold in profit. This business of export and import was dealt by the Srenis, Sreśthins, who were backed by the State authority. Quality control was the backbone of both export and import. Kautilya mentions Panyadhyākṣa who fixed the prices of the various commodities after taking into consideration factors such as investment of capital, interest and rent (Kangle, 1969). While exporting goods, the prices were fixed after taking into consideration, the factors like expenses of the journey, duty paid etc. He had to determine the amount of profit made for the State (Kangle, 1969: 2.36). He had to look after the demand of various goods in different centres and countries. This in turn controlled the manufacturing of different commodities.

Many a time, the traders during the ancient times, imported the raw materials like the precious and semi-precious stones not available in India and in turn exported ornaments and finished goods. The authorities charged duty or Sulka which was to be collected at the city gates, each of which
was to have custom house with four or five officers in charge, all of them under Śulkadhyāksha, the Superintendent of Customs (Kangle, 1969:1-2). Indian goods were in great demand in the foreign markets, which attracted the foreigners throughout the ages. Thus, India occupied a prominent position in the commercial markets as main suppliers of the essential as well as luxury items.

The export and import policy was formed and conducted by the guilds of the traders under the leadership of a Śresthin. They had organised trained staff to help them in carrying out large scale business. They used to look after the choice of goods made by different countries and export goods according to the demand. More emphasis was given on the quality and price of the goods. The route to be followed was decided by these officials. These officials decided on the safest and quickest route to be adopted for travelling. If the routes were hazardous Srenibalas were used. Various export and import agencies helped in the development of trade. The presence of Indian agents in Egypt is borne out of a remarkable epigraphic record of Dionchrysosten, showing the presence of Indian in Egypt. This inscription was found in the temple of Redesia on the trade route from the Red Sea port of Berenice to Ed Full on Nile (McCridle, 1971:212). Kautilya has given indirect reference about these agents. Panyadhyāksha warns them in case of calamities. He says that the agents should rescue themselves along with the goods of high value in times of calamities. The agents should pay all dues before they start with any new ventures (Kangle, 1969:823). The import agents had similar duties as the export agents. There were middlemen, who
used to purchase and sell for the local importer or foreign exporter in exchange of commission. The Arabs acted as the middlemen for the foreign traders dealing with goods in India (Adhya, 1960). For Chinese silk, Indian traders were the middlemen who made heavy profits (Cowel, 1907:20). The works of retail dealers is mentioned in the works of Kautilya's Arthaśāstra (Kangle, 1969:12).

**CHIEF COMMODITIES OF EXPORTS**

Here an attempt has been made to group various products of exports and imports, according to their significance from the point of view of their demand. India exported not only primary products, but also manufactured good that included luxury items.

**Cotton**

It is known as Karpasa in the ancient literature. From the earliest times, it was a common fabric used by the natives of India. The black soil of Western India proved most suitable for the growth of cotton which was spun and woven in different industries. This industry rose to its highest pitch as Indian muslins and it acquired a world wide fame and fetched high price in the Western markets. Theophastus (C. 350 B.C.) gives us the first definite conception of Indian cotton cultivation (Chakravarti, 1966:236).
Periplus mentions about the export of cotton through Barygaza to the West. He says that the Indian cotton called Monache (broad cloth) and Sagmatogene (another type) and even muslins were also exported from the districts of Ariaca to East Africa (Schoff, 1974:6). Muslins and ordinary cloths from the areas around Ujjain and Ter used to be brought to Bharuch for export. The Periplus also mentions muslin from Ceylon and the finest one called Gangetic which possibly might have been the product of North Bengal, and brought down to Bharuch through the land or roparian route called Ganges. (Schoff, 1974:63). The raw cotton was taken to the looms of Alexandria and Syria about 100 A.D. from India. Arrian in his work Indica records that the cotton of India is whiter and brighter than any country (McCrindle, 1894).

Again in Arthaśāstra, Kautilya refers to the flourishing industry for the manufacture of the cotton fabric. He mentions cotton fabrics of Mathura, Aparanta, Kalinga, Kasi, Vanga and that of Mahisa are the best. From the Toramana copper plates, we come to know of foreign traders dealing with coarse and fine cotton fabrics and cotton threads brought from Ujjain and Mathura. The manufacture of cotton cloth as a flourishing industry in the Gupta period is mentioned by Kalidāsa (Velankar, 1948:39), in Amar Kośa (Sharma, 1941:116) and in Brihatsamhitā (Dvivedi, 1895:75). Thus India's wealth was highly enhanced by cotton industry which rose to highest pinnacle, in the shape of Indian muslins which was held in high esteem and fetching high prices in the Roman markets.
Resham was a luxury item brought from China and exported to the Roman and Central Asian and other countries in the ancient times. It was mainly exported from China by overland route known as Silk route during the reign of Augustus. The cost was very high and weighed in gold. Silk is mentioned in the epics and works of Manu, as foreign gifts. Silk was imported from India by way of Brahmaputra valley to Bharuch for export. This was due to a war between Rome and Parthia to control the silk trade and the route, hence silk was exported from Bharuch by sea route. After the fall of the Roman Empire, the Persians acted as middlemen for the Byzantine Empire. Later, when silk was introduced in West, this export altogether stopped. The Devnimori excavation yielded a Buddhist casket which contains the relic ash of Buddha wrapped in a piece of silk cloth. This site is dated to the Kshatrapa period (Mehta and Chaudhary, 1966). This shows the Buddhist monks of Devnimori were using the luxury item, brought to them by the traders. The Mandasor inscription talks about the silk weavers who migrated to Mandasor from the districts of Lata. So with the decline of this trade, they migrated back to Lata and took on new profession (Fleet, 1970: 81-84). Kalidasa speaks of Chinamsuka (Chinese silk) in Sakuntala (Acharya, 1947: 11). This shows that silk trade flourished in the Gupta period Hieun - Tsang (Beal, 1906:319) and Cosmas (II 47) refers to China as the home of silk. Thus, this luxury attire are illustrated on the Ajanta caves and Gupta coins, bear clear testimony of the flourishing silk trade carried out by the Indians.
Nard

It was a kind of herb used for medicines and perfumes and was exported from Bharuch. This is an aromatic herb commonly found in the lower Himalayas. It was used for the preparation of medicinal oils (Watt, 1908:793). Both the oil nard and spikenard (leaf) was used by the Roman traders both as an article of medicine and perfume. Pliny observes that nard, vary in prices according to its size. Nard of the largest leaves were sold at 40 Denarii a pound, while those of the smaller ones at 60 Denarii a pound and those of smallest ones at 75 Denarii a pound. (Rockhem, 1942:26). Pliny further mentions that among the ointments used in Rome, the spikenard was more valued. Periplus mentions that nard was exported from Barbaricum and spikenard was exported from Barygaza and this material was supplied both from Ozene and from the upper country through Poclais (Schoff, 1974:39,49).

Bdellium

This plant product is also an aromatic gum, taken out of a small tree mostly grown in North West India. It was a kind of fragment myrrh and frankincense. Periplus mentions that it was exported from the ports of Barbaricum and Barygaza (Schoff, 1974: 39 and 49). Pliny on the other hand, observes that usually it was only an inferior quality which was exported from India to Rome so that it fetched only a low price of 3 Denarii per pound (Rockhem, 1942:30-31).
Lycium

This plant product fulfilled a variety of uses and therefore, it was also an important article of foreign trade. It is a form of juice which was used by the Romans for various purposes for yellowish dye, to prepare astrigent for the eyes, for sores and wounds and other antiseptic purposes. It was also used as a cosmetic for the face. This plant grows among the high Himalayas. It was from the roots, the stems and berries of this plant that the juice lycium was extorted. Its export to western countries was confirmed by Pliny. Pliny mentions that it was packed by Indians, in the skins of camels and rhinoceroses and then transported from Indus to Barygaza from where it was shipped abroad (Rockhem 1942:30-36).

Rice

It is mainly grown in India, Burma and South China. It was an important commodity for export, known as Vrihi in ancient India. Milindapanha mentions Śālibrihi, yava tandula etc. (Trenckner, 1928:27). Suśruta mentions of different varieties of vrihi (dhanya). It was also used as drugs and sort of wine in ancient India (Kaviraj, 1907:46). Watt believes that its cultivation first started in India from where it spread further east to China, East India, Corommandal coast and Persia in the west (Watt, 1909:20). Kālidāsa in Raghuvamsa mentions about the type of rice grown like Sāli and Kalama. He further mentions that Magadha, the low
lying plains of Vanga and the southern plateau produced a rich supply of paddy (Velankar, 1948:20). Periplus mentions that it was exported from Ariaca and Barygaza to Opene and other parts in East Africa. From Barygaza, it went straight to the island of Discordia. He says that the coast of Gedrosia (Orissa) and Ariaca (Andhra) hinterlands produced and supplied rice for export (Schoff, 1912:14,31,37).

Wheat

Wheat was highly valued as article of diet and as a medicinal drug. Suśruta mentions that wheat is sweet, heavy tonic, rejuvenicent, it subdues vayu and pittam and generates the Kapham. New wheat is laxative and brings about the adension of fractured bones (Kaviraj, 1907:46). It was exported from Barygaza and Ariaca to Opene and Discordia (Schoff, 1974:14,31,32).

Sugar

This commodity was known to the people of ancient India. Strabo thought of it as Indian honey produced from the trees. Charaka Samhita and Suśruta Samhita have pointed out two different types of sugarcane and their specific medicinal values. Milindapanha mentions of the very process by which sugar was extracted from the sugarcane (Trenkner, 1928:37). It was originated from the country Pundras and from Nepal (Kaviraj 1907:27,237).
Periplus mentions that honey extracted from reeds called Sacchari was exported from Ariaca and Barygaza by ships to the far side markets at Pano and Opene in East Africa. It was grown in Punjab, Gangetic valley and Pundriakh variety was famous in Bengal. Kālidāsa in his works refers to various processes adopted for manufacturing sugar from the reed.

Woods

Ebony

It is reported to have been a valuable article of foreign trade even before the Christian era. The export of ebony was monopolized by the Indians and carried out in their ships, coasting along Gedrosia and the Arabs monopolized the trade in spices and fragment woods to sell them in Roman market (Warmington, 1974:123). Likewise, Periplus records that large ships were sent with ebony and goods from Barygaza to the markets on the Persian Gulf like Apologus and Omana, owing to their geographical positions. These markets were situated on the Trans-Arabian caravan trade route (Schoff, 1974:36). Pliny too mentions about the export of ebony to Rome where it was highly valued. He says that ebony came to Rome from India and was in great demand there. He further says that a second variety grows as a shrub all over India (Rockhem, 1942:89). Since ebony is not mentioned in the Digest list, it could be possible that it was sent by the land route.
Teakwood

Teak was grown in the forests of Malabar, Travancore, Gujarat and Malaya Peninsula. It was used for building purposes and could resist the action of water. Kautilya mentions teakwood (Sāla) as one of the forest products of ancient India. It was controlled by the Superintendent of forest products. It is mentioned at the top of the long list of forest products (Kangle, 1969:100). Kautilya also mentions that anyone who caused damage to these products were liable to fines. This shows the importance of this wood for many purposes including business in the early centuries of the Christian era. On teak, Periplus mentions that large vessels loaded with timbers of teakwood were regularly sent from Barygaza to Omana via Mandagora. Mandagora was an important centre of trade for exporting teak and blackwood. It was also known as a ship building centre (Schoff, 1974:36,383).

Blackwood

It was one of the hard woods of Punjab and of Western India. It was used for making carriage frames, furniture, wheels, agricultural implements, wood carving and boats (Schoff, 1974: 153). Periplus also speaks of its exports from Barygaza, Mandagora and Calliana to Omana (Schoff, 1974: 197, 36).
Sandalwood

It was mostly grown in South India. The Mahabharata speaks of the Malaya mountain and the sea coast regions as the places of its origin. The Milindapanha speaks of Chandana of Benaras (Trenckner, 1928:6.16). Kautilya describes in detail the different types, colours and smells of sandalwood. He says that the sandalwood was the product of various mountains and of the country of Kamarupa (Assam) (Kangle, 1969:78). Kalidasa speaks of sandalwood of the Malaya mountain in Raghuvamsa (Velankar, 1948). During the prosperous Gupta period, the sandalwood paste or oil was used as cosmetics. The Periplus speaks of its export from Barygaza to the marts of Persian Gulf, whence it was reshipped to further west (Schoff, 1974: 36).

Diamond

Diamonds formed one of the precious and prestigious items of ornaments among the Indians from the very early times. Gifts of this precious gem were given by the feudatory princes during the epic days. It was exported mainly from the parts of south-western coasts of India to the countries of Greece and Rome (Schoff, 1974:56). Ptolemy also mentions that diamonds were found in abundance in the country of the Sabari towards the Ganges (probably the region around Gorakhpur). He also refers to a town situated on the eastern banks of Narmada (Stevenson, 1932:180). So it is possible that diamonds of the Narmada and the Ganges were exported through Barygaza.
in the 2nd Century A.D. Kautilya mentions its sources as Magadha, Kalinga Surpaka, Paundraka, Tripura, Kosala and Vidharba (Kangle, 1969:78). The Junagarh inscription of Rudradaman of 150 A.D. refers to wide use of diamond (Kanaka, Rajata and Vajra). The Brihat Samhita deals with the quality, quantity and prices of different diamonds. It enumerates the sources as Kosala, Saurastra, Suparaka, Himalayas, Matanga, Kalinga and Paundraka (Dvivedi, 1895:80,67). India was only supplier of diamonds to the European nations (Watt, 1908:93-101).

**Agate and Carnelian**

The musrhine (carnelian) vases and other articles as highly prized commodities were sold in the Mediterranean countries. These articles largely made of agate and carnelian, came from the Gulf of Cambay, the chief market town of Indian industry (Watt, 1908:93-96). The archaeological data recovered from Nagara excavation supports to the above observation. The Periplus records that agate and carnelian are exported from Barygaza and its inland city of Ozene (Schoff, 1974:49). In this regard, it is interesting to note that the region around Rajpipla is known for its rich deposits of these semiprecious stones right from the early times till today.

**Copper**

Copper was widely used indigenously and also exported to the outside world. Kautilya points out that the Superintendent of metals was specially
directed to supervise the mining of copper coins and manufacture of copper articles (Kangle, 1969:57). The Periplus has testified to the ancient export trade in copper. It mentions that large vessels loaded with copper ore sailed from Barygaza to Apologus and Omana (Schoff, 1974:39). Likewise, Pliny records that Carmania Indian copper was exported to the ports of Persian Gulf and the Red Sea coast (Rockhem, 1942:126). Periplus also mentions that copper was brought to Barygaza from Egypt to be reshipped to the ports of Persian Gulf (Schoff, 1974: 49-56). This could mean that copper was monopolized by Indian traders. It was usually smelted in Rajputana, South India and Gadhwal in North India.

Iron

Iron was known as Krishnāyas in ancient Indian literature and was widely used. It was also used as a medicine in ancient India. Kautilya mentions about the different tools, implements and weapons made of iron. The Periplus speaks of Indian iron and steel, made into swords and spears. It was exported from Ariaca (Schoff, 1974:6). The Acumites imported iron from India and kept its secret from the Romans, without disclosing its origin (Warmington, 1974:257-58). Pliny speaks of iron as most useful and most fatal of weapon in the hands of man. It was produced in south (Cheras) and brought to Northern India (Punjab) and Persia to be made into steel (Rockhem, 1942:39-46). Likewise, Kalidāsa describes vividly how iron implements were hammered out. He says iron was first heated and then given
various shapes (Velankar, 1948:33). The iron implements unearthed from the excavation conducted at most of the Megalithic and Early Historic sites proved the high manufacturing technique known to the people of ancient India.

Ivory

Ivory was one of the most important articles of trade between the east and the west. It was an item of luxury for the rich. The Greek term for ivory is elephas and may be taken to be derived from the Sanskrit word ibha meaning elephant and this may suggest that the export of ivory to the Greeks in high quantity. India supplied ivory to Rome as the Periplus mentions its supply from the districts of Ariaca (Andhra), Ozene (Ujjain), Dosarene (Orissa) and Ganges. Thus Barygaza (Broach), Muzris (Kottayam) and Nelcynda (Kodungaloor) on the west coast and Dosarene (Dasarna Orissa) on the east coast exported ivory to the foreign countries. Dosarene was the capital of Kalinga, and had a flourishing industry of ivory (Schoff, 1974:62). Enormous quantity of Indian ivory was exhibited by Antiochus IV in his triumph at Daphne in 166 A.D. (Tarn, 1951:366). Pliny while giving information on ivory mentions that Indian ivory continued to reach Aegean till Ptolemy II threw enough African ivory into the market to break the price and secure the trade for himself. He also speaks of an ample supply of tusks to Rome from India as Indian elephants were larger in size and the tusks fetch a great price and supply very elegant material for the images
of Gods (Rockhem, 1942:4). We have an example of ivory statue of Goddess Lakshmi found from the ruins of Ur (Wheeler, 1954). An ivory dice of the peculiar elongated shape, still popular in India was discovered from the ruined sites of Khotan and hence we may infer that ivory die was exported from India to Khotan (Stein, 1907: 386). Kālidāsa refers to the works of ivory in Raghuvamśa (Velankar, 1948:72,21). Four ivory seals discovered at Bhita are believed to be the products of the Gupta period by Marshall (Indian Archaeological - A Review, 1911:12,48). Emphasizing the importance of elephants, the Brihat Samhīta states that the value of elephants are determined by the amount of ivory they have (Dvivedi, 1895:8). Thus ivory fetched high value to the Indian traders when exported to other countries.

**Wool**

Wool was one of the valuable items of commerce. Manu assigns it as the material of the sacrificial thread of the Vaisyas and hence it was one of the important commodities for the merchant community. Trading of wool maintained an important position from ancient times. The best wool even today comes from Punjab, frontier provinces in the Himalayas, Western India and Deccan. The Periplus makes no reference of wool export.

**Tortoise Shell and Pearls**

Next to ivory, the article of luxury and decoration were pearls, tortoise shell and lac. The Periplus mentions about the export of tortoise
shell was from Bacare, Nelcynda, etc. (Schoff, 1974:63-65). Pearls came in general use in Rome after the surrender of Alexandria and was exported through the Indian ocean (Rockhem, 1942:1,4). Roman trade of pearls multiplied to a great extent after the discovery of the trade winds. As a result there was a great demand for pearls by the Greeks and the Romans to fulfill their likings for adorning themselves. Pliny also laments the use of pearls and indignantly condemned this unnecessary use of luxury which cost Rome so much and heavily drained off the wealth of Rome by paying in gold to the Indians.

**CHIEF COMMODITIES OF IMPORTS**

The export and import of commodities are two important facets of trade. Here a brief study has been undertaken on the important articles of import, which travelled in various inland trading centres of India through the ports of Western coast.

**Wine**

The practice of distilling wine dates back to the Vedic period. The Charaka Samhita and Suśruta Samhita mentions all types of wine which act as mild purgatives, appetising and subdue the deranged vāyu and kapha. They mention wine prepared from grapes, raisins and dates. Sura was paste of
rise, barley, sugarcane and treacle. The plants from which Sura was made as a by product were grown in plenty in India during this period (Kaviraj, 1929:173-174,193). The process of distillation was known to the ancient Indians. Sura was an intoxicating drink extracted from the Soma plants of the Himalayas and used in the Vedic sacrifices. Whereas the Trattiriya Brāhmaṇa speaks of Sura and its preparation (Godbole, 1934). From Pāṇini's Ashtadhyāyi, we come to know of Kapisa becoming reputed for its grapes and wine. Kautilya also speaks of different sort of liquor particularly Kapisa Sura (Kangle, 1969:120). Kālidāsa in his works, mentions about wine and wine shops. Hence, we may assume that India produced wine which gave a very lucrative profession both to the producer and the seller, but since the wine produced in West became popular and the demand for wine increased in India, import of wine increased. Periplus speaks of Arabian wine at Muzris and country around it produces a great deal of wine of grapes (Schoff, 1974:214). It speaks of wine and a great quantity of dates, exported from Oman and Apologus to Barygaza. Wine imported at Barygaza might have been date wine, as mentioned being imported along with dates. It might have included grape wine also, as the mountaineous regions around Oman produced the muscatal grapes. The Periplus tells about the Italian and Laodician wines were exported into Barbaricum (39), Barygaza (49), Muzris and Nelcynda (56). It mentions that Italian wine was preferred by the Indians among others (Schoff, 1974: 36-56). Pliny describes in detail of different qualities of wine made in different parts of Europe and mentions that the wine made of date and palm was used by the Parthians and Indians (Rockhem, 1942:54-121). Excavations at Dwarka and Devnimori has revealed that the
bottom of Roman amphoras have resinous segmentation or substance. Thus foreign wine was much in demand in India. Along with locally produced wine, people used to consume the imported wines as fashion and luxury.

**Sorax**

Sorax was used for medicinal purposes. It was locally used at Arabia as a means of protecting the gatherers of frankincense from the serpents around the trees. The Periplus in his work mentions that sorax was imported from Egypt to Cana then to Barygaza and Barbaricum. It further records that sorax were made into types of ointment and imported to Barygaza. The most ordinary one was not very costly and the second one, on the other hand, was the choicest ointment brought for the king, which was very costly (Schoff, 1974:49). Its medicinal use is further highlighted by Pliny, who records the use of sorax in making of regal ointment for the Parthian Kings (Rockhem, 1942:2). It was also used in Malay Archipelago yielding true Benzoin or Gum Benjamine of commerce. It is highly possible that India imported sorax from the Far East which was commercially connected with India.

**Frankincense**

It is also used for medicinal purposes. It was used externally in carbuncles, blind boils, gangrenous sores and also as an internal agent in
cases of gonorrhoea. Periplus mentions that ships returning from Damirica and Barygaza used to exchange cloth, wheat, and sesame oil for frankincense. Such exchange was mostly carried out with the King's officers (Schoff, 1974:27).

**Sweet Clove**

It is the melitole of the Greeks and the Romans used for making of chaplets and perfumes and also of medicines. The Periplus mentions of its import to Barygaza for its being manufactured into chaplets by Indian artisans only, to be reshipped to Rome where it was sold in high price (Schoff, 1974:190). Pliny on mentioning sweet clove says that it was grown in Campania, Greece and Crete. It was used in making chaplets and medicines in the Roman World (Rockhem, 1942:10-29).

**Gold**

Gold is used for number of useful purposes such as medicinal, ornamental and for minting of high grade coins. For medicinal use, Suśruta speaks of gold as a sweet and agreeable taste, acts as a tonic or restorative elixir. It is cooling and antitoxic in its potency and invigorates the eye sight (Kaviraj, 1907). Siberia was the main source of supply of gold. The Mahābhārata speaks of Paippilika i.e. ant gold
Siromani, 1905: 50). Tarn explains that this gold actually was from Siberia and ant gold was the name given by those middlemen who carried out trade in gold. They purposely changed the name as they did not want that the clients should know the real source of supply of gold. India had little of gold of her own and had to import it from outside. The Periplus speaks of import of gold from Omana and Apologus to Barygaza. It records further that silver and gold plates were imported to Barbaricum where as silver and gold coins were imported to Barygaza. The Periplus further gives importance to the sources of gold mines and says that it was obtained near Ganges (Schoff, 1974:36, 49, 63). Since gold was found megre to meet the requirements of the Indians, it was imported mostly in the form of bullions and coins from the Roman world. The Byzantine gold coins found from Nani Rayan (Mandvi) also explains about the import of gold during the period under review (Vasa, 1991).

**Topaz and Antimony**

Topaz is mentioned in the list of gems in Brihat Samhita (Dvivedi, 1895:2) and in Raghuvamsa (Velankar, 1948). The Periplus mentions, the import of Topaz at Barbaricum, Barygaza, Muzris and Nelcynda (Schoff, 1974:39-56). Antimony is a sulfide ore. It comes from Eastern Arabia and Carmania. It was imported at Barygaza, Muzris and Nelcynda (Schoff, 1974:49). Pliny describes it as found in silver mines. It is a stone made of concrete forth white and shinning (Rockhem, 1942). Its principle use was in medicine for eyes and painting eyebrows.
Glass

Glass was imported from Italy, Syria, Egypt and Tyre to the port of Barbaricum as vessels and as crude glass at Barygaza (Schoff, 1974). Pliny explains that glass making industry originated at Phoenesia and the sands of river Belus was used for this purpose. The looking glass was widely manufactured in India and used as an article of toilet. In the Ajanta frescos, we come across a variety of such glasses. The Brihat Samhita mentions trade in glasses and uses of mirror (Dvivedi, 1895:2,57). The glass beads of Roman types were unearthed from the sites of Nagara and Dwarka in Gujarat and from Bhokardan, Brahmapuri and Adam in Maharashtra, does suggest the import of glass in Western India.

Silver Realgar and Coral

Silver was imported to Barbaricum and silver coins to Barygaza from the European countries.

Realgar was mainly found in Persia and Carmania and imported to Barygaza and Muzris (Schoff, 1974:49-56).

Coral were highly prized in India. Corals were imported in large number which even caused scarcity in the place of its production. Corals were exchanged with pearls in India (Rockhem, 1942). Periplus refers to the import of corals at Barbaricum, Barygaza and at Muzris (Schoff, 1974:39-56).
Slaves

The sale of slaves took place as a result of the capture of cities of other military operations. There was a systematic slave trade in Greece, Syria, Lydia, Pontus and Thrace. These places were the main source of supply of slaves to India. Besides these, Egypt, Ethiopia and Italy also supplied slaves to the Asian countries. The Greece slaves were much in demand and supplied to the petty Eastern princes with courtesans and female musicians and dancers. Athens was an important slave market, but the principle marts were Cyprus, Samos and Chios. Thus slave trade occupied almost an important position among imports. Strabo mentions that at the end of the second century B.C., Eudorvas who wanted to discover the Cape route to India, was principally motivated by the desire to bring some singing or flute girls to India for her princes (Jones, 1917:512). He also refers about the female guards protecting Chandragupta Maurya, most of whom were imported from outside (Jones, 1917:106). Kālidāsa in his work Šakuntalā confirms that the appointment of Yavana female slaves in the services of the Indian kings (Acharya, 1974). When the Romans overthrew the Greeks in the late second century B.C., it could have been possible that the Greeks surrendered themselves in the slave markets. Periplus also makes a reference of the import of slaves from Omana to Barygaza (Schoff, 1974:4,36). Referring to the foreign kepts maintained by the Indian kings, the Periplus talks of the beautiful maidens for the harem of the kings (Schoff, 1974:49). The abundance of this import trade in the first two centuries of the era is very conclusively proved by the unparalleled
example of the slave known as Agesilas, who was the architect of the Stupa of Kanishka in Taxila, and who was responsible for the workmanship of the relic casket. This has been verified by Tarn, as a slave brought from Greece in the courts of Kanishka (Tarn, 1951:35).

Thus from the above list, it becomes quite evident that variety of raw material and finished products were quite in demand in the other countries. They imported them in huge quantities to meet their various requirements. India profited much from external trade where in exchange of goods, it got back gold coins in return. This was the reason for its prosperity during this period.

**ANTIQUITIES INDICATING FOREIGN TRADE**

The antiquities unearthed in excavations found at various sites of this region will help us to understand the trade activity. By studying the antiquities in detail, we can connect the import and export pattern of trade and other activities carried out in this region by the Indian and the foreign traders. India's relation with other countries have been referred by the classical authors in ancient literature and archaeological finds has confirmed these commercial contacts.

**Pottery**

Pottery is not purely domestic utensil but they certainly have a commercial importance. It has the durability and preserves under certain
favourable conditions for a long time. The countless potsherds found in excavations is valuable in knowing the stratigraphical sequence and material culture of any site. By studying pottery of foreign origin, we can understand India's trade relation with other countries. The discovery of Roman potsherds from a number of excavated sites, corroborate what the literature of that period speaks about India's foreign trade. The potsherds from the sites of Western India are of many types and provide conclusive evidence of direct cultural contacts with the Western World.

Amphorae

Amphorae (Fig. 2) was usually used to contain, carry and preserve the wine by the Italians. It was used for export and import of liquor. This pottery has a long cylindrical body with a painted base, a narrow neck and handles. A tripod was also used for putting them in position when it meant for transportation. Its use was very extensive in Roman period and at Porta-del-Popolo and Pompeii, they are found in large numbers. Several sites in Western and Southern India have yielded fragments of amphorae and they range from creamy yellow to light brown colour and show a mixture of very fine sandy clay.

The chief varieties of Roman pottery were used in the trade of the period. Besides these, there were some local wares also, which developed as a result of Roman influence in the Indian cultural life due to to the
settlements of Roman merchants in different Indian trading centres and stations. It became very popular among the Buddhist monastries as excavation at Devnimori and other sites clearly suggests (Mehta and Chaudhary, 1966). The flagon of wine held by a foreign lady as depicted on the ceiling of Cave No. 1 at Ajanta suggests that it was quite popular type of pottery among the Indians during those times. Several sherds of amphorae has been found from different sites of Western India like Devnimori, Dwarka, Akota, Prabhas Patan, Nagara, Shamlaji, Timbarva, Dhatva, Ajabpura, Nani Rayan, Vallabhi, etc. (Map VII) in Gujarat and Bhokardana, Brahmapuri, Adam, Ter, Nevasa, Sopara, Paithan, Paunar, Junnar, etc. in Maharashtra.

Red Polished Ware

The Red Polished Ware (Fig. 3) is made from fine, well levigated clay, is evenly fired and has a smooth slipped surface which is highly burnished. It is generally red in colour. Decorations are rare in Red Polished Ware, but if they appear, they are simple black painted lines, incisions, modelling and fingerprints. Its greatest concentration and a variety of shapes occur in the region of Gujarat, Maharashtra and sites of North Western region. It appears in strata dated from first century B.C. to the fifth century A.D. It has been found in the context of Early Historic period, a time of sustained contact with the Mediterranean World and a period of great increase in the number of settlements in Western India. The shapes include the sprinklers and globular jars with beaded interior
ledges, jars, bowls, ring bases, simple cups, etc. Evidence from Indian sites shows that Red Polished ware belongs mainly to the first three centuries A.D. Most of the findspots of Red Polished Ware are in Gujarat and Maharashtra (Singh, 1980).

The excavations carried out at Devnimori, Akota, Shamlaji Nagara, Dwarka, Amreli, Prabhas Patan, Timberva, etc. (Map VIII) in Gujarat and Bhokardana, Brahmapuri, Nevasa, Adam, Paunar, Paithan, Sopara, Kaundanyapur, etc. in Maharashtra has revealed the sherds of Red Polished Ware in large number. Besides these, it has been reported from several explored sites of Early Historical period.

**Arretine Ware**

Arretine sherds are soft smooth, and delicate red glazed ware with shades varying from red to yellow, red with lustre revealing sealing wax. This ware can nearly be distinguished from the local products. The fabric is fairly pale and light in weight and the vessels are generally thin walled. Few fragments were found in the Western province and at Arikamedu, certainly indicating the trade connection with the Roman world. Sherds of this ware were found from Devnimori and Akota in Gujarat and few sites of Maharashtra. This ware could have been imported to India in small quantities.
**Rouletted Ware**

The technique of impressed decorations applied during the Hellenistic period gave rise to rouletted decorations which was done by revolving a toothed wheel on a wet surface of the pot and producing symmetrical picked decorations (Despande, 1969, 276). The Rouletted Ware were definitely preceded and outlasted the Arretine Ware by an appreciable margin. The rouletted designs consists of minute triangles, diamonds, parallelograms, wedged or upright crescents, ovals or dots or an eye shaped device. The use of triangles in designs is very common. Rouletted Ware is carefully potted on a quick wheel from a fine levigated clay which burned grey or more often, greyish pink. The grey colour being, due to the reducing condition under which the pot was fired. Before firing, it was usually treated inside and outside with a slip which was subjected to an inverted firing, turned black inside and showed varigated shades of grey, black, yellow or brown outside (Wheeler, 1911: No. 2). Rouletted sherds have been reported in India from a number of sites which were actively engaged in the trade affairs with the Roman world. From the Western region, it has been found at Nasik, Jorwe, Nevasa and Ter.

**N.B.P.W.**

The Northern Black Polished ware has distinctively lustrous surface, fine fabric and thin section. It is also manufactured in various shades like steel blue, silvery, golden, pinkish and brown black. It is potted on
a fast spinning wheel. The pottery sometimes show paintings and incised designs on them. It has been found from a very large number of sites of the Indian subcontinent. It has been found at Taxila in north, Somnath in west, Sisupalgarh in the south-east and Tamluk in the east. From Gujarat it has been reported from Somnath, Nagara and Timbarva. These sherds were very few in number, which suggests that these pots were brought from other sites to import some goods in this region. Moreover, the black gloss shows a close resemblance to the Greek Black Ware. Both have some sort of affinity with each other. It must have been highly prized commodity as some riveted pots have been found. The shapes found are bowls, dishes, handies and jars. Other shapes include lid, tumbler, vessels with stand-base and spout which would have been luted to the jars. Thus N.B.P.W. represents the technological skill of early Indian potters at its best.

On exploration at the Gohilvada Timba, near Amreli, many inscribed pot sherds giving names of some individuals or localities from which they hailed were found. These might have belonged to some Buddhist monks and have been assigned to Maitraka period. Similar type of potsherds of huge earthen pot were discovered from Vallabhipur, belonging to the times of Guhasena (Majmudar, 1960: 197).

**Coins**

The period under review was the period of brisk commercial activities between India and the outside world. Since India had favourable trade
balance during this period, the foreign currency flowed into the country in exchange of goods. The coins became prominent in Indian trade with brisk commercial activities with the other countries especially Rome.

The silver and copper coins of Indo-Greeks found in Gujarat suggests that they were used as the currency of the province.

The silver coins of Eukratides were very small, weighing five to seven grams, were found from Gondal and Junagarh. The coins of Menander were found at Broach and Junagarh. The Periplus writes that upto the present day (1st Century A.D.), old drachmae bearing the Greek inscriptions of Apollodotus and Menander are current in Barygaza (Schoff, 1974). The silver coins are found in round drachmae, where as the copper coins were found in round and square shape. The coins were bilingual, the legend being written in both Greek and Kharosthi (Majmudar, 1960). The obverse of the coins contained the bust of the king and the reverse carried the figures of Greek Gods and Goddesses.

The Roman coins (Fig. 4) have been discovered in different parts of India and these might have travelled either by trade or transaction. Commercial activities between the two countries must have paved the way for their circulation. Tiberuis, Roman Emperor (A.D. 14-37) wrote to Roman Senate in A.D. 22 that the empire was being drained of its treasure which was being sent to foreign land in exchange of baubles (Singh, 1988:101). Pliny also complained about the drain of wealth amounting to no less than
55 crores restertins that flowed every year from Rome to India to pay for the Indian products which were sold at fully one hundred times their original cost (Rockhem, 1942:25). A large number of Roman coins of gold and silver found in South India testify to a highly flourishing trade between India and Rome. Of a total of 68 hoards, 57 are found in the south of the Vindhyas. Rarity of the Roman coins in north India is due to the fact that most of these coins were melted and were re-struck by the Kushana rulers (Singh, 1988:100). The Roman coins found in India indicate the prosperity and economic stability of India. Most of the Roman coins have been found during the time of Emperor Augustus to Nero (Allen, 1936:47). Six finds of coins exclusively of Augustus period are on record. The expansion of Roman contacts during the reign of Tiberius is borne out from the five finds which contain exclusively coins of Tiberius. The commercial activity continued during the time of Nero where four finds have been found. The finds of the Roman coins, thus indicate that the Roman trade in the first century were brisk in India and the entire peninsula was buzzing with the activities of the Roman merchants.

This fact is attested by the discovery of Roman coins from Gujarat. Of these a gold auries coin found from Nagdhara village situated in Jalalpur taluka of Surat district belongs to Lucius Verus. Besides these two silver coins of Tiberius and a number of copper coins of this period were discovered from various sites of Western India. Copper coins are generally known as follis. They functioned as double denarius piece. These coins are broad, but it silver coated thin pieces of copper (Srinivasan, 1989:100).
From, Sholapur district of Maharashtra also, 18 aura were found, which, included Antonius Pins, Lucius, Verus, Serverus and Geta (Singh, 1988:103).

Caṅśana, founded the royal family of the Western Kṣatrapas, known as the Kardama family. Caṅśana struck coins in silver both as Kṣatrapa and as Mahākṣatrapa. The full legend appears only in Brahmi, while, the Kharosthi legend consisted of only king's name. The Kshaharata family of the later Kṣatrapa dynasty mostly issued silver coins. The silver coins were apparently imitated, with regard to their size, weight and fabric, from the hemi-drachums of the Indo Greek kings. In this respect, they set a standard which was followed by the Western Kṣatrapas for some two hundred and seventy years. This standard was also followed by the Guptas and the Traikutakas. Moreover, they followed the Roman denarii, on the obverse as the head of the king, which became a permanent feature. The large hoard of Nahāpāna's coins were found at Nasik district, shows how Gautamiputra captured the Kṣatrap's treasury and restruct the latter's coins for recirculation (Majumdar, 1960:182). Coins of Sātavahanas were obtained from Malwa on one side and South Gujarat, (Karvan) on the other. A few coins are also reported to have been found from Anand and Sidhpur. The Kṣatrapa coins of the Kshaharata family are known from the number of hoards found in Gujarat. From Junagarh hoard - 520 coins of various kings of this family were found, Kutch hoard - 142 coins, Junagarh hoard - 1144 coins, Vasoj (Junagarh) hoard - 591 coins and from Baroda hoard - 1878 coins of this family were found. Along with the silver and copper, square lead coins, were also issued during this period. Iśvaradatta (Abhira King) issued
similar coins as those of Western Kshatrapas, with bust of the king and probably dates in numerals. These coins were found along with coins of Western Kshatrapas in the hoards of Uparkot (Junagarh), Sonepur and Sarvania (Majumdar, 1960:103).

A coin of Wima Kadphises (c. 40-78 A.D.) of the Kuśāna dynasty was also found from Karvan. Two gold coins of later Byzantine Solidus and the other is a Dinara of the period of the Umaiyyad Khalifa of Arabia was found from a river port called Nani Ryan in Mandvi Taluka of Kutch. These coins were brought down by the traders exchanging goods in this region. The late Byzantine coins were occasionally found in South India. The Byzantine coins are dated to 610-41 A.D. of the time of Heraclius. The other coin of Umaiyyad Khalifas of Damascus (688 A.D.) adopted and adapted the Byzantine administration. So this coin was brought by the Arab traders (Vasa, 31). The Gupta coinage adopted many of the existing details of the Kshatrapa coins with slight modification. The Graeco-Roman characters of their obverse legends which after being used for a short period to transliterate the Brahmi and Kharosthi legend of the reverse, degenerates into a sort of ornamental traces, which remained in the silver coins of the Guptas. A large series of silver-plated Gupta coins with a copper core has been found around the site of the ancient Vallabhi. The Bull types are found in Saurashtra, and probably belong to the region around Vallabhi. A hoard of 2000 silver coins of Kumāragupta I was found from Amreli excavation (Shastri, 1936-37: 8), and another hoard of 200 silver coins was accidentally unearthed at Anand. Silver coins also have been found from Bhuj, Bhavnagar,
Ahmedabad and Sanand. Gold coins of Gupta dynasty are extremely rare in Gujarat and its adjoining regions. Some Gupta gold coins are found in village Kumarkha in Viramgaon Taluka of Ahmedabad District (Majmudar, 1960).

Traikutakas issued silver coins of the types of the Western Kshatrapas. They bear on the obverse the bust of the king facing right surrounded by Graeco-Roman characters, which are obscure, as on the later Western Kshatrapas. These coins were found in southern Gujarat, Konkan and the interior parts of Maharashtra. Majority of these coins belonged to the period of Dahrasen and Vyāgrahasena.

Coins of the Kalachuri King Kṛṣnaraja, the father of Śankargana, are known from the Gujarat area. These coins are in the same tradition of the Western Kṣatrapas, having the head of the king on the observe, and a seated bull on a platform as the central device on the reverse. The coins of Maitrakas are found mainly in silver. These coins continued the traditions of the Western Kshatrapas. The coins from Vallabhi are perfect imitations of later Gupta coins. the Maitrakas introduced a new device of their own having trident in the middle. These trident type of coins resembled the coins of Kshatrapa dynasty.

Bullae

Several excavation reports have given information of clay bullae. It was an imitation of the Roman coins and the people used it as an ornament.
Brahmapuri has yielded a Roman clay bullae along with other significant finds from the site. It bears the head of the Emperor in low relief facing right with a marginal legend on both the sides of the figure. Finger-prints on the reverse suggest that possibly it was taken from a mould. Karad near Kolhapur also yielded similar type of medallion. Bhokardana and Nevasa also revealed several bullae imitated from aurii or denarii. It definitely suggests to the fact that this region had cultural contacts with the Classical World during early Christian era (Sankalia, 1952).

Seals

From the excavation carried out at Vadnagar two sealings were unearthed. One of them was inscribed, while the other had an impression of the right profile of some individual. He had rather plain coiffeur gathered up in a bun at the back, acqualine nose and almost triangular bust. The figure held in its hand possibly a flower with petals. It could also be a wine glass held to drink. The delineation of this figure is rather un-Indian and looks like an imitation possibly of some Roman figure. Many of the clay seals of Maitraka times have been found from Vallabhi, Amreli and Kampilya Vihāra near Navsari. These inscribed seals have the king's name on the reverse and were used in import of goods. These seals were obviously religious signets of the Buddhists. They were circular and tablet like shape, and were of the size of fifty paise (Fig. 5). The two clay seals found at Akota, struck from the same die is worth noting here. It did not
seem to be a cast of any gem, because one of them bears marks of the string over which the seal was impressed on clay affixed over it. The other was a rounded lump of clay. Hence it was a seal attached to some document or packet. It belongs to Early Kshatrapa period. The seals depicted two prancing horses or bull probably fighting or in romantic posture with a star on top and a straight line below. The whole design had been done in half relief. The great vigour and the realistic nature of the representation spoke highly of the art (Subbarao, 1953).

From the style as well as the associations, they seemed to be Graeco-Roman objects imported to Akota. Similar types of seals of Graeco-Roman character had also been found from Khotan (Stein, 1907).

OTHER FOREIGN ANTIQUITIES FROM GUJARAT

The other foreign antiquities found in this region are important as they provide a solid evidence of the cultural contact with other countries. Though they are very few in number, they shows some kind of exchange activity.

Atlas

A bronze Atlas (Fig. 6) with a height of 27.5 cm. of late Kushana period was unearthed from Shamlaji, the archaeological site near the well
known centre of Devnimori in the Sabarkantha District of Gujarat. It represents a direct descendent of Gandharan Atlantes in schist or sutcco. This unusual find adds a great deal to our knowledge of metal sculpture of this period. It could have been possible that the figure was cast somewhere in Gandhara region and then imported to Gujarat. The depiction of the figure, however is slightly different from most of the Gandharan Atlas, which balance on one knee. Here both knees are firmly placed on the ground. His muscular arms are placed against the thighs, and massive chest, the thighs and the figure leans forward. The posture indeed implies that the figure was meant to serve the function of an Atlas. He is semi-nude, except for the loin cloth like those often found on Gandharan images. Stylistically it resembled very much with the other Atlantic of the Gandhara region. The technique shows both sophistication and mastery in this medium (Stanislaw, 1986:185).

**Pottery Handles**

Pottery handles with human figurines were discovered from the sites of Gujarat. These handles were made of Red Polished Ware. The idea of decorating pottery handles and spouts with human figures appears to have become popular among Indian potters during the first centuries of Christian era, as a result of brisk trade with Western world. The Graeco-Roman metal pots and ceramics possibly inspired the Indians to prepare handles and spouts in ceramics, according to the art trends prevalent in India. Some of
the terracotta spouts bearing heads were recovered from excavated sites of Somnath and Amreli and of explored sites of Jamnagar District from the villages of Khakharda and Chachlana. Of these the (Fig. 7A) terracotta found from Khakharda was a fragment of a spout with angular mouth. The figure has a oval face. The hair is protruded on the forehead forming three distinct fascinating locks curled inwards. It wears a catula mark on almost vertical forehead. The upper portion is carved with rectangular cap-like device which was most probably made for the mouth of the spout. Equally important evidence of a terracotta female head comes from the Chachlana village (Fig. 7B) is a lug and almost triangular in shape. The lug is artistic by modelling and has a beautiful human face, probably of a lady. The upper part and the back portion of head is preserved, because this part was possibly attached to the main body of the pot. The back and upper portion of the figure is black in colour and while the lower portion has a red colour and this possibly is caused due to black and red nature of the pot. It also seems to have been separately prepared and then luted to the main body of the pot. It is a face of a youthful lady, with oval features and probably with long hair. A decorated fillet band is tied on the head, over the vertical forehead, which is decorated with vertical incised lines and parallel bands (Bhan, 1984). The fragments from Somnath showed a standing headless lady with folded hands, cloth draped around her waist. Besides this three headless nude female figurines were recovered from Amreli. One of the figures had a girdle tied around her waist, while the second one depicts a lady in abhaṅga pose. The third figurine cannot be studied properly because of its bad state of preservation (Agrawal and
Devalkar, 1907:9). Exploration and excavation in different parts of Rajasthan has thrown welcome light on the art of modelling human figurines in ceramics. R. C. Agrawal in his careful study of these pottery handles and spouts in Kaoline presented a very interesting iconographic account. The ancient sites of Rairh, Nagar and Sambhar have yielded valuable ceramic handles and spouts. The figurine from Khakharda greatly resembles the Surahi handles found from Sambhar near Jaipur.

Cameo

A Cameo (Fig. 8) of the Hellenistic-Roman style was a chance discovery from Karvan. The Cameo is of semirectangular piece with rounded corner, was made of transparent chalcedony. The bust is in profile. It is of an unknown Roman lady, executed skillfully with minor details. The hair appears short in the front, while the locks on the back are longer. The ear of the figurine is covered with the lock of hair, which gather in a stylistic hair style as seen in the other Graeco-Roman figurines. The typical toga type of costume of the Greeks is gathered on left shoulder in a ring, expanding towards the shoulder and torso, lends to charming appearance. The sharp features of her face resemble closely with the other figurines of the Hellenistic period. This is dated to early centuries of Christian era. The art of cutting hard stones for seals was known to the world from the ancient period, but it seems that during the Hellenistic period, the art of making cameos was very popular with the aristocracy. The cameos are seen in
Egypt during the period of the Ptolemies and other dynasties. The excellent execution of the Karvan Cameo shows the period of fine craftsmanship, in the early centuries of Christian era (Mehta, 1951). Another Cameo was found from the surface collection in Vallabhipur. It resembles the Cameo from Karvan and with sharp features looks like a face of a man.

**Porcelain**

Another important antiquity was a beautiful Roman porcelain found from Karvan. The upper portion of the porcelain is lost. It is the typical Roman amphorae type, but with a broad base, having two handles on either side of its neck. On one side, it has floral design, while on the other, it has abstract and symbolic designs, where two men are seated facing each other. These type of amphorae are also found from Arikamedu and in bronze from Kolhapur and Brahmagiri. Besides this, a small cubic bottle of devitrified glass, with stylized arabesque has been obtained from surface at Karvan. It has similarity with the philas from Egypt.

**Bronze Handle**

Pots with a trefoil mouth specially ononocheos, are common in Greek and Roman ceramic and bronzes, and the fragments of the similar small bronze jug, probably likewise of Indian provenance is posed in Baroda
museum (Fig. 9A). However, what gives to the fragments a special interest is the relief of the handle (5.5 inch long). It represents a boy sitting on a bench almost looking like a plough share, and holding with both hands a rod emerging from rectangular hole in the bench (Fig. 9B). This boy can be interpreted as Eros posing as an oarsman on a Roman Trireme. Eros been favourite subject of Hellenistic art and is represented playing with tools of different proportion of such as standing under the special protection of the mother Aphrodite had been the "foam born" of the sea. She was the venus star, guide of the navigators. Eros as an oarsman points towards the cult of Aphrodite as patron of the Roman ships coming to India. Thus Eros in India has the same relationship with the east-western sea trade with Lakshmi in Italy. As the trade cannot be of later period and is dated to early 2nd Century A.D. This handle with Eros and several pieces of bronze trefoil mouth of a amphorae which is badly oxidised has been recovered from Akota (Desai, 1960).

Gold Ring

A ruby studded gold ring (Fig. 10A) has been unearthed from the excavations at Vallabhipur. The most interesting thing is its engravings. The figure engraved is not much clear but it probably represents an animal (Fig. 10B). It can also be a figure of Therio-Anthropomorph representing half-man half-animal (horse) and on his right hand, he is holding a bow and an arrow. There is a flag sort of thing on his head. If this figure is to
be of Therio-Anthropomorph, then this figure is also found on the seals of Indus which was compared with Gelgamish of Mesopotamia civilization. Gelgamish are half-man half-animal God who fought the demons to save the people. It was used in religious context by the Mesopotamians (Thapliyal, 1974).

This figure has the stylistic features of the Graeco-Roman art. The ring must have been brought to India as a gift, as it is found only of its kind in this region. It belongs to the Maitraka period of late sixth century A.D.

**Architectural Motifs**

Architecture creates opportunity for other visual arts like sculpture and paintings. The Buddhists at Devnimori adorned edifices like Mahastupa. Here they have followed the traditions inherited from their predecessors of Gandhara art, which in turn had borrowed, adopted and Indianised the Graeco-Roman art of the ancient occident.

The basic elements which comprised the bulk of various motifs of Devnimori, can be classified into two main divisions: natural and artificial. The natural motifs were plants, animals and human figures. The artificial motifs included geometric designs and imaginations. Among the floral motifs acanthus, olive and laurel leaves were used for decorative purposes. These three types of leaves are most common in Graeco-Roman and its allied arts. Its frequent and varied application in Corinthian Order in
Greek and Roman art is well known. Their typical serrated form which provides a wide range of ornamental possibilities seems to be the main reason for its popularity. The artistic compositions of Greek art were adopted by the Romans.

The human figures were totally Indianized. Some figures were attached to the jamb of a semi-circular silted arch, hence it can be assumed that human figures were employed as free ornaments also. Similar figures on a full repose use also found from Taxila. The grotesque face of the figures are depicted on the plain surface of square bricks. These bricks are of similar kind found at Mirpur-Khas, studded on the face of the structure under round moulding and formed a part of decoration.

The use of animal figures in natural and idealized forms is less frequent than that of floral decoration. The majestic compact proportion, muscular build, was common decorative devise in Assyrian, Egyptian, Greek and Roman architecture. The artificial motifs like the bead and reel moulds were deformed compared to their original Graeco-Roman art.

The most noteworthy are the images of Buddha with idealistic features are the prototype of the Graeco-Roman images in Gandhara (Mehta and Chaudhari, 1966).

The very organisation of export and imports of articles carried out in Western India serves as the yardstick of economic activities of this area. The commercial products exchanged and the antiquities unearthed gives strong evidence of trade activity carried out in this region.