THE
VISHNU PURANA:
A SYSTEM
OF
HINDU MYTHOLOGY AND TRADITION.
TRANSLATED
FROM THE ORIGINAL SANSKRIT,
AND,
ILLUSTRATED BY NOTES
DERIVED CHIEFLY FROM OTHER PURANAS,
BY THE LATE
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ETC., ETC.
EDITED BY
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TO

THE CHANCELLOR, MASTERS, AND SCHOLARS

OF

THE UNIVERSITY OF OXFORD,

THIS WORK
IS RESPECTFULLY INSCRIBED BY

H. H. WILSON,

IN TESTIMONY OF HIS VENERATION FOR

THE UNIVERSITY,

AND IN GRATETFUL ACKNOWLEDGMENT OF THE DISTINCTION

CONFERRD UPON HIM

BY HIS ADMISSION AS A MEMBER,

AND HIS ELECTION

TO THE

BODEN PROFESSORSHIP OF THE SANSKRIT LANGUAGE.

OXFORD,
Feb. 10, 1840.
THE literature of the Hindus has now been cultivated, for many years, with singular diligence, and, in many of its branches, with eminent success. There are some departments, however, which are yet but partially and imperfectly investigated; and we are far from being in possession of that knowledge which the authentic writings of the Hindus alone can give us of their religion, mythology, and historical traditions.

From the materials to which we have hitherto had access, it seems probable that there have been three principal forms in which the religion of the Hindus has existed, at as many different periods. The duration of those periods, the circumstances of their succession, and the precise state of the national faith at each season, it is not possible to trace with any approach to accuracy. The premises have been too imperfectly determined to authorize other than conclusions of a general and somewhat vague description; and those remain to be hereafter confirmed, or corrected, by more extensive and satisfactory research.

The earliest form under which the Hindu religion appears is that taught in the Vedas. The style of the language, and the purport of the composition, of those
works, as far as we are acquainted with them, indicate a date long anterior to that of any other class of Sanskrit writings. It is yet, however, scarcely safe to advance an opinion of the precise belief, or philosophy, which they inculcate. To enable us to judge of their tendency, we have only a general sketch of their arrangement and contents, with a few extracts, by Mr. Colebrooke, in the Asiatic Researches;¹ a few incidental observations by Mr. Ellis, in the same miscellany;² and a translation of the first book of the Śāṁhitā, or collection of the prayers of the Rīg-veda, by Dr. Rosen;³ and some of the Upanishads, or speculative treatises, attached to, rather than part of, the Vedas, by Ram-mohan Roy.⁴ Of the religion taught in the Vedas, Mr. Colebrooke’s opinion will probably be received as that which is best entitled to deference; as, certainly, no Sanskrit scholar has been equally conversant with the original works. “The real doctrine of the whole Indian scripture is the unity of the deity, in whom the

³ Published by the Oriental Translation Fund Committee.
⁴ A translation of the principal Upanishads was published, under the title of Oupnekhat, or Theologia Indica, by Anquetil du Perron; but it was made through the medium of the Persian, and is very incorrect and obscure. A translation of a very different character;‡ has been some time in course of preparation by M. Poley.

* To insert here a list of the numerous publications bearing on the Vedas, that have appeared since the date of this preface, 1840, would be beside the purpose of my notes.
‡ The kindness of Professor Wilson here mistook a hope for a reality.
universe is comprehended; and the seeming polytheism which it exhibits offers the elements, and the stars and planets, as gods. The three principal manifestations of the divinity, with other personified attributes and energies, and most of the other gods of Hindu mythology, are, indeed, mentioned, or, at least, indicated, in the Vedas. But the worship of deified heroes is no part of that system; nor are the incarnations of deities suggested in any other portion of the text which I have yet seen; though such are sometimes hinted at by the commentators. Some of these statements may, perhaps, require modification; for, without a careful examination of all the prayers of the Vedas, it would be hazardous to assert that they contain no indication whatever of hero-worship; and, certainly, they do appear to allude, occasionally, to the Avatāras, or incarnations, of Vishnū. Still, however, it is true that the prevailing character of the ritual of the Vedas is the worship of the personified elements; of Agni or fire; Indra, the firmament; Vāyu, the air; Varuṇa, the water; of Áditya, the sun; Soma, the moon; and other elementary and planetary personages. It is also true that the worship of the Vedas is, for the most part, domestic worship, consisting of prayers and oblations offered—in their own houses, not in temples—by individuals, for individual good, and addressed to unreal presences, not to visible types. In a word, the religion of the Vedas was not idolatry.

1 As. Res., Vol. VIII., p. 474.*

* Or Miscellaneous Essays, Vol. I., pp. 110 and 111.
It is not possible to conjecture when this more simple and primitive form of adoration was succeeded by the worship of images and types, representing Brahmá, Vishńu, Śiva, and other imaginary beings, constituting a mythological pantheon of most ample extent; or when Ráma and Kríshńa, who appear to have been, originally, real and historical characters, were elevated to the dignity of divinities. Image-worship is alluded to by Manu, in several passages, but with an intimation that those Brahmans who subsist by ministering in temples are an inferior and degraded class. The story of the Rámáyaña and Mahábhárata turns wholly upon the doctrine of incarnations; all the chief dramatis personæ of the poems being impersonations of gods, and demigods, and celestial spirits. The ritual appears to be that of the Vedas; and it may be doubted if any allusion to image-worship occurs. But the doctrine of propitiation by penance and praise prevails throughout; and Vishńu and Śiva are the especial objects of pænegyric and invocation. In these two works, then, we trace unequivocal indications of a departure from the elemental worship of the Vedas, and the origin or elaboration of legends which form the great body of the mythological religion of the Hindus. How far they only improved upon the cosmogony and chronology of their predecessors, or in what degree the traditions of families and dynasties may originate with them, are questions that can only be determined when the Vedas and the two works in question shall have been more thoroughly examined.

1 B. III., 152, 164. B. IV., 214.
The different works known by the name of Puráñas are evidently derived from the same religious system as the Rámaña and Mahábhárata, or from the mytho-heroic stage of Hindu belief. They present, however, peculiarities which designate their belonging to a later period, and to an important modification in the progress of opinion. They repeat the theoretical cosmogony of the two great poems; they expand and systematize the chronological computations; and they give a more definite and connected representation of the mythological fictions and the historical traditions. But, besides these and other particulars, which may be derivable from an old, if not from a primitive, era, they offer characteristic peculiarities of a more modern description, in the paramount importance which they assign to individual divinities, in the variety and purport of the rites and observances addressed to them, and in the invention of new legends illustrative of the power and graciousness of those deities, and of the efficacy of implicit devotion to them. Śiva and Vishńu, under one or other form, are almost the sole objects that claim the homage of the Hindus, in the Puráñas; departing from the domestic and elemental ritual of the Vedas, and exhibiting a sectarian fervour and exclusiveness not traceable in the Rámaña, and only to a qualified extent in the Mahábhárata. They are no longer authorities for Hindu belief, as a whole: they are special guides for separate and, sometimes, conflicting branches of it; compiled for the evident purpose of promoting the preferential, or, in some cases, the sole, worship of Vishńu, or of Śiva.¹

¹ Besides the three periods marked by the Vedas, Heroic
That the Puráñas always bore the character here given of them may admit of reasonable doubt: that it correctly applies to them as they now are met with, the following pages will irrefragably substantiate. It is possible, however, that there may have been an earlier class of Puráñas, of which those we now have are but the partial and adulterated representatives. The identity of the legends in many of them, and, still more, the identity of the words—for, in several of them, long passages are literally the same—is a sufficient proof that, in all such cases, they must be copied either from some other similar work, or from a common and prior original. It is not unusual, also, for a fact to be stated upon the authority of an 'old stanza', which is cited accordingly; showing the existence of an earlier source of information: and, in very many instances, legends are alluded to, not told; evincing acquaintance with their prior narration somewhere else. The name itself, Puráña, which implies 'old', indicates the object of the compilation to be the preservation of ancient traditions; a purpose, in the present condition of the Puráñas, very imperfectly fulfilled. Whatever weight may be attached to these considerations, there is no disputing evidence to the like effect, afforded by other and unquestionable authority. The description given, by Mr. Colebrooke, of the contents of a Puráña is

Poems, and Puráñas, a fourth may be dated from the influence exercised by the Tantras upon Hindu practice and belief: but we are yet too little acquainted with those works, or their origin, to speculate safely upon their consequences.


* Or Miscellaneous Essays, Vol. II., pp. 4 and 5, foot-note.
taken from Sanskrit writers. The Lexicon of Amara Simha gives, as a synonym of Purâna, Pancha-lakshaṇa, 'that which has five characteristic topics'; and there is no difference of opinion, amongst the scholiasts, as to what these are. They are, as Mr. Colebrooke mentions: I. Primary creation, or cosmogony; II. Secondary creation, or the destruction and renovation of worlds, including chronology; III. Genealogy of gods and patriarchs; IV. Reigns of the Manus, or periods called Manwantaras; and, V. History, or such particulars as have been preserved of the princes of the solar and lunar races, and of their descendants to modern times.¹ Such, at any rate, were the constituent and characteristic portions of a Purâna, in the days of Amara Simha, fifty-six years before the Christian era; † and, if the

¹ The following definition of a Purâna is constantly quoted: it is found in the Vishńu, Matsya, Váyu, and other Purâñas:

सर्गेष प्रतिसर्गेष वंशो मन्वताराष्टिः च

वंशानुवधरः चैव पुराण्य पद्मचरणम् ||

A variation of reading in the beginning of the second line is noticed by Rámáśrama, the scholiast on Amara, मृग्यांतिसंख्याः, 'Destruction of the earth and the rest, or final dissolution;' in which case the genealogies of heroes and princes are comprised in those of the patriarchs.

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† That Amarasimha lived at that time, though possible, has not been proved. Professor Wilson—Sanskrit Dictionary, first edition, Preface, p. v.—asserts that "all tradition concurs in enumerating him amongst the learned men who, in the metaphorical phraseology of the Hindus, are denominated the 'nine gems' of the court of Vikramáditya. • • • Authorities which assert the contemporary existence of Amara and Vikramáditya might be indefinitely multiplied; and those are equally numerous which class him amongst the 'nine gems'." In the second
Purāṇas had undergone no change since his time, such we should expect to find them still. Do they conform

edition of his Dictionary, under the word भवरक, the Professor explains the “nine gems” to be: “The nine men of letters at the court of Vikramāditya, or, Dhanwantari, Kshapaśaka, Amarasiśṭha, Śanku, Vetalabhātta, Ghafakarpura, Kālidāsa, Varahamihira, and Vararuci.” The tradition about these ornaments he thinks — Meghadūta, second edition, Preface, p. v.—to be one of those regarding which “there is no reason to dispute the truth.”

The “authorities” spoken of in the first of the preceding extracts are not specified by Professor Wilson; and they are not known to have fallen yet in the way of any one else. Those authorities apart, he aduces a stanza about the “nine gems”, of which he says, that it “appears in a great measure traditioinary only; as I have not been able to trace it to any authentic source, although it is in the mouth of every Pandit, when interrogated on the subject.”

The stanza in question occurs in the Jyotirvidābhavāya, near its conclusion, where we find the following verses:

रूपं स्मृतिभिचिज्ञारविचित्रकरणे
श्रीभारते स्मृतितस्मितदेशपीठे।

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to this description? Not exactly, in any one instance; to some of them it is utterly inapplicable; to others it only partially applies. There is not one to which it belongs so entirely as to the Vishnú Puráña; and it is one of the circumstances which gives to this work a

Here we see named, as contemporaries at the court of Vikramáditya, lord of Málava, in the year 3068 of the Kali age, or B.C. 33: Mañi, Amsúdatta, Jishnú, Trilochana, and Hari; also Satya, Sutasena, Bádaráyaña, Mañíttha, and Kumárashítha, astronomers; and the "nine gems" already particularized.

The writer of the Jyotirvidábharaña is represented as professing to be one with the author of the Raghuvíśháka. As to Vikramáditya, 180 regions are said to have been subject to his sway. Further, according to some verses of which I have not quoted the original, there were 800 viceroy subordinate to him, of picked warriors he had ten millions, and he possessed 400,000 boats. His victims in battle, among Sákas alone, are multiplied to the whimsical aggregate of 555,555,555. These destroyed, he established his era.

There is every reason for believing the Jyotirvidábharaña to be not only pseudonymous but of recent composition. And now we are prepared to form an opinion touching the credibility of the tradition, so far as yet traced, which concerns the "nine gems" of Vikramáditya.

In the Benares Magazine for 1862, pp. 274-276, I first printed and translated the verses just cited and abstracted. A detailed English version of them has been given by the learned Dr. Bhánu Dáji, in the Journal of the Bombay Branch of the Royal As. Soc., January, 1862, pp. 26 and 27.
more authentic character than most of its fellows can pretend to. Yet, even in this instance, we have a book upon the institutes of society and obsequial rites interposed between the Manwantaras and the genealogies of princes; and a life of Kríshña, separating the latter from an account of the end of the world; besides the insertion of various legends of a manifestly popular and sectarian character. No doubt, many of the Puráñas, as they now are, correspond with the view which Colonel Vans Kennedy takes of their purport. "I cannot discover, in them," he remarks, "any other object than that of religious instruction." "The description of the earth and of the planetary system, and the lists of royal races that occur in them," he asserts to be "evidently extraneous, and not essential circumstances; as they are omitted in some Puráñas; and very concisely illustrated, in others; while, on the contrary, in all the Puráñas, some or other of the leading principles, rites, and observances of the Hindu religion are fully dwelt upon, and illustrated, either by suitable legends, or by prescribing the ceremonies to be practised, and the prayers and invocations to be employed, in the worship of different deities." Now, however accurate this description may be of the Puráñas as they are, it is clear that it does not apply to what they were when they were synonymously designated as Panchalaksana or 'treatises on five topics'; not one of which five is ever specified, by text or comment, to be "religious instruction". In the knowledge of Amara Simha,

1 Researches into the Nature and Affinity of Ancient and Hindu Mythology, p. 153, and note.
the lists of princes were not extraneous and unessential; and their being now so considered by a writer so well acquainted with the contents of the Puráñas as Colonel Vans Kennedy, is a decisive proof that, since the days of the lexicographer, they have undergone some material alteration, and that we have not, at present, the same works, in all respects, that were current, under the denomination of Puráñas, in the century prior to Christianity.

The inference deduced from the discrepancy between the actual form and the older definition of a Puráña, unfavourable to the antiquity of the extant works generally, is converted into certainty, when we come to examine them in detail. For, although they have no dates attached to them, yet circumstances are sometimes mentioned, or alluded to, or references to authorities are made, or legends are narrated, or places are particularized, of which the comparatively recent date is indisputable, and which enforce a corresponding reduction of the antiquity of the work in which they are discovered. At the same time, they may be acquitted of subservience to any but sectarian imposture. They were pious frauds for temporary purposes: they never emanated from any impossible combination of the Brahmans to fabricate for the antiquity of the entire Hindu system any claims which it cannot fully support. A very great portion of the contents of many, some portion of the contents of all, is genuine and old. The sectarian interpolation, or embellishment, is always sufficiently palpable to be set aside without injury to the more authentic and primitive material; and the Puráñas, although they belong especially to that stage
of the Hindu religion in which faith in some one divinity was the prevailing principle, are, also, a valuable record of the form of Hindu belief which came next in order to that of the Vedas; which grafted heroworship upon the simpler ritual of the latter; and which had been adopted, and was extensively, perhaps universally, established in India, at the time of the Greek invasion. The Hercules of the Greek writers was, indubitably, the Balarama of the Hindus; and their notices of Mathurá on the Jumna, and of the kingdom of the Suraseini and the Pandæan country, evidence the prior currency of the traditions which constitute the argument of the Mahábhárata, and which are constantly repeated in the Puráñas, relating to the Páñdava and Yádava races, to Kríshna and his contemporary heroes, and to the dynasties of the solar and lunar kings.

The theogony and cosmogony of the Puráñas may, probably, be traced to the Vedas. They are not, as far as is yet known, described in detail in those works; but they are frequently alluded to, in a strain more or less mystical and obscure, which indicates acquaintance with their existence, and which seems to have supplied the Puráñas with the groundwork of their systems. The scheme of primary or elementary creation they borrow from the Sánkhya philosophy, which is, probably, one of the oldest forms of speculation on man and nature, amongst the Hindus. Agreeably, however, to that part of the Pauránik character which there is reason to suspect of later origin, their inculcation of the worship of a favourite deity, they combine the interposition of a creator with the independent evolu-
tion of matter, in a somewhat contradictory and unintelligible style. It is evident, too, that their accounts of secondary creation, or the development of the existing forms of things, and the disposition of the universe, are derived from several and different sources; and it appears very likely that they are to be accused of some of the incongruities and absurdities by which the narrative is disfigured, in consequence of having attempted to assign reality and significance to what was merely metaphor or mysticism. There is, however, amidst the unnecessary complexity of the description, a general agreement, amongst them, as to the origin of things and their final distribution; and, in many of the circumstances, there is a striking concurrence with the ideas which seem to have pervaded the whole of the ancient world, and which we may, therefore, believe to be faithfully represented in the Puráñas.

The pantheism of the Puráñas is one of their invariable characteristics; although the particular divinity who is all things, from whom all things proceed, and to whom all things return, be diversified according to their individual sectarian bias. They seem to have derived the notion from the Vedas; but, in them, the one universal Being is of a higher order than a personification of attributes or elements, and, however imperfectly conceived, or unworthily described, is God. In the Puráñas, the one only Supreme Being is supposed to be manifest in the person of Śiva, or Vishnú, either in the way of illusion, or in sport; and one or other of these divinities is, therefore, also the cause of all that is,—is, himself, all that exists. The identity of God and nature is not a new notion: it was very general
in the speculations of antiquity; but it assumed a new vigour in the early ages of Christianity, and was carried to an equal pitch of extravagance by the Platonic Christians as by the Śaiva or Vaishnava Hindus. It seems not impossible that there was some communication between them. We know that there was an active communication between India and the Red Sea, in the early ages of the Christian era, and that doctrines, as well as articles of merchandise, were brought to Alexandria from the former. Epiphanius¹ and Eusebius² accuse Scythianus of having imported from India, in the second century, books on magic, and heretical notions leading to Manichaeism; and it was at the same period that Ammonius Saccas instituted the sect of the new Platonists at Alexandria. The basis of his heresy was, that true philosophy derived its origin from the eastern nations. His doctrine of the identity of God and the universe is that of the Vedas and Purāṇas; and the practices he enjoined, as well as their object, were precisely those described in several of the Purāṇas, under the name of Yoga. His disciples were taught to extenuate, by mortification and contemplation, the bodily restraints upon the immortal spirit; so that, in this life, they might enjoy communion with the Supreme Being, and ascend, after death, to the universal Parent.³ That these are Hindu tenets, the following pages⁴ will testify; and, by the admission of their Alexandrian teacher, they originated in India. The importation was, perhaps, not wholly unrequited:

¹ Adv. Manichæos. ² Hist. Evang. ³ See Mosheim, I., II., i. ⁴ See Book VI., Chap. VII.
the loan may not have been left unpaid. It is not impossible that the Hindu doctrines received fresh animation from their adoption by the successors of Ammonius, and, especially, by the mystics, who may have prompted, as well as employed, the expressions of the Purānas. Anquetil du Perron has given,\(^1\) in the introduction to his translation of the 'Oupnekhat', several hymns by Synesius, a bishop of the beginning of the fifth century, which may serve as parallels to many of the hymns and prayers addressed to Vishṇu in the Vishṇu Purāṇa.

But the ascription, to individual and personal deities, of the attributes of the one universal and spiritual Supreme Being, is an indication of a later date than the Vedas, certainly, and, apparently, also, than the Rāmāyaṇa, where Rāma, although an incarnation of Vishṇu, commonly appears in his human character alone. There is something of the kind in the Mahābhārata, in respect to Kṛishṇa; especially in the philosophical episode known as the Bhagavad Gītā. In other places, the divine nature of Kṛishṇa is less decidedly affirmed; in some, it is disputed, or denied; and, in most of the situations in which he is exhibited in action, it is as a prince and warrior, not as a divinity. He exercises no superhuman faculties in the defence of himself or his friends, or in the defeat and destruction of his foes. The Mahābhārata, however, is, evidently, a work of various periods, and requires to be read throughout, carefully and critically, before its weight as an authority can be accurately appreciated. As it is now in

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\(^1\) Theologia et Philosophia Indica, Dissert., p. xxvi.
type,—thanks to the public spirit of the Asiatic So-
ciety of Bengal, and their secretary, Mr. J. Prinsep,—
it will not be long before the Sanskrit scholars of the
continent will accurately appreciate its value.

The Puráñas are, also, works of evidently different
ages, and have been compiled under different circum-
stances, the precise nature of which we can but im-
perfectly conjecture from internal evidence and from
what we know of the history of religious opinion in
India. It is highly probable that, of the present popular
forms of the Hindu religion, none assumed their actual
state earlier than the time of Śankara Āchárya, the
great Śaiva reformer, who flourished, in all likelihood,
in the eighth or ninth century. Of the Vaishnava
teachers, Rámánuja dates in the twelfth century; Ma-
dhwáchárya, in the thirteenth; and Vallabha, in the
sixteenth; and the Puráñas seem to have accompanied,
or followed, their innovations; being obviously intended
to advocate the doctrines they taught. This is to as-
sign to some of them a very modern date, it is true;
but I cannot think that a higher can, with justice, be
ascribed to them. This, however, applies to some only
out of the number, as I shall presently proceed to
specify.

Another evidence of a comparatively modern date

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1 Three volumes have been printed: the fourth and last is
understood to be nearly completed.*

2 As. Res., Vols. XVI. and XVII. Account of Hindu Sects.†

* It was completed in 1839: at least, it bears that date.
† This "Sketch of the Religious Sects of the Hindus", by Professor
Wilson, will be found in the first volume of his collected works.
must be admitted—in those chapters of the Purāṇas which, assuming a prophetic tone, foretell what dynasties of kings will reign in the Kali age. These chapters, it is true, are found but in four of the Purāṇas; but they are conclusive in bringing down the date of those four to a period considerably subsequent to Christianity. It is, also, to be remarked that the Vāyu, Vishnú, Bhágavata, and Matsya Purāṇas, in which these particulars are foretold, have, in all other respects, the character of as great antiquity as any works of their class.¹

The invariable form of the Purāṇas is that of a dialogue, in which a person relates its contents, in reply to the inquiries of another. This dialogue is interwoven with others, which are repeated as having been held, on other occasions, between different individuals, in consequence of similar questions having been asked. The immediate narrator is, commonly, though not constantly, Lomaharshaṇa or Romaharsaṇa, the disciple of Vyāsa, who is supposed to communicate what was imparted to him by his preceptor, as he had heard it from some other sage. Vyāsa, as will be seen in the body of the work,² is a generic title, meaning an ‘arranger’ or ‘compiler’. It is, in this age, applied to Krishná Dwipaipāyana, the son of Parásara,

¹ On the history of the composition of the Purāṇas, as they now appear, I have hazarded some speculations in my Analysis of the Vāyu Purāṇa: Journ. Asiatic Society of Bengal, December, 1882.*

² Book III., Chapter III.

* See Vol. III. of our author’s collected writings.
who is said to have taught the Vedas and Puráñas to various disciples, but who appears to have been the head of a college, or school, under whom various learned men gave to the sacred literature of the Hindus the form in which it now presents itself. In this task, the disciples, as they are termed, of Vyása were, rather, his colleagues and coadjutors; for they were already conversant with what he is fabled to have taught them;¹ and, amongst them, Lomaharshaña represents the class of persons who were especially charged with the record of political and temporal events. He is called Súta, as if it was a proper name: but it is, more correctly, a title; and Lomaharshaña was ‘a Súta’, that is, a bard, or panegyrist, who was created, according to our text,² to celebrate the exploits of princes, and who, according to the Váyu and Padma Puráñas, has a right, by birth and profession, to narrate the Puráñas, in preference even to the Brahmins.³ It is not unlikely, therefore, that we are to understand, by his being represented as the disciple of Vyása, the institution of some attempt, made under the direction of the latter, to collect, from the heralds and annalists of his day, the scattered traditions which they had imperfectly preserved: and hence the consequent appropriation of the Puráñas, in a great measure, to the genealogies of regal dynasties and descriptions of the universe. However this may be, the machinery has been but loosely

¹ See Book III., Chapter III. ² Book I., Chapter XIII. ³ Journ. Royal As. Soc., Vol. V., p. 281.*

* The article referred to is from the pen of Professor Wilson, and has been reprinted.
adhered to; and many of the Puráñas, like the Vishńu, are referred to a different narrator.

An account is given, in the following work,¹ of a series of Pauráñik compilations of which, in their present form, no vestige appears. Lomaharshaña is said to have had six disciples, three of whom composed as many fundamental Samhítás, whilst he himself compiled a fourth. By a Samhitá is generally understood a ‘collection’ or ‘compilation’. The Samhitás of the Vedas are collections of hymns and prayers belonging to them, arranged according to the judgment of some individual sage, who is, therefore, looked upon as the originator and teacher of each. The Samhitás of the Puráñas, then, should be analogous compilations, attributed, respectively, to Mitrayu, Sámsapáyana, Aktítabraña, and Romaharshaña: no such Pauráñik Samhitás are now known. The substance of the four is said to be collected in the Vishńu Puráña, which is, also, in another place,² itself called a Samhitá. But such compilations have not, as far as inquiry has yet proceeded, been discovered. The specification may be accepted as an indication of the Puráñas’ having existed in some other form, in which they are no longer met with; although it does not appear that the arrangement was incompatible with their existence as separate works; for the Vishńu Puráña, which is our authority for the four Samhitás, gives us, also, the usual enumeration of the several Puráñas.

There is another classification of the Puráñas, alluded to in the Matsya Puráña, and specified by the Padma

¹ Book III., Chapter III. ² Book I., Chapter I.
Puráña, but more fully. It is not undeserving of notice, as it expresses the opinion which native writers entertain of the scope of the Puráñas, and of their recognizing the subservience of these works to the dissemination of sectarian principles. Thus, it is said, in the Uttara Khaṇḍa of the Padma, * that the Puráñas, as well as other works, are divided into three classes, according to the qualities which prevail in them. Thus, the Vishńu, Náradiya, Bhágavata, Garúda, Padma, and Varáha Puráñas are Sátwika or pure, from the predominance, in them, of the Sátiwa quality, or that of goodness and purity. They are, in fact, Vaishńava Puráñas. The Matsya, Kúrma, Linga, Śiva, Skanda, and Agni Puráñas are Támasa, or Puráñas of darkness, from the prevalence of the quality of Tamas, 'ignorance', 'gloom'. They are, indisputably, Śaiva Puráñas. The third series, comprising the Brahmáṇḍa, Brahma Vaivarta, Márkaṇḍeya, Bhavishya, Vámana, and Brahma Puráñas, are designated as Rájasa, 'passionate', from Rajas, the property of passion, which they are supposed to represent. The Matsya does not specify which are the Puráñas that come under these designations, but remarks † that those in which the Máhátmya

* Chapter XLII.:

मात्स्य कौम्भ तथा वेदं श्रीवं स्त्रांति: तथव च ।
आपि य वेदेतानि तामसानि निविद्धत ॥
वेदां नारदीयं च तथा भागवं शुष्मस ।
गाधिभू च तथा पांश्च वाराहं शुष्मदग्नेऽऽऽ ॥
सात्त्विकानि पुराणानि विशेष्यानि शुष्मानि वै ।
मात्स्याय त्राह्संवषे सात्त्विकं तथव च ॥
भविष्य वामनं श्राहं राजसानि निद्धल ।

† Chapter LII.:
of Hari or Vishnu prevails are Sattwika; those in which the legends of Agni or Siva predominate are Tamasa; and those which dwell most on the stories of Brahma are Rajasa. I have elsewhere stated that I considered the Rajasa Puranas to lean to the Sakta division of the Hindus, the worshippers of Sakti or the female principle; founding this opinion on the character of the legends which some of them contain, such as the Durga Mahatmya, or celebrated legend on which the worship of Durga or Kali is especially founded, which is a principal episode of the Markandeya. The Brahma Vaivarta also devotes the greatest portion of its chapters to the celebration of Radha, the mistress of Krishna, and other female divinities. Colonel Vans Kennedy, however, objects to the application of the term Sakta to this last division of the Puranas; the worship of Sakti being the especial object of a different class of works, the Tantras; and no such form of worship being particularly inculcated in the Brahma Purana. This last argument is of weight in regard to the particular instance specified; and the designation of Sakti may not be correctly applicable to the whole class, although it is to some of the series: for there is no incompatibility in the advocacy of a Tantrika modification of

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**Sanskrit Text:**

सान्तिकेषु पुराणिषु माहात्मयमधिकं हरे।
राजसीषु च माहात्मयमधिकं प्रवासं विषुः॥
तदद्वैतः माहात्मयं तामसिषु शिवखच।
संपूर्णेषु सर्वतथा: पितृवां च स्वयमवते॥

the Hindu religion by any Purána; and it has, unquestionably, been practised in works known as Upapuráñas. The proper appropriation of the third class of the Puráñas, according to the Padma Puráña, appears to be to the worship of Kríshña, not in the character in which he is represented in the Vishńu and Bhágavata Puráñas,—in which the incidents of his boyhood are only a portion of his biography, and in which the human character largely participates, at least in his riper years,—but as the infant Kríshña, Govinda, Bálá Gopála, the sojourner in Vrindávana, the companion of the cow-herds and milkmaids, the lover of Rádhá, or as the juvenile master of the universe, Jagannátha. The term Rájasa, implying the animation of passion and enjoyment of sensual delights, is applicable not only to the character of the youthful divinity, but to those with whom his adoration in these forms seems to have originated, the Gosains of Gokul and Bengal, the followers and descendants of Vallabha and Chaitanya, the priests and proprietors of Jagannáth and Śrínáthdwár, who lead a life of affluence and indulgence, and vindicate, both by precept and practice, the reasonableness of the Rájasa property, and the congruity of temporal enjoyment with the duties of religion.¹

The Puráñas are uniformly stated to be eighteen in number. It is said that there are also eighteen Upapuráñas or minor Puráñas: but the names of only a few of these are specified in the least exceptionable


authorities; and the greater number of the works is not procurable. With regard to the eighteen Puráñnas, there is a peculiarity in their specification, which is proof of an interference with the integrity of the text, in some of them, at least; for each of them specifies the names of the whole eighteen. Now, the list could not have been complete whilst the work that gives it was unfinished; and in one only, therefore, the last of the series, have we a right to look for it. As, however, there are more last words than one, it is evident that the names must have been inserted in all except one, after the whole were completed. Which of the eighteen is the exception, and truly the last, there is no clue to discover; and the specification is, probably, an interpolation, in most, if not in all.


1 The names are put attributively; the noun substantive, Puráña, being understood. Thus, Vaiśhávanám Puráñnam means the Puráña of Vishńu; Śaivaṁ Puráñnam, the Puráña of Śiva; Bráhmanám Puráñnam, the Puráña of Brahmá. It is equally correct, and more common, to use the two substantives in apposition, as Vishńu Puráña, Śiva Puráña, &c. In the original Sanskrit the nouns are compounded, as Vishńu-puráña, &c.: but it has not been customary to combine them, in their European shape.

2 Book III., Chapter VI.
ties there are a few variations. The list of the Kúrma Puráña omits the Agni Puráña, and substitutes the Váyu.* The Agni leaves out the Śiva, and inserts the Váyu. The Varáha omits the Garuda and Brahmánda, and inserts the Váyu and Narasimha: in this last, it is singulár. The Márkaňdeya agrees with the Vishńu and Bhágavata, in omitting the Váyu. The Matsya, like the Agni, leaves out the Śiva.

Some of the Puráñás, as the Agni, Matsya,† Bhágavata,‡ and Padma, also particularize the number of stanzas which each of the eighteen contains. In one or two instances they disagree; but, in general, they concur. The aggregate is stated at 400,000 ślokas, or 1,600,000 lines. These are fabled to be but an abridgment; the whole amount being a krore or ten millions

* Professor Wilson's MS. has मार्क्षेण्यमयमः चतुर्थ; but four Mss. that I have consulted have मार्क्षेण्यमयमासतिनिः. And the latter reading is to be preferred. - The Kúrma professes, at the end of its list of the Puráñás, to have enumerated eighteen; and, unless it names both the Váyu and the Agni, it enumerates but seventeen.

† The particulars from the Matsya will be found in the sequel.
‡ The compuation of the Bhágavata, XII., 13, 4-8, is as follows:
Brahma, 10,000 stanzas; Padma, 55,000; Vishńu, 23,000; Śiva, 24,000; Bhágavata, 18,000; Nárada, 25,000; Márkaňdeya, 9,000; Agni, 15,400; Bhavishya, 14,500; Brahma-vaivarta, 18,000; Linga, 11,000; Yudhá, 24,000; Skanda, 81,100; Vámana, 10,000; Kúrma, 17,000; Matsya, 14,000; Garuda, 19,000; Brahmánda, 12,000. The total is 400,000.

The Bhágavata here calls the Agni and the Garuda by the names of Váhma and Vaupárña.

The Devi-bhágavata substitutes, in place of the Śiva, the Váyu, and assigns to it 10,600 stanzas. Further, it gives to the Agni, 16,000; to the Skanda, 81,000; and to the Brahmánda, 12,100.

The Reva-mádhanyá also has, instead of Śiva, Váyu, but reckons it at 24,000 couples; and it likewise allows 16,000 to the Agni. To the Skanda it gives 84,000; and to the Brahmánda, 12,200.

of stanzas, or even a thousand millions.* If all the fragmentary portions claiming, in various parts of India, to belong to the Puráñosas were admitted, their extent would much exceed the lesser, though it would not reach the larger, enumeration. The former is, however, as I have elsewhere stated,¹ a quantity that an individual European scholar could scarcely expect to peruse with due care and attention, unless his whole time were devoted exclusively, for many years, to the task. Yet, without some such labour being achieved, it was clear, from the crudity and inexactness of all that had been hitherto published on the subject, with one exception,² that sound views on the subject of Hindu mythology and tradition were not to be expected. Circumstances, which I have already explained in the paper in the Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, referred to above, enabled me to avail myself of

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¹ Journ. Royal As. Soc., Vol. V., p. 61.†
² I allude to the valuable work of Colonel Vans Kennedy, Researches into the Nature and Affinity of Ancient and Hindu Mythology. However much I may differ from that learned and industrious writer’s conclusions, I must do him the justice to admit that he is the only author who has discussed the subject of the mythology of the Hindus on right principles, by drawing his materials from authentic sources.

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* So says the Matsya-puráná, LIII., ad init.:

पुराणं सर्वेश्यांग्राम प्रथमं द्राह्म्यम सूक्तम ।
ब्रह्मणां च चण्डकाहृद वेदाद्वाय द्वितिसम विनिमिता: ॥
puráshnayeśvaráśvastva-bhavateras dásanámaré pág ।
chavvargasadágam nágá pratikramiṣṭaram ॥

† See Professor Wilson’s collective works, Vol. III,
competent assistance, by which I made a minute abstract of most of the Puráñas. In course of time I hope to place a tolerably copious and connected analysis of the whole eighteen before Oriental scholars, and, in the meanwhile, offer a brief notice of their several contents.

In general, the enumeration of the Puráñas is a simple nomenclature, with the addition, in some cases, of the number of verses; but to these the Matsya Puráña* joins the mention of one or two circumstances peculiar to each, which, although scanty, are of value, as offering means of identifying the copies of the Puráñas now found with those to which the Matsya refers, or of discovering a difference between the present and the past. I shall, therefore, prefix the passage descriptive of each Puráña, from the Matsya. It is necessary to remark, however, that, in the comparison instituted between that description and the Puráña as it exists, I necessarily refer to the copy or copies which I employed for the purpose of examination and analysis, and which were procured, with some trouble and cost, in Benares and Calcutta. In some instances my manuscripts have been collated with others from different parts of India; and the result has shown that, with regard at least to the Brahma, Vishńu, Váyu, Matsya, Padma, Bhágavata, and Kúrma Puráñas, the same works, in all essential respects, are generally current under the same appellations. Whether this is invariably the case, may be doubted; and further inquiry may possibly show that I have been obliged to con-

* Chapter LII.
tent myself with mutilated or unauthentic works. It is with this reservation, therefore, that I must be understood to speak of the concurrence or disagreement of any Puráňa with the notice of it which the Matsya Puráňa has preserved.

1. Brahma Puráňa. "That, the whole of which was formerly repeated by Brahmá to Maríchi, is called the Bráhma Puráňa, and contains ten thousand stanzas." In all the lists of the Puráňas, the Brahma is placed at the head of the series, and is, thence, sometimes also entitled the Adi or `first' Puráňa. It is also designated as the Saura; as it is, in great part, appropriated to the worship of Súrya, `the sun'. There are, however, works bearing these names which belong to the class of Upapuráňas, and which are not to be confounded with the Brahma. It is usually said, as above, to contain ten thousand ślokas; but the number actually occurring is between seven and eight thousand. There is a supplementary or concluding section, called the Brahmottara Puráňa, and which is different from a portion of the Skanda called the Brahmottara Khaṇḍa, which contains about three thousand stanzas more. But

1 Upon examining the translations of different passages from the Puráňas, given by Colonel Vans Kennedy in the work mentioned in a former note, and comparing them with the text of the manuscripts I have consulted, I find such an agreement as to warrant the belief, that there is no essential difference between the copies in his possession and in mine. The varieties which occur in the MSS. of the East India Company's Library will be noticed in the text.

2 श्रवणामिहितं पुर्वं यावधारं मरीचये।
प्राणं तु दशसाहस्रं पुरायं परिकीर्तितम्॥
there is every reason to conclude that this is a distinct and unconnected work.

The immediate narrator of the Brahma Purāṇa is Lomaharshaṇa, who communicates it to the Rishis or sages assembled at Naimishāraṇya, as it was originally revealed by Brahmā, not to Marīchi, as the Matsya affirms, but to Daksha, another of the patriarchs. Hence its denomination of the Brahma Purāṇa.

The early chapters of this work give a description of the creation, an account of the Manwantaras, and the history of the solar and lunar dynasties to the time of Kṛishṇa, in a summary manner, and in words which are common to it and several other Purāṇas. A brief description of the universe succeeds; and then come a number of chapters relating to the holiness of Orissa, with its temples and sacred groves dedicated to the sun, to Śiva, and Jagannātha, the latter especially. These chapters are characteristic of this Purāṇa, and show its main object to be the promotion of the worship of Kṛishṇa as Jagannātha.¹ To these particulars

¹ Colonel Vans Kennedy objects to this character of the Brahma Purāṇa, and observes that it contains only two short descriptions of pagodas, the one of Koṇāditya, the other of Jagannātha. In that case, his copy must differ considerably from those I have met with; for, in them, the description of Purushottama Kshetra, the holy land of Orissa, runs through forty chapters, or one third of the work. The description, it is true, is interspersed, in the usual rambling strain of the Purāṇas, with a variety of legends, some ancient, some modern; but they are intended to illustrate some local circumstance, and are, therefore, not incompatible with the main design, the celebration of the glories of Purushottama Kshetra. The specification of the temple of Jagannātha, how-
succeeds a life of Krisna, which is, word for word, the same as that of the Vishnu Purana; and the compilation terminates with a particular detail of the mode in which Yoga or contemplative devotion, the object of which is still Vishnu, is to be performed. There is little, in this, which corresponds with the definition of a Pancha-laksha Purana; and the mention of the temples of Orissa, the date of the original construction of which is recorded,\(^1\) shows that it could not have been compiled earlier than the thirteenth or fourteenth century.

The Uttara Khanda of the Brahma Purana bears still more entirely the character of a Mahatmya or local legend; being intended to celebrate the sanctity of the Balajia river, conjectured to be the same as the Banas in Marwar. There is no clue to its date; but it is clearly modern; grafting personages and fictions of its own invention on a few hints from older authorities.\(^2\)

2. Padma Purana. "That which contains an account of the period when the world was a golden lotus (padma), and of all the occurrences of that time, is, therefore, called the Pada by the wise. It contains fifty-five thousand stanzas."\(^3\) The second Purana, in

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\(^1\) See Account of Orissa Proper, or Cuttack, by A. Stirling, Esq.: Asiatic Res., Vol. XV., p. 305.


\(^3\) एतद्भव यद्रा पद्मसम्भवितमयं यज्ञ ।
तद्वत्तात्तत्त्त्त्तरं तदीत्त्तद्वित्तसिंहस्य वृद्धि: ॥
padma samhita sukhasthala-sthira-kshetra ॥
the usual lists, is always the Pádma, a very voluminous work, containing, according to its own statement, as well as that of other authorities, fifty-five thousand slokas; an amount not far from the truth. These are divided amongst five books, or Khaṇḍas; 1. The Śrīśti Khaṇḍa or section on creation; 2. The Bhūmi Khaṇḍa, description of the earth; 3. The Swarga Khaṇḍa, chapter on heaven; 4. Pátála Khaṇḍa, chapter on the regions below the earth; and 5. the Uttara Khaṇḍa, last or supplementary chapter. There is also current a sixth division, the Kriyā Yoga Sára, a treatise on the practice of devotion.

The denominations of these divisions of the Padma Puráṇa convey but an imperfect and partial notion of their contents. In the first, or section which treats of creation, the narrator is Ugraśravas, the Súta, the son of Lomaharshaṇa, who is sent, by his father, to the Rishis at Naṁisháraṇya, to communicate to them the Puráṇa, which, from its containing an account of the lotos (padma) in which Brahmá appeared at creation, is termed the Pádma, or Padma Puráṇa. The Súta repeats what was originally communicated by Brahmá to Pulastya, and by him to Bhíshma. The early chapters narrate the cosmogony, and the genealogy of the patriarchal families, much in the same style, and often in the same words, as the Vishńu; and short accounts of the Manwantaras and regal dynasties: but these, which are legitimate Pauránik matters, soon make way for new and unauthentic inventions, illustrative of the virtues of the lake of Pushkara or Pokher, in Ajmir, as a place of pilgrimage.

The Bhūmi Khaṇḍa, or section of the earth, defers
any description of the earth until near its close; filling up one hundred and twenty-seven chapters with legends of a very mixed description, some ancient, and common to other Puráñas, but the greater part peculiar to itself, illustrative of Tirthas, either figuratively so termed,—as a wife, a parent, or a Guru, considered as a sacred object,—or places to which actual pilgrimage should be performed.

The-Swarga Khańda describes, in the first chapters, the relative positions of the Lokas or spheres above the earth; placing above all, Vaikuńtha, the sphere of Vishńu: an addition which is not warranted by what appears to be the oldest cosmology.¹ Miscellaneous notices of some of the most celebrated princes then succeed, conformably to the usual narratives; and these are followed by rules of conduct for the several castes, and at different stages of life. The rest of the book is occupied by legends of a diversified description, introduced without much method or contrivance; a few of which, as Daksha's sacrifice, are of ancient date, but of which the most are original and modern.

The Pátála Khańda devotes a brief introduction to the description of Pátála, the regions of the snake-gods. But, the name of Ráma having been mentioned, Śesha, who has succeeded Pulastya as spokesman, proceeds to narrate the history of Ráma, his descent, and his posterity; in which the compiler seems to have taken the poem of Kálidása, the Raghu Varńśa, for his chief authority. An originality of addition may be suspected, however, in the adventures of the horse des-

¹ See Book II., Chapter VII.
tined by Ráma for an Aśwamedha, which form the subject of a great many chapters. When about to be sacrificed, the horse turns out to be a Brahma, condemned by an imprecation of Durvásas, a sage, to assume the equine nature, and who, by having been sanctified by connexion with Ráma, is released from his metamorphosis, and despatched as a spirit of light, to heaven. This piece of Vaishnava fiction is followed by praises of the Śrī Bhágavata, an account of Krishña's juvenileities, and the merits of worshipping Vishnú. These accounts are communicated through a machinery borrowed from the Tantras: they are told by Sadásiva to Párvatí, the ordinary interlocutors of Tántrika compositions.

The Uttara Khańda is a most voluminous aggregation of very heterogeneous matters; but it is consistent in adopting a decidedly Vaishnava tone, and admitting no compromise with any other form of faith. The chief subjects are first discussed in a dialogue between king Díipa and the Muni Vasishtha; such as the merits of bathing in the mouth of Mágha, and the potency of the Mantra or prayer addressed to Lakshmi Náráyaña. But the nature of Bhakti, faith in Vishnú—the use of Vaishnava marks on the body—the legends of Vishnú's Avatáras, and especially of Ráma—and the construction of images of Vishnú—are too important to be left to mortal discretion. They are explained by Śiva to Párvatí, and wound up by the adoration of Vishnú by those divinities. The dialogue then reverts to the king and the sage; and the latter states why Vishnú is the only one of the triad entitled to respect; Śiva being licentious, Brahma arrogant, and Vishnú alone pure.
Vasishțha then repeats, after Śiva, the Māhātmya of
the Bhagavad Gītā; the merit of each book of which
is illustrated by legends of the good consequences, to
individuals, from perusing or hearing it. Other Vaish-
ṇava Māhātmyas occupy considerable portions of
this Khaṇḍa, especially the Kārttika Māhātmya, or
holiness of the month Kārttika; illustrated, as usual,
by stories, a few of which are of an early origin, but
the greater part modern, and peculiar to this Purāṇa.¹

The Kriyā Yoga Sāra is repeated, by Śūta, to the
Rīshis, after Vyāsa’s communication of it to Jaimīni,
in answer to an inquiry how religious merit might be
secured in the Kali age, in which men have become
incapable of the penances and abstraction by which
final liberation was formerly to be attained. The answer
is, of course, that which is intimated in the last book
of the Vishū Purāṇa—personal devotion to Vishṇu.
Thinking of him, repeating his names, wearing his
marks, worshipping in his temples, are a full substitute
for all other acts of moral, or devotional, or contem-
plative, merit.

The different portions of the Padma Purāṇa are, in
all probability, as many different works, neither of
which approaches to the original definition of a Purāṇa.
There may be some connexion between the three first
portions, at least as to time: but there is no reason to
consider them as of high antiquity. They specify
the Jainas, both by name and practices; they talk of
Mlechchhas, “barbarians”, flourishing in India; they

¹ One of them, the story of Jalandhara, is translated by
Colonel Vans Kennedy: Researches into the Nature and Affinity
of Ancient and Hindu Mythology; Appendix D.
commend the use of the frontal and other Vaishnava marks; and they notice other subjects which, like these, are of no remote origin. The Patala Khaṇḍa dwells copiously upon the Bhāgavata, and is, consequently, posterior to it. The Uttara Khaṇḍa is intolerantly Vaishnava, and is, therefore, unquestionably modern. It enjoins the veneration of the Sālagrama stone and Tulasī plant, the use of the Tapta-mudra, or stamping with a hot iron the name of Vishnu on the skin, and a variety of practices and observances undoubtedly no part of the original system. It speaks of the shrines of Śrīranga and Venkatādri in the Dekhin, temples that have no pretension to remote antiquity; and it names Haripura on the Tungabhadra, which is, in all likelihood, the city of Vijayanagara, founded in the middle of the fourteenth century. The Kriyā Yoga Sāra is equally a modern, and, apparently, a Bengali composition. No portion of the Padma Purāṇa is, probably, older than the twelfth century; and the last parts may be as recent as the fifteenth or sixteenth.¹

3. Vishnū Purāṇa. "That in which Parāśara, beginning with the events of the Varāha Kalpa, expounds all duties, is called the Vaishnava: and the learned know its extent to be twenty-three thousand stanzas."² The

¹ The grounds of these conclusions are more particularly detailed in my Analysis of the Padma Purāṇa: J. R. As. Soc., Vol. V., p. 280.

² वराहकथ्रयुतानामविषयविवरणं विषयचित्रं विवरणं।
शतपदेण धर्मार्थविवरणं वायार्थं विवरणं।

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चर्चिविषयग्रन्थतिसाहस्तत्तत्रमाणं विषयं विवरणं॥
third Purāṇa of the lists is that which has been selected for translation, the Vishńu. It it unnecessary, therefore, to offer any general summary of its contents; and it will be convenient to reserve any remarks upon its character and probable antiquity, for a subsequent page. It may here be observed, however, that the actual number of verses contained in it falls far short of the enumeration of the Matsya, with which the Bhāgavata concurs. Its actual contents are not seven thousand stanzas. All the copies—and, in this instance, they are not fewer than seven in number,—procured both in the east and in the west of India, agree; and there is no appearance of any part being wanting. There is a beginning, a middle, and an end, in both text and comment; and the work, as it stands, is, incontestably, entire. How is the discrepancy to be explained?

4. Vāyu Purāṇa. "The Purāṇa in which Vāyu has declared the laws of duty, in connexion with the Šweta Kalpa, and which comprises the Māhātmya of Rudra, is the Vāyaviya Purāṇa: it contains twenty-four thousand verses." The Śiva or Śaiva Purāṇa is, as above remarked, omitted in some of the lists; and, in general, when that is the case, it is replaced by the Vāyu or Vāyaviya. When the Śiva is specified, as in the Bhāgavata, then the Vāyu is omitted;* intimating the possible identity of these two works.† This, indeed, is

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1 सैतकस्यप्रसङ्कृतं धर्मोत्सप्ना द्रिष्टविहारयित ।
चैतधातृव्यिुय खातुद्रमाहात्मसुवृत्तम ॥
चतुष्पतिस्यादसाधि पुराणं तद्दीर्धेति ।

⋆ See p. XXIV. supra.
† This identity is distinctly asserted in the Reva-māhātmya, as follows: ∗
confirmed by the Matsya, which describes the Váyavíya Puráña as characterized by its account of the greatness of Rudra or Śiva: and Bálam Bhattá\(^1\) mentions, that the Váyavíya is also called the Śaiva, though, according to some, the latter is the name of an Upapuráña.\(^*\) Colonel Vans Kennedy observes, that, in the west of India, the Śaiva is considered to be an Upa or ‘minor’ Puráña.\(^2\)

Another proof that the same work is intended by the authorities here followed, the Bhágavata and Matsya, under different appellations, is their concurrence in the extent of the work; each specifying its verses to be twenty-four thousand. A copy of the Śiva Puráña, of which an index and analysis have been prepared, does not contain more than about seven thousand. It cannot, therefore, be the Śiva Puráña of the Bhágavata: and we may safely consider that to be the same as the Váyavíya of the Matsya.\(^3\)

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\(^{1}\) Commentary on the Mitákshará, Vyavahára Káúda.

\(^{2}\) As. Journ., March, 1837, p. 242, note.

\(^{3}\) Analysis of the Váyu Puráña: Journ. As. Soc. of Bengal, December, 1832.

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Regarding the first, described in § 113, Dr. Aufricht observes: “De libro ipso, quem ad celebrandum cultum Laingicum scriptum esse vides, in præsentia nihil temere asseveraverim; exspectandum enim est, dum de Skandapuráææ parte, quæ Śiva-máhtmya appellatur, accuratiora audiamus. Ex quo libellum nostrum desumtum esse, ilis quae infra dicta sunt, suspicari possis.”
The Váyu Puráña is narrated, by Súta, to the Ṛishis at Naimisháraṇya, as it was formerly told, at the same place, to similar persons, by Váyu; a repetition of circumstances not uncharacteristic of the inartificial style of this Puráña. It is divided into four Pádas, termed, severally, Prakriyá, Upodgháta, Anushanga, and Upasamhára; a classification peculiar to this work. These are preceded by an index, or heads of chapters, in the manner of the Mahábhárata and Rámáyaña—another peculiarity.

The Prakriyá portion contains but a few chapters, and treats, chiefly, of elemental creation, and the first evolutions of beings, to the same purport as the Vishnú, but in a more obscure and unmethodical style. The Upodgháta then continues the subject of creation, and describes the various Kalpas or periods during which the world has existed; a greater number of which is specified by the Śaiva, than by the Vaishnáva, Puráñas. Thirty-three are here described, the last of which is the Śweta or ‘white’ Kalpa, from Śiva’s being born, in it, of a white complexion. The genealogies of the patriarchs, the description of the universe, and the incidents of the first six Manvantaras are all treated of in this part of the work; but they are intermixed with legends and praises of Śiva, as the sacrifice of Daksha, the Maheśwara Máhátmya, the Nílakaṇṭha Stotra, and others. The genealogies, although, in the main, the same as those in the Vaishnáva Puráñas, present some variations. A long account of the Píṭris or progenitors is also peculiar to this Puráña; as are stories of some of the most celebrated Ṛishis who were engaged in the distribution of the Vedas.
The third division commences with an account of the seven Rishis and their descendants, and describes the origin of the different classes of creatures from the daughters of Daksha, with a profuse copiousness of nomenclature, not found in any other Puráña. With exception of the greater minuteness of detail, the particulars agree with those of the Vishńu Puráña. A chapter then occurs on the worship of the Pitris; another, on Tirthas or places sacred to them; and several, on the performance of Śráddhas, constituting the Śráddha Kalpa. After this comes a full account of the solar and lunar dynasties, forming a parallel to that in the following pages, with this difference, that it is, throughout, in verse, whilst that of our text, as noticed in its place, is, chiefly, in prose. It is extended, also, by the insertion of detailed accounts of various incidents, briefly noticed in the Vishńu, though derived, apparently, from a common original. The section terminates with similar accounts of future kings, and the same chronological calculations, that are found in the Vishńu.

The last portion, the Upasainhára, describes briefly the future Manwantaras, the measures of space and time, the end of the world, the efficacy of Yoga, and the glories of Śivapura, or the dwelling of Śiva, with whom the Yogin is to be united. The manuscript concludes with a different history of the successive teachers of the Váyu Puráña, tracing them from Brahmá to Váyu, from Váyu to Brñhaspati, and from him, through various deities and sages, to Dwaipáyana and Súta.

The account given of this Puráña in the Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal was limited to something less than half the work; as I had not then been able to
procure a larger portion. I have now a more complete one of my own; and there are several copies in the East India Company's library, of the like extent. One, presented by His Highness the Guicowar, is dated Samvat 1540, or A. D. 1483, and is, evidently, as old as it professes to be. The examination I have made of the work confirms the view I formerly took of it; and, from the internal evidence it affords, it may, perhaps, be regarded as one of the oldest and most authentic specimens extant of a primitive Purâña.

It appears, however, that we have not yet a copy of the entire Vāyu Purâña. The extent of it, as mentioned above, should be twenty-four thousand verses. The Guicowar MS. has but twelve thousand, and is denominated the Pûrvârdha or first portion. My copy is of the like extent. The index also shows, that several subjects remain untold; as, subsequently to the description of the sphere of Śiva, and the periodical dissolution of the world, the work is said to contain an account of a succeeding creation, and of various events that occurred in it, as the birth of several celebrated Rishis, including that of Vyāsa, and a description of his distribution of the Vedas; an account of the enmity between Vasishthá and Viśwāmitra; and a Naimishâranya Mâhátmya. These topics are, however, of minor importance, and can scarcely carry the Purâña to the whole extent of the verses which it is said to contain. If the number is accurate, the index must still omit a considerable portion of the subsequent contents.

5. Śrí Bhágavata Purâña. "That in which ample details of duty are described, and which opens with (an extract from) the Gāyatrī; that in which the death
of the Asura Vṛitra is told, and in which the mortals and immortals of the Sāraswata Kalpa, with the events that then happened to them in the world, are related; that is celebrated as the Bhāgavata, and consists of eighteen thousand verses.”¹ The Bhāgavata is a work of great celebrity in India, and exercises a more direct and powerful influence upon the opinions and feelings of the people than, perhaps, any other of the Purāṇas. It is placed the fifth in all the lists; but the Padma Purāṇa ranks it as the eighteenth, as the extracted substance of all the rest. According to the usual specification, it consists of eighteen thousand ślokas, distributed amongst three hundred and thirty-two chapters, divided into twelve Skandhas or books. It is named Bhāgavata from its being dedicated to the glorification of Bhagavat or Vishnū.

The Bhāgavata is communicated to the Rishis at Naimishāranya, by Śūta, as usual: but he only repeats what was narrated by Śuka, the son of Vyāsa, to Parikṣit, the king of Hastinapura, the grandson of Arjuna. Having incurred the imprecation of a hermit, by which he was sentenced to die of the bite of a venomous snake at the expiration of seven days, the king, in preparation for this event, repairs to the banks of the Ganges, whither also come the gods and sages, to witness his

¹ बनाधिकाल गायत्री वर्षिते धर्मविस्तारः।
वृषादुर्वधोपिंतं तत्स्मगवत्वं च।
सारसतलं कल्पं सधे चे बुङ्गरमिहरः।
तदुत्तानोभयं लोके तत्स्मगवत्वं च।
∗∗∗∗∗∗∗∗∗∗∗∗
∗∗∗∗∗∗∗∗∗∗∗∗
चढ़ादेश सहस्राषि पुराणं तत्ववीतिति।
death. Amongst the latter is Śuka; and it is in reply to Parikṣhit’s question, what a man should do who is about to die, that he narrates the Bhāgavata, as he had heard it from Vyāsa: for nothing secures final happiness so certainly, as to die whilst the thoughts are wholly engrossed by Viṣṇu.

The course of the narration opens with a cosmogony, which, although, in most respects, similar to that of other Purāṇas, is more largely intermixed with allegory and mysticism, and derives its tone more from the Vedānta than the Sāṁkhya philosophy. The doctrine of active creation by the Supreme, as one with Viṣṇudeva, is more distinctly asserted, with a more decided enunciation of the effects being resolvable into Māyā or illusion. There are, also, doctrinal peculiarities highly characteristic of this Purāṇa; amongst which is the assertion, that it was originally communicated by Brahmā to Nārada, that all men whatsoever, Hindus of every caste, and even Mlechchhas, outcasts or barbarians, might learn to have faith in Viṣṇudeva.

In the third book, the interlocutors are changed to Maitreyā and Vidura, the former of whom is the disciple, in the Viṣṇu Purāṇa; the latter was the half-brother of the Kuru princes. Maitreyā, again, gives an account of the Śrīśū-līlā or sport of creation, in a strain partly common to the Purāṇas, partly peculiar; although he declares he learned it from his teacher Parāśara, at the desire of Pulastya:¹ referring, thus, to the fabulous origin of the Viṣṇu Purāṇa, and furnishing evidence of its priority. Again, however, the

¹ See Book I., Chapter I., ad finem.
authority is changed; and the narrative is said to have been that which was communicated by Śesha to the Nāgas. The creation of Brahmá is then described, and the divisions of time are explained. A very long and peculiar account is given of the Varāha incarnation of Vishnú, which is followed by the creation of the Prajāpatis and Swāyambhuva, whose daughter Devahūti is married to Kardama Rishi; an incident peculiar to this work, as is that which follows, of the Avatāra of Vishnú as Kapila the son of Kardama and Devahūti, the author of the Sānkhya philosophy, which he expounds, after a Vaishnava fashion, to his mother, in the last nine chapters of this section.

The Manwantara of Swāyambhuva, and the multiplication of the patriarchal families, are next described with some peculiarities of nomenclature, which are pointed out in the notes to the parallel passages of the Vishnu Purāṇa. The traditions of Dhruva, Veṇa, Pṛithu, and other princes of this period, are the other subjects of the fourth Skandha, and are continued, in the fifth, to that of the Bharata who obtained emancipation. The details generally conform to those of the Vishnū Purāṇa; and the same words are often employed; so that it would be difficult to determine which work had the best right to them, had not the Bhágavata itself indicated its obligations to the Vishnú. The remainder of the fifth book is occupied with the description of the universe; and the same conformity with the Vishnú continues.

This is only partially the case with the sixth book, which contains a variety of legends of a miscellaneous description, intended to illustrate the merit of worship-
ping Vishńu. Some of them belong to the early stock; but some are, apparently, novel. The seventh book is, mostly, occupied with the legend of Prahláda. In the eighth, we have an account of the remaining Manwantaras; in which, as happening in the course of them, a variety of ancient legends are repeated, as the battle between the king of the elephants and an alligator, the churning of the ocean, and the dwarf and fish Avatáras. The ninth book narrates the dynasties of the Vaivaswata Manwantara, or the princes of the solar and lunar races to the time of Kríshńa. The particulars conform, generally, with those recorded in the Vishńu.

The tenth book is the characteristic part of this Purána, and the portion upon which its popularity is founded. It is appropriated entirely to the history of Kríshńa, which it narrates much in the same manner as the Vishńu, but in more detail; holding a middle place, however, between it and the extravagant prolixity with which the Hari Vaḿśa repeats the story. It is not necessary to particularize it further. It has been translated into, perhaps, all the languages of India, and is a favourite work with all descriptions of people.

The eleventh book describes the destruction of the Yádavas and death of Kríshńa. Previous to the latter event, Kríshńa instructs Uddhava in the performance of the Yoga; a subject consigned, by the Vishńu, to the concluding passages. The narrative is much

1 A translation of the ninth, by Captain Fell, was published in Calcutta, in different numbers of the Monthly and Quarterly Magazine, in 1823 and 1824. The second volume of Maurice's Ancient History of Hindostan contains a translation, by Mr. Halhed, of the tenth book, made through the medium of a Persian version.
the same, but something more summary than that of the Vishńu. The twelfth book continues the lines of the kings of the Kali age, prophetically, to a similar period as the Vishńu, and gives a like account of the deterioration of all things and their final dissolution. Consistently with the subject of the Puráṇa, the serpent Takshaka bites Parikshit, and he expires: and the work should terminate; or the close might be extended to the subsequent sacrifice of Janamejaya, for the destruction of the whole serpent race. There is a rather awkwardly introduced description, however, of the arrangement of the Vedas and Puráṇas by Vyása, and the legend of Márkaṇḍeya’s interview with the infant Kríshṇa, during a period of worldly dissolution. We then come to the end of the Bhágavata, in a series of encomiastic commendations of its own sanctity and efficacy to salvation.

Mr. Colebrooke observes, of the Bhágavata Puráṇa: “I am, myself, inclined to adopt an opinion supported by many learned Hindus, who consider the celebrated Śrī Bhágavata as the work of a grammarian [Bopadeva], supposed to have lived about six hundred years ago.”

Colonel Vans Kennedy considers this an incautious admission; because “it is unquestionable that the number of the Puráṇas have been always held to be eighteen; but, in most of the Puráṇas, the names of the eighteen are enumerated, amongst which the Bhágavata is invariably included; and, consequently, if it were composed only six hundred years ago, the others must be

1 As. Res., Vol. VIII., p. 467.*

of an equally modern date."¹ Some of them are, no doubt, more recent; but, as already remarked, no weight can be attached to the specification of the eighteen names; for they are always complete: each Purána enumerates all.* Which is the last? Which had the opportunity of naming its seventeen predecessors, and adding itself? The argument proves too much. There can be little doubt that the list has been inserted, upon the authority of tradition, either by some improving transcriber, or by the compiler of a work more recent than the eighteen genuine Puráñas. The objection is also rebutted by the assertion, that there was another Puráña to which the name applies, and which is still to be met with, the Deví Bhágavata.

For the authenticity of the Bhágavata is one of the few questions, affecting their sacred literature, which Hindu writers have ventured to discuss. The occasion is furnished by the text itself. In the fourth chapter of the first book, it is said that Vyásá arranged the Vedas, and divided them into four, and that he then compiled the Itihásá and Puráñas, as a fifth Veda. The Vedas he gave to Paila and the rest; the Itihásá and Puráñas, to Lomaharshaña, the father of Súta.² Then,

¹ Researches into the Nature and Affinity of Ancient and Hindu Mythology, p. 155, note.
² Book I., Chapter IV., 19-22.†

* But see the editor’s second note in p. LIV. infra.
† वाघुरौं व दुर्दश भावापूर्विक देविकम्।
वदेवायं भवतावति वेद्विज्ञानं वदुश्विधम्॥
स्वति विश्वामार्यादो वेदाङ्कल्लार उभृवत:।
हतिहास्यपुराणोऽथ पांशले वेद उद्घोति॥
reflecting that these works may not be accessible to women, Śúdras, and mixed castes, he composed the Bhárata, for the purpose of placing religious knowledge within their reach. Still, he felt dissatisfied, and wandered, in much perplexity, along the banks of the Saraswáti, where his hermitage was situated, when Nárada paid him a visit. Having confided to him his secret and seemingly causeless dissatisfaction, Nárada suggested that it arose from his not having sufficiently dwelt, in the works he had finished, upon the merit of worshipping Vásudeva. Vyása at once admitted its truth, and found a remedy for his uneasiness in the composition of the Bhágavata, which he taught to Śuka, his son.¹ Here, therefore, is the most positive assertion that the Bhágavata was composed subsequently to the Puráñás, and given to a different pupil, and was not, therefore, one of the eighteen of which Romaharshaña, the Súta, was, according to all concurrent testimonies, the depositary. Still, the Bhágavata is named amongst the eighteen Puráñás, by the inspired authorities: and how can these incongruities be reconciled?

The principal point in dispute seems to have been started by an expression of Śrídhara Svámin, a commentator on the Bhágavata, who, somewhat incautiously, made the remark, that there was no reason to suspect

¹ Book I., 7, 8.
that, by the term Bhágavata, any other work than the subject of his labours was intended. This was, therefore, an admission that some suspicions had been entertained of the correctness of the nomenclature, and that an opinion had been expressed, that the term belonged, not to the Śrī Bhágavata, but to the Deví Bhágavata; to a Śaiva, not a Vaishnava, composition. With whom doubts prevailed prior to Śrídhará Swámin, or by whom they were urged, does not appear; for, as far as we are aware, no works, anterior to his date, in which they are advanced have been met with. Subsequently, various tracts have been written on the subject. There are three in the library of the East India Company: the Durjana Mukha Chapeśiká, ‘A slap of the face for the vile’, by Rámaśrama; the Durjana Mukha Mahá Chapeśiká,* ‘A great slap of the face for the wicked’, by Káśínátha Bhattá; and the Durjana Mukha Padma Pádüká, ‘A slipper’ for the same part of the same persons, by a nameless disputant. The first maintains the authenticity of the Bhágavata; the second asserts, that

* The postscript of this tract has Durjana-mukha-chapeśiká. In the MS., Professor Wilson has noted, that it is referred to, in the Durjana-mukha-padma-pádüká, under a longer title, that given in the text. Burnouf—who, in the preface to the first volume of his Bhágavata-púrāṇa, has translated and annotated the three treatises named above—remarks as follows on that reference: “Le traité auquel notre auteur fait allusion paraît être le même que celui que j’ai placé le troisième, et qui est consacré tout entier à prouver cette thèse, que quand les Puráṇas parlent du Bhágavata, c’est le Dévibhágavata qu’ils entendent désigner, et non pas notre Śrī Bhágavata, qui fait autorité pour les Vaičhánavas. Cependant le passage sur lequel porte la présente note nomme ce traité: Un grand soufflet, etc.; ce qui ferait supposer qu’il existe deux traités de ce genre, dont l’un serait plus étendu que l’autre, et dont nous ne possédérons que le plus court, c’est-à-dire celui qui est traduit plus bas.” P. LXXXVII.
the Devi Bhágavata is the genuine Puráña; and the third replies to the arguments of the first. There is, also, a work by Purushottama, entitled 'Thirteen arguments for dispelling all doubts of the character of the Bhágavata' (Bhágavata swarúpa vishaya śanká nirása trayodaśa); whilst Bálam Bhatta, a commentator on the Mitákshará, indulging in a dissertation on the meaning of the word Puráña, adduces reasons for questioning the inspired origin of this Puráña.

The chief arguments in favour of the authenticity of this Puráña are, the absence of any reason why Bopadeva, to whom it is attributed, should not have put his own name to it; its being included in all lists of the Puráñas, sometimes with circumstances that belong to no other Puráña; and its being admitted to be a Puráña, and cited as authority, or made the subject of comment, by writers of established reputation, of whom Śankara Áchárya is one: and he lived long before Bopadeva. The reply to the first argument is rather feeble; the controversialists being unwilling, perhaps, to admit the real object, the promotion of new doctrines. It is, therefore, said, that Vyása was an incarnation of Náráyana; and the purpose was to propitiate his favour. The insertion of a Bhágavata amongst the eighteen Puráñas is acknowledged; but this, it is said, can be the Devi Bhágavata alone: for the circumstances apply more correctly to it than to the Vaishnava Bhágavata. Thus, a text is quoted, by Kásínátha, from a Puráña—he does not state which—that says, of the Bhágavata, that it contains eighteen thousand verses, twelve books, and three hundred and thirty-two chap-
Kāśinātha asserts that the chapters of the Śrī Bhāgavata are three hundred and thirty-five, and that the numbers apply, throughout, only to the Devī Bhāgavata. It is also said that the Bhāgavata contains an account of the acquirement of holy knowledge by Hayagrīva; the particulars of the Sāraswata Kalpa; a dialogue between Ambarīsha and Śūka; and that it commences with the Gāyatrī, or, at least, a citation of it. These all apply to the Devī Bhāgavata alone, except the last: but it also is more true of the Śaiva than of the Vaishnava work; for the latter has only one word of the Gāyatrī, dhīmahi, ‘we meditate’; whilst the former to dhīmahi adds, Yo naḥ prachodayāt, ‘who may enlighten us.’ To the third argument it is, in the first place, objected, that the citation of the Bhāgavata by modern writers is no test of its authenticity; and, with regard to the more ancient commentary of Śaṅkara Achārya, it is asked, “Where is it?” Those who advocate the sanctity of the Bhāgavata reply: “It was written in a difficult style, and became obsolete, and is lost.” “A very unsatisfactory plea”, retort their opponents; “for we still have the works of Śaṅkara, several of which are quite as difficult as any in the Sanskrit language.” The existence of this comment, too, rests upon the authority of Mādhwa or Mādha-

*वनि स्वादनवाहिको द्वादशस्याम्बिति: ||
हस्तस्यवर्षश्विषा वष स्वतंज्ञास्य: ||
मायाम म समाधास्यां भागवतेन विद्य: ||
कश्च द्वादश एवम एवेन बिलेन विहिताः: गुम्भा: ||
हालितिष्टित्तम्बुम पूर्वनस्यायाः: परिभाषितम्: ||
The first three of these five verses are quoted, professedly from the Purāṇārāṇya, near the beginning of Chitsukha’s Bhāgavata-kathā-sangraha.
va,* who, in a commentary of his own, asserts that he has consulted eight others. Now, amongst these is one by the monkey Hanumat; and, although a Hindu disputant may believe in the reality of such a composition, yet we may receive its citation as a proof that Mádhwa was not very scrupulous in the verification of his authorities.

There are other topics urged, in this controversy, on both sides, some of which are simple enough, some are ingenious: but the statement of the text is, of itself, sufficient to show, that, according to the received opinion, of all the authorities, of the priority of the eighteen Puráñas to the Bhárata, it is impossible that the Śrī Bhágavata, which is subsequent to the Bhárata, should be of the number; and the evidence of style, the superiority of which to that of the Puráñas in general is admitted by the disputants, is also proof that it is the work of a different hand. Whether the Deví Bhágavata have a better title to be considered as an original composition of Vyása, is equally questionable; but it cannot be doubted that the Śrī Bhágavata is the product of uninspired erudition. There does not seem to be any other ground than tradition for ascribing it to Bopadeva the grammarian: but there is no reason to call the tradition in question. Bopadeva flourished at the court of Hemádri, Raja of Devagiri, Deogur or Dowlutabad, and must, consequently, have lived prior to the conquest of that principality by the Mohammedans in the fourteenth century. The date of the

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twelfth century, * commonly assigned to him, is, probably, correct, and is that of the Bhágavata Puráña.

6. Nárada or Náradíya Puráña. "Where Nárada has described the duties which were observed in the Bríhat Kalpa, that is called the Náradíya, having twenty-five thousand stanzas."¹ If the number of verses be here correctly stated, the Puráña has not fallen into my hands. The copy I have analysed contains not many more than three thousand ślokas. There is another work, which might be expected to be of greater extent, the Bríhan Náradíya or great Nárada Puráña; but this, according to the concurrence of three copies in my possession, and of five others in the Company's library, contains but about three thousand five hundred verses. It may be doubted, therefore, if the Nárada Puráña of the Matsya exists.²

According to the Matsya, the Nárada Puráña is related

¹ यच्चाह नारदी धममानुष्टत्सक्ष्यान्मसानि ||
पञ्चविश्वतसहस्राणि नारदीरेपं तदुच्चते ||

² The description of Vishúu, translated by Colonel Vans Kennedy (Researches into the Nature and Affinity of Ancient and Hindu Mythology, p. 200) from the Náradíya Puráña, occurs in my copy of the Bríhan Náradíya. There is no Nárada Puráña in the East India Company's library, though, as noticed in the text, several of the Bríhan Náradíya. There is a copy of the Rukmángada Charitra, said to be a part of the Śrī Nárada Puráña.


I follow the western and southern pandits in preferring Bopadeva to Vopadeva, as the name is ordinarily exhibited.

Touching Bopadeva and Hemáári, see Dr. Aufrecht’s Catalog. Cod. Manuscript., &c., pp. 37 and 38.
by Nárada, and gives an account of the Br̥ihat Kalpa. The Náradīya Purāṇa is communicated, by Nárada, to the Rishis at Naimishāraṇya, on the Gomati river. The Br̥ihān Náradīya is related to the same persons, at the same place, by Sūta, as it was told by Nárada to Sanat-kumāra. Possibly, the term Br̥ihat may have been suggested by the specification which is given in the Matsya: but there is no description, in it, of any particular Kalpa or day of Brahmā.

From a cursory examination of these Purāṇas it is very evident that they have no conformity to the definition of a Purāṇa, and that both are sectarian and modern compilations, intended to support the doctrine of Bhakti or faith in Vishnū. With this view, they have collected a variety of prayers addressed to one or other form of that divinity; a number of observances and holydays connected with his adoration; and different legends, some, perhaps, of an early, others of a more recent, date, illustrative of the efficacy of devotion to Hari. Thus, in the Nárada, we have the stories of Dhruva and Prahlāda; the latter told in the words of the Vishnū: whilst the second portion of it is occupied with a legend of Mohini, the will-born daughter of a king called Ruk-māngada; beguiled by whom, the king offers to perform for her whatever she may desire. She calls upon him either to violate the rule of fasting on the eleventh day of the fortnight, a day sacred to Vishnū, or to put his son to death; and he kills his son, as the lesser sin of the two. This shows the spirit of the work. Its date may also be inferred from its tenor; as such monstrous extravagancies in praise of Bhakti are, certainly, of modern origin. One limit it furnishes, itself; for it refers
to Śuka and Parikshit, the interlocutors of the Bhágavata; and it is, consequently, subsequent to the date of that Puráña. It is, probably, considerably later; for it affords evidence that it was written after India was in the hands of the Mohammedans. In the concluding passage it is said: “Let not this Puráña be repeated in the presence of the ‘killers of cows’ and contemners of the gods.” It is, possibly, a compilation of the sixteenth or seventeenth century.

The Bríhan Náradíya is a work of the same tenor and time. It contains little else than panegyrical prayers addressed to Vishúu, and injunctions to observe various rites, and keep holy certain seasons, in honour of him. The earlier legends introduced are the birth of Márkań́deya, the destruction of Sagara’s sons, and the dwarf Avatára; but they are subservient to the design of the whole, and are rendered occasions for praising Náráyaña. Others, illustrating the efficacy of certain Vaishnáva observances, are puerile inventions, wholly foreign to the more ancient system of Pauránik fiction. There is no attempt at cosmogony, or patriarchal or regal genealogy. It is possible that these topics may be treated of in the missing stanzas: but it seems more likely that the Nárada Puráña of the lists has little in common with the works to which its name is applied in Bengál and Hindusthán.

7. Márkań́da or Márkań́deya Puráña. “That Puráña in which, commencing with the story of the birds that were acquainted with right and wrong, everything is narrated fully by Márkań́deya, as it was explained by holy sages, in reply to the question of the Muni. is called the Márkań́deya, containing nine thousand ver-
ses.”¹ This is so called from its being, in the first instance, narrated by Márkaṇḍeya Muni, and, in the second place, by certain fabulous birds; thus far agreeing with the account given of it in the Matsya. That, as well as other authorities, specify its containing nine thousand stanzas; but my copy closes with a verse affirming that the number of verses recited by the Muni was six thousand nine hundred; and a copy in the East India Company’s library has a similar specification. The termination is, however, somewhat abrupt; and there is no reason why the subject with which it ends should not have been carried on further. One copy in the Company’s library, indeed, belonging to the Guicowar’s collection, states, at the close, that it is the end of the first Khaṇḍa or section. If the Purāṇa was ever completed, the remaining portion of it appears to be lost.∗

Jaimini, the pupil of Vyāsa, applies to Márkaṇḍeya to be made acquainted with the nature of Vásudeva, and for an explanation of some of the incidents described in the Mahābhārata; with the ambrosia of which divine poem, Vyāsa, he declares, has watered the whole world: a reference which establishes the priority of the Bhārata to the Márkaṇḍeya Purāṇa, however incom-

¹ यज्ञाधिक्येऽश्रुतिमनुस्मरितविचारणानि
बाख्यात्वमसुनिप्रस्ते च्वाहिनिरिख्यतारितम्।
मार्क्कण्डिये वाचितं तत्तथं निर्किरण तु।
पुराणं नवसाहस्त्मार्क्कण्डियमिलिताचिते॥

† Two MSS. of the Matsya-purāṇa, out of four within my reach, omit the second and third lines. The other two give the second as follows:
बाख्यात्वमसुनिप्रस्ते परिविधिरिख्यतारितम्।
patible this may be with the tradition, that, having finished the Purānas, Vyāsa wrote the poem.*

Márkañdeya excuses himself, saying he has a religious rite to perform; and he refers Jaimini to some very sapient birds who reside in the Vindhya mountains; birds of a celestial origin, found, when just born, by the Muni Śamika, on the field of Kurukshetra, and brought up, by him, along with his scholars: in consequence of which, and by virtue of their heavenly descent, they became profoundly versed in the Vedas and a knowledge of spiritual truth. This machinery is borrowed from the Mahābhārata, with some embellishment. Jaimini, accordingly, has recourse to the birds, Pingáksha and his brethren, and puts to them the questions he had asked of the Muni: "Why was Vásudeva born as a mortal? How was it that Draupadí was the wife of the five Páñdus? Why did Baladeva do penance for Brahmanicide? And why were the children of Draupadí destroyed, when they had Krishña and Arjuna to defend them?" The answer: to these inquiries occupy a number of chapters, and form a sort of supple-

* In his account of the Márkañdeya-purāña, Professor Banerjea says: "We cannot help noticing, in this place, the dignity imputed to the work under review. It is classed in the same category with the Vedas, and described as an immediate product from Brahmā's mouth. Although a Purāña, it is not attributed to Vyāsa, whom other Śastras consider as the author of all works bearing that title. The Márkañdeya, however, does not acknowledge him as its composer, editor, or compiler. It claims equal honour, in this respect, with the Vedas themselves."

Again, with reference to the list spoken of in pp. XXIII. and XLI, supra: "As far as we have seen Bengal Manuscripts, the Márkañdeya presents a singular exception to this hackneyed enumeration of the eighteen Purānas, and the celebration of Vyāsa's name as the author of them all. The Maithila manuscripts, as they are commonly called, are not so chaste." Ibid., Preface, pp. 15 and 16.
ment to the Mahábhárata; supplying, partly by invention, perhaps, and partly by reference to equally ancient authorities, the blanks left in some of its narrations.

Legends of Vítrásura's death, Baládeva's penance, Harischandra's elevation to heaven, and the quarrel between Vasishtha and Viśvámitra, are followed by a discussion respecting birth, death, and sin; which leads to a more extended description of the different hells than is found in other Puráṇas. The account of creation which is contained in this work is repeated, by the birds, after Máraṇḍeya's account of it, to Kraushhṭuki, and is confined to the origin of the Vedas and patriarchal families, amongst whom are new characters, as Duhlśaha and his wife Márshti, and their descendents; allegorical personages, representing intolerable iniquity and its consequences. There is then a description of the world, with, as usual to this Puráṇa, several singularities, some of which are noticed in the following pages. This being the state of the world in the Sváyambhuva Manwantara, an account of the other Manwantaras succeeds, in which the births of the Manus, and a number of other particulars, are peculiar to this work. The present or Vaivaswata Manwantara is very briefly passed over; but the next, the first of the future Manwantaras, contains the long episodical narrative of the actions of the goddess Durgá, which is the especial boast of this Puráṇa, and is the text-book of the worshippers of Kálí, Chaṇḍí, or Durgá, in Bengal. It is the Chaṇḍi Pátha, or Durgá Máhátya, in which the victories of the goddess over different evil beings or Asuras are detailed with considerable power and spirit. It is read daily in the temples of Durgá, and furnishes
the pomp and circumstance of the great festival of Bengal, the Durgā pūjā, or public worship of that goddess.¹

After the account of the Manwantaras is completed, there follows a series of legends, some new, some old, relating to the Sun and his posterity; continued to Vaiivaswata Manu and his sons, and their immediate descendants; terminating with Dama, the son of Narishyanta.² Of most of the persons noticed the work narrates particulars not found elsewhere.

This Purāṇa has a character different from that of all the others. It has nothing of a sectarian spirit, little of a religious tone; rarely inserting prayers and invocations to any deity; and such as are inserted are brief and moderate. It deals little in precepts, ceremonial or moral. Its leading feature is narrative; and it presents an uninterrupted succession of legends, most of which, when ancient, are embellished with new circumstances, and, when new, partake so far of the spirit of the old, that they are disinterested creations of the imagination, having no particular motive, being designed to recommend no special doctrine or observance. Whether they are derived from any other source, or whether they are original inventions, it is not possible to ascertain. They are, most probably, for the greater part, at least, original; and the whole has been narrated in the compiler’s own manner; a manner superior to that of the Purāṇas in general, with exception of the Bhāgavata.

¹ A translation into English, by a Madras Pandit, Kāvali Ven-kāta Rāmaswāmin, was published at Calcutta, in 1823.
² See Vishńu Purāṇa, Book IV., Chapter I.
It is not easy to conjecture a date for this Puráña. It is subsequent to the Mahábhárata; but how long subsequent, is doubtful. It is, unquestionably, more ancient than such works as the Brahma, Padma, and Náradíya Puráñas; and its freedom from sectarian bias is a reason for supposing it anterior to the Bhágavata. At the same time, its partial conformity to the definition of a Puráña, and the tenor of the additions which it has made to received legends and traditions, indicate a not very remote age; and, in the absence of any guide to a more positive conclusion, it may, conjecturally, be placed in the ninth or tenth century.

8. Agni Puráña. "That Puráña which describes the occurrences of the Ísána Kalpa, and was related by Agni to Vaisishthá, is called the Ágneya. It consists of sixteen thousand stanzas."¹ The Agni or Ágneya Puráña derives its name from its having being communicated, originally, by Agni, the deity of fire, to the Muni Vaisishthá, for the purpose of instructing him in the twofold knowledge of Brahma.² By him it was taught to Vyása, who imparted it to Súta; and the latter is represented as repeating it to the Rishis at Naimishárañya. Its contents are variously specified as sixteen thousand, fifteen thousand, or fourteen thousand, stanzas. The two copies which were employed by me contain about fifteen thousand ślokas. There are two, in the

¹ यत्रदीर्घानेन कब्जेर्युष्टानिमयिदाष्ट च।
वसिष्ठायानां प्रसंशाकैः प्रजानितत तत्तापति॥

² See Book VI., Chapter V.
Company's library, which do not extend beyond twelve thousand verses; but they are, in many other respects, different from mine. One of them was written at Agra, in the reign of Akbar, in A. D. 1589.

The Agni Puráña, in the form in which it has been obtained in Bengal and at Benares, presents a striking contrast to the Márkańdeya. It may be doubted if a single line of it is original. A very great proportion of it may be traced to other sources; and a more careful collation—if the task was worth the time it would require—would probably discover the remainder.

The early chapters of this Puráña¹ describe the Avatáras, and, in those of Ráma and Kríshña, avowedly follow the Rámáyaña and Mahábhárata. A considerable portion is then appropriated to instructions for the performance of religious ceremonies; many of which belong to the Tántrika ritual, and are, apparently, transcribed from the principal authorities of that system. Some belong to mystical forms of Śaiva worship, little known in Hindustán, though, perhaps, still practised in the south. One of these is the Dikshá or initiation of a novice; by which, with numerous ceremonies and invocations, in which the mysterious monosyllables of the Tantras are constantly repeated, the disciple is transformed into a living personation of Śiva, and receives, in that capacity, the homage of his Guru. Inter-

¹ Analysis of the Agni Puráña: Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, March, 1832. * I have there stated, incorrectly, that the Agni is a Vaishnava Puráña. It is one of the Támasa or Śaiva class, as mentioned above.

* See Professor Wilson's collected works, Vol. III.
sprsersed with these are chapters descriptive of the earth and of the universe, which are the same as those of the Vishńu Puráña; and Māhátmyas or legends of holy places, particularly of Gayá. Chapters on the duties of kings and on the art of war then occur, which have the appearance of being extracted from some older work, as is, undoubtedly, the chapter on judicature,* which follows them, and which is the same as the text of the Mitákshará. Subsequent to these we have an account of the distribution and arrangement of the Vedas and Puráñas, which is little else than an abridgment of the Vishńu; and, in a chapter on gifts, we have a description of the Puráñas, which is precisely the same, and in the same situation, as the similar subject in the Matsya Puráña. The genealogical chapters are meagre lists, differing, in a few respects, from those commonly received, as hereafter noticed, but unaccompanied by any particulars such as those recorded or invented in the Márkańdeya. The next subject is medicine, compiled, avowedly, but injudiciously, from the Sauśruta. A series of chapters on the mystic worship of Śiva and Deví follows; and the work winds up with treatises on rhetoric, prosody, and grammar, according to the Sútras of Pingala and Páñini.

The cyclopædical character of the Agni Puráña, as it is now described, excludes it from any legitimate claims to be regarded as a Puráña, and proves that its

* According to Dr. Aufrecht: "Haec pars, paucis mutatis et additis, ex Yájnavalkyae legum codice desumta est." Then follows "Ṛgvidhánam, i. e., Ṛigvedi hymni sive disticha ad varias superstitiones adhibenda. Haec pars e Ṛigvidhána libello, qui et ipse serae originis indicia praec se fert excerpta est, multique versus ad literam cum illo consentiunt." Catalog. Cod. Manuscript., &c., p. 7.
origin cannot be very remote. It is subsequent to the Itihásas, to the chief works on grammar, rhetoric, and medicine, and to the introduction of the Tántrika worship of Deví. When this latter took place, is yet far from determined; but there is every probability that it dates long after the beginning of our era. The materials of the Agni Puráña are, however, no doubt, of some antiquity. The medicine of Suńskuta is considerably older than the ninth century; and the grammar of Páṇini probably precedes Christianity. The chapters on archery and arms, and on regal administration, are also distinguished by an entirely Hindu character, and must have been written long anterior to the Mohammedan invasion. So far the Agni Puráña is valuable, as embodying and preserving relics of antiquity, although compiled at a more recent date.

Colonel Wilford¹ has made great use of a list of kings derived from an appendix to the Agni Puráña, which professes to be the sixty-third or last section. As he observes, it is seldom found annexed to the Puráña. I have never met with it, and doubt its ever having formed any part of the original compilation. It would appear, from Colonel Wilford’s remarks, that this list notices Mohammed as the institutor of an era: but his account of this is not very distinct. He mentions, explicitly, however, that the list speaks of Śaliváhana and Vikramáditya: and this is quite sufficient to establish its character. The compilers of the Puráñas were not such bunglers as to bring within their chro-

ology so well known a personage as Vikramáditya. There are, in all parts of India, various compilations ascribed to the Puráñas, which never formed any portion of their contents, and which, although offering, sometimes, useful local information, and valuable as preserving popular traditions, are not, in justice, to be confounded with the Puráñas, so as to cause them to be charged with even more serious errors and anachronisms than those of which they are guilty.

The two copies of this work in the library of the East India Company appropriate the first half to a description of the ordinary and occasional observances of the Hindus, interspersed with a few legends. The latter half treats exclusively of the history of Ráma.

9. Bhavishya Puráña. “The Puráña in which Brahmá, having described the greatness of the sun, explained to Manu the existence of the world, and the characters of all created things, in the course of the Aghora Kalpa, that is called the Bhavishya; the stories being, for the most part, the events of a future period. It contains fourteen thousand five hundred stanzas.”

This Puráña, as the name implies, should be a book of prophecies, foretelling what will be (bhavishyati), as the Matsya Puráña intimates. Whether such a work exists, is doubtful. The copies, which appear to be entire, and of which there are three in the library of the East India Company, agreeing, in their contents, with two

\[\text{शिवभिक्षु महात्ममादिविभ करुणुः।} \\
\text{धोरिक्षूपूर्वानूमासपथिन भगविनिवृत्त} \\
\text{मन्वे जायोमास भूतयामास सष्टयाम} \\
\text{চরसंদश বহ্ষায় তথা পথ ভাবানি চ ॥} \\
\text{বিয়ন্তিপ্রত্য ভিবিঃ তদোহিত}। \]
in my possession, contain about seven thousand stanzas. There is another work, entitled the Bhavishyottara, as if it was a continuation or supplement of the former, containing, also, about seven thousand verses: but the subjects of both these works are but to a very imperfect degree analogous to those to which the Matsya alludes.¹

The Bhavishya Purâna, as I have it, is a work in a hundred and twenty-six short chapters, repeated by Sumantu to Satânîka, a king of the Pându family. He notices, however, its having originated with Swayamibhu or Brahmá, and describes it as consisting of five parts; four dedicated, it should seem, to as many deities, as they are termed, Bráhma, Vaishnava, Śaiva, and Twáshtra; whilst the fifth is the Pratisarga or repeated creation. Possibly, the first part only may have come into my hands; although it does not so appear by the manuscript.

Whatever it may be, the work in question is not a Purâna. The first portion, indeed, treats of creation; but it is little else than a transcript of the words of the first chapter of Manu. The rest is entirely a manual of religious rites and ceremonies. It explains the ten Saṃskáras or initiatory rites; the performance of the Sandhyá; the reverence to be shown to a Guru; the duties of the different Áśramas and castes; and enjoins a number of Vratas or observances of fasting and the

¹ Colonel Vans Kennedy states that he had "not been able to procure the Bhavishya Purâna, nor even to obtain any account of its contents." Researches into the Nature and Affinity of Ancient and Hindu Mythology, p. 158, note.
like, appropriate to different lunar days. A few legends enliven the series of precepts. That of the sage Chyavana is told at considerable length, taken, chiefly, from the Mahabharata. The Naga Panchami, or fifth lunation sacred to the serpent-gods, gives rise to a description of different sorts of snakes. After these, which occupy about one third of the chapters, the remainder of them conform, in subject, to one of the topics referred to by the Matsya. They chiefly represent conversations between Krishna, his son Samba,—who had become a leper by the curse of Durvasas,—Vasishtha, Narada, and Vyasa, upon the power and glory of the Sun, and the manner in which he is to be worshipped. There is some curious matter in the last chapters, relating to the Magas, silent worshippers of the sun, from Sakadwipa; as if the compiler had adopted the Persian term Magh, and connected the fire-worshippers of Iran with those of India. This is a subject, however, that requires further investigation.

The Bhavishyottara is, equally with the preceding, a sort of manual of religious offices; the greater portion being appropriated to Vratas, and the remainder, to the forms and circumstances with which gifts are to be presented. Many of the ceremonies are obsolete, or are observed in a different manner, as the Ratha-yatra or car-festival, and the Madanotsava or festival of spring. The descriptions of these throw some light upon the public condition of the Hindu religion at a period probably prior to the Mohammedan conquest. The different ceremonies are illustrated by legends, which are, sometimes, ancient; as, for instance, the destruction of the god of love by Siva, and his thence
becoming Ananga, the disembodied lord of hearts. The work is supposed to be communicated by Kṛishṇa to Yudhishthira, at a great assemblage of holy persons at the coronation of the latter, after the conclusion of the Great War.

10. Brahma Vaivarta Purāṇa. "That Purāṇa which is related by Sāvarṇi to Nārada, and contains the account of the greatness of Kṛishṇa, with the occurrences of the Rathantara Kalpa, where, also, the story of Brahmavāraha is repeatedly told, is called the Brahma Vaivarta, and contains eighteen thousand stanzas." The account here given of the Brahma Vaivarta Purāṇa agrees with its present state, as to its extent. The copies rather exceed than fall short of eighteen thousand stanzas. It also correctly represents its comprising a Māhātmya or legend of Kṛishṇa; but it is very doubtful, nevertheless, if the same work is intended.

The Brahma Vaivarta, as it now exists, is narrated, not by Sāvarṇi, but the Rishi Nārāyaṇa, to Nārada, by whom it is communicated to Vyāsa; he teaches it to Śūta; and the latter repeats it to the Rishi at Naimishāraṇya. It is divided into four Khaṇḍas or books, the Brāhma, Prakṛti, Gaṇeṣa, and Kṛishṇa Janma Khaṇḍas; dedicated, severally, to describe the acts of Brahmā, Devī, Gaṇeṣa, and Kṛishṇa; the latter, however, throughout absorbing the interest and importance of the work. In none of these is there any account of

1 रष्टारश्च कलष्च वृत्तान्तमधिक्षाल यत् ।
   सावर्शिना नारदायः क्रिष्णमाहत्यत्वमुत्तमम् ॥
   च त्रृणवराहेः चारितं वधेऽति मुखः ।
   तददादशसाहस्त्र त्रायविषयते भूषिते ॥
the Varāha Avatāra of Vishńu,—which seems to be intended by the Matsya,—nor any reference to a Ra-thantara Kalpa. It may also be observed, that, in describing the merit of presenting a copy of this Purāṇa, the Matsya adds: "Whoever makes such gift is honoured in the Brahma-loka"; * a sphere which is of very inferior dignity to that to which a worshipper of Krishña is taught to aspire by this Purāṇa. The character of the work is, in truth, so decidedly sectarial, and the sect to which it belongs so distinctly marked,—that of the worshippers of the juvenile Krishña and Rádhá, a form of belief of known modern origin,—that it can scarcely have found a notice in a work to which, like the Matsya, a much more remote date seems to belong. Although, therefore, the Matsya may be received in proof of there having been a Brahma Vai-varta Purāṇa at the date of its compilation, dedicated especially to the honour of Krishña, yet we cannot credit the possibility of its being the same we now possess.

Although some of the legends believed to be ancient are scattered through the different portions of this Purāṇa, yet the great mass of it is taken up with tiresome descriptions of Vrindávana and Goloka, the dwellings of Krishña on earth and in heaven; with endless repetitions of prayers and invocations addressed to him; and with insipid descriptions of his person and sports, and the love of the Gopis and of Rádhá towards him. There are some particulars of the origin of the

* पुराणं ब्रह्मविवर्तं यो द्वारायाचायमार्थि च।
पीष्यमास्यं स भवम् (?) ब्रह्मजीवि महियते॥
artificer castes,—which is of value, because it is cited as
authority in matters affecting them,—contained in the
Brahma Khaṇḍa; and, in the Prakṛiti and Ganeśa
Khaṇḍas, are legends of those divinities, not wholly,
perhaps, modern inventions, but of which the source
has not been traced. In the life of Kṛishṇa, the in-
cidents recorded are the same as those narrated in the
Vishṇu and the Bhāgavata; but the stories, absurd as
they are, are much compressed, to make room for or-
iginal matter still more puerile and tiresome. The
Brahma Vaivarta has not the slightest title to be re-
garded as a Purāṇa.¹

11. Linga Purāṇa. “Where Maheśwara, present in
the Agni Linga, explained (the objects of life) virtue,
wealth, pleasure, and final liberation at the end of the
Agni Kalpa,* that Purāṇa, consisting of eleven thousand
stanzas, was called the Lainga by Brahmā himself.”²

The Linga Purāṇa conforms, accurately enough, to
this description. The Kalpa is said to be the Ísāna:
but this is the only difference. It consists of eleven
thousand stanzas. It is said to have been originally
composed by Brahmā; and the primitive Linga is a

¹ Analysis of the Brahma Vaivarta Purāṇa: Journal of the
Asiatic Society of Bengal, June, 1832.†

² कथापिलिकः मथ्या: माहू उच्चि महिष्यः ।
धर्मविष्णुमोक्षवाणिभविष्णुसः ।
कथावर्ण बुद्धोस्तु वयं पद्मा ग्रहणः ।
तद्विकाविश्वांः * * * * * * * * *

* ? Instead of Professor Wilson’s कथाऩ्ति &c., one of the MSS. I have
seen has कथाऩ्ति; another, कथाऩ्ति; and another, कथ्य
tविश्वः; while the fourth is here corrupt past mending by conjecture.
† See Professor Wilson’s collected works, Vol. III.
pillar of radiance, in which Maheśwara is present. The work is, therefore, the same as that referred to by the Matsya.

A short account is given, in the beginning, of elemental and secondary creation, and of the patriarchal families; in which, however, Śiva takes the place of Vishṇu, as the indescribable cause of all things. Brief accounts of Śiva's incarnations and proceedings in different Kalpas next occur, offering no interest, except as characteristic of sectarian notions. The appearance of the great fiery Linga takes place, in the interval of a creation, to separate Vishṇu and Brahmā, who not only dispute the palm of supremacy, but fight for it; when the Linga suddenly springs up, and puts them both to shame; as, after travelling upwards and downwards for a thousand years in each direction, neither can approach to its termination. Upon the Linga the sacred monosyllable Om is visible; and the Vedas proceed from it, by which Brahmā and Vishṇu become enlightened, and acknowledge and eulogize the superior might and glory of Śiva.

A notice of the creation in the Padma Kalpa then follows; and this leads to praises of Śiva by Vishṇu and Brahmā. Śiva repeats the story of his incarnations, twenty-eight in number; intended as a counterpart, no doubt, to the twenty-four Avatāras of Vishṇu, as described in the Bhāgavata; and both being amplifications of the original ten Avatāras, and of much less merit as fictions. Another instance of rivalry occurs in the legend of Dadhīchi, a Muni, and worshipper of Śiva. In the Bhāgavata, there is a story of Ambarīsha being defended against Durvāsas by the discus of Vishṇu,
against which that Śaiva sage is helpless. Here, Vishṇu hurls his discus at Dadhichi: but it falls, blunted, to the ground; and a conflict ensues, in which Vishṇu and his partisans are all overthrown by the Muni.

A description of the universe, and of the regal dynasties of the Vaivaswata Manwantara to the time of Krishña, runs through a number of chapters, in substance, and, very commonly, in words, the same as in other Purāṇas; after which the work resumes its proper character, narrating legends, and enjoining rites, and reciting prayers, intending to do honour to Śiva under various forms. Although, however, the Linga holds a prominent place amongst them, the spirit of the worship is as little influenced by the character of the type as can well be imagined. There is nothing like the phallic orgies of antiquity: it is all mystical and spiritual. The Linga is twofold, external and internal. The ignorant, who need a visible sign, worship Śiva through a ‘mark’ or ‘type’—which is the proper meaning of the word ‘Linga’—of wood, or stone; but the wise look upon this outward emblem as nothing, and contemplate, in their minds, the invisible, inscrutable type, which is Śiva himself. Whatever may have been the origin of this form of worship in India, the notions upon which it was founded, according to the impure fancies of European writers, are not to be traced in even the Śaiva Purāṇas.

Data for conjecturing the era of this work are defective. But it is more a ritual than a Purāṇa; and the Paurāṇik chapters which it has inserted, in order to keep up something of its character, have been, evidently, borrowed for the purpose. The incarnations of Śiva,
and their ‘pupils’, as specified in one place, and the importance attached to the practice of the Yoga, render it possible that, under the former, are intended those teachers of the Śaiva religion who belong to the Yoga school,¹ which seems to have flourished about the eighth or ninth centuries. It is not likely that the work is earlier: it may be considerably later. It has preserved, apparently, some Śaiva legends of an early date; but the greater part is ritual and mysticism of comparatively recent introduction.

12. Varāha Purāṇa. “That in which the glory of the great Varāha is predominant, as it was revealed to Earth by Vishṇu, in connexion, wise Munis, with the Mānava Kalpa, and which contains twenty-four thousand verses, is called the Vārāha Purāṇa.”²

It may be doubted if the Varāha Purāṇa of the present day is here intended. It is narrated by Vishṇu as Varāha, or in the boar incarnation, to the personified Earth. Its extent, however, is not half that specified; little exceeding ten thousand stanzas. It furnishes, also, itself, evidence of the prior currency of some other work, similarly denominated; as, in the description of Mathurā contained in it, Sumantu, a Muni, is made to observe: “The divine Varāha in former times expounded a Purāṇa, for the purpose of solving the perplexity of Earth.”

¹ See Asiatic Researches, Vol. XVII., p. 187.*

² महावराहखः पुनसङ्ग्रहसंग्रहमधिक्षव च।
विशुद्धाभिंति जोयी तद्वराहसंग्रहितं॥
मानवसः प्रसंस्कृतं ज्ञानं मुनिमत्तम: ॥
चतुर्थिष्ठतहसङ्काषणत तन्तरायसमिहते॥

* See Professor Wilson’s collective works, Vol. I., p. 205.
Nor can the Varáha Puráña be regarded as a Puráña agreeably to the common definition; as it contains but a few scattered and brief allusions to the creation of the world and the reign of kings: it has no detailed genealogies, either of the patriarchal or regal families, and no account of the reigns of the Manus. Like the Linga Puráña, it is a religious manual, almost wholly occupied with forms of prayer and rules for devotional observances, addressed to Vishńu; interspersed with legendary illustrations, most of which are peculiar to itself, though some are taken from the common and ancient stock. Many of them, rather incompatibly with the general scope of the compilation, relate to the history of Śiva and Durgá. A considerable portion of the work is devoted to descriptions of various Tírthas, places of Vaishńava pilgrimage; and one of Mathurá enters into a variety of particulars relating to the shrines of that city, constituting the Mathurá Máhátya.

In the sectarianism of the Varáha Puráña there is no leaning to the particular adoration of Kríshńa; nor are the Rathayátra and Janmáshťami included amongst the observances enjoined. There are other indications of its belonging to an earlier stage of Vaishńava worship; and it may, perhaps, be referred to the age of Rám ánúja, the early part of the twelfth century.

1 One of these is translated by Colonel Vans Kennedy, the origin of the three Śaktis or goddesses, Saraswáti, Lakshmi, and Párvatí. Researches into the Nature and Affinity of Ancient and Hindu Mythology, p. 209. The Tri Śakti Máhátya occurs, as he gives it, in my copy, and is, so far, an indication of the identity of the Varáha Puráña in the different MSS.
13. Skanda Purāṇa. "The Skanda Purāṇa is that in which the six-faced deity (Skanda) has related the events of the Tatpurusha Kalpa, enlarged with many tales, and subservient to the duties taught by Maheśwara. Is is said to contain eighty-one thousand one hundred stanzas; so it is asserted amongst mankind."¹

It is uniformly agreed that the Skanda Purāṇa, in a collective form, has no existence; and the fragments, in the shape of Samhitās, Khaṇḍas, and Māhātmyas, which are affirmed, in various parts of India, to be portions of the Purāṇa, present a much more formidable mass of stanzas than even the immense number of which it is said to consist. The most celebrated of these portions, in Hindusthán, is the Kāśi Khaṇḍa, a very minute description of the temples of Śiva in or adjacent to Benares, mixed with directions for worshipping Maheśwara, and a great variety of legends explanatory of its merits and of the holiness of Kāśi. Many of them are puerile and uninteresting; but some are of a higher character. The story of Agastya records, probably, in a legendary style, the propagation of Hinduism in the south of India; and, in the history of Divodāsa, king of Kāśi, we have an embellished tradition of the temporary depression of the worship of Śiva, even in its metropolis, before the ascendancy of the followers of Buddha.² There is every reason to believe the greater

¹ यत्र महिष्कुञ्जरात्मोऽनंतनिधिः क यथमुखः।
कलेण तत्तुत्त्वे वृचं चारुतेषुपविन्त्यम्॥
खान्दे नाम पुराणं तदकाश्वीरितिन्यथाते।
सहस्राष्ट्र शृङ्ग चैकमिति मध्येनु गच्छति॥

² The legend is translated by Colonel Vans Kennedy: Re-
part of the contents of the Káśi Khaṇḍa anterior to
the first attack upon Benares by Mahmud of Ghizni.
The Káśi Khaṇḍa alone contains fifteen thousand stanzas.

Another considerable work ascribed, in Upper India,
to the Skanda Puráṇa, is the Utkala Khaṇḍa, giving
an account of the holiness of Orissa, and the Kṣetra
of Purushottama or Jagannátha. The same vicinage
is the site of temples, once of great magnificence and
extent, dedicated to Śiva, as Bhúvaneswara, which
forms an excuse for attaching an account of a Vaish-
ávava Tirtha to an eminently Saiva Puráṇa. There can
be little doubt, however, that the Utkala Khaṇḍa is
unwarrantably included amongst the progeny of the
parent work. Besides these, there is a Brahmottara
Khaṇḍa, a Revá Khaṇḍa, a Śiva Rahasya Khaṇḍa, a
Himavat Khaṇḍa, and others. Of the Samhítás the
chief are the Súta Samhítá, Sanatkumára Samhítá,
Saura Samhítá, and Kapila Samhítá: there are several
other works denominated Samhítás. The Máhátmyas
are more numerous still. According to the Súta Sam-
hítá, as quoted by Colonel Vans Kennedy, the Skanda

searches into the Nature and Affinity of Ancient and Hindu My-
thology, Appendix B.

1 In a list of reputed portions of the Skanda Puráṇa in the
possession of my friend, Mr. C. P. Brown, of the Civil Service of
Madras, the Samhítás are seven, the Khaṇḍas, twelve, besides
parts denominated Gítá, Kalpa, Stotra, &c. In the collection of
Colonel Mackenzie, amongst the Máhátmyas, thirty-six are said
to belong to the Skanda Puráṇa. Vol. I., p. 61. In the library
at the India House are two Samhítás, the Súta and Sanatkumára,
fourteen Khaṇḍas, and twelve Máhátmyas.

2 Researches into the Nature and Affinity of Ancient and
Hindu Mythology, p. 154, note.
Puráṇa contains six Śāṁhitás, five hundred Khaṇḍas, and five hundred thousand stanzas; more than is even attributed to all the Puráṇas. He thinks, judging from internal evidence, that all the Khaṇḍas and Śāṁhitás may be admitted to be genuine, though the Māhātmyas have rather a questionable appearance. Now, one kind of internal evidence is the quantity; and, as no more than eighty-one thousand one hundred stanzas have ever been claimed for it, * all in excess above that amount must be questionable. But many of the Khaṇḍas, the Kāśi Khaṇḍa, for instance, are quite as local as the Māhātmyas; being legendary stories relating to the erection and sanctity of certain temples, or groups of temples, and to certain Lingas; the interested origin of which renders them, very reasonably, objects of suspicion. In the present state of our acquaintance with the reputed portions of the Skanda Puráṇa, my own views of their authenticity are so opposed to those entertained by Colonel Vans Kennedy, that, instead of admitting all the Śāṁhitás and Khaṇḍas to be genuine, I doubt if any one of them was ever a part of the Skanda Puráṇa.

14. Vámana Puráṇa. “That in which the four-faced Brahmá taught the three objects of existence, as subservient to the account of the greatness of Trivikrama, which treats, also, of the Śiva Kalpa, and which consists of ten thousand stanzas, is called the Vámana Puráṇa.”

* But see the end of my third note in p. XXIV., supra.
† Professor Wilson here omitted a word of two syllables,—probably,
The Vámana Puráña contains an account of the dwarf incarnation of Vishńu: but it is related by Pulastya to Nárada, and extends to but about seven thousand stanzas. Its contents scarcely establish its claim to the character of a Puráña.¹

There is little or no order in the subjects which this work recapitulates, and which arise out of replies made by Pulastya to questions put, abruptly and unconnectedly, by Nárada. The greater part of them relate to the worship of the Linga; a rather strange topic for a Vaishńava Puráña, but engrossing the principal part of the compilation. They are, however, subservient to the object of illustrating the sanctity of certain holy places; so that the Vámana Puráña is little else than a succession of Máhátmyas. Thus, in the opening, almost, of the work occurs the story of Daksha’s sacrifice, the object of which is to send Śiva to Pápmochana Tírtha, at Benares, where he is released from the sin of Brahmanicide. Next comes the story of the burning of Kámadeva, for the purpose of illustrating the holiness of a Śiva-linga at Kedáreswara in the Himalaya, and of Badarikásrama. The larger part of the work consists of the Saro-máhátmya, or legendary exemplifications of the holiness of Stháńu Tírtha; that

¹ From the extracts from the Vámana Puráña translated by Colonel Vans Kennedy, pp. 293, et seq., it appears that his copy so far corresponds with mine; and the work is, therefore, probably, the same. Two copies in the Company’s library also agree with mine.

खार्ट। Instead of this, one of the four MSS. of the Matsya-puráña in the India Office Library has जीमेंि, and two have जूसूि.
is, of the sanctity of various Lingas and certain pools at Thanesar and Kurukhet, the country north-west from Delhi. There are some stories, also, relating to the holiness of the Godávarí river: but the general site of the legends is in Hindustán. In the course of these accounts, we have a long narrative of the marriage of Śiva with Umá, and the birth of Kárttikeya. There are a few brief allusions to creation and the Manwantaras; but they are merely incidental: and all the five characteristics of a Puráña are deficient. In noticing the Swárochisha Manwantara, towards the end of the book, the elevation of Bali as monarch of the Daityas; and his subjugation of the universe, the gods included, are described; and this leads to the narration that gives its title to the Puráña, the birth of Kṛishṇa as a dwarf, for the purpose of humiliating Bali by fraud, as he was invincible by force. The story is told as usual; but the scene is laid at Kurukshetra.

A more minute examination of this work than that which has been given to it, might, perhaps, discover some hint from which to conjecture its date. It is of a more tolerant character than the Puráñas, and divides its homage between Śiva and Vishúu with tolerable impartiality. It is not connected, therefore, with any sectarian principles, and may have preceded their introduction. It has not, however, the air of any antiquity; and its compilation may have amused the leisure of some Brahman of Benares three or four centuries ago.

14. Kúrma Puráña. “That in which Janárdana, in the form of a tortoise, in the regions under the earth, explained the objects of life—duty, wealth, pleasure, and liberation—in communication with Indradyumna
and the Rishis in the proximity of Sakra, which refers to the Lakshmi Kalpa, and contains seventeen thousand stanzas, is the Kūrma Purāṇa."

In the first chapter of the Kūrma Purāṇa, it gives an account of itself, which does not exactly agree with this description. Sūta, who is repeating the narration, is made to say to the Rishis: "This most excellent Kaurma Purāṇa is the fifteenth. Sāṁhitās are fourfold, from the variety of the collections. The Brāhmaṇi, Bhāgavatī, Saurī, and Vaishñavī are well known as the four Sāṁhitās which confer virtue, wealth, pleasure, and liberation. This is the Brāhmaṇi Sāṁhitā, conformable to the four Vedas; in which there are six thousand ślokas; and, by it, the importance of the four objects of life, O great sages, holy knowledge and Parameswara is known."* There is an irreconcilable difference in this specification of the number of stanzas and that

* १ चन धर्मार्थविवाहामां मोचस्य च रसाले।
  माहात्म्य काश्यामास कूमलिप्य जनार्दन।
  इन्नुषुभप्रसंगे चविभिः प्रजाभस्विभ।
  सपस्वस सहस्पाणि लब्धीकंत्यावस्थिकम्।

* २ २ तू परमदाम पुराणां श्रीमद्विजसम।
  चतुधा संख्यते पुरा संहिताग्न प्रमेयत।
  श्रावी भागवती सौरी वैष्णवी च प्रकृतितः।
  चतुः संहिताः पुरा धर्मकार्यविवाहेऽवच।
  दृष्टे तू संहिता ब्राह्मी चतुवेदेऽवच संभिता।
  सवर्णि चद्वहीविवाही श्रीकामामान संख्या।
  चन धर्मार्थविवाहामां मोचस्य च मुनिवरु।
  माहात्म्यमविल्ले प्राप्त चाचायते परमेश्वर।

So read the best MSS. of the Kūrma-purāṇa that are at present accessible to me.

† One of the four I. O. L. MSS. of the Matsya-purāṇa has चविभः।
given above. It is not very clear what is meant by a Samhitá, as here used. A Samhitá, as observed above (p. XIX.), is something different from a Puráña. It may be an assemblage of prayers and legends, extracted, professedly, from a Puráña, but is not, usually, applicable to the original. The four Samhitás here specified refer rather to their religious character than to their connexion with any specific work; and, in fact, the same terms are applied to what are called Samhitás of the Skanda. In this sense, a Puráña might be also a Samhitá; that is, it might be an assemblage of formulæ and legends belonging to a division of the Hindu system; and the work in question, like the Vishňu Puráña, does adopt both titles. It says: "This is the excellent Kaurma Puráña, the fifteenth (of the series)." And again: "This is the Bráhmí Samhitá." At any rate, no other work has been met with pretending to be the Kúrma Puráña.

With regard to the other particulars specified by the Matsya, traces of them are to be found. Although, in two accounts of the traditional communication of the Puráña, no mention is made of Vishňu as one of the teachers, yet Súta repeats, at the outset, a dialogue between Vishňu, as the Kúrma, and Indraḍyumna, at the time of the churning of the ocean; and much of the subsequent narrative is put into the mouth of the former.

The name, being that of an Avatára of Vishňu, might lead us to expect a Vaishńava work: but it is always, and correctly, classed with the Šaiva Puránas; the greater portion of it inculcating the worship of Śiva and Durgá. It is divided into two parts, of nearly
equal length. In the first part, accounts of the creation, of the Avatáras of Vishńu, of the solar and lunar dynasties of the kings to the time of Kṛishńa, of the universe, and of the Manwantaras, are given, in general in a summary manner, but, not unfrequently, in the words employed in the Vishńu Puráṇa. With these are blended hymns addressed to Maheśwara by Brahmá and others; the defeat of Andhakásura by Bhairava; the origin of four Śaktis, Maheśwári, Śivá, Sati, and Haimavatí, from Śiva; and other Śaiva legends. One chapter gives a more distinct and connected account of the incarnations of Śiva, in the present age, than the Linga; and it wears, still more, the appearance of an attempt to identify the teachers of the Yoga school with personations of their preferential deity. Several chapters form a Káśi Máhátmya, a legend of Benares. In the second part there are no legends. It is divided into two parts, the Íśwara Gíta¹ and Vyása Gíta. In the former, the knowledge of god, that is, of Śiva, through contemplative devotion, is taught. In the latter, the same object is enjoined through works, or observance of the ceremonies and precepts of the Vedas.

The date of the Kúrma Puráṇa cannot be very remote; for it is, avowedly, posterior to the establishment of the Tántrika, the Śákta, and the Jaina sects. In the twelfth chapter it is said: "The Bhairava, Váma, Árhata,

¹ This is also translated by Colonel Vans Kennedy (Researches into the Nature and Affinity of Ancient and Hindu Mythology; Appendix D., p. 444); and, in this instance, as in other passages quoted by him from the Kúrma, his MS. and mine agree.
and Yāmala Śāstras are intended for delusion." There is no reason to believe that the Bhairava and Yāmala Tantras are very ancient works, or that the practices of the left-hand Śāktas, or the doctrines of Arhat or Jina, were known in the early centuries of our era.

16. Matsya Purāṇa. "That in which, for the sake of promulgating the Vedas, Vishúu, in the beginning of a Kalpa, related to Manu the story of Narasimha and the events of seven Kalpas; that, O sages, know to be the Mātsya Purāṇa, containing twenty thousand stanzas."

We might, it is to be supposed, admit the description which the Matsya gives of itself to be correct; and yet, as regards the number of verses, there seems to be a misstatement. Three very good copies—one in my possession, one in the Company’s library, and one in the Radcliffe library—concur in all respects, and in containing no more than between fourteen and fifteen thousand stanzas. In this case the Bhágavata is nearer the truth, when it assigns to it fourteen thousand. We may conclude, therefore, that the reading of the passage is, in this respect, erroneous.* It is correctly said, that

\[
\text{"सुतिगां यत़ कल्याद्विष प्रमुखच्च जनादेनः";}
\text{मत्स्यपि मनवे नरसिंहस्व वर्णनम्} \]
\text{अविश्वायचर्यते सक्षयते मुनिन्यातः;}
\text{तन्त्रायामिति बाणीम्यं सहस्यान्यं विश्वति.}
\]

* Two out of the four I. O. L. MSS. of the Matsya-purāṇa—see the last line of the Sanskrit quoted in this page—give सहस्त्राणि चहुः, "fourteen thousand"; and the others exhibit evident corruptions of the same reading. That this reading is to be preferred, we have, besides the evidence, adduced by Professor Wilson, of the Bhágavata-purāṇa, that of the Devi-bhágavata and Revá-mádhyamya.
the subjects of the Puráña were communicated by Vishúu, in the form of a fish, to Manu.

The Puráña, after the usual prologue of Súta and the Rishis, opens with the account of the Matsya or 'fish' Avatára of Vishúu, in which he preserves a king, named Manu, with the seeds of all things, in an ark, from the waters of that inundation which, in the season of a Pralaya, overspreads the world. This story is told in the Mahábhárata, with reference to the Matsya as its authority; from which it might be inferred, that the Puráña was prior to the poem. This, of course, is consistent with the tradition that the Puráñas were first composed by Vyása. But there can be no doubt that the greater part of the Mahábhárata is much older than any extant Puráña. The present instance is, itself, a proof; for the primitive simplicity with which the story of the fish Avatára is told in the Mahábhárata, is of a much more antique complexion than the mysticism and extravagance of the actual Matsya Puráña. In the former, Manu collects the seeds of existing things in the ark; it is not said how: in the latter, he brings them all together by the power of Yoga. In the latter, the great serpents come to the king, to serve as cords wherewith to fasten the ark to the horn of the fish; in the former, a cable made of ropes is more intelligibly employed for the purpose.

Whilst the ark floats, fastened to the fish, Manu enters into conversation with him; and his questions and the replies of Vishúu form the main substance of the compilation. The first subject is the creation, which is that of Brahmá and the patriarchs. Some of the details are the usual ones; others are peculiar, especially those relating to the Pitris or progenitors. The regal
dynasties are next described; and then follow chapters on the duties of different orders. It is in relating those of the householder, in which the duty of making gifts to Brahmans is comprehended, that we have the specification of the extent and subjects of the Puráñas. It is meritorious to have copies made of them, and to give these away on particular occasions. Thus, it is said, of the Matsya: "Whoever gives it away at either equinox, along with a golden fish and a milch cow, gives away the whole earth;" that is, he reaps a like reward, in his next migration. Special duties of the householder—Vratas or occasional acts of piety—are then described at considerable length, with legendary illustrations. The account of the universe is given in the usual strain. Śaiva legends ensue: as the destruction of Tripuráśura; the war of the gods with Tárača and the Daityyas, and the consequent birth of Kárttikeya, with the various circumstances of Umá's birth and marriage, the burning of Kámadeva, and other events involved in that narrative; the destruction of the Asuras Maya and Andhaka; the origin of the Mátris, and the like; interspersed with the Vaishnava legends of the Avatáras. Some Máhátmyas are also introduced; one of which, the Narmadá Máhátmya, contains some interesting particulars. There are various chapters on law and morals, and one which furnishes directions for building houses and making images. We then have an account of the kings of future periods; and the Puráña concludes with a chapter on gifts.

* विष्णुवच हेममात्रेये चेतना चैव समान्वितम्।
यो द्वातृत्वातिति तत्र दृता भवति सार्विता॥
The Matsya Purāṇa, it will be seen, even from this brief sketch of its contents, is a miscellaneous compilation, but including, in its contents, the elements of a genuine Purāṇa. At the same time, it is of too mixed a character to be considered as a genuine work of the Paurāṇik class; and, upon examining it carefully, it may be suspected that it is indebted to various works, not only for its matter, but for its words. The genealogical and historical chapters are much the same as those of the Vishṇu; and many chapters, as those on the Pitris and Śráddhas, are precisely the same as those of the Śrīśūkhaṇḍa of the Padma Purāṇa. It has drawn largely also from the Mahābhārata. Amongst other instances, it is sufficient to quote the story of Śāvitrī, the devoted wife of Satyavan, which is given in the Matsya in the same manner, but considerably abridged.

Although a Śaiva work, it is not exclusively so; and it has not such sectarian absurdities as the Kūrma and Linga. It is a composition of considerable interest; but, if it has extracted its materials from the Padma,—which it also quotes on one occasion, the specification of the Upapurāṇas,—it is subsequent to that work, and, therefore, not very ancient.

17. Garuḍa Purāṇa. “That which Vishṇu recited in the Gāruḍa Kalpa, relating, chiefly, to the birth of Garuḍa from Vinatā, is here called the Gāruḍa Purāṇa; and in it there are read nineteen thousand verses.”

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1 चदा च गारूढ़ि वल्ले विनताग्रहस्त्रवम् ||
बधिहङ्क्राणवीविद्विपूरोङ्गोरं तद्द्विधोधति ||
तदाद्रश् वैथं च महस्तार्थपत्रिः पश्चिम् ||

*विश्वाक्राणवस्त्रवम् seems to be the more ordinary reading.

f
The Garuda Puráña which has been the subject of my examination corresponds in no respect with this description, and is, probably, a different work, though entitled the Garuda Puráña. It is identical, however, with two copies in the Company’s library. It consists of no more than about seven thousand stanzas; it is repeated by Brahmá to Indra; and it contains no account of the birth of Garuda. There is a brief notice of the creation; but the greater part is occupied with the description of Vratas or religious observances, of holydays, of sacred places dedicated to the sun, and with prayers from the Tántri Ka ritual, addressed to the sun, to Śiva, and to Vishńu. It contains, also, treatises on astrology, palmistry, and precious stones, and one, still more extensive, on medicine. The latter portion, called the Preta Kalpa, is taken up with directions for the performance of obsequial rites. There is nothing, in all this, to justify the application of the name. Whether a genuine Garuda Puráña exists is doubtful. The description given in the Matsya is less particular than even the brief notices of the other Puráñas, and might have easily been written without any knowledge of the book itself; being, with exception of the number of stanzas, confined to circumstances that the title alone indicates.

18. Brahmánda Puráña. * “That which has declared, in twelve thousand two hundred verses, the magnificence of the egg of Brahmá, and in which an account

* A very popular work which is considered to be a part of the Brahmánda-puráña, is the Adhyátya-rámáyaña. It has been lithographed, with the commentary of Nágosa Bhaffa, at Bombay. For some account of it, see Prof. Aufricht’s Catalog. Cod. Manuscript. &c., pp. 28 and 29.
of the future Kalpas is contained, is called the Brah-
mánda Puráña, and was revealed by Brahmá.”

The Brahmana Puráña is usually considered to be
in much the same predicament as the Skanda, no longer
procourable in a collective body, but represented by a
variety of Khaúdas and Múhátmýas, professing to be
derived from it. The facility with which any tract
may be thus attached to the non-existent original, and
the advantage that has been taken of its absence to
compile a variety of unauthentic fragments, have given
to the Brahmana, Skanda, and Padma, according to
Colonel Wilford, the character of being “the Puráñas
of thieves or impostors.”

This is not applicable to
the Padma, which, as above shown, occurs entire and
the same in various parts of India. The imposition of
which the other two are made the vehicles can deceive
no one; as the purpose of the particular legend is
always too obvious to leave any doubt of its origin.

Copies of what profess to be the entire Brahmana
Puráña are sometimes, though rarely, procurable. I
met with one in two portions, the former containing
one hundred and twenty-four chapters, the latter,
seventy-eight; and the whole containing about the
number of stanzas assigned to the Puráña. The first

\[1 \text{ यच्च} \text{ त्रहस्कुर्महात्मकयमधिकवातवित्युन्} \]
\[\text{तन्न वादशंसाहसं त्रहस्कुर्मधिश्वताधिकम्} \]
\[\text{भविष्यांचं कर्मानौ गृहयति यच्च विचारः} \]
\[\text{तन्न त्रहस्कुर्मापुराणं च त्रहस्कुर्मासः समुद्रदृशः} \]

\[2 \text{ As. Res., Vol. VIII., p. 252.}\]

\[?\]

\[\dagger \text{ The four I. O. L. MSS, of the Matsya have त्रहस्कुर्मा, not यच्च.}\]
and largest portion, however, proved to be the same as the Váyu Puráña, with a passage occasionally slightly varied, and at the end of each chapter the common phrase 'Iīti Brahmánda Puráñe' substituted for 'Iīti Váyu Puráñe'. I do not think there was any intended fraud in the substitution. The last section of the first part of the Váyu Puráña is termed the Brahmánda section, giving an account of the dissolution of the universe: and a careless or ignorant transcriber might have taken this for the title of the whole. The checks to the identity of the work have been honestly preserved, both in the index and the frequent specification of Váyu as the teacher or narrator of it.

The second portion of this Brahmánda is not any part of the Váyu: it is, probably, current in the Dakhin as a Saúhitá or Khańda. Agastya is represented as going to the city Kánchí (Conjeeveram), where Vishnu, as Hayagríva, appears to him, and, in answer to his inquiries, imparts to him the means of salvation, the worship of Paraśakti. In illustration of the efficacy of this form of adoration, the main subject of the work is an account of the exploits of Lalitá Deví, a form of Durgá, and her destruction of the demon Bháńdásura. Rules for her worship are also given, which are decidedly of a Śákta or Tántrika description; and this work cannot be admitted, therefore, to be part of a genuine Puráña.

The Upápuráñas, in the few instances which are known, differ little, in extent or subject, from some of those to which the title of Puráña is ascribed. The Matsya enumerates but four; but the Deví Bhágavata has a more complete list, and specifies eighteen. They

Of these Upapuráñas few are to be procured. Those in my possession are the Śiva, considered as distinct from the Váyu, the Káliká, and, perhaps, one of the Náradíyas, as noticed above. I have, also, three of the

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* For an account of the Narasimhá-puráña, see Prof. Aufrecht's Catalog. Cod. Manuscript., &c., pp. 82 and 83.
† In the Revá-máhátya, it is thus spoken of:

द्वितीयं नारसिंहं च पुराणी पद्यंस्वरूपितम्।

पाण्डु पुराणी यत्रसंवल्लकं गर्विशिष्टवर्णनम्।

तन्भादासाहस्रसं नारसिंहिप्रसंख्यं च।

नन्द्रायाः च नाहात्म्य काव्यिकमुक्तवाय नृत्तितः।

नन्द्रापुराणं तत्त्वाक्षराधनात्मिति कृतेऽविषेयः॥

Three of the 1. 0. L. copies of the Matsya-puráña mention, besides the Narasimhá and the Nándá, the Śamba and the Ādityá; while one copy omits the Śamba. It seems that the Oxford MS. omits the Ādityá. See Prof. Aufrecht's Catalog. Cod. Manuscript., &c., p. 40.
Skandhas of the Devī Bhāgavata, which, most undoubtedly, is not the real Bhāgavata, supposing that any Purāṇa so named preceded the work of Bopadeva. There can be no doubt that in any authentic list the name of Bhāgavata does not occur amongst the Upapurāṇas: it has been put there to prove that there are two works so entitled, of which the Purāṇa is the Devī Bhāgavata, the Upapurāṇa, the Śrī Bhāgavata. The true reading should be Bhārgava,* the Purāṇa of Bhrigu: and the Devī Bhāgavata is not even an Upapurāṇa. It is very questionable if the entire work, which, as far as it extends, is eminently a Śākta composition, ever had existence.†

The Śiva Upapurāṇa contains about six thousand stanzas, distributed into two parts. It is related by Sanatkumāra to Vyāsa and the Rishis at Naimishāraṇya; and its character may be judged of from the questions to which it is a reply. “Teach us”, said the Rishis, “the rules of worshipping the Linga, and of the god of gods adored under that type: describe to us his various forms, the places sanctified by him, and the prayers with which he is to be addressed.” In answer, Sanatkumāra repeats the Śiva Purāṇa, containing the birth of Viṣṇu and Brahmā; the creation and divisions of the universe; the origin of all things from the Linga; the rules of worshipping it and Śiva; the sanctity of

* This suggestion is offered by the anonymous author of the Durjana-mukha-padmā-pādutkā. See Burnouf’s Bhāgavata-purāṇa, Vol. I., Preface, p. LXXVII.

† The editor saw, at Benares, about twelve years ago, a manuscript of the Devi-bhāgavata, containing some 18,000 ślokas. Its owner, a learned Brahman, maintained that his copy was complete. To collect its various parts, he had travelled during many years, and over a large part of India,
times, places, and things, dedicated to him; the delusion of Brahmá and Vishúu by the Linga; the rewards of offering flowers and the like to a Linga; rules for various observances in honour of Mahádeva; the mode of practising the Yoga; the glory of Benares and other Šaiva Tirthas; and the perfection of the objects of life by union with Mahešwara. These subjects are illustrated, in the first part, with very few legends; but the second is made up, almost wholly, of Šaiva stories, as the defeat of Tripurásura; the sacrifice of Daksha; the births of Kárttikeya and Gañeśa, (the sons of Šiva), and Nandi and Bhūrīngaríti (his attendants), and others; together with descriptions of Benares and other places of pilgrimage, and rules for observing such festivals as the Šivarátri. This work is a Šaiva manual, not a Puráña.

The Káliká Puráña contains about nine thousand stanzas, in ninety-eight chapters, and is the only work of the series dedicated to recommend the worship of the bride of Šiva, in one or other of her manifold forms, as Girijá, Deví, Bhadrakálí, Kálí, Mahámáyá. It belongs, therefore, to the Šákta modification of Hindu belief, or the worship of the female powers of the deities. The influence of this worship shows itself in the very first pages of the work, which relate the incestuous passion of Brahmá for his daughter Sandhyá, in a strain that has nothing analogous to it in the Váyu, Linga, or Šiva Puráñas.

The marriage of Šiva and Párvatí is a subject early described, with the sacrifice of Daksha, and the death of Satí. And this work is authority for Šiva's carrying the dead body about the world, and the origin of the
Pithasthánas or places where the different members of it were scattered, and where Lingas were, consequently, erected. A legend follows of the births of Bhairava and Vetála, whose devotion to different forms of Deví furnishes occasion to describe, in great detail, the rites and formulæ of which her worship consists, including the chapters on sanguinary sacrifices, translated in the Asiatic Researches.* Another peculiarity in this work is afforded by very prolix descriptions of a number of rivers and mountains at Kámarúpa Tirtha, in Assam, and rendered holy ground by the celebrated temple of Durgá in that country, as Kámákhí or Kámkáshyá. It is a singular, and yet uninvestigated, circumstance, that Assam, or, at least, the north-east of Bengal, seems to have been, in a great degree, the source from which the Tántrika and Śáka corruptions of the religion of the Vedas and Puráñas proceeded.

The specification of the Upapuráñas, whilst it names several of which the existence is problematical, omits other works bearing the same designation, which are sometimes met with. Thus, in the collection of Colonel Mackenzie,¹ we have a portion of the Bhárgava, and a Mudgala Puráña, which is, probably, the same with the Gañéśa Upapuráña, cited by Colonel Vans Kennedy.² I have, also, a copy of the Gañéśa Puráña, † which

¹ Mackenzie Collection, Vol. I., pp. 50, 51.
² Researches into the Nature and Affinity of Ancient and Hindu Mythology, p. 251.

seems to agree with that of which he speaks; the second portion being entitled the Krídá Khaṇḍa, in which the pastimes of Gañēśa, including a variety of legendary matters, are described. The main subject of the work is the greatness of Gañēśa; and prayers and formulæ appropriate to him are abundantly detailed. It appears to be a work originating with the Gañapatya sect, or worshippers of Gañēśa. There is, also, a minor Purāṇa called Ādi or 'first', not included in the list. This is a work, however, of no great extent or importance, and is confined to a detail of the sports of the juvenile Krishṇa.

From the sketch thus offered of the subjects of the Purāṇas, and which, although admitting of correction, is believed to be, in the main, a candid and accurate summary, it will be evident, that, in their present condition, they must be received with caution, as authorities for the mythological religion of the Hindus at any remote period. They preserve, no doubt, many ancient notions and traditions; but these have been so much mixed up with foreign matter, intended to favour the popularity of particular forms of worship, or articles of faith, that they cannot be unreservedly recognized as genuine representations of what we have reason to believe the Purāṇas originally were.

The safest sources, for the ancient legends of the Hindus, after the Vedas, are, no doubt, the two great poems, the Rámáyaṇa and Mahábhárata. The first offers only a few; but they are of a primitive character. The Mahábhárata is more fertile in fiction; but it is more miscellaneous; and much that it contains is of equivocal authenticity and uncertain date. Still, it
affords many materials that are genuine; and it is, evidently, the great fountain from which most, if not all, of the Purāṇas have drawn; as it intimates, itself, when it declares, that there is no legend current in the world which has not its origin in the Mahābhārata. ¹

A work of some extent, professing to be part of the Mahābhārata, may, more accurately, be ranked with the Paurāṇik compilations of least authenticity and latest origin. The Hari Vaṁśa is chiefly occupied with the adventures of Kṛishṇa; but, as introductory to his era, it records particulars of the creation of the world, and of the patriarchal and regal dynasties. This is done with much carelessness and inaccuracy of compilation; as I have had occasion, frequently, to notice, in the following pages. The work has been very industriously translated by M. Langlois.

A comparison of the subjects of the following pages with those of the other Purāṇas will sufficiently show, that, of the whole series, the Viṣṇu most closely conforms to the definition of a Pancha-lakṣhaṇa Purāṇa, or one which treats of five specified topics. It comprehends them all; and, although it has infused a portion of extraneous and sectarian matter, it has done so with sobriety and with judgment, and has not suffered the fervour of its religious zeal to transport it into very wide deviations from the prescribed path. The legendary tales which it has inserted are few, and are conveniently arranged, so that they do not distract the

¹ अनायाधिकारमाक्यां कथा भूति न विचित्रति।

'Unconnected with this narrative, no story is known upon earth.' Ádi-parvan, 307.
attention of the compiler from objects of more permanent interest and importance.

The first book of the six, into which the work is divided, is occupied chiefly with the details of creation, primary (Sarga) and secondary (Pratisarga); the first explaining how the universe proceeds from Prakṛiti or eternal crude matter; the second, in what manner the forms of things are developed from the elementary substances previously evolved, or how they reappear after their temporary destruction. Both these creations are periodical; but the termination of the first occurs only at the end of the life of Brahmá, when not only all the gods and all other forms are annihilated, but the elements are again merged into primary substance, besides which, one only spiritual being exists. The latter takes place at the end of every Kalpa or day of Brahmá, and affects only the forms of inferior creatures, and lower worlds; leaving the substance of the universe entire, and sages and gods unharmed. The explanation of these events involves a description of the periods of time upon which they depend, and which are, accordingly, detailed. Their character has been a source of very unnecessary perplexity to European writers; as they belong to a scheme of chronology wholly mythological, having no reference to any real or supposed history of the Hindus, but applicable, according to their system, to the infinite and eternal revolutions of the universe. In these notions, and in that of the coeternity of spirit and matter, the theogony and cosmogony of the Puráñas, as they appear in the Vishúṇ Puráña, belong to and illustrate systems of high antiquity, of
which we have only fragmentary traces in the records of other nations.

The course of the elemental creation is, in the Vishńu, as in other Puráńas, taken from the Sánkhya philosophy; but the agency that operates upon passive matter is confusedly exhibited, in consequence of a partial adoption of the illusory theory of the Vedánta philosophy, and the prevalence of the Pauráńik doctrine of pantheism. However incompatible with the independent existence of Pradhána or crude matter, and however incongruous with the separate condition of pure spirit or Purusha, it is declared, repeatedly, that Vishńu, as one with the supreme being, is not only spirit, but crude matter, and not only the latter, but all visible substance, and Time. He is Purusha, ‘spirit’; Pradhána, ‘crude matter’; Vyakta, ‘visible form’; and Kála, ‘time’. This cannot but be regarded as a departure from the primitive dogmas of the Hindus, in which the distinctness of the Deity and his works was enunciated; in which, upon his willing the world to be, it was; and in which his interposition in creation, held to be inconsistent with the quiescence of perfection, was explained away by the personification of attributes in action, which afterwards came to be considered as real divinities, Brahmá, Vishńu, and Śiva, charged, severally, for a given season, with the creation, preservation, and temporary annihilation of material forms. These divinities are, in the following pages, consistently with the tendency of a Vaishńava work, declared to be no other than Vishńu. In Śaiva Puráńas, they are, in like manner, identified with Śiva; the Puráńas thus displaying and explaining the seeming incompatibility,
of which there are traces in other ancient mythologies, between three distinct hypostases of one superior deity, and the identification of one or other of those hypostases with their common and separate original.

After the world has been fitted for the reception of living creatures, it is peopled by the will-engendered sons of Brahmá, the Prajápatís or patriarchs, and their posterity. It would seem as if a primitive tradition of the descent of mankind from seven holy personages had at first prevailed, but that, in the course of time, it had been expanded into complicated, and not always consistent, amplification. How could these Rishís or patriarchs have posterity? It was necessary to provide them with wives. In order to account for their existence, the Manú Sváyanúbhúva and his wife Satarupá were added to the scheme; or Brahmá becomes twofold, male and female; and daughters are then begotten, who are married to the Prajápatís. Upon this basis various legends of Brahmá's double nature, some, no doubt, as old as the Vedas, have been constructed. But, although they may have been derived, in some degree, from the authentic tradition of the origin of mankind from a single pair, yet the circumstances intended to give more interest and precision to the story are, evidently, of an allegorical or mystical description, and conducted, in apparently later times, to a coarseness of realization which was neither the letter nor spirit of the original legend. Sváyanúbhúva, the son of the self-born or uncreated, and his wife Satarupá, the hundred-formed or multiform, are, themselves, allegories; and their female descendants, who become the wives of the Rishís, are Faith, Devotion, Content, In-
telligence, Tradition, and the like; whilst, amongst their posterity, we have the different phases of the moon and the sacrificial fires. In another creation, the chief source of creatures is the patriarch Daksha (ability), whose daughters—Virtues, or Passions, or Astronomical Phenomena—are the mothers of all existing things. These legends, perplexed as they appear to be, seem to admit of allowable solution, in the conjecture that the Prajápatiś and Rishis were real personages, the authors of the Hindu system of social, moral, and religious obligations, and the first observers of the heavens, and teachers of astronomical science.

The regal personages of the Swáyanibhuva Manwan-tara are but few; but they are described, in the outset, as governing the earth in the dawn of society, and as introducing agriculture and civilization. How much of their story rests upon a traditional remembrance of their actions, it would be useless to conjecture; although there is no extravagance in supposing that the legends relate to a period prior to the full establishment, in India, of the Brahmanical institutions. The legends of Dhruva and Prahláda, which are intermingled with these particulars, are, in all probability, ancient; but they are amplified, in a strain conformable to the Vaishnavá purport of this Puráña, by doctrines and prayers asserting the identity of Vishntu with the Supreme. It is clear that the stories do not originate with this Puráña. In that of Prahláda, particularly, as hereafter pointed out, circumstances essential to the completeness of the story are only alluded to, not recounted; showing, indisputably, the writer’s having availed himself of some prior authority for his narration.
The second book opens with a continuation of the kings of the first Manwantara; amongst whom, Bharata is said to have given a name to India, called, after him, Bhárata-varsha. This leads to a detail of the geographical system of the Puráñas, with mount Meru, the seven circular continents, and their surrounding oceans, to the limits of the world; all of which are mythological fictions, in which there is little reason to imagine that any topographical truths are concealed. With regard to Bhárata or India, the case is different. The mountains and rivers which are named are readily verifiable; and the cities and nations that are particularized may, also, in many instances, be proved to have had a real existence. The list is not a very long one, in the Vishúu Puráña, and is, probably, abridged from some more ample detail, like that which the Mahábhárata affords, and which, in the hope of supplying information with respect to a subject yet imperfectly investigated, the ancient political condition of India, I have inserted and elucidated.

The description which this book also contains of the planetary and other spheres, is equally mythological, although occasionally presenting practical details and notions in which there is an approach to accuracy. The concluding legend of Bharata—in his former life, the king so named, but now a Brahman, who acquires true wisdom, and thereby attains liberation—is, palpably, an invention of the compiler, and is peculiar to this Puráña.

The arrangement of the Vedas and other writings considered sacred by the Hindus,—being, in fact, the authorities of their religious rites and belief,—which is
described in the beginning of the third book, is of much importance to the history of Hindu literature and of the Hindu religion. The sage Vyása is here represented, not as the author, but the arranger or compiler, of the Vedas, the Itihásas, and Puráñas. His name denotes his character, meaning the ‘arranger’ or ‘distributor’;* and the recurrence of many Vyásas, many individuals who new-modelled the Hindu scriptures, has nothing, in it, that is improbable, except the fabu-

lous intervals by which their labours are separated. The rearranging, the refashioning, of old materials is nothing more than the progress of time would be likely to render necessary. The last recognized compilation is that of Kríshña Dwaipáyana, assisted by Bráhmans who were already conversant with the subjects respectively assigned to them. They were the members of a college, or school, supposed, by the Hindus, to have flourished in a period more remote, no doubt, than the truth, but not at all unlikely to have been instituted at some time prior to the accounts of India which we owe to Greek writers, and in which we see enough of the system to justify our inferring that it was then entire. That there have been other Vyásas and other schools since that date, that Bráhmans unknown to

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* Mahábhádrata, Adi-parvan, 2417:

विभाग वेदान्तपाल विद्याभास भूत सूतः।

“Inasmuch as he arranged the mass of the Vedas, he is styled Vyása.”

Again, ibid., Adi-parvan, 4236:

दी वेदान्तपालस्य भवानुभिषिः।

सोक्ष्यी आर्यमायो पिदे काम्भोहानुभावलमिव च॥

These two passages are referred to in Lassen’s Indische Alterthums-

See, further, Original Sanskrit Texts, Part II., p. 177, and Part. III.,

pp. 20, et seq., and p. 190.
fame have remodelled some of the Hindu scriptures, and, especially, the Puráñas, cannot reasonably be contested, after dispassionately weighing the strong internal evidence, which all of them afford, of the intermixture of unauthorized and comparatively modern ingredients. But the same internal testimony furnishes proof, equally decisive, of the anterior existence of ancient materials; and it is, therefore, as idle as it is irrational, to dispute the antiquity or authenticity of the greater portion of the contents of the Puráñas, in the face of abundant positive and circumstantial evidence of the prevalence of the doctrines which they teach, the currency of the legends which they narrate, and the integrity of the institutions which they describe, at least three centuries before the Christian era. But the origin and development of their doctrines, traditions, and institutions were not the work of a day; and the testimony that establishes their existence three centuries before Christianity, carries it back to a much more remote antiquity, to an antiquity that is, probably, not surpassed by any of the prevailing fictions, institutions, or belief, of the ancient world.

The remainder of the third book describes the leading institutions of the Hindus, the duties of castes, the obligations of different stages of life, and the celebration of obsequial rites, in a short but primitive strain, and in harmony with the laws of Manu. It is a distinguishing feature of the Vishńu Puráña, and it is characteristic of its being the work of an earlier period than most of the Puráñas, that it enjoins no sectarian or other acts of supererogation; no Vratas, occasional self-imposed observances; no holydays, no birthdays
of Kṛishṇa, no nights dedicated to Lakshmi; no sacrificces or modes of worship other than those conformable to the ritual of the Vedas. It contains no Māhātmyas or golden legends, even of the temples in which Vīshnū is adored.

The fourth book contains all that the Hindus have of their ancient history. It is a tolerably comprehensive list of dynasties and individuals: it is a barren record of events. It can scarcely be doubted, however, that much of it is a genuine chronicle of persons, if not of occurrences. That it is discredited by palpable absurdities in regard to the longevity of the princes of the earlier dynasties, must be granted; and the particulars preserved of some of them are trivial and fabulous. Still, there is an artificial simplicity and consistency in the succession of persons, and a possibility and probability in some of the transactions, which give to these traditions the semblance of authenticity, and render it likely, that they are not altogether without foundation. At any rate, in the absence of all other sources of information, the record, such as it is, deserves not to be altogether set aside. It is not essential to its credibility, or its usefulness, that any exact chronological adjustment of the different reigns should be attempted. Their distribution amongst the several Yugas, undertaken by Sir William Jones, or his Pandits, finds no countenance from the original texts, further than an incidental notice of the age in which a particular monarch ruled, or the general fact that the dynasties prior to Kṛishṇa precede the time of the Great War and the beginning of the Kali age; both which events we are not obliged, with the Hindus, to
place five thousand years ago. To that age the solar dynasty of princes offers ninety-three descents; the lunar, but forty-five; though they both commence at the same time. Some names may have been added to the former list, some omitted in the latter; and it seems most likely, that, notwithstanding their synchronous beginning, the princes of the lunar race were subsequent to those of the solar dynasty. They avowedly branched off from the solar line; and the legend of Sudyumna,¹ that explains the connexion, has every appearance of having been contrived for the purpose of referring it to a period more remote than the truth. Deducing, however, from the larger number of princes a considerable proportion, there is nothing to shock probability in supposing, that the Hindu dynasties and their ramifications were spread through an interval of about twelve centuries anterior to the war of the Mahábhárata, and, conjecturing that event to have happened about fourteen centuries before Christianity, thus carrying the commencement of the regal dynasties of India to about two thousand six hundred years before that date. This may, or may not, be too remote;² but it is sufficient, in a subject

¹ Book IV., Chapter I.
² However incompatible with the ordinary computation of the period that is supposed to have elapsed between the flood and the birth of Christ, this falls sufficiently within the larger limits which are now assigned, upon the best authorities, to that period. As observed by Mr. Milman, in his note on the annotation of Gibbon (II., 301), which refers to this subject: "Most of the more learned modern English protestants, as Dr. Hales, Mr. Faber, Dr. Russell, as well as the continental writers, adopt the larger
where precision is impossible, to be satisfied with the
general impression, that, in the dynasties of kings de-
tailed in the Puráñas, we have a record which, although
it cannot fail to have suffered detriment from age, and
may have been injured by careless or injudicious com-
ination, preserves an account, not wholly undeserving
of confidence, of the establishment and succession of
regular monarchies, amongst the Hindus, from as early
an era; and for as continuous a duration, as any in the
credible annals of mankind.

The circumstances that are told of the first princes
have evident relation to the colonization of India, and
the gradual extension of the authority of new races
over an uninhabited or uncivilized region. It is com-
monly admitted, that the Brahmanical religion and ci-
vilization were brought into India from without. ¹ Cer-
tainly, there are tribes on the borders, and in the heart
of the country, who are still not Hindus; and passages
in the Rámáyaña, and Mahábhárata, and Manu, and
the uniform traditions of the people themselves, point
to a period when Bengal, Orissa, and the whole of the
Dakhin were inhabited by degraded or outcaste, that
is, by barbarous, tribes. The traditions of the Puráñas

chronology."¹ To these may be added the opinion of Dr. Mill,
who, for reasons which he has fully detailed, identifies the com-
 mencement of the Kali age of the Hindus, B. C. 3102, with the
 era of the deluge. Christa Sangita, Introd., supplementary note.

¹ Sir William Jones on the Hindus (As. Res., Vol. III.);
Klaproth, Asia Polyglotta; Colonel Vans Kennedy, Researches
into the Origin and Affinity of the Principal Languages of Asia
and Europe; A. von Schlegel, Origines des Hindous (Transactions
of the Royal Society of Literature).
confirm these views: but they lend no assistance to the determination of the question whence the Hindus came; whether from a central Asiatic nation, as Sir William Jones supposed, or from the Caucasian mountains, the plains of Babylonia, or the borders of the Caspian, as conjectured by Klaproth, Vans Kennedy, and Schlegel. The affinities of the Sanskrit language prove a common origin of the now widely scattered nations amongst whose dialects they are traceable, and render it unquestionable that they must all have spread abroad from some centrical spot in that part of the globe first inhabited by mankind, according to the inspired record. Whether any indication of such an event be discoverable in the Vedas, remains to be determined; but it would have been obviously incompatible with the Paurānik system to have referred the origin of Indian princes and principalities to other than native sources. We need not, therefore, expect, from them, any information as to the foreign derivation of the Hindus.

We have, then, wholly insufficient means for arriving at any information concerning the ante-Indian period of Hindu history, beyond the general conclusion derivable from the actual presence of barbarous and, apparently, aboriginal tribes—from the admitted progressive extension of Hinduism into parts of India where it did not prevail when the code of Manu was compiled—from the general use of dialects in India, more or less copious, which are different from Sanskrit—and from the affinities of that language with forms of speech current in the western world—that a people who spoke Sanskrit, and followed the religion of the Vedas, came into
India, in some very distant age, from lands west of the Indus. Whether the date and circumstances of their immigration will ever be ascertained, is extremely doubtful: but it is not difficult to form a plausible outline of their early site and progressive colonization.

The earliest seat of the Hindus, within the confines of Hindustán, was, undoubtedly, the eastern confines of the Punjab. The holy land of Manu and the Puráñas lies between the Drishadwati and Saraswati rivers,—the Caggar and Sursooty of our barbarous maps. Various adventures of the first princes and most famous sages occur in this vicinity; and the Áśramas or religious domiciles of several of the latter are placed on the banks of the Saraswati. According to some authorities, it was the abode of Vyása, the compiler* of the Vedas and Puráñas; and, agreeably to another, when, on one occasion, the Vedas had fallen into disuse and been forgotten, the Brahmans were again instructed in them by Sáraswata, the son of Saraswati.† One of the most distinguished of the tribes of the Brahmans is known as the Sáraswata;‡ and the same word is employed, by Mr. Colebrooke, to denote that modification of Sanskrit which is termed generally Prakrit, and which, in this case, he supposes to have been the language of the Sáraswata nation, “which occupied the banks of the river Saraswati.”§ The river itself receives its appella-

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1 See Book III., Chapter VI., note ad finem.
2 As. Res., Vol. V., p. 55.†
3 Ibid., Vol. VII., p. 219.‡

* See my note in p. XCVIII., supra.
† Miscellaneous Essays, Vol. II., p. 179.
‡ Ibid., Vol. II., p. 21.
tion from Saraswati, the goddess of learning, under whose auspices the sacred literature of the Hindus assumed shape and authority. These indications render it certain, that, whatever seeds were imported from without, it was in the country adjacent to the Saraswati river that they were first planted, and cultivated, and reared, in Hindustan.

The tract of land thus assigned for the first establishment of Hinduism in India, is of very circumscribed extent, and could not have been the site of any numerous tribe or nation. The traditions that evidence the early settlement of the Hindus in this quarter, ascribe to the settlers more of a philosophical and religious, than of a secular, character, and combine, with the very narrow bounds of the holy land, to render it possible, that the earliest emigrants were the members, not of a political, so much as of a religious, community; that they were a colony of priests, not in the restricted sense in which we use the term, but in that in which it still applies in India, to an Agrahara, a village or hamlet of Brahmans, who, although married, and having families, and engaging in tillage, in domestic duties, and in the conduct of secular interests affecting the community, are, still, supposed to devote their principal attention to sacred study and religious offices. A society of this description, with its artificers and servants, and, perhaps, with a body of martial followers, might have found a home in the Brahmavarta of Manu, the land which, thence, was entitled 'the holy', or, more literally, 'the Brahman, region', and may have communicated to the rude, uncivilized, unlettered, aborigines the rudiments of social organization, litera-
ture, and religion; partly, in all probability, brought along with them, and partly devised and fashioned, by degrees, for the growing necessities of new conditions of society. Those with whom this civilization commenced would have had ample inducements to prosecute their successful work; and, in the course of time, the improvement which germinated on the banks of the Saraswati was extended beyond the borders of the Jumna and the Ganges.

We have no satisfactory intimation of the stages by which the political organization of the people of Upper India traversed the space between the Saraswati and the more easterly region, where it seems to have taken a concentrated form, and whence it diverged, in various directions, throughout Hindustán. The Manu of the present period, Vaivaswata, the son of the Sun, is regarded as the founder of Ayodhyá; and that city continued to be the capital of the most celebrated branch of his descendants, the posterity of Ikshwáku. The Vishńu Puráña evidently intends to describe the radiation of conquest or colonization from this spot, in the accounts it gives of the dispersion of Vaivaswata's posterity; and, although it is difficult to understand what could have led early settlers in India to such a site, it is not inconveniently situated as a commanding position whence emigrations might proceed to the east, the west, and the south. This seems to have happened. A branch from the house of Ikshwáku spread into Tirhoot, constituting the Maithila kings; and the posterity of another of Vaivaswata's sons reigned at Vaiśáli, in Southern Tirhoot, or Sarun.
The most adventurous emigrations, however, took place through the lunar dynasty, which, as observed above, originates from the solar; making, in fact, but one race and source for the whole. Leaving out of consideration the legend of Sudyumna’s double transformation, the first prince of Pratishthána, a city south from Ayodhyá, was one of Vaivaswata’s children, equally with Ikshwáku. The sons of Purúravas, the second of this branch, extended, by themselves, or their posterity, in every direction: to the east, to Káśi, Magadhá, Benares, and Behar; southwards, to the Vindhyá hills, and, across them, to Vidarbha or Berar; westwards, along the Narmadá, to Kuśasthalí or Dwárraká in Gujarát; and, in a north-westerly direction, to Mathurá and Hastinápure. These movements are very distinctly discoverable amidst the circumstances narrated in the fourth book of the Vishúu Puráña, and are precisely such as might be expected from a radiation of colonies from Ayodhyá. Intimations also occur of settlements in Banga, Kalinga, and the Dakhin: but they are brief and indistinct, and have the appearance of additions subsequent to the comprehension of those countries within the pale of Hinduism.

Besides these traces of migration and settlement, several curious circumstances, not likely to be unauthorized inventions, are hinted in these historical traditions. The distinction of castes was not fully developed prior to the colonization. Of the sons of Vaivaswata, some, as kings, were Kshatriyas; but one founded a tribe of Brahmans, another became a Vaiśya, and a fourth, a Śúdra. It is also said, of other princes, that they established the four castes amongst their sub-
jects. ¹ There are, also, various notices of Brahmanical Gotras or families, proceeding from Kshatriya races;² and there are several indications of severe struggles between the two ruling castes, not for temporal, but for spiritual, dominion, the right to teach the Vedas. This seems to be the especial purport of the inveterate hostility that prevailed between the Brahman Vasishthiha and the Kshatriya Viśwāmitra, who, as the Rāmāyana relates, compelled the gods to make him a Brahman also, and whose posterity became very celebrated as the Kauśika Brahmans. Other legends, again, such as Daksha’s sacrifice, denote sectarian strife; and the legend of Paraśurāma reveals a conflict even for temporal authority, between the two ruling castes. More or less weight will be attached to these conjectures, according to the temperament of different inquirers. But, even whilst fully aware of the facility with which plausible deductions may cheat the fancy, and little disposed to relax all curb upon the imagination, I find it difficult to regard these legends as wholly unsubstantial fictions, or devoid of all resemblance to the realities of the past.

After the date of the great war, the Vishnū Purāṇa, in common with those Purāṇas which contain similar lists, specifies kings and dynasties with greater precision, and offers political and chronological particulars to which, on the score of probability, there is nothing to object. In truth, their general accuracy has been incontrovertibly established. Inscriptions on columns

¹ See Book IV., Chapters VIII. and XVIII., &c.
² See Book IV., Chapter XIX.
of stone, on rocks, on coins, deciphered only of late years, through the extraordinary ingenuity and perseverance of Mr. James Prinsep, have verified the names of races and titles of princes—the Gupta and Andhra Rajas, mentioned in the Puráñas—and have placed beyond dispute the identity of Chandragupta and Sandrocoptus; thus giving us a fixed point from which to compute the date of other persons and events. Thus, the Vishńu Puráña specifies the interval between Chandragupta and the Great War to be eleven hundred years; and the occurrence of the latter little more than fourteen centuries B. C., as shown in my observations on the passage,¹ remarkably concurs with inferences of the like date from different premises. The historical notices that then follow are considerably confused; but they probably afford an accurate picture of the political distractions of India at the time when they were written: and much of the perplexity arises from the corrupt state of the manuscripts, the obscure brevity of the record, and our total want of the means of collateral illustration.

The fifth book of the Vishńu Puráña is exclusively occupied with the life of Kríshńa. This is one of the distinguishing characteristics of the Puráña, and is one argument against its antiquity. It is possible, though not yet proved, that Kríshńa, as an Avatára of Vishńu, is mentioned in an indisputably genuine text of the Vedas. He is conspicuously prominent in the Mahábhárata, but very contradictorily described there. The part that he usually performs is that of a mere mortal;

¹ See Book IV., Chapter XXIV.
although the passages are numerous that attach divinity to his person. There are, however, no descriptions, in the Mahábhárata, of his juvenile frolics, of his sports in Vrindávana, his pastimes with the cow-boys, or even his destruction of the Asuras sent to kill him. These stories have, all, a modern complexion; they do not harmonize with the tone of the ancient legends, which is, generally, grave, and, sometimes, majestic. They are the creations of a puerile taste and grovelling imagination. These chapters of the Vishńu Puráña offer some difficulties as to their originality. They are the same as those on the same subject in the Brahma Puráña: they are not very dissimilar to those of the Bhágavata. The latter has some incidents which the Vishńu has not, and may, therefore, be thought to have improved upon the prior narrative of the latter. On the other hand, abridgment is equally a proof of posteriority as amplification. The simpler style of the Vishńu Puráña is, however, in favour of its priority; and the miscellaneous composition of the Brahma Puráña renders it likely to have borrowed these chapters from the Vishńu. The life of Kríshña in the Hari Vamśa and the Brahma Vaivarta are, indisputably, of later date.

The last book contains an account of the dissolution of the world, in both its major and minor cataclysms; and, in the particulars of the end of all things by fire and water, as well as in the principle of their perpetual renovation, presents a faithful exhibition of opinions that were general in the ancient world.¹ The meta-

¹ Dr. Thomas Burnet has collected the opinions of the ancient world on this subject, tracing them, as he says, "to the earliest
physical annihilation of the universe, by the release of the spirit from bodily existence, offers, as already re-
marked, other analogies to doctrines and practices taught by Pythagoras and Plato, and by the Platonic Christians of later days.

The Vishāu Purāṇa has kept very clear of particulars from which an approximation to its date may be conjectured. No place is described of which the sacredness has any known limit, nor any work cited of probable recent composition. The Vedas, the Purāṇas, other works forming the body of Sanskrit literature, are named; and so is the Mahābhārata, to which, therefore, it is subsequent. Both Baudhās and Jainas are adverted to. It was, therefore, written before the former had disappeared. But they existed, in some parts of India, as late as the twelfth century, at least; and it is probable that the Purāṇa was compiled before that period. The Guptas reigned in the seventh century.* The historical record of the Purāṇa which mentions them was, therefore, later: and there seems little doubt that the same alludes to the first incursions of the Mohammedans, which took place in the eighth century; which brings it still lower. In describing the latter dynasties, some, if not all, of which were, no doubt, contemporary, they are described as reigning,

people, and the first appearances of wisdom after the Flood.’’ Sacred Theory of the Earth, Book III., Chapter III. The Hindu account explains what is imperfect or contradictory in ancient tradition, as handed down from other and less carefully perpetuated sources.

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* More recent researches have rendered this conclusion doubtful.
altogether, one thousand seven hundred and ninety-six years. Why this duration should have been chosen does not appear; unless, in conjunction with the number of years which are said to have elapsed between the Great War and the last of the Andhra dynasty, which preceded these different races, and which amounted to two thousand three hundred and fifty, the compiler was influenced by the actual date at which he wrote. The aggregate of the two periods would be the Kali year 4146, equivalent to A. D. 1045. There are some variety and indistinctness in the enumeration of the periods which compose this total: but the date which results from it is not unlikely to be an approximation to that of the Vishńu Puráña.

It is the boast of inductive philosophy, that it draws its conclusions from the careful observation and accumulation of facts; and it is, equally, the business of all philosophical research to determine its facts before it ventures upon speculation. This procedure has not been observed in the investigation of the mythology and traditions of the Hindus. Impatience to generalize has availed itself greedily of whatever promised to afford materials for generalization; and the most erroneous views have been confidently advocated, because the guides to which their authors trusted were ignorant or insufficient. The information gleaned by Sir William Jones was gathered in an early season of Sanskrit study, before the field was cultivated. The same may be said of the writings of Paolino da S. Bartolomeo,¹ with the further disadvantage of his having

¹ Systema Brahmanicum, &c.
been imperfectly acquainted with the Sanskrit language and literature, and his veiling his deficiencies under loftiness of pretension and a prodigal display of misapplied erudition. The documents to which Wilford\textsuperscript{1} trusted proved to be, in great part, fabrications, and, where genuine, were mixed up with so much loose and unauthenticated matter, and so overwhelmed with extravagance of speculation, that his citations need to be carefully and skilfully sifted, before they can be serviceably employed. The descriptions of Ward\textsuperscript{2} are too deeply tinctured by his prejudices to be implicitly confided in; and they are also derived, in a great measure, from the oral or written communications of Bengali pandits, who are not, in general, very deeply read in the authorities of their mythology. The accounts of Polier\textsuperscript{3} were, in like manner, collected from questionable sources; and his Mythologie des Indous presents an heterogeneous mixture of popular and Paurânik tales, of ancient traditions, and legends apparently invented for the occasion, which renders the publication worse than useless, except in the hands of those who can distinguish the pure metal from the alloy. Such are the authorities to which Maurice, Faber, and Creuzer have exclusively trusted, in their description of the Hindu mythology; and it is no marvel that there should have been an utter confounding of good and bad in their selection of materials, and an inextricable

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\textsuperscript{1} Asiatic Researches.

\textsuperscript{2} View of the History, Literature, and Religion of the Hindoos, with a Description of their Manners and Customs.

\textsuperscript{3} Mythologie des Indous, edited by la Chanoinessse de Polier.
mixture of truth and error in their conclusions. Their labours, accordingly, are far from entitled to that confidence which their learning and industry would, else, have secured; and a sound and comprehensive survey of the Hindu system is still wanting to the comparative analysis of the religious opinions of the ancient world, and to a satisfactory elucidation of an important chapter in the history of the human race. It is with the hope of supplying some of the necessary means for the accomplishment of these objects, that the following pages have been translated.

The translation of the Vishnu Purāṇa has been made from a collation of various manuscripts in my possession. I had three, when I commenced the work; two in the Devanagari, and one in the Bengali, character. A fourth, from the west of India, was given to me by Major Jervis, when some progress had been made; and, in conducting the latter half of the translation through the press, I have compared it with three other copies in the library of the East India Company. All these copies closely agree; presenting no other differences than occasional varieties of reading, owing, chiefly, to the inattention or inaccuracy of the transcriber. Four of the copies were accompanied by a commentary, essentially the same, although occasionally varying, and ascribed, in part, at least, to two different scholiasts. The annotations on the first two books and the fifth are, in two MSS., said to be the work of Śrīdhara Yati, the disciple of Parānanda Nṛiharī, and who is, therefore, the same as Śrīdhara Śvāmin, the commentator on the Bhāgavata. In the other three books, these two MSS. concur with other two in
naming the commentator Ratnagarbha Bhattacharya, who, in those two, is the author of the notes on the entire work. The introductory verses* of his comment specify him to be the disciple of Vidyāvāchaspati, the son of Hiraṇyagarbha, and grandson of Mādhava, who composed his commentary by desire of Sūryākara, son of Ratinkhath Miśra, son of Chandrákara, hereditary ministers of some sovereign who is not particularized. In the illustrations which are attributed to these different writers, there is so much conformity, that one or other is largely indebted to his predecessor. They both refer to earlier commentaries. Śrīdhara cites the works of Chitsukha Yogin and others, both more extensive and more concise; between which, his own, which he terms Atma- or Swa-prakāśa, 'self-illuminator',

* The verses referred to are as follows:

हिरण्यगभेतनयो माधवसारवभावः
श्रीरामभेतपरं वैष्णवार्थहिंद्रियाभः
परायससहितसारं पीलस्यालौकवं वरात
परायससहितसारं पीलस्य विकस्यार्थम
पदहुर्क चर्देशं तद्यथा चत्त्वा स्वयं
श्रीमूर्थाकारभिमिश्रातिविनिहारः संस्कृतेऽवतः

At the end of Ratnagarbha's commentary we read:

चद्दच्छ ग्रन्थः सुकुटपदपदायादिविविविकुः
च वैविष्णवः सूक्तवर्तिनः सद्वितिलियः
चतो विविष्णवविविदविविचनदश्रिविलियतः
मयाः वचनादीचनदृश्यं कृष्णं सहदयः
चद्दच्छ तनवो रत्नायामिनः
धृष्टिन्द्रस्मादिदृश्यं सद्वितिलियः
सुविितविविदविविकुः चत्त्रात्
संप्रार्थिं विविष्णवालस्य विविष्णवालस्य विविरः
holds an intermediate character.* Ratnagarbha entitles his, Vaishṇavākūta-chandrikā, ‘the moonlight of devotion to Viṣṇu.’ The dates of these commentators are not ascertainable, as far as I am aware, from any of the particulars which they have specified.

In the notes which I have added to the translation, I have been desirous, chiefly, of comparing the statements of the text with those of other Purāṇas, and pointing out the circumstances in which they differ or agree; so as to render the present publication a sort of concordance to the whole; as it is not very probable that many of them will be published or translated. The Index that follows† has been made sufficiently copious to answer the purposes of a mythological and historical dictionary, as far as the Purāṇas, or the greater number of them, furnish materials.

In rendering the text into English, I have adhered to it as literally as was compatible with some regard to the usages of English composition. In general, the original presents few difficulties. The style of the Purāṇas is, very commonly, humble and easy; and the narrative is plainly and unpretendingly told. In the addresses to the deities, in the expatiations upon the divine nature, in the descriptions of the universe, and

* Śrīdhara, at the opening of his commentary, writes thus:

श्रीमंदिति भधोगिताकुर्चितवाक्षर निरीक्षे शुद्धं 
तद्वारायिष सुवोधर्म्यवहतीमानमन्तकाशाभिघास्।
श्रीमेधिश्चुराणांचारितवृत्ति वर्ति यति: श्रीभर- 
स्वामि समुद्रपादप्रणमधुपः साधुः स्वधीरुवचे।
श्रीमेधिश्चुराणांक्ष्य वाक्षरां स्वतांत्रिविश्वराम।
प्राचामानिकां तद्व्वधाभ्य भद्भक्ष लघुमेयं विद्यते।

† A new and amplified Index will be given at the end of the last volume.
in argumentative and metaphysical discussion, there occur passages in which the difficulty arising from the subject itself is enhanced by the brief and obscure manner in which it is treated. On such occasions, I derived much aid from the commentary. But it is possible that I may have, sometimes, misapprehended and misrepresented the original; and it is, also, possible that I may have sometimes failed to express its purport with sufficient precision to have made it intelligible. I trust, however, that this will not often be the case, and that the translation of the Vishńu Puráña will be of service and of interest to the few who, in these times of utilitarian selfishness, conflicting opinion, party virulence, and political agitation, can find a resting-place for their thoughts in the tranquil contemplation of those yet living pictures of the ancient world which are exhibited by the literature and mythology of the Hindus.
CONTENTS.

BOOK I.

CHAPTER I.
Invocation. Maitreya inquires of his teacher, Parásara, the origin and nature of the universe. Parásara performs a rite to destroy the demons: reproved by Vasishtha, he desists: Pulastya appears, and bestows upon him divine knowledge: he repeats the Vishúu Puráña. Vishúu the origin, existence, and end of all things.

CHAPTER II.
Prayer of Parásara to Vishúu. Successive narration of the Vishúu Puráña. Explanation of Vásudeva: his existence before creation: his first manifestations. Description of Pradhána or the chief principle of things. Cosmogony. Of Prákṛita or material creation; of time; of the active cause. Development of effects; Mahat; Abhåhkára; Tanmátras; elements; objects of sense; senses; of the mundane egg. Vishúu the same as Brahmá the creator, Vishúu the preserver, Rudra the destroyer.

CHAPTER III.
Measure of time. Moments or Káshíhás, &c.; day and night; fortnight, month, year, divine year: Yugas or ages: Mahágayug or great age: day of Brahmá: periods of the Manus: a Manvantara: night of Brahmá and destruction of the world: a year of Brahmá: his life: a Kalpa: a Parárdha: the past or Pádma Kalpa: the present or Váráha.
CXX

CONTENTS.

CHAPTER IV.
Náráyaṇa’s appearance, in the beginning of the Kalpa, as the Varáha or boar: Prithivi (Earth) addresses him: he raises the world from beneath the waters: hymned by Sanandana and the Yogins. The earth floats on the ocean: divided into seven zones. The lower spheres of the universe restored. Creation renewed.

CHAPTER V.
Vishńu, as Brahmá, creates the world. General characteristics of creation. Brahmá meditates, and gives origin to immovable things, animals, gods, men. Specific creation of nine kinds: Mahat, Tannátra, Aṇḍriya, inanimate objects, animals, gods, men, Anugraha, and Kaumára. More particular account of creation. Origin of different orders of beings from Brahmá’s body under different conditions, and of the Vedas from his mouths. All things created again as they existed in a former Kalpa.

CHAPTER VI.

CHAPTER VII.
Creation continued. Production of the mind-born sons of Brahmá; of the Prajápatis; of Sanandana and others; of Rudra and the eleven Rudras; of the Manu Swáyambhuva and his wife Śata-rúpá; of their children. The daughters of Daksha, and their marriage to Dharma and others. The progeny of Dharma and Adharma. The perpetual succession of worlds, and different modes of mundane dissolution.

CHAPTER VIII.
Origin of Rudra: his becoming eight Rudras: their wives and children. The posterity of Bhṛigu. Account of Śrí in conjunction with Vishńu. (Sacrifice of Daksha.)
CONTENTS.

CHAPTER IX.
Legend of Lakshmi. Durvásas gives a garland to Indra: he treats it disrespectfully, and is cursed by the Muni. The power of the gods impaired: they are oppressed by the Dánava, and have recourse to Vishńu. The churning of the ocean. Praises of Śrí.

CHAPTER X.
The descendants of the daughters of Daksha married to the Šris.

CHAPTER XI.
Legend of Dhruva, the son of Uttánapáda: he is unkindly treated by his father’s second wife: applies to his mother: her advice: he resolves to engage in religious exercises: sees the seven Šris, who recommend him to propitiate Vishńu.

CHAPTER XII.
Dhruva commences a course of religious austerities. Unsuccessful attempts of Indra and his ministers to distract Dhruva’s attention: they appeal to Vishńu, who allays their fears, and appears to Dhruva. Dhruva praises Vishńu, and is raised to the skies, as the pole-star.

CHAPTER XIII.
Posterity of Dhruva. Legend of Vena: his impiety: he is put to death by the Šris. Anarchy ensues. The production of Nisháda and Prithu: the latter the first king. The origin of of Súta and Mágadhá: they enumerate the duties of kings. Prithu compels Earth to acknowledge his authority: he levels it: introduces cultivation: erects cities. Earth called, after him, Prithivi: typified as a cow.

CHAPTER XIV.
Descendants of Prithu. Legend of the Prachetasas: they are desired, by their father, to multiply mankind, by worshipping Vishńu: they plunge into the sea, and meditate on and praise him: he appears, and grants their wishes.
CHAPTER XV.
The world overrun with trees: they are destroyed by the Prachetasas. Soma pacifies them, and gives them Mārishā to wife: her story: the daughter of the nymph Pramlochā. Legend of Kaṇḍu. Mārishā’s former history. Daksha the son of the Prachetasas: his different characters: his sons: his daughters: their marriages and progeny: allusion to Prahlāda, his descendant.

CHAPTER XVI.
Inquiries of Maitreya respecting the history of Prahlāda.

CHAPTER XVII.
Legend of Prahlāda. Hiraṇyakaśipu the sovereign of the universe: the gods dispersed, or in servitude to him: Prahlāda, his son, remains devoted to Vishnū: questioned by his father, he prays Vishnū: Hiraṇyakaśipu orders him to be put to death, but in vain: his repeated deliverance: he teaches his companions to adore Vishnū.

CHAPTER XVIII.
Hiraṇyakaśipu’s reiterated attempts to destroy his son: their being always frustrated.

CHAPTER XIX.
Dialogue between Prahlāda and his father: he is cast from the top of the palace unhurt: baffles the incantations of Śambara: he is thrown, fettered, into the sea: he prays Vishnū.

CHAPTER XX.
Vishnū appears to Prahlāda. Hiraṇyakaśipu relents, and is reconciled to his son: he is put to death by Vishnū as the Nṛsiṁha. Prahlāda becomes king of the Daityas: his posterity: fruit of hearing his story.

CHAPTER XXI.
Families of the Daityas. Descendants of Kaśyapa by Danu. Children of Kaśyapa by his other wives. Birth of the Mārutas, the sons of Diti.
CONTENTS.

CHAPTER XXII.

Dominion over different provinces of creation assigned to different beings. Universality of Vishńu. Four varieties of spiritual contemplation. Two conditions of spirit. The perceptible attributes of Vishńu types of his imperceptible properties. Vishńu everything. Merit of hearing the first book of the Vishńu Puráña.

BOOK II.

CHAPTER I.

Descendants of Priyavrata, the eldest son of Swáyaṁbhuvam Manu: his ten sons: three adopt a religious life; the others become kings of the seven Dwípas or isles of the earth. Ágnídhra, king of Jambu-dwípa, divides it into nine portions, which he distributes amongst his sons. Nábhi, king of the south, succeeded by Rishabha, and he, by Bharata: India named, after him, Bhárata: his descendants reign during the Swáyaṁbhuvam Manwantara.

CHAPTER II.


CHAPTER III.

Description of Bhárata-varsha: extent: chief mountains: nine divisions: principal rivers and mountains of Bhárata proper: principal nations: superiority over other Varshas, especially as the seat of religious acts. (Topographical lists.)

CHAPTER IV.

Account of kings, divisions, mountains, rivers, and inhabitants of the other Dwípas, viz., Plák, Sámkha, Kuśa, Krauncha, Sáka,

CHAPTER V.

Of the seven regions of Pátála, below the earth. Nárada's praises of Pátála. Account of the serpent Šesha. First teacher of astronomy and astrology.

CHAPTER VI.

Of the different hells, or divisions of Naraka, below Pátála: the crimes punished in them, respectively: efficacy of expiation: meditation on Vishúu the most effective expiation.

CHAPTER VII.

Extent and situation of the seven spheres, viz. earth, sky, planets, Mahar-loka, Jana-loka, Tapo-loka, and Satya-loka. Of the egg of Brahmá, and its elementary envelopes. Of the influence of the energy of Vishúu.

CHAPTER VIII.

Description of the sun: his chariot; its two axles: his horses. The cities of the regents of the cardinal points. The sun's course: nature of his rays: his path along the ecliptic. Length of day and night. Divisions of time: equinoxes and solstices, months, years, the cyclical Yuga or age of five years. Northern and southern declinations. Saints on the Lokáloka mountain. Celestial paths of the Pitris, gods, Vishúu. Origin of Ganga, and separation, on the top of Meru, into four great rivers.

CHAPTER IX.

Planetary system, under the type of a Śiśumára or porpoise. The earth nourished by the sun. Of rain whilst the sun shines. Of rain from clouds. Rain the support of vegetation, and, thence, of animal life. Náráyaña the support of all beings.
CONTENTS. CXXV

CHAPTER X.
Names of the twelve Ádityas. Names of the ōríshis, Gandharvas, Apsarasas, Yakshas, Uragas, and Rākshasas, who attend the chariot of the sun in each month of the year. Their respective functions.

CHAPTER XI.
The sun distinct from, and supreme over, the attendants on his car: identical with the three Vedas and with Vishúu: his functions.

CHAPTER XII.
Description of the moon: his chariot, horses, and course: fed by the sun: drained, periodically, of ambrosia by the progenitors and gods. The chariots and horses of the planets: kept in their orbits by aerial chains attached to Dhrúva, Typical members of the planetary porpoise. Vásudeva alone real.

CHAPTER XIII.
Legend of Bharata. Bharata abdicates his throne and becomes an ascetic: cherishes a fawn, and becomes so much attached to it, as to neglect his devotions: he dies: his successive births: works in the fields, and is pressed, as a palankin-bearer, for the Raja of Sauvíra: rebuked for his awkwardness: his reply: dialogue between him and the king.

CHAPTER XIV.
Dialogue continued. Bharata expounds the nature of existence, the end of life, and the identification of individual with universal spirit.

CHAPTER XV.
Bharata relates the story of ōríbhu and Nídágha. The latter, the pupil of the former, becomes a prince, and is visited by his preceptor, who explains to him the principles of unity, and departs.
CHAPTER XVI.
Řibhu returns to his disciple, and perfects him in divine knowledge. The same recommended to the Raja, by Bharata, who, thereupon, obtains final liberation. Consequences of hearing this legend.

BOOK III.

CHAPTER I.
Account of the several Manus and Manwantaras. Swárochisha the second Manu: the divinities, the Indra, the seven Ŗishis, of his period, and his sons. Similar details of Auttami, Támasa, Raivata, Chákshusha, and Vaivasvata. The forms of Vishňú, as the preserver, in each Manwantara. The meaning of Vishňú.

CHAPTER II.
Of the seven future Manus and Manwantaras. Story of Sanjña and Chháyá, wives of the sun. Sávarńi, son of Chháyá, the eighth Manu. His successors, with the divinities, &c. of their respective periods. Appearance of Vishňú in each of the four Yugas.

CHAPTER III.
Division of the Veda into four portions, by a Vyása, in every Dwápara age. List of the twenty-eight Vyásas of the present Manwantara. Meaning of the word Brahma.

CHAPTER IV.
Division of the Veda, in the last Dwápara age, by the Vyása Krishńa Dwaipáyana. Paila made reader of the Ŗich; Vaisampáyana, of the Yajus; Jaimini, of the Sáman; and Sumantu, of the Atharvan. Súta appointed to teach the historical poems. Origin of the four parts of the Veda. Samhitás of the Rig-veda.

CHAPTER V.
Divisions of the Yajur-veda. Story of Yájnavalkya: forced to give up what he has learned: picked up by others, forming the Taittirίya-yajus. Yájnavalkya worships the sun, who communicates to him the Vájasaneyi-yajus.
CHAPTER VI.

CHAPTER VII.
By what means men are exempted from the authority of Yama, as narrated by Bhishma to Nakula. Dialogue between Yama and one of his attendants. Worshippers of Vishúu not subject to Yama. How they are to be known.

CHAPTER VIII.
How Vishúu is to be worshipped, as related by Aurvá to Sagara. Duties of the four castes, severally and in common: also in time of distress.

CHAPTER IX.
Duties of the religious student, householder, hermit, and mendicant.

CHAPTER X.
Ceremonies to be observed at the birth and naming of a child. Of marrying, or leading a religious life. Choice of a wife. Different modes of marrying.

CHAPTER XI.
Of the Sadácháras or perpetual obligations of a householder. Daily purifications, ablutions, libations, and oblations: hospitality: obsequial rites: ceremonies to be observed at meals, at morning and evening worship, and on going to rest.

CHAPTER XII.
Miscellaneous obligations, purificatory, ceremonial, and moral.

CHAPTER XIII.
Of Śráddhas or rites in honour of ancestors, to be performed on occasions of rejoicing. Obsequial ceremonies. Of the Ekodishíá or monthly Śráddha, and the Sapiádana or annual one. By whom to be performed.
CHAPTER XIV.
Of occasional Śráddhas or obsequial ceremonies: when most efficacious, and at what places.

CHAPTER XV.
What Brahmans are to be entertained at Śráddhas. Different prayers to be recited. Offerings of food to be presented to deceased ancestors.

CHAPTER XVI.
Things proper to be offered, as food, to deceased ancestors: prohibited things. Circumstances vitiating a Śráddha: how to be avoided. Song of the Pitris or progenitors, heard by Ikshwákú.

CHAPTER XVII.
Of heretics, or those who reject the authority of the Vedas: their origin, as described by Vasishhá to Bhishma: the gods, defeated by the Daityas, praise Vishúu: an illusory being, or Buddha, produced from his body.

CHAPTER XVIII.
Buddha goes to the earth and teaches the Daityas to contemn the Vedas: his sceptical doctrines: his prohibition of animal sacrifices. Meaning of the term Baudhá. Jainas and Baudhdhas: their tenets. The Daityas lose their power, and are overcome by the gods. Meaning of the term Nagna. Consequences of neglect of duty. Story of Śatadhanu and his wife Śaivyá. Communion with heretics to be shunned.

BOOK IV.
CHAPTER I.
CHAPTER II.

CHAPTER III.
Saubhāri and his wives adopt an ascetic life. Descendants of Mándhátrí. Legend of Narmadá and Purukutsa. Legend of Triśanku. Báhu driven from his kingdom by the Haihayas and Tálajanghaśas. Birth of Sagara: he conquers the barbarians, imposes upon them distinguishing usages, and excludes them from offerings to fire and the study of the Vedas.

CHAPTER IV.
The progeny of Sagara: their wickedness: he performs an Aśwa-medha: the horse stolen by Kapila: found by Sagara's sons, who are all destroyed by the sage: the horse recovered by Aúśumatu: his descendants. Legend of Mitrásaha or Kalmaśapáda, the son of Sudása. Legend of Khaúwánga. Birth of Ráma and the other sons of Dáśaratha. Epitome of the history of Ráma: his descendants, and those of his brothers. Line of Kuśá. Bráhadbala, the last, killed in the Great War.

CHAPTER V.

CHAPTER VI.
Kings of the lunar dynasty. Origin of Soma or the moon: he carries off Tárá, the wife of Bráhaspáti: war between the gods and Asuras, in consequence: appeased by Brahmá. Birth of Budha: married to Ilá, daughter of Vaivaswata. Legend of his son Purúravas and the nymph Urvasi; the former institutes offerings with fire: ascends to the sphere of the Gandharvas.
CONTENTS.

CHAPTER VII.
Sons of Purúravas. Descendants of Amávasu. Indra born as Gádhi. Legend of Ríchika and Satyavatí. Birth of Jamadagni and Viśwámítra. Paraśurámá the son of the former. (Legend of Paraśurámá.) Śunaliśepha and others, the sons of Viśwámítra, forming the Kauśika race.

CHAPTER VIII.

CHAPTER IX.
Descendants of Rají, son of Áyus: Indra resigns his throne to him: claimed, after his death, by his sons, who apostatize from the religion of the Vedas, and are destroyed by Indra. Descendants of Pratikshatra, son of Kshatravrīḍḍha.

CHAPTER X.
The sons of Nahusha. The sons of Yayáti: he is cursed by Śukra: wishes his sons to exchange their vigour for his infirmities. Púru alone consents. Yayáti restores him his youth: divides the earth amongst his sons, under the supremacy of Púru.

CHAPTER XI.
The Yádava race, or descendants of Yadu. Kárttavírya obtains a boon from Dattátreya: takes Rávaña prisoner: is killed by Paraśurámá: his descendants.

CHAPTER XII.
Descendants of Kroshtri. Jyámagha’s connubial affection for his wife Śaivyá: their descendants kings of Vidarbha and Chedi.

CHAPTER XIII.
Sons of Sattwata. Bhoja princes of Mfittikávati. Súrya the friend of Satrájit: appears to him in a bodily form: gives him the Syamantaka gem: its brilliance and marvellous properties.
Satrājit gives it to Prasena, who is killed by a lion: the lion killed by the bear Jámbavat. Kṛishña, suspected of killing Prasena, goes to look for him in the forests: traces the bear to his cave: fights with him for the jewel: the contest prolonged: supposed, by his companions, to be slain: he overthrows Jámbavat and marries his daughter Jámbavatī: returns, with her and the jewel, to Dwārakā: restores the jewel to Satrājit and marries his daughter Satyabhāmā. Satrājit murdered by Satadhanwan: avenged by Kṛishña. Quarrel between Kṛishña and Balarāma. Akrūra possessed of the jewel: leaves Dwārakā. Public calamities. Meeting of the Yādavas. Story of Akrūra's birth: he is invited to return: accused, by Kṛishña, of having the Syamantaka jewel: produces it in full assembly: it remains in his charge: Kṛishña acquitted of having purloined it.

CHAPTER XIV.

Descendants of Śini, of Anamitra, of Śwaphalka and Chitraka, of Andhaka. The children of Devaka and Ugrasena. The descendants of Bhajamāna. Children of Śūra: his son Vasudeva: his daughter Prithā married to Páṇđu: her children, Yudhishtira and his brothers; also Karṇa, by Áditya. The sons of Páṇđu by Mádrī. Husbands and children of Śūra's other daughters. Previous births of Śiśupāla.

CHAPTER XV.

Explanation of the reason why Śiśupāla, in his previous births as Hiraṇyakaśipu and Rávaṇa, was not identified with Vīśṇu, on being slain by him, and was so identified, when killed as Śiśupāla. The wives of Vasudeva: his children: Balarāma and Kṛishña his sons by Devakī: born, apparently, of Rohini and Yaśodā. The wives and children of Kṛishña. Multitude of the descendants of Yadu.

CHAPTER XVI.

Descendants of Turvasu.

CHAPTER XVII.

Descendants of Druhyu.
CHAPTER XVIII.
Descendants of Anu. Countries and towns named after some of them, as Anga, Banga, and others.

CHAPTER XIX.

CHAPTER XX.
Descendants of Kuru. Devápi abdicates the throne: assumed by Śántanu: he is confirmed by the Brahmanas: Bhishma his son by Gangá: his other sons. Birth of Dhéitaráshítra, Páídu, and Vidura. The hundred sons of Dhéitaráshítra. The five sons of Páídu: married to Draupádi: their posterity. Paríkshít, the grandson of Arjuna, the reigning king.

CHAPTER XXI.
Future kings. Descendants of Paríkshít, ending with Ke hemaka.

CHAPTER XXII.
Future kings of the family of Ikshwáku, ending with Sumitra.

CHAPTER XXIII.
Future kings of Magadhá, descendants of Brhádratha.

CHAPTER XXIV.
of the Kali, and return of the Kṛīta, age. Duration of the Kali. Verses chanted by Earth, and communicated by Asita to Janaka. End of the fourth book.

BOOK V.

CHAPTER I.

The death of Kaṁsa announced. Earth, oppressed by the Daityas, applies to the gods. They accompany her to Vishńu, who promises to give her relief. Kaṁsa imprisons Vasudeva and Devakī. Vishńu's instructions to Yoganidrā.

CHAPTER II.

The conception of Devakī: her appearance: she is praised by the gods.

CHAPTER III.

Birth of Kṛīshṇa: conveyed by Vasudeva to Mathurā, and exchanged with the new-born daughter of Yaśodā. Kaṁsa attempts to destroy the latter, who becomes Yoganidrā.

CHAPTER IV.

Kaṁsa addresses his friends, announces their danger, and orders male children to be put to death.

CHAPTER V.

Nanda returns, with the infants Kṛīshṇa and Balarāma, to Gokula. Pūtanā killed by the former. Prayers of Nanda and Yaśodā.

CHAPTER VI.

Kṛīshṇa overturns a waggon: casts down two trees. The Gopas depart to Vṛindāvana. Sports of the boys. Description of the season of the rains.

CHAPTER VII.

Kṛīshṇa combats the serpent Kāliya: alarm of his parents and companions: he overcomes the serpent, and is propitiated by him: commands him to depart from the Yamunā river to the ocean.
CXXXIV

CONTENTS.

CHAPTER VIII.
The demon Dhenuka destroyed by Ráma.

CHAPTER IX.
Sports of the boys in the forest. Pralamba the Asura comes amongst them: is destroyed by Ráma, at the command of Kríshña.

CHAPTER X.
Description of autumn. Kríshña dissuades Nanda from worshipping Indra: recommends him and the Gopas to worship cattle and the mountains.

CHAPTER XI.
Indra, offended by the loss of his offerings, causes heavy rains to deluge Gokula. Kríshña holds up the mountain Govardhana, to shelter the cowherds and their cattle.

CHAPTER XII.
Indra comes to Gokula: praises Kríshña, and makes him prince over the cattle. Kríshña promises to befriend Arjuna.

CHAPTER XIII.
Kríshña praised by the cowherds: his sports with the Gopás: their imitation and love of him. The Rásá dance.

CHAPTER XIV.
Kríshña kills the demon Arishtá, in the form of a bull.

CHAPTER XV.
Kámsa informed by Nárada of the existence of Kríshña and Balaráma: he sends Keśin to destroy them, and Akrúra, to bring them to Mathurá.

CHAPTER XVI.
Keśin, in the form of a horse, slain by Kríshña: he is praised by Nárada,
CONTENTS.
CXXXV

CHAPTER XVII.
Akrúra's meditation on Kríshńa: his arrival at Gokula: his delight at seeing Kríshńa and his brother.

CHAPTER XVIII.
Grief of the Gopís on the departure of Kríshńa and Balaráma with Akrúra: their leaving Gokula. Akrúra bathes in the Yamuná; beholds the divine forms of the two youths, and praises Viśhúu.

CHAPTER XIX.

CHAPTER XX.
Kríshńa and Balaráma meet Kubjá; she is made straight by the former: they proceed to the palace. Kríshńa breaks a bow intended for a trial of arms. Kaúṣa's orders to his servants. Public games. Kríshńa and his brother enter the arena: the former wrestles with Cháuírā, the latter, with Mushúika, the king's wrestlers; who are both killed. Kríshńa attacks and slays Kaúṣa: he and Balaráma do homage to Vasudeva and Devakí: the former praises Kríshńa.

CHAPTER XXI.
Kríshńa encourages his parents; places Ugrasena on the throne; becomes the pupil of Sándipani, whose son he recovers from the sea: he kills the marine demon Panchajana, and makes a horn of his shell.

CHAPTER XXII.
Jarásandha besieges Mathurá; is defeated, but repeatedly renews the attack.
CHAPTER XXIII.

Birth of Kálayavana: he advances against Mathurá. Kríshńa builds Dwáráká, and sends thither the Yádava tribe: he leads Kálayavana into the cave of Muchukunda: the latter awakes, consumes the Yávana king, and praises Kríshńa.

CHAPTER XXIV.

Muchukunda goes to perform penance. Kríshńa takes the army and treasures of Kálayavana, and repairs, with them, to Dwáráká. Balaráma visits Vraja: inquiries of its inhabitants after Kríshńa.

CHAPTER XXV.

Balaráma finds wine in the hollow of a tree; becomes inebriated; commands the Yamuná to come to him, and, on her refusal, drags her out of her course: Lakshmi gives him ornaments and a dress: he returns to Dwáráká and marries Revátí.

CHAPTER XXVI.

Kríshńa carries off Rukmińi: the princes who come to rescue her repulsed by Balaráma. Rukmin overthrown, but, spared by Kríshńa, founds Bhojakaśa. Pradyumna born of Rukmińi.

CHAPTER XXVII.

Pradyumna stolen by Šambara; thrown into the sea, and swallowed by a fish; found by Máyádevi: he kills Šambara, marries Máyádevi, and returns, with her, to Dwáráká. Joy of Rukmińi and Kríshńa.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

Wives of Kríshńa. Pradyumna has Aniruddha: nuptials of the latter. Balaráma, beat at dice, becomes incensed, and slays Rukmin and others.

CHAPTER XXIX.

Indra comes to Dwáráká, and reports to Kríshńa the tyranny of Naraka. Kríshńa goes to his city, and puts him to death. Earth gives the earrings of Aditi to Kríshńa, and praises him.
He liberates the princesses made captive by Naraka, sends to Dwáráká, and goes to Swarga, with Satyabhámá.

CHAPTER XXX.
Krishña restores her earrings to Aditi, and is praised by her: he visits the gardens of Indra, and, at the desire of Satyabhámá, carries off the Párijáta tree. Śachi excites Indra to its rescue. Conflict between the gods and Krishña, who defeats them. Satyabhámá derides them. They praise Krishña.

CHAPTER XXXI.
Krishña, with Indra's consent, takes the Párijáta tree to Dwáráká; marries the princesses rescued from Naraka.

CHAPTER XXXII.
Children of Krishña. Úshá, the daughter of Báña, sees Aniruddha in a dream, and becomes enamoured of him.

CHAPTER XXXIII.
Báña solicits Śiva for war: finds Aniruddha in the palace, and makes him prisoner. Krishña, Balaráma, and Pradyumna come to his rescue. Śiva and Skanda aid Báña: the former is disabled; the latter, put to flight. Báña encounters Krishña, who cuts off all his arms, and is about to put him to death. Śiva intercedes, and Krishña spares his life. Vishňu and Śiva are the same.

CHAPTER XXXIV.
Pauńdraka, a Vásudeva, assumes the insignia and style of Krishña, supported by the king of Káśi. Krishña marches against and destroys them. The son of the king sends a magical being against Krishña: destroyed by his discus, which also sets Benares on fire, and consumes it and its inhabitants.

CHAPTER XXXV.
Sāmba carries off the daughter of Duryodhana, but is taken prisoner. Balaráma comes to Hastinápurá, and demands his
liberation: it is refused: in his wrath, he drags the city towards him, to throw it into the river. The Kuru chiefs give up Śāmba and his wife.

CHAPTER XXXVI.
The Asura Dwivida, in the form of an ape, destroyed by Balarāma.

CHAPTER XXXVII.
Destruction of the Yādavas. Śāmba and others deceive and ridicule the Ōrishis. The former bears an iron pestle: it is broken, and thrown into the sea. The Yādavas go to Prabhāsa, by desire of Kṛishṇa: they quarrel and fight, and all perish. The great serpent Śesha issues from the mouth of Rāma. Kṛishṇa is shot by a hunter, and again becomes one with universal spirit.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.
Arjuna comes to Dwārakā, and burns the dead, and takes away the surviving inhabitants. Commencement of the Kali age. Shepherds and thieves attack Arjuna, and carry off the women and wealth. Arjuna regrets the loss of his prowess to Vyāsa; who consoles him, and tells him the story of Ashtāvakra’s cursing the Apsarasas. Arjuna and his brothers place Pari-kshīt on the throne, and go to the forests. End of the fifth book.

BOOK VI.
CHAPTER I.
Of the dissolution of the world: the four ages: the decline of all things, and deterioration of mankind, in the Kali age.

CHAPTER II.
Redeeming properties of the Kali age. Devotion to Vishṇu sufficient to salvation, in that age, for all castes and persons.
CHAPTER III.

Three different kinds of dissolution. Duration of a Parárádha. The clepsydra or vessel for measuring time. The dissolution that occurs at the end of a day of Bráhmá.

CHAPTER IV.

Continuation of the account of the first kind of dissolution. Of the second kind, or elemental dissolution; of all being resolved into primary spirit.

CHAPTER V.

The third kind of dissolution, or final liberation from existence. Evils of worldly life. Sufferings in infancy, manhood, old age. Pains of hell. Imperfect felicity of heaven. Exemption from birth desirable by the wise. The nature of spirit or god. Meaning of the terms Bhagavat and Vásudeva.

CHAPTER VI.

Means of attaining liberation. Anecdotes of Kháúdíkya and Keśidhvaja. The former instructs the latter how to atone for permitting the death of a cow. Keśidhvaja offers him a requital, and he desires to be instructed in spiritual knowledge.

CHAPTER VII.

Keśidhvaja describes the nature of ignorance, and the benefits of the Yoga or contemplative devotion. Of the novice and the adept in the performance of the Yoga. How it is performed. The first stage, proficiency in acts of restraint and moral duty: the second, particular mode of sitting: the third, Práñáyáma, modes of breathing: the fourth, Pratyáhára, restraint of thought: the fifth, apprehension of spirit: the sixth, retention of the idea. Meditation on the individual and universal forms of ViShńu. Acquisition of knowledge. Final liberation.
Contents.

Chapter VIII.

VISHṆU PURĀṆA.

BOOK I.

CHAPTER I.

Invocation. Mātreyā inquires of his teacher, Parāśara, the origin and nature of the universe. Parāśara performs a rite to destroy the demons: reproved by Vasiaśtha, he desists: Pulastya appears, and bestows upon him divine knowledge: he repeats the Vishṇu Purāṇa. Vishṇu the origin, existence, and end of all things.

OM! GLORY TO VĀSUDEVĀ.¹—Victory be to thee, Puṇḍarīkāksha; adoration be to thee, Viśwabhāvana;

¹ ओम। नमः वासुदेवाय। An address of this kind, to one or other Hindu divinity, usually introduces Sanskrit compositions, especially those considered sacred. The first term of this Mantra or brief prayer, Om or Omkāra, is well known as a combination of letters invested by Hindu mysticism with peculiar sanctity. In the Vedas, it is said to comprehend all the gods; and, in the Purāṇas, it is directed to be prefixed to all such fórmulæ as that of the text. Thus, in the Uttara Khaṇḍa* of the Padma Purāṇa: 'The syllable Om, the mysterious name, or Brahma, is the leader of all prayers: let it, therefore, O lovely-faced, (Śiva addresses Durgā,) be employed in the beginning of all prayers:"

श्रावः प्रभवो वर्धा सर्वमन्दिर नामक:।
आदि सर्वन युक्तिच मन्त्रायां च पुष्पाणि॥

* Chapter XXXII.
glory be to thee, Hrishikeśa, Mahāpurusha and Pūrvaja.¹

According to the same authority, one of the mystical imports of the term is the collective enunciation of Vishnu, expressed by ś; of Śrī, his bride, intimated by u; and of their joint worshipper, designated by m. A whole chapter of the Vāyu Purāṇa is devoted to this term. A text of the Vedas is there cited: 

चोमि वेदहरं ब्रह्मु‘Om, the monosyllable Brahma’; the latter meaning either the supreme being, or the Vedas collectively, of which this monosyllable is the type. It is also said to typify the three spheres of the world, the three holy fires, the three steps of Vishnu, &c.:  

चोमि वेदहरं ब्रह्मू प्रत्येकम् च ।
विष्णुस्त्रायते यथा भाषा। यथा युनः ॥

Frequent meditation upon it and repetition of it ensure release from worldly existence:  

हृदयद्वरं ब्रह्म परमोकंकासबंधितम् ।
यथैं वेदहरं स्वयं भाषा भाषितम् वा पुनः ॥
संसारलक्षणागुण मुक्तवेदनवस्त्र: ॥
बच्चर्य विनिलोकां वनर शिवं प्रामोकंकासबंधय: ॥

See, also, Manu, II., 76. Vásudeva, a name of Vishnu or Krishña, is, according to its grammatical etymology, a patronymic derivative implying son of Vasudeva. The Vaishnava Purāṇas, however, devise other explanations. See the next chapter, and, again, b. VI., c. 5.

¹ In this stanza occurs a series of the appellations of Vishnu:  
1. Puṇḍarikākśa (पुण्डरीकाक्ष), having eyes like a lotus, or heart-pervading: or Puṇḍarika is explained supreme glory, and Akśa, imperishable. The first is the most usual etymon. 2. Viśvabhāvana (विश्वभावन), the creator of the universe, or the cause of the existence of all things. 3. Hrishikeśa (हरिकिश),

* This verse is also found in the Mārkaṇḍeya-purāṇa, XLII., 8; p. 241 of the edition in the Bibliotheca Indica.
May that Vishńu, who is the existent, imperishable Brahma; who is Īśwara;\(^1\) who is spirit;\(^2\) who, with the three qualities,\(^3\) is the cause of creation, preservation, and destruction; who is the parent of nature, intellect, lord of the senses.\(\) 4. Mahāpurusha (महा�पुरुष), great or supreme spirit; Purusha meaning that which abides or is quiescent in body (puri śete). 5. Púrvaja (पूर्वज), produced or appearing before creation; the Orphic πρωτόγονος. In the fifth book, c. 18, Vishńu is described by five appellations which are considered analogous to these; or: 1. Bhūtátman (भूतात्म), one with created things, or Puńḍarikákṣa; 2. Pradhánátman (प्रधानात्म), one with crude nature, or Viśwabhávana; 3. Indriyátman (इन्द्रियात्म), one with the senses, or Hṛishiṅkése; 4. Paramátman (पर- मात्म), supreme spirit, or Mahāpurusha; and Atman (आत्म), soul, living soul, animating nature and existing before it, or Púrvaja.

\(^1\) Brahma (ब्रह्म), in the neuter form, is abstract supreme spirit; and Īśwara (इश्वर) is the deity in his active nature, he who is able to do or leave undone, or to do anything in any other manner that that in which it is done: कल्पकत्वमन्यत्वा कर्ते समर्थे:।

\(^2\) Puńś (पुंस), which is the same with Purusha, incorporated spirit. By this, and the two preceding terms, also, the commentator understands the text to signify, that Vishńu is any form of spiritual being that is acknowledged by different philosophical systems; or that he is the Brahma of the Vedánta, the Īśwara of the Pátanjalaja, and the Purusha of the Sánkhya, school.

\(^3\) The three qualities, to which we shall have further occasion to advert, are: Sattwa (सत्त्व), goodness or purity, knowledge,

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\(^*\) In the Mahābhárata, Udyoga-parvan, 2564 and 2567, Puńḍarikákṣa and Hṛishiṅkése are explained to a very different purport. The stanzas are quoted and translated in Muir's Original Sanskrit Texts, Part IV., pp. 182 and 188.
and the other ingredients of the universe; be to us the bestower of understanding, wealth, and final emancipation.

Having adored Vishńu, the lord of all, and paid quiescence; Rajas (रजस्), foulness, passion, activity; and Tamas (तमस्), darkness, ignorance, inertia. *

1 Pradhánapraddhájágatprapanchasúh (प्रधानप्रद्धाजाध्यात्मकप्राकृतिः). This predicate of the deity distinguishes most of the Puráńas from several of the philosophical systems, which maintain, as did the earliest Grecian systems of cosmogony, the eternal and independent existence of the first principle of things, as nature, matter, or chaos. Accordingly, the commentator notices the objection. Pradhána being without beginning, it is said, How can Vishńu be its parent? To which he replies, that this is not so; for, in a period of worldly destruction (Pralaya), when the creator desists from creating, nothing is generated by virtue of any other energy or parent. Or, if this be not satisfactory, then the text may be understood to imply that intellect (Buddhi), &c., are formed through the materiality of crude nature or Pradhána.

2 Vishńu is commonly derived, in the Puráńas, from the root Viś (विश्), to enter; entering into or pervading the universe: agreeably to the text of the Vedas: ततस्मान तद्विषेधाविशिष्टम्! ‘Having created that (world), he then afterwards enters into it;’ being, as our comment observes, undistinguished by place, time, or property: देवनामस्तत्पतो ब्रव्योद्विद्धभावान्ति। According to the Matsya P., the name alludes to his entering into the mundane egg: according to the Padma P., to his entering into, or combining with, Prakṛti, as Purusha or spirit:

स एव भगवानविश्वः प्रक्ष्याभावायविष्य ह।

In the Moksha Dharma of the Mahábhárata, s. 165, the word is derived from the root vi (वी), signifying motion, pervasion,

* See the editor's second note in p. 26, and note in p. 35, infra.
BOOK I., CHAP. I.

reverence to Brahmá and the rest;¹ having also saluted
the spiritual preceptor;² I will narrate a Puráña equal
in sanctity to the Vedas.

production, radiance; or, irregularly, from kram (क्रम), to go,
with the particle vi (वि), implying variously, prefixed. *

¹ Brahmá and the rest is said to apply to the series of
teachers through whom this Puráña was transmitted from its
first reputed author, Brahmá, to its actual narrator, the sage
Parásara. See, also, b. VI., c. 8.

² The Guru or spiritual preceptor is said to be Kapila or
Sáraswata. The latter is included in the series of teachers of
the Puráña. Parásara must be considered also as a disciple of
Kapila, as a teacher of the Sánkhya philosophy.

* There seems to be a misunderstanding, here, on the part of the
translator; for, in the passage of the Mahábhárata referred to by him,—
which can be no other than the Śánti-parvan, Moksha-dharma, 13170
and 13171—Vishúu is taken to be derived, with the affix नु, from विच्छु,
“to shine” and also “to move”. That passage is subjoined:

गतिस्थ सर्वभूतानां प्रजन्वायिष्य भारत।
व्यासो भी रोदसी पार्षदः कान्तिस्वामयिष्या मम॥

विस्तिर्नाति चालिषु तदर्थिष्यायिष्य भारत।
क्रमशःस्वायत्थ धार्मिक विश्वरिलसमयि:॥

Arjuna Miśra, commenting on these verses, derives the word from विच्छु
in the acceptation of “to go”. He seems to admit this verb likewise in
the Vaidik sense of “to eat.” But the latter view is not borne out by
the text. His words are: विस्तुपदश्यत्तमाः गतिविष्यति। विच्छिन्नेन-लब्धं: ||
तेन विच्छिन्नति। विष्णुः। क्रत्वैि: वा विष्णु:।

In the Nighantu, II., 8, वेष्टि occurs as a synonym of चौति.

Gangádhara, in his metrical gloss on the thousand names of Vishúu,
expresses himself as follows, touching the six hundred and fifty-seventh
of them:

वेष्टि कान्तिः इसि किल रोदसी वा।
विष्णू: स विच्छिन्नति सी तथ हि दीर्घते नु:।
व्यासो मे रोदसी पार्षदः कान्तिरस्मयिष्या सिखिता।
क्रमशःस्वायत्थ धार्मिक विश्वरिलसमयि:॥
इश्वरेश्वरे हि विच्छ दीर्घी च धातुत्:।

चौरादिक्षेत्रस्मुलम्॥
Maitreya, having saluted him reverentially, thus addressed Parásara,—the excellent sage, the grandson of Vasishtha,—who was versed in traditional history and the Puráṇas; who was acquainted with the Vedas and the branches of science dependent upon them, and skilled in law and philosophy; and who had performed the morning rites of devotion.

Maitreya said: Master! I have been instructed, by you, in the whole of the Vedas, and in the institutes of law and of sacred science. Through your favour, other men, even though they be my foes, cannot accuse me of having been remiss in the acquirement of knowledge. I am now desirous, O thou who art profound in piety, to hear from thee how this world was, and how in future it will be? what is its substance, O Brahman; and whence proceeded animate and inanimate things? into what has it been resolved; and into what will its dissolution again occur? how were the elements manifested? whence proceeded the gods and other beings? what are the situation and extent of the oceans and the mountains, the earth, the sun, and the planets? what are the families of the gods and

\[\text{\footnotesize\textsuperscript{8}}\] Maitreya is the disciple of Parásara, who relates the Vishńu Puráṇa to him. He is also one of the chief interlocutors in the Bhágavata, and is introduced, in the Mahábhárata (Vana Parvan, s. 10), as a great Rishi or sage, who denounces Duryodhana's death. In the Bhágavata, he is also termed Kauśáravi, or the son of Kuśaráva.

\[\text{\footnotesize\textsuperscript{9}}\] Literally, "Vasishtha's son's son. Parásara's father, as the commentator remarks, was Śaktri. See my second note in p. 8, infra.

\[\text{\footnotesize\textsuperscript{†}}\] "And philosophy" is the commentator's definition of the original, \textit{ādi}, "and the rest".
others, the Manus, the periods called Manwantaras, those termed Kalpas, and their subdivisions, and the four ages: the events that happen at the close of a Kalpa, and the terminations of the several ages:¹ the histories, O great Muni, of the gods; the sages, and kings; and how the Vedas were divided into branches (or schools), after they had been arranged by Vyāsa:* the duties of the Brahmans and the other tribes, as well as of those who pass through the different orders of life? All these things I wish to hear from you, grandson of Vasishṭha. † Incline thy thoughts benevolently towards me, that I may, through thy favour, be informed of all I desire to know.

Parásara replied: Well inquired, pious Maitreya. You recall to my recollection that which was of old narrated by my father’s father, Vasishṭha. I had heard that my father had been devoured by a Rákshasa employed by Viśwámitra. Violent anger seized me; and I commenced a sacrifice for the destruction of the Rákshasas. Hundreds of them were reduced to ashes by the rite; when, as they were about to be entirely extirpated, my grandfather Vasishṭha thus spake to me: Enough, my child; let thy wrath be appeased: the Rákshasas are not culpable: thy father’s death was the work of destiny. Anger is the passion of fools; it becometh not a wise man. By whom, it may be asked,

¹ One copy reads Yugadharma, the duties peculiar to the four ages, or their characteristic properties, instead of Yugánta.

*Vyāsa–kartrika has, rather, the signification of “composed by Vyāsa”.
† To the letter, “son of Vāsishṭha”, whose father was Vāsishṭha.
is any one killed? Every man reaps the consequences of his own acts. Anger, my son, is the destruction of all that man obtains, by arduous exertions, of fame and of devout austerities, and prevents the attainment of heaven or of emancipation. The chief sages always shun wrath: be not thou, my child, subject to its influence. Let no more of these unoffending spirits of darkness be consumed. * Mercy is the might of the righteous.  

* Sacrifice of Parásara. The story of Parásara’s birth is narrated in detail in the Mahábhárata (Ádi Parvan, s. 176). King Kalmáshapáda, meeting with Śakti, the son of Vasishthá, in a narrow path in a thicket, desired him to stand out of his way. The sage refused; on which the Rájá beat him with his whip; and Śakti cursed him to become a Rákshasa, a man-devouring spirit. The Rájá, in this transformation, killed and ate its author, or Śakti, together with all the other sons of Vasishthá. Śakti left his wife, Adriáyantí, pregnant; and she gave birth to Parásara, who was brought up by his grandfather. When he grew up, and was informed of his father’s death, he instituted a sacrifice for the destruction of all the Rákshasas, but was dissuaded from its completion by Vasishthá and other sages, or Atri, Pulastya, Pulaha, and Kratu. The Mahábhárata adds, that, when he desisted from the rite, he scattered the remaining sacrificial fire upon the northern face of the Himálaya mountain, where it still blazes forth, at the phases of the moon, consuming Rákshasas, forests, and mountains. The legend alludes, possibly, to some trans-himalayan volcano. The transformation of Kalmáshapáda is ascribed, in other places, to a different cause; but he is everywhere regarded as the devourer of Śakti † or Śakttri, as the name also occurs. The story is told in the Linga

* Supply: “Let this thy sacrifice cease”: सब्ब ते.विरमलेतत ।
† This is hardly the name of a male. The right word seems to be Śakttri.
Being thus admonished by my venerable grandsire, I immediately desisted from the rite, in obedience to his injunctions; and Vasishtha, the most excellent of sages, was content with me. Then arrived Pulastya,

Purâña (Pūrvārduḥa, s. 64) in the same manner, with the addition, conformably to the Śaiva tendency of that work, that Parāśara begins his sacrifice by propitiating Mahādeva. Vasishtha’s dis- suasion and Pulastya’s appearance are given in the very words of our text; and the story concludes: ‘Thus, through the favour of Pulastya and of the wise Vasishtha, Parāśara composed the Vaishñava (Vishu) Purâna, containing ten thousand stanzas, and being the third of the Purâna compilations’ (Purâna-saṁhitā). The Bhāgavata (b. III., s. 8) also alludes, though obscurely, to this legend. In recapitulating the succession of the narrators of part of the Bhāgavata, Maitreya states, that this first Purâña was communicated to him by his Guru, Parāśara, as he had been desired by Pulastya:

प्रोकाच महं स दूराधुरस्तो सुनि (पराभारं) पुलस्त्येन पुराणसाक्षम।
i. e., according to the commentator, agreeably to the boon given by Pulastya to Parāśara, saying, ‘You shall be a narrator of Purānas’; (पुराववक्ष्या महववस्ति) The Mahābhārata makes no mention of the communication of this faculty to Parāśara by Pulastya; and, as the Bhāgavata could not derive this particular

* कच तस्म पुराः पूरूक्षम विभिन्नमस्व च समविदार्थसममिति साधुसंस्कृतम्
一世

The lithographed Bombay edition of the Linga-purāṇa gives the end of this passage differently, so as to reduce the Vishnu-purāṇa to six thousand stanzas, and to reckon it as the fourth of the Purāṇas:

पद्धतिर्हति साधु विविदार्थसममिति साधुसंस्कृतम्
一世

† An oversight of quotation, for पुराणववक्ष्या. See Goldstücker’s Pāṇini, His Place in Sanskrit Literature, pp. 145 et seg.
the son of Brahmó,¹ who was received, by my grand-
father, with the customary marks of respect. The
illustrious brother * of Pulaha said to me: Since, in
the violence of animosity, you have listened to the
words of your progenitor, and have exercised clemency,
therefore you shall become learned in every science.
Since you have forborne, even though incensed, to
destroy my posterity, I will bestow upon you another
boon; and you shall become the author of a summary
of the Puráñas.² You shall know the true nature of
the deities, as it really is; † and, whether engaged in

from that source, it here, most probably, refers, unavowedly, as
the Linga does avowedly, to the Vishnú Purána.

¹ Pulastya, as will be presently seen, is one of the Rishis
who were the mind-born sons of Brahmó. Pulaha, who is here
also named, is another. Pulastya is considered as the ancestor
of the Rákhshasas; as he is the father of Viśravas, the father of
Rávana and his brethren. Uttara Rámáyaña. Mahábhárata,
Vana Parvan, s. 272. Padma Pur. Linga Pur., s. 63.

² पुराणसंहिताकार प्रवासिन भवान्तत् भविष्यति।
You shall be a maker‡ of the Sarhíta or compendium of the
Puráñas, or of the Vishnú Puráña, considered as a summary or
compendium of Pauráśik traditions. In either sense, it is incom-
patible with the general attribution of all the Puráñas to Vyása.

* Read "elder brother". agraña.
† Rather, agreeably to the commentator: "You shall obtain in a proper
manner the highest object derivable from apprehension of deity". This
is said to be "knowledge conducive to emancipation". In the Sanskrit:

dévabhávatārṣāvārvān māmipapadatām bhavastāt 
चत पि सिद्ध लाभे।
The life under exposition is as follows:

dévabhávatārṣāh ca chāyaśeṣīśvatě bhavatāt।

‡ Kārtī is, however, elucidated, in the commentary, by pravartaka,
"publisher" only.
religious rites, or abstaining from their performance, your understanding, through my favour, shall be perfect, and exempt from doubts. Then my grandsire Vasishtha added: Whatever has been said to thee by Pulastya shall assuredly come to pass.

Now truly all that was told me formerly by Vasishtha, and by the wise Pulastya, has been brought to my recollection by your questions; and I will relate to you the whole, even all you have asked. Listen to the complete compendium of the Purāṇas, according to its tenor. The world was produced from Vishnū: it exists in him: he is the cause of its continuance and cessation:* he is the world.  

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1 Whether performing the usual ceremonies of the Brahmans, or leading a life of devotion and penance, which supersedes the necessity of rites and sacrifices.

2 These are, in fact, the brief replies to Maitreya’s six questions (p. 6); or: How was the world created? By Vishnū. How will it be? At the periods of dissolution, it will be in Vishnū. Whence proceeded animate and inanimate things? From Vishnū. Of what is the substance of the world? Vishnū. Into what has it been, and will it again be, resolved? Vishnū. He is, therefore, both the instrumental and material cause of the universe. ‘The answer to the “whence” replies to the query as to the instrumental cause: “He is the world” replies to the inquiry as to the material cause’: चन्द्र दिनिन्त्र विनिविष्कृतमं स्थानश्रावित जगम य सतह्यदागमस्तत्ततारम्। ‘And by this explanation of the agency of the materiality, &c. of Vishnū, as regards the universe, (it follows that) all will be produced from, and all will repose in, him?’: चन्द्रनीव विश्वार्ग्यानमेव प्रकटोरकाण्तैः निरंकृष्णेऽविष्कृतविष्कृतां चतुष्क्षेषभवायितताभ्यास्तताम्। † We have

* Sanhīyama. See the editor’s first note in p. 26, infra.
† These two extracts are from the commentary on the Vishnū-purāṇa. The first is a little abridged.
here precisely the τὸ πάν of the Orphic doctrines; and we might
fancy, that Brucker was translating a passage from a Purāṇa,
when he describes them in these words: "Continuisses Jovem
[lege Vishnum] sive summum deum in se omnia, omnibus ortum
ex se dedisse; et ** omnia ex se genuisse, et ex sua pro-
duxisse essentia; Spiritum esse universi, qui omnia regit, vivificat,
estque ** Ex quibus necessario sequitur omnia in eum reditūra."'
Hist. Philos., I., 388. Jamblichus and Proclus also testify that
the Pythagorean doctrines of the origin of the material world
from the Deity, and its identity with him, were much the same.
CHAPTER II.

Prayer of Parāśara to Vish nú. Successive narration of the Vish nú Puráña. Explanation of Vásudeva: his existence before creation: his first manifestations. Description of Pradhána or the chief principle of things. Cosmogony. Of Prákritá or material creation; of time; of the active cause. Development of effects; Mahat; Ahamkára; Tanmátras; elements; objects of sense; senses; of the mundane egg. Vish nú the same as Brahmá the creator; Vish nú the preserver; Rudra the destroyer.

Paráśara said: Glory to the unchangeable, holy, eternal, supreme Vish nú, of one universal nature, the mighty over all: to him who is Hirañyagarbha, Hari, and Śankara,¹ the creator, the preserver, and destroyer

¹ The three hypostases of Vish nú. Hirañyagarbha (हिरण्यगर्भ) is a name of Brahmá; he who was born from the golden egg. Hari (हरि) is Vish nú; and Śankara (शंकर), Śiva. The Vish nú who is the subject of our text is the supreme being in all these three divinities or hypostases, in his different characters of creator, preserver, and destroyer. Thus, in the Márkañ्दeya:* 'Accordingly, as the primal all-pervading spirit is distinguished by attributes in creation and the rest, so he obtains the denomination of Brahmá, Vish nú, and Śiva. In the capacity of Brahmá, he creates the worlds; in that of Rudra, he destroys them; in that of Vish nú, he is quiescent. These are the three Ávasthás (lit., hypostases) of the self-born. Brahmá is the quality of activity; Rudra, that of darkness; Vish nú, the lord of the world, is goodness. So, therefore, the three gods are the three qualities.

* XLVI., 16 et seq. The edition in the Bibliotheca Indica gives several discrepant readings.
of the world: to Vāsudeva, the liberator of his worshippers:* to him whose essence is both single and manifold; who is both subtle and corporeal, indiscrete and discrete: to Vishnū, the cause of final emancipation.¹ Glory to the supreme Vishnū, the cause

They are ever combined with, and dependent upon, one another; and they are never for an instant separate; they never quit each other:

The notion is one common to all antiquity, although less philosophically conceived, or, perhaps, less distinctly expressed, in the passages which have come down to us. The τρεῖς ἀγαθά καὶ ἰποστάσεις of Plato are said, by Cudworth (I., III.), upon the authority of Plotinus, to be an ancient doctrine, παλαιὰ δόξα. And he also observes: “For, since Orpheus, Pythagoras, and Plato, who, all of them, asserted a trinity of divine hypostases, unquestionably derived much of their doctrine from the Egyptians, it may be reasonably suspected, that these Egyptians did the like before them.” As, however, the Grecian accounts and those of the Egyptians are much more perplexed and unsatisfactory than those of the Hindus, it is most probable that we find amongst them the doctrine in its most original, as well as most methodical and significant, form.

¹ This address to Vishnū pursues the notion that he, as the supreme being, is one, whilst he is all. He is Avikāra, not sub-

* The words “of his worshippers” are supplied from the commentary.
of the creation, existence, and end of this world; who is the root of the world, and who consists of the world.¹

Having glorified him who is the support of all things; who is the smallest of the small;² who is in all created things; the unchanged,³ imperishable⁴ Puru-

ject to change: Sadaikarūpa, one invariable nature: he is the liberator (Tāra), or he who bears mortals across the ocean of existence: he is both single and manifold (Ekānekarūpa): and he is the indiscrète (Avyakta) cause of the world, as well as the discrete (Vyakta) effect; or the invisible cause and visible creation.

¹ Jaganmaya, made up, or consisting substantially (मय), of the world. Maya is an affix denoting ‘made’ or ‘consisting of’; as Kāśthamaya, ‘made of wood’. The world is, therefore, not regarded, by the Paurāṇikas, as an emanation, or an illusion, but as consubstantial with its first cause.

² Anīyāṁsam anīyasāṁ (षःषःसंशास्त्रीयस), ‘the most atomic of the atomic’; alluding to the atomic theory of the Nyāya or logical school.

³ Or Achyuta (अच्छुत); a common name of Vishńu, from a privative, and Chyuta, fallen: according to our comment, ‘he who does not perish with created things’. The Mahābhārata interprets it, in one place, to mean ‘he who is not distinct from final emancipation’; and, in another, to signify ‘exempt from decay’ (चवहीम). A commentator on the Kāśikhaṅḍa of the Skanda Purāṇa explains it ‘he who never declines (or varies) from his own proper nature.’ स्मावादप्रचवति।†

* In the original there is no term to which this corresponds.
† स्मावाद धार्मिकम्।?
shottama;¹ who is one with true wisdom, as truly known;² eternal and incorrupt;* and who is known, through false appearances, by the nature of visible objects:**† having bowed to Vishṇu, the destroyer,

¹ This is another common title of Vishṇu, implying supreme, best (Uttama), spirit (Purusha), or male, or sacrifice, or, according to the Mahābh., Moksha Dharma, whatever sense Purusha may bear.

² Paramārtha (परमार्थ): ‘by or through the real object, or sense; through actual truth.’

³ Bhrantidarsanataḥ (भ्रंतिदर्शनत): ‘false appearances,’ in opposition to actual truth. ‘By the nature of visible objects’ (चर्च्युतक्षेपः): Artha is explained by Dṛṣṭya (दृष्ट), ‘visible’; Swarūpeṇa, by ‘the nature of’. That is, visible objects are not what they seem to be, independent existences; they are essentially one with their original source; and knowledge of their true nature, or relation to Vishṇu, is knowledge of Vishṇu him-

* "Who is, essentially, one with intelligence, transcendent, and without spot:"

† Preferably: “Conceived of, by reason of erroneous apprehension, as a material form”:

The commentary runs: चर्च्युतक्षेपः दृष्टक्षेपः दृष्टिभवन्तिमां स्विन्ते प्रतीतम। The “erroneous apprehension” spoken of is here explained as arising from the conception of the individual soul.

‡ In the Hariśamhā, 11358, we find:

"Purusha, that is to say, sacrifice, or whatever else is meant by purusha, —all that, known for highest (para), is called Purushottama."

The word is a karmadhārvya compound, not a tatpurusha.
and lord of creation and preservation; the ruler of the world; unborn, imperishable, undecaying:* I will relate to you that which was originally imparted by the great father of all (Brahmā†), in answer to the questions of Daksha and other venerable sages, and repeated by them to Purukutsa, a king who reigned on the banks of the Narmadā. It was next related by him to Sāraswata, and by Sāraswata to me.¹

Who can describe him who is not to be apprehended by the senses: who is the best of all things; the supreme soul, self-existent: who is devoid of all the distinguishing characteristics of complexion, caste, or the like; and is exempt from birth, vicissitude, death, or decay:‡ who is always, and alone: who exists everywhere, and in whom all things here exist; and who is, thence, named Vásudeva?² He is Brahma.

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1 A different and more detailed account of the transmission of the Vishňu Puráṇa is given in the last book, c. 8.

2 The ordinary derivation of Vásudeva has been noticed above (p. 2). Here it is derived from Vas, ‘to dwell,’ from Vishňu’s abiding in all things, and all in him: सर्वचातो समस्त च वसूध्वः। The Mahābhārata explains Vásu in the same manner, and Deva to signify radiant, shining: सर्वः अगद्रात्मिनि वास-

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* Auyaya. Here and elsewhere the commentator gives aparādhāmin, “immutable”, as its synonym.
† Expressed by Abhayoni, “Lotos-born”.
‡ Add “increase”, viśdhi.
I. 2
VISHNU PURANA.

ma, supreme, lord, eternal, unborn, imperishable, undecaying; of one essence; ever pure, as free from defects. He, that Brahma, was all things; comprehending in his own nature the indiscrete and discrete. He then existed in the forms of Purusha and of Kala. Purusha (spirit) is the first form of the supreme; next proceeded two other forms, the discrete and indiscrete; and Kala (time) was the last.* These four—Pradhana (primary

* तद् स्वप्रमेय वसन्तीति वासुः। बृहस्पतिमात्राय देवः॥ वासुदेवः सि देवश्चति वासुदेवः। 'He causes all things to dwell in him; and he abides in all: whence he is named Vasu. Being resplendent as the sun, he is called Deva: and he who is both these is denominated Vasudeva.' See also b. VI., c. 5.

1 The commentator argues, that Vasudeva must be the Brahma or supreme being of the Vedas, because the same circumstances

* तद् स्वप्रमेय वासुदेवः। तथा पुण्यस्योऽस्य वासुदेवः। च विचारः॥

परं ग्रह्यात् रूपं पुण्यः। प्रथमं विचारः।

वासुदेवः सि देवश्चति वासुदेवः। च वासुदेवापरः॥

"That Brahma, in its totality, has, essentially, the aspect of prakriti, both evolved and unevolved, and also the aspect of spirit, and the aspect of time. Spirit, O twice-born, is the leading aspect of the supreme Brahma. The next is a twofold aspect, viz., prakriti, both evolved and unevolved; and time is the last."

It seems, therefore, not that prakriti, spirit, and time originated from Brahma, but that Brahma offers itself under these modes of apprehension. These modes are coessential with Brahma.

The last line of the text cited above admitting of two interpretations, that has been chosen which harmonizes the doctrine of the writer of the Purana with the doctrine of his quotation in pp. 23—25, infra; for on that his own enunciation here undoubtedly is founded.

Professor Wilson adopted the following reading of the first line of the verses in question:

† These words have the appearance of being a glossarial expansion of an etymology given in the Mahabharata, or some similar work. The
or crude matter), Purusha (spirit), Vyakta (visible substance), and Kāla (time)—the wise consider to be the pure and supreme condition of Vishńu. These four forms, in their due proportions, are the causes of the production of the phenomena of creation, preservation, and destruction. Vishńu, being thus discrete and indiscrere substance, spirit, and time, sports like

are predicated of both, as eternity, omnipresence, omnipotence, &c.; but he does not adduce any scriptural text with the name Vásudeva.

² Time is not usually enumerated, in the Puráñas, as an element of the first cause; but the Padma P. and the Bhágavata agree with the Vishńu in including it. It appears to have been regarded, at an earlier date, as an independent cause. The commentator on the Moksha Dharma cites a passage from the Vedas, which he understands to allude to the different theories of the cause of creation:

खास: समायते निर्यतिर्युक्तं भूतानि चोत्ति: पुष्चतः।

Time, inherent nature, consequence of acts, self-will, elementary atoms, matter, and spirit, asserted, severally, by the Astrologers, the Buddhists, the Mímáḿsakas, the Jainas, the Logicians, the Sánkhyaś, and the Vedántins. Kpóvo was also one of the first generated agents in creation, according to the Orphic theogony.

commentary on the Vishńu-puráña has: सर्वञ्चति सर्वञ्चसी वसति समसं चाबिष्क्षवसति।** ततः स वासुदेव रूपवचति। सर्वञ्चिकरणः। योधिरवसति वासुधस्य भवार्यः। वासुचसी योतभावः। वस्माद्योतनाशर्वः वासुदेवं विदुरितं सोधरेर्मणषः।

In the Mahábhárata, Sánti-parvan, 13169, we read:

खाद्यास्मि अजदिर्व भूला सूर्ये रूपवाचिः।

sambhûtanãvavalokam vásunedvartato bhāmas।

² From the Śvetáśvatara Upanishad. See the Bibliotheca Indica, Vol. VII, p. 275.
a playful boy, as you shall learn by listening to his frolics.¹

That chief principle (Pradhāna), which is the indiscrete cause, is called, by the sages, also Prakṛiti (nature): it is subtile, uniform, and comprehends what is and what is not (or both causes and effects);* is durable, self-sustained, illimitable, undecaying, and stable; devoid of sound or touch, and possessing neither colour nor form; endowed with the three qualities (in equilibrium); the mother of the world; without beginning;² and that into which all that is produced

¹ The creation of the world is very commonly considered to be the Līlā (लीला), sport or amusement, of the supreme being.

² The attributes of Pradhāna, the chief (principle or element), here specified, conform, generally, to those ascribed to it by the Sānkhya philosophy (Sānkhya Kārikā, p. 16, &c.); although some of them are incompatible with its origin from a first cause.† In the Sānkhya, this incongruity does not occur; for there Pradhāna is independent, and coordinate with primary spirit. The Purāṇas give rise to the inconsistency, by a lax use of both philosophical and pantheistical expressions. The most incongruous epithets in our text are, however, explained away in the comment. Thus, Nitya (नित्य), ‘eternal’, is said to mean ‘uniform, not liable to increase or diminution’; नित्य वद्यसङगुण बुधादिरीकरण | Sada-sadātmaka (सदसदात्मक), ‘comprehending what is and what is not’, means ‘having the power of both cause and effect’ (कार्य-कारणशक्तिशृङ्ख), as proceeding from Vishnu, and as giving origin to material things. Anādi (अनादि), ‘without beginning’, means

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* The literal translation is this: "That which is the unevolved cause is emphatically called, by the most eminent sages, pradhāna, original base, which is subtile prakṛiti, vis., that which is eternal, and which at once is and is not, or is mere process."

† The Sanskrit is in note 2 of this page. I cannot translate prakṛiti.
is resolved.* By that principle all things were in-

'without birth' (जनायक्यय), not being engendered by any created thing, but proceeding immediately from the first cause. 'The mother', or, literally, 'the womb, of the world' (अम्बादीन), means 'the passive agent in creation', operated on, or influenced, by the active will of the creator.† The first part of the passage in the text is a favourite one with several of the Purāṇas; but they modify it, and apply it after their own fashion. In the Vishnu, the original is:

चतुष्कारश्च ब्रह्मद्रामुद्धिसिद्धम्।
प्राप्तः प्रजाति: सुभास निबिव सद्यार्दभसम्॥

rendered as above. The Vāyu, Brahmānda, and Kūrma Pu-

राण प्रजाति चिन्त चेष्व चेष्वक्कालिनाम्॥

‘The indiscriminate cause, which is uniform, and both cause and effect, and whom those who are acquainted with first principles call Pradhāna and Prakṛiti, is the un cognizable Brahma, who was before all’: चिन्तेन प्रजाती समवर्तत।§ But the application of two synonyms of Prakṛiti to Brahma seems unnecessary, at least. The Brahma P. corrects the reading, apparently: the first line is as before; the second is:

* Prabhavedpyaya, “the place whence is the origination and into which is the resolution of all things.” So says the commentator, and rightly.

Jagad-yoni, a little before, is scarcely so much “the mother of the world”, or “the womb of the world”, as “the material cause of the world.” The commentator explains it by kāraṇa, “cause”.

† It may be generally remarked, with regard to these explanations of terms used in the text, and expounded by the Hindu commentator, that, had Professor Wilson enjoyed the advantages which are now at the command of the student of Indian philosophy, unquestionably he would here have expressed himself differently. Thus, the reader will not find the “incongruity” and “inconsistency” complained of, if he bears in mind, that the text speaks of Brahma, not as putting forth evolutions, but as exhibiting different aspects of itself.

‡ This is in the fourth chapter of the Vāyu-purāṇa.

§ Compare the Mārkaṇḍeya-purāṇa, X.L.V., 32 and 34.
vested in the period subsequent to the last dissolution

The passage is placed absolutely: 'There was an indiscrète cause,—eternal, and cause and effect,—which was both matter and spirit (Pradhána and Purushá), from which this world was made.' Instead of रेखर, 'such' or 'this', some copies read रेखर, 'from which Iswara or god (the active deity or Brahma) made the world'. The Hari Varsha has the same reading, except in the last term, which it makes रेखर; that is, according to the commentator, 'the world, which is Iswara, was made.' The same authority explains this indiscrète cause, Avyaktakaraña, to denote Brahma, 'the creator'; स एविन र्वायु वस्त्रां सर्वपूर्वसात अन identification very unusual, if not inaccurate, and possibly founded on misapprehension of what is stated by the Bhavishya P.:

वर्षकारकन्यकसे निन्य सदस्यायप्रक्ष
तविन्द्रिस्यं 'स पुष्पो सौंके प्रकृतं वीथितं
एवं स भगवानेषु प्राति

'That male or spirit which is endowed with which is the indiscrète cause, &c., is known, in the world, as Brahma: he, being in the egg', &c. The passage is precisely the same in Manu, I., 11.; except that we have 'Visishta' instead of 'Visishtha'. The latter is a questionable reading, and is, probably, wrong; the sense of the former is, 'detached': and the whole means, very consistently, 'embodied spirit detached from the indiscrète cause of the world, is known as Brahma.' * The Padma P. inserts the first line, चक्रवति, &c., but has:

महादाश्विशिष्यमेव वृत्तातीति विशिष्यमेव

* Visishtaa, the only reading recognized by Kulluka and Medhatithi, commentators on the Mánava-dharma-sthra, means, as explained by them, upádita, "produced" or "created".

The Mánava-dharma-sthra notably differs from the Sánkhya, in that it does not hold a duality of first principles. And still different are the Puráñas, in which the dualistic principles are united in Brahma, and—as previously remarked—are not evolutions thereof, but so many aspects of some supreme deity. See the Translator's first note in p. 15, supra.
of the universe, and prior to creation. For Brahmans learned in the Vedas, and teaching truly their doctrines, explain such passages as the following as intending the production of the chief principle (Pradhána). "There was neither day nor night, nor sky nor earth, nor darkness nor light, nor any other thing, save only One, unapprehensible by intellect, or That which is Brahma and Púms (spirit) and Pradhána.

"Which creates, undoubtedly, Mahat and the other qualities": assigning the first epithets, therefore, as the Vishnu does, to Prakriti only. The Linga† also refers the expression to Prakriti alone, but makes it a secondary cause:

अबं वश्चरात्सारं महाभव्याः परम्।
प्रधानं प्रकृतिश्च यदाज्ञात्वचिन्तम्॥

‘An indiscrete cause, which those acquainted with first principles call Pradhána and Prakriti, proceeded from that Íswara (Siva).’ This passage is one of very many instances in which expressions are common to several Puránas, that seem to be borrowed from one another, or from some common source older than any of them; especially in this instance, as the same text occurs in Manu.‡

1 The expression of the text is rather obscure: ‘All was pervaded (or comprehended) by that chief principle before (re-creation), after the (last) destruction’:

तेषां च वै भूवेयादिन्यम च प्रजायादि॥

The ellipses are filled up by the commentator. This, he adds, is to be regarded as the state of things at a Mahápralaya or total dissolution; leaving, therefore, crude matter, nature, or chaos, as a coexistent element with the Supreme. This, which is conformable to the philosophical doctrine, is not, however, that of the Puránas in general, nor that of our text, which states

* Read: "Which creates all, from maha to individual existences: such is the conclusion of the scriptures."
† Prior Section, LXX., 2.
‡ See the editor’s note in the preceding page.
The two forms which are other than (b. VI., c. 4), that, at a Prákrit or elementary dissolution, Pradháná itself merges into the deity.* Neither is it, apparently, the doctrine of the Vedas, although their language is somewhat equivocal.

The metre here is one common to the Vedas, Tristíubb; but, in other respects, the language is not characteristic of those compositions. The purport of the passage is rendered somewhat doubtful by its close and by the explanation of the commentator. The former is: एवं माधानिकं ब्रह्म युमांचार्यसिद्। 'One Pradhánika Brahma Spirit: That, was.'† The commentator explains Pradhánika, Pradhána eva, the same word as Pradhána; but it is a derivative word, which may be used attributively, implying 'having, or conjoined with, Pradhána.' The commentator, however, interprets it as the substantive; for he adds: 'There was Pradhána and Brahma and Spirit; this triad was at the period of dissolution': प्रधानं ब्रह्म च पुमांचर्यति ब्रह्मस्वातः तद्भवेन यथीत। ‡ He evidently, however, understands their conjoint existence as one only; for he continues: 'So, according to the Vedas, then there was neither the non-existent cause nor the existent effect': तथा च ज्ञितः। नामद्विन्यो ब्रह्मस्वातः यथीत।

* The evolutionary doctrine is not the Pauránsik; and the commentator—who, on this occasion, does little more than supply ellipses, and does not call prakrit, "at a Mahápralaya", "a coexistent element with the Supreme"—advances nothing in contradiction to the toner of the Puráñas. See the editor's second note in p. 21, and note in p. 22, supra.

† It is the abridged comment that is here cited. In the copy of it to which I have access, the passage extracted above begins: माधानिकं प्रधानस्वातः। प्रधानिकं ब्रह्म च। The fuller comment has: माधानिकं स्वातः तब्रितः।

‡ Thus opens a hymn of the Rig-veda; X., 129. See Colebrooke's Miscellaneous Essays, Vol. I., p. 33; Müller's History of Ancient Sanskrit Literature, pp. 559 et seq.; and Goldstücker's Páśupáti, His Place in Sanskrit Literature, pp. 144 et seq. The Sanskrit of the hymn, accompanied by a new translation, will be found in Original Sanskrit Texts, Part IV., pp. 3 and 4.
the essence of unmodified Vishnu are Pradhana (matter) and Purusha (spirit); and his other form, by which those two are connected or separated, is called Kala (time)."* When discrete substance is aggregated in crude nature, as in a foregone dissolution, that dissolution is

meaning that there was only One Being, in whom matter and its modifications were all comprehended.

1 Or it might be rendered: ‘Those two other forms (which proceed) from his supreme nature’: विष्णोऽक्षणत: | that is, from the nature of Vishnu when he is Nirupadhi or without adventitious attributes: नित्यपापरिविष्णोऽस्वातिः | ‘other’ (चबे); the commentator states they are other, or separate from Vishnu, only through Maya, ‘illusion’, but here implying ‘false notion’: the elements of creation being, in essence, one with Vishnu, though, in existence, detached and different.

“there was neither day nor night, neither heaven nor earth, neither darkness nor light. And there was not aught else apprehensible by the senses or by the mental faculties. There was then, however, one Brahma, essentially prakriti and spirit. For the two aspects of Vishnu which are other than his supreme essential aspect are prakriti and spirit, O Brahman. When these two other aspects of his no longer subsist, but are dissolved, then that aspect whence form and the rest, i.e., creation, proceed anew is denominated time, O twice-born.”

See the editor’s first note in p. 18, supra.

I have carried forward the inverted commas by which Professor Wilson indicated the end of the quotation. There can be no question that it embraces two stanzas. They are in the triśṭūṭhī metre, and are preceded and followed by verses in the amuṣṭūṭhī.
termed elemental (Prákṛita). The deity as Time is without beginning, and his end is not known; and from him the revolutions of creation, continuance, and dissolution uninterruptedly succeed:* for, when, in the latter season, the equilibrium of the qualities (Pradhána) exists, and spirit (Puruśa) is detached from matter, then the form of Vishńu which is Time abides. Then

Pradhána, when unmodified, is, according to the Sánkhyas and Paurániks, nothing more than the three qualities† in equilibrio; or goodness, foulness, and darkness neutralizing each other; (Sánkhya Káriká, p. 52). So in the Matsya P.:                 

सत्य रजसमाधिविशुद्धयुद्धादित्म । 
साम्याकर्षितिर्वित्वां प्रकटी: परिवीतिता ॥

This state is synonymous with the non-evolution of material products, or with dissolution; implying, however, separate existence, and detached from spirit. This being the case, it is asked, What should sustain matter and spirit whilst separate, or renew their combination so as to renovate creation? It is answered, Time, which is when everything else is not, and which, at the end of a certain interval, unites Matter (Pradhána) and Purusha, and

We here have a reference, apparently, to four—not simply to three—conditions of things, the last of which, sānyama, “delitescence”, denotes the state that prevails during the nights of Brahmá, when all concrete forms are resolved into their original elements. The word has occurred before: see p. 11, supra. Also see the Márkaṇḍéya-púrāṇa, XLVI, 7.

The commentator, at first, takes sānyama—i.e., he says, sāṁścāra—for the third condition, qualified by ama=ante, “at last”. Alternatively, he makes ama the third of the conditions, and governs the names of all three by sāyamā, in the sense of niyamā. For sānyama, in place of sānyama, in a classification similar to that of the text, see Śankara’s Commentary on the Śvetáśvatara Upanishad: Bibliotheca Indica, Vol. VII, pp. 275 and 276.

† On rendering the Sánkhya or Pauránik guña, as here meant, by “quality”, see my translation of Pandit Nehemiah Nilakantha Sástrin’s Rational Refutation of the Hindu Philosophical Systems, pp. 43 and 44, foot-note, and pp. 219 et seq., foot-note.
the supreme Brahma, the supreme soul, the substance of the world, * the lord of all creatures, the universal soul, the supreme ruler, Hari, of his own will having entered into matter and spirit, agitated the mutable and immutable principles, the season of creation being arrived. In the same manner as fragrance affects the mind from its proximity merely, and not from any immediate operation upon mind itself, so the Supreme influenced the elements of creation. ¹ Purushottama

produces creation. Conceptions of this kind are evidently comprised in the Orphic triad, or the ancient notion of the cooperation of three such principles, in creation, as Phanes or Eros, which is the Hindu spirit or Purusha; Chaos, matter or Pradhâna; and Chronos, or Kâla, time.

¹ Pradhâna is styled Vyaya (व्यय), ‘that which may be expended’; † or Pariñâmin (परिनामिन), ‘which may be modified’: and Purusha is called Ayyava (आयवा), ‘inconsumable’, or apariñâmin (अपरिनामिन), ‘immutable’. The expressions प्रविष्ट, ‘having entered into’, and चौभयमास, ‘agitated’, recall the mode in which divine intelligence, mens, νοῦς, was conceived, by the ancients, to operate upon matter:

Φωνὴ ... φρονεῖσθαι κόσμον ἀπαντα,  
καταλαμποῦσα Ἁγίων;

or as in a more familiar passage:

Spiritus intus alit, totamque infusa per artus,  
Mens agitat molem, et magno se corpore miscet:  

or, perhaps, it more closely approximates to the Phoenician cosmogony, in which a spirit, mixing with its own principles, gives rise to creation. Brucker, I., 240. As presently explained, the mixture is not mechanical; it is an influence or effect exerted upon intermediate agents which produce effects; as perfumes do not delight the mind by actual contact, but by the impression

* Supply “all-permeant” sarvagā.
† “Passing away”, or “perishable”, is more literal.
is both the agitator and the thing to be agitated; being present in the essence of matter, both when it is con-

they make upon the sense of smelling, which communicates it to the mind. The entrance of the supreme Vishnu into spirit, as well as matter, is less intelligible than the view elsewhere taken of it, as the infusion of spirit, identified with the Supreme, into Prakriti or matter alone. Thus, in the Padma Purana:*

चो च दैव भवाभविष्य: प्रकृति स रसायनत:।
स एव भगवाभविष्य: प्रकृतासामविश्व ह।

'He who is called the male (spirit) of Prakriti is here named Achyuta; and that same divine Vishnu entered into Prakriti.' So the Brähman Naradiya:

प्रकृति चोभवाभविष्य पुष्वाको बन्धुरी।

'The lord of the world, who is called Purusha, producing agitation in Prakriti.' From the notion of influence or agitation produced on matter through or with spirit, the abuse of personification led to actual or vicarious admixture. Thus, the Bhāgavata, identifying Māyā with Prakriti, has:

कालोपागुता तु मायायं नुथम्बरामधोचच:।
पुष्विप्रकृतिमुखौलिन सीर्माराघ्न सीर्मावान।

'Through the operation of time, the Mighty One, who is present to the pure, implanted a seed in Māyā endowed with qualities, as Purusha, which is one with himself.'† B. III., s. 5. And the Bhavishya: 'Some learned men say, that the supreme being, desirous to create beings, creates, in the commencement of the Kalpa, a body of soul (or an incorporeal substance); which soul, created by him, enters into Prakriti; and Prakriti, being thereby agitated, creates many material elements':

बचे बेदें सहावाहे प्रवधर्मि स्नीप्तिः।
चो सावाहे परस्मात्मध्यादी बुधे तदुम्।

* Uttara-kālidā, XXXIV.
† Burnouf—Vol. I., p. 176—has: "Lorsque l'action du temps eut développé au sein de Māyā les qualités, Adhokshaja, doué de vigueur, se manifestant sous la forme de Purucha, déposa en elle sa semence."

For Adhokshaja, see Goldstücker's Sanskrit Dictionary, sub voce: also Original Sanskrit Texts, Part IV., pp. 182 and 183.
tracted and expanded.\textsuperscript{1} Vishńu, supreme over the supreme, is of the nature of discrete forms in the atomic productions, Brahmá and the rest (gods, men, &c.).

Then from that equilibrium of the qualities (Pradhána), presided over by soul,\textsuperscript{2} proceeds the unequal development of those qualities (constituting the principle Mahat or Intellect) at the time of creation.\textsuperscript{3} The

\begin{quote}
प्रभावस्य महाबाह्यो शिवृद्धीविद्वान्: प्रभाः ।
तेन सृष्टः प्रभावस्य प्रभागे विशेषे गुण ॥
प्रभागे चोरितं तेन सृष्टे विशेषते विकारान्भक्षण ॥
\end{quote}

But these may be regarded as notions of a later date. In the Mahábhárata, the first cause is declared to be ‘Intellectual’, who creates by his mind or will:

\begin{quote}
मागवो शाम पृथ्वीं सपे निर्माता वै महाबिन्दः ।
बनादिविधिभो देवानामिभो विजातिः ॥
\end{quote}

‘The first (being) is called Mánasa (intellectual), and is so celebrated by great sages: he is god, without beginning or end, indivisible, immortal, undeecaying.’ And again:

\begin{quote}
प्रभावस्य विविधं मागवो महसो मुखः ॥
\end{quote}

‘The Intellectual created many kinds of creatures by his mind.’

\textsuperscript{1} Contraction, Sankocha (संकोच), is explained by Sámya (सम्या), sameness or equilibrium of the three qualities, or inert Pradhána; and Expansion, Vikása (विखास), is the destruction of this equipoise, by previous agitation and consequent development of material products.

\textsuperscript{2} The term here is Kshetrajna, ‘embodied spirit’, or that which knows the Kshetra or ‘body’; implying the combination of spirit with form or matter, for the purpose of creating.

\textsuperscript{3} The first product of Pradhána, sensible to divine, though not to mere human, organs, is, both according to the Sánkhyya and Pauráṇik doctrines, the principle called Mahat, literally, ‘the Great’; explained in other places, as in our text, ‘the production of the manifestation of the qualities’; गुस्तवतासबृहति । or, as in the Váyu:
Chief principle then invests that Great principle, Intellect; and it becomes threefold, as affected by the quality of goodness, foulness, or darkness, and invested

गुष्ठाभावाद्वृत्तामणि महान्नातुर्वभूत हि।
We have, in the same Purāṇa, as well as in the Brahmāṇḍa and Linga, a number of synonyms for this term, as:

मनो महावातिश्रेष्ठा पूर्विण्ड्वितिः क्षतिगतिरीशरः।

प्राणा चित्तिः खृतिः संविस्दिपुरः कोच्यते वुधे:॥

* This stanza occurs in the fourth chapter of the Vaiṣṇava-purāṇa. Immediately following it are these definitions, which Professor Wilson has translated:

मने सर्वभूतानां यशास्तिर्दासनं समेत:।
सीताराजेन्द्र विनितुर्राजानं तेष सब्ज उच्छये॥

तत्त्वानामयोऽर्थार्थवितार्थवर्मायायत:।
मेर्विद्द्वै गुणतेल्योऽस्मात्तितत: खृतः॥

विभार्मांग मशुरे विभार्मां गहते। पिपि च।

गुष्ठप्रभोगसंविभार्मीन चाही खृतः: खृतः॥

गुष्ठस्त्राही हृदाराम्यभावान् साक्ष्यायात्रायत:।
यथाभुतो भव्यरस: तेष सब्जेत॥

श्रापुराणिला यशास्त्रक्षतादिहानश्रुतः॥

तत्त्वानामयोऽर्थवितार्थवर्मायायत:।

मने खुस्मानां सर्वभावान्तिस्तितायातान।

श्यामात्थो चित्त: तेष सब्जनिविर्मित:॥

खातिः: प्रशुभोगक्षत्रा खस्तात्वंवं तत:।

भोगक्षत्रा चाणानिशिल्यातनेन खातिरितः खृतः॥

खायते तनुच्यात्मापि नामादिनिरिक्षः:॥

तथातन्न महतः: संभाय खातिरितविभिभयि॥

साहस्त्राय विवाहानाति महाभागा तेष चेत्र:।

यथायात्मुप: सैंध प्रमा तेष च उच्छये॥

खानादिरीशिच कुमारिणं कुमिन्दरसार्थिः च।

विवीति यशानोगारं तेनासी खातिरिति॥

वर्तमायाविनिमयानि तथा चाणगतान्वयिः।

ख्याते तर्काशिबिरं तेनासी खृतिरित:॥

क्षत्रां च विवित्ते स्वार्य यशानागात्मकम् ।

तत्त्वानामयोऽर्थवितार्थवर्मायायत:॥
by the Chief principle (matter), as seed is by its skin.

They are also explained, though not very distinctly, to the following purport: "Manas is that which considers the conse-

According to Vijnana Bhikshu, at least the first half of the stanza of synonyms, quoted by Professor Wilson, is in the Matsya-purana as well as in the Vayu. See my edition of the Sankhya-pravachana-bhashya — published in the Bibliotheca Indica —, p. 117.

The Linga-purana, Prior Section, LXX., 12 et seq., differs from the Vayu in having brahma and chit-para or viśeṣa instead of brahmā and vipura. Its explanations of the terms also present several deviations. For द्वन्द्वानां &c., in definition of vipura, it gives:

or, agreeably to another reading:

With nothing correspondent to the next two stanzas and a half of the Vayu, it then passes at once to the line beginning with पद्यवाचके:.

In the same Purana, Prior Section, VIII., 67—74, we read:

विलयरूप श्लोकोन्नत्र सन्धान भ्रमृतिः वर्त्तमा तितिः: हृदि: ।

क्षितिः: संदितिः: प्रश्नादीरो तत्रतिर्व्रच च ॥

वृद्धि: द्विजा: संहा महत्: परिकृतिः: ।

श्रीका: वृद्धि: प्रासादत्रु प्राणमध्यमेन संज्ञातिः ।

विलयरूपो विलयरीभवान्वत्नां नुगितिसमा: ।

ब्रह्म: संख्यत्तः सहायः परिसंस्थत: ॥

भ्रमरमापमात्र: प्राणा संहा समन्वते: ।

श्रीक्षलादुहलाद ब्रह्म ब्रह्मचिद्वर वरा: ॥

संख्यानीतः भोगायं विक्रियात्ति चित्तिः: सुता ।

श्रीति यती: संविद्विष विच्छते यतः: ॥
From the great principle (Mahat) Intelect, threefold
quences of acts to all creatures, and provides for their happiness. Mahat, the Great principle, is so termed from being the first of the created principles, and from its extension being greater than that of the rest. Mati is that which discriminates and distinguishes objects preparatory to their fruition by Soul. Brahma implies that which effects the development and augmentation of created things. Pur is that by which the concurrence of nature occupies and fills all bodies. Buddhi is that which communicates to soul the knowledge of good and evil. Khyati is the means of individual fruition, or the faculty of discriminating objects by appropriate designations and the like. Iswara is that which knows all things as if they were present. Prajna is that by which the properties of things are known. Smriti is that by which the consequences of acts and species of knowledge are selected for the use of soul. Smiti is the faculty of recognizing all things, past, present, or to come. Sanvid is that in which all things are found or known, and which is found or known in all things: and Vipura is that which is free from the effects of contrarieties, as of knowledge and ignorance, and the like. Mahat is also called Iswara, from its exercising supremacy over all things; Bhava, from its elementary existence; Eka, or ‘the one’, from its singleness; Purusha, from its abiding within the body; and, from its being ungenerated, it is called Swayambhu."** Now, in this

The terms thus enumerated and elucidated—viswara, mahat, prajna, manas, brahma, chitti, smriti, khyati, sanvid, iswara, and mati—belong, as they here stand, to the Yoga philosophy.

* The reader will be able to verify this translation by the original given at the beginning of the last note. Brahma—which comes between iswara and bhava—was overlooked. Further, for “Eka” read saka, meaning the same thing, “one.”
Egotism, (Ahamkára),\(^1\) denominated Vaikárika, ‘pure’; Taijasa, ‘passionate’; and Bhútádi, ‘rudimental’;\(^*\) is pro-
nomenclature we have chiefly two sets of words; one, as Manas, 
Buddhi, Mati, signifying mind, intelligence, knowledge, wisdom, 
design; and the other, as Brahmá, Iśwara, &c., denoting an 
active creator and ruler of the universe; as the Váyu adds,

**Máhaśśuríti viṣṇurte chóbhamañ: viṣṇusya I**

‘Mahat, impelled by the desire to create, causes various creation’: 
and the Maháábbárata has: **Máhaśśuríti váhókara I**. ‘Mahat created 
Ahamkára.’ The Puráñas generally employ the same expression, 
attributing to Mahat or Intelligence the act of creating. Mahat 
is, therefore, the divine mind in creative operation, the 
νοῦς δ’ 

diaxósmén te καὶ πάντων αἰτίων of Anaxagoras; an ordering 
and disposing mind, which was the cause of all things.’ The 
word itself suggests some relationship to the Phenician Mot, 
which, like Mahat, was the first product of the mixture of spirit 
and matter, and the first rudiment of creation: “Ex 
connexione 
autem ejus spiritus prodit Mot . . . Hinc ** se\(\text{emi}\)nium omnis crea-
turæ et omnium rerum creatio.” Brucker, I., 240. Mot, it is 
true, appears to be a purely material substance; whilst Mahat is 
an incorporeal† substance: but they agree in their place in the 
cosmogony, and are something alike in name. How far, also, 
the Phenician system has been accurately described, is matter 
of uncertainty. See Sánkhya Káriká, p. 88.

\(^{†}\) The sense of Ahamkára cannot be very well rendered by any 
European term. It means the principle of individual existence, 
that which appropriates perceptions, and on which depend the 
notions, I think, I feel, I am.‡ It might be expressed by the pro-
position of Descartes reversed; “Sum, ergo cogito, sentio”, &c.

\(^*\) In strict literality, “origin of the elements.” See my edition of the 

\(^{†}\) See, however, the Sánkhya-pravachána, I., 61; and the Sánkhya-
káriká, XXII.

\(^{‡}\) But see the discussion of the distinction between ahamkára and 
abhindána in Goldstücker’s Sanskrit Dictionary, p. 257.

I.
duced; the origin of the (subtile) elements, and of the organs of sense; invested, in consequence of its three qualities, by Intellect, as Intellect is by the Chief principle. Elementary Egotism, then becoming productive, as the rudiment of sound, produced from it Ether,* of which sound is the characteristic, investing it with its rudiment of sound.† Ether, becoming productive, en-

The equivalent employed by Mr. Colebrooke, egotism, has the advantage of an analogous etymology; Ahamkāra being derived from Aham (अहम्), ‘I’; as in the Hari Varṣa:

चाहै स्विति स द्द्रोतान्त्राम: स्वामिन्भारत ।

‘He (Brahmā), O Bhārata, said, I will create creatures.’ See also S. Kārikā, p. 91.

2 These three varieties of Ahamkāra are also described in the Sāńkhya Kārikā, p. 92. Vaikārika, that which is productive, or susceptible of production, is the same as the Sāttwika, or that which is combined with the property of goodness. Taijasa Ahamkāra is that which is endowed with Tejas, ‘heat’ or ‘energy’, in consequence of its having the property of Rajas, ‘passion’ or ‘activity’; and the third kind, Bhūtādi, or ‘elementary’, is the Tāmasa, or has the property of darkness. From the first kind proceed the senses; from the last, the rudimental unconscious elements; both kinds, which are equally of themselves inert, being

* "A characterization of ākāśa will serve to show how inadequately it is represented by ‘ether’. In dimension, it is, as has been said, infinite; it is not made up of parts; and colour, taste, smell, and tangibility do not appertain to it. So far forth it corresponds exactly to time, space, Īśwara, and soul. Its speciality, as compared therewith, consists in its being the material cause of sound. Except for its being so, we might take it to be one with vacuity.” Rational Refutation, &c., p. 120.

"In Hindu opinion, the ‘ether’ is always essentially colourless and pure, and only from error is supposed to possess hue. ** The ignorant, it is said, think the blueness of the sky to be the befoultment of ‘ether’." Iōtii, p. 272.

† On the translation of this and subsequent passages, see the Sāńkhya-sāra, Preface, p. 33, foot-note.
gendered the rudiment of touch; whence originated strong wind, the property of which is touch; and Ether, with the rudiment of sound, enveloped the rudiment of touch. Then wind, becoming productive, produced the rudiment of form (colour); whence light (or fire) proceeded, of which, form (colour) is the attribute; and the rudiment of touch enveloped the wind with the rudiment of colour. Light, becoming productive, produced the rudiment of taste; whence proceed all juices in which flavour resides; and the rudiment of colour invested the juices with the rudiment of taste. The waters, becoming productive, engendered the rudiment of smell; whence an aggregate (earth) originates, of which smell is the property. In each several ele-

rendered productive by the cooperation of the second, the energetic or active modification of Ahañkāra, which is, therefore, said to be the origin of both the senses and the elements.*

1 The successive series of rudiments and elements, and their respectively engendering the rudiments and elements next in order, occur in most of the Purāṇas, in nearly the same words. The Brīhan Nāradiya P. observes:

(plot the elements) in successive order acquire the property of causality one to the other.' The order is also the same; or,

* Ahañkāra, "the conception of I", has a preponderance either of sattva, "pure quietude", or of rajas, "activity", or of tamas, "stagnancy". The first species, as likewise the third, becomes productive, when assisted by the second. Such is the genuine Sānkhya doctrine. In the Purāṇas, the second, besides serving as an auxiliary to production, of itself produces; since therefrom arise five "intellectual organs" and five "organs of action." These organs, with manas, "the organ of imagination", are derived, in the unmodified Sānkhya, from the first species of ahañkāra. See, for additional details, the Sānkhya-sūtra, Preface, pp. 30 et seq., foot-note.
ment resides its peculiar rudiment; thence the property ether (Ākāśa), wind or air (Vāyu), fire or light (Tejas), water and earth; except in one passage of the Mahābhārata (Moksha Dharma. c. 9), where it is ether, water, fire, air, earth.* The order of Empedocles was: ether, fire, earth, water, air. Cudworth, I., 97. The investment (Āvaraṇa) of each element by its own rudiment, and of each rudiment by its preceding gross and rudimental elements, is also met with in most of the chief Purāṇas, as the Vāyu, Padma, Linga, and Bhāgavata; and traces of it are found amongst the ancient cosmogonists; for Anaximander supposed that, 'when the world was made, a certain sphere or flame of fire, separated from matter (the Infinite), encompassed the air, which invested the earth as the bark does a tree': Ḍakā τὴν γένεσιν τοῦδε τοῦ κόσμου ἀποκρύθηναι, καὶ τινὰ ἐκ τούτου φλογος σφαιραν περιφρύηναι τῷ περὶ τὴν γῆν ἀέρι, ὡς τῷ δένδρῳ φλοιόν. Euseb., Pr., I., 15. Some of the Purāṇas, as the Matsya, Vāyu, Linga, Bhāgavata, and Mārkaṇḍeyya, add a description of a participation of properties amongst the elements, which is rather Vedānta than Sāṅkhya. According to this notion, the elements add to their characteristic properties those of the elements which precede them. Ākāśa has the single property of sound: air has those of touch and sound: fire has colour, touch, and sound: water has taste, colour, touch, and sound: and earth has smell and the rest, thus having five properties: or, as the Linga P.† describes the series:

आकाशः शनिमार्ग यत्तसर्वभाषामात्राबिशत।
चिन्तनानु सतो वायुः शनिमश्चितव्राति ॥
भवत्॥
रूपं तत्त्वाविशतं शनिमश्चितव्राति ॥
चिन्तनानु सत्त्वविद्यता स शनिमश्चितव्राति ॥
शनिमश्चितमात्र रसमार्ग समाविशत।
न्यकाश्चतुगुणा चापो चिन्तनानु रसाविशिका। ॥

For a related comment, see Goldstücker's Sanskrit Dictionary, pp. 155 and 156, sub voce रूप।

† Prior Section, LXX., 43—47.
of tanmātratā¹ (type or rudiment) is ascribed to these elements. Rudimental elements are not endowed with qualities; and therefore they are neither soothing, nor terrific, nor stupefying.² This is the elemental creation, proceeding from the principle of egotism affected by

¹ Tanmātra, ‘rudiment’ or ‘type’, from Tad (तद्), ‘that’, for Tasmin (तस्मिन्), ‘in that’ gross element, and mātra (मात्रा), ‘subtile or rudimental form’ (मात्राः सूच्यं कृप्य).† The rudiments are also the characteristic properties of the elements: as the Bhāgavata:

तथ भाष श्रवः: श्रवः लिङ्गः यत्र दृश्याः: ।

‘The rudiment of it (ether) is also its quality, sound;¹ as a common designation may denote both a person who sees an object, and the object which is to be seen’: that is, according to the commentator, suppose a person behind a wall called aloud, “An elephant! an elephant!”: the term would equally indicate that an elephant was visible, and that somebody saw it. Bhāg., II., 5, 25.

² The properties here alluded to are not those of goodness, &c., but other properties§ assigned to perceptible objects by the Sānkhya doctrines; or Śánti (श्याति), ‘placidity’, Ghoratā (घोरतता), ‘terror’, and Moha (मोह), ‘dulness’ or ‘stupefaction’. S. Kārikā, v. 38, p. 119.||

¹ Śānta, ghora, mādha; “placid, commoved, torpid.” Probably ghora is connected with ghūrth, “to whirl.”

† With greater likelihood, tan-mātra, “merely transcendental”, is from tanu and mātra, the latter considered as an affix; the u of tanu being elided, as it is, for instance, in tanmai for tanūmai, and in similar conjugational forms of the fifth and eighth classes.

‡ Rather: “Sound is its rudiment and also its quality.”

§ “Goodness, &c,” are causes; the “other properties”, effects.

|| And see the Sāṅkhya-pravachana, III., 1.
the property of darkness. The organs of sense are said to be the passionate products of the same principle, affected by foulness; and the ten divinities\textsuperscript{1} proceed from egotism affected by the principle of goodness; as does Mind, which is the eleventh. The organs of sense are ten: of the ten, five are the skin, eye, nose, tongue, and ear; the object of which, combined with Intellect, is the apprehension of sound and the rest: the organs of excretion and procreation, the hands, the feet, and the voice, form the other five; of which excretion, generation, manipulation, motion; and speaking are the several acts.

Then, ether, air, light, water, and earth, severally united with the properties of sound and the rest, existed as distinguishable according to their qualities, as soothing, terrific, or stupefying; but, possessing various energies and being unconnected, they could not, without combination, create living beings, not having blended with each other. Having combined, therefore, with one another, they assumed, through their mutual association, the character of one mass of entire unity; and, from the direction of spirit, with the acquiescence of the indiscrete Principle,\textsuperscript{2} Intellect and the rest, to the

\textsuperscript{1} The Bhāgavata, which gives a similar statement of the origin of the elements, senses, and divinities, specifies the last to be Diś (space), air, the sun, Prachetas, the Aświns, fire, Indra, Upendra, Mitra, and Ka or Prajāpati, presiding over the senses, according to the comment, or, severally, over the ear, skin, eye, tongue, nose, speech, hands, feet, and excretory and generative organs. Bhāg., II., 5, 31.

\textsuperscript{2} Avyaktánugraheṇa (अव्यक्तानुग्रहेण). The expression is something equivocal; as Avyakta may here apply either to the First
gross elements inclusive, formed an egg,\(^1\) which gradually expanded like a bubble of water. This vast egg, O sage, compounded of the elements, and resting on the waters, was the excellent natural abode of Vishňu in the form of Brahmá; and there Vishňu, the lord of the universe, whose essence is inscrutable, assumed a perceptible form; and even he himself abided in it, in

Cause or to matter. In either case, the notion is the same; and the aggregation of the elements is the effect of the presidency of spirit, without any active interference of the indiscriminate principle. The Avyakta is passive, in the evolution and combination of Mabat and the rest. Pradhána is, no doubt, intended; but its identification with the Supreme is also implied. The term Anugraha may also refer to a classification of the order of creation, which will be again adverted to.

\(^1\) It is impossible not to refer this notion to the same origin as the widely diffused opinion of antiquity, of the first manifestation of the world in the form of an egg. "It seems to have been a favourite symbol, and very ancient; and we find it adopted among many nations". Bryant, III., 165. Traces of it occur amongst the Syrians, Persians, and Egyptians; and, besides the Orphic egg amongst the Greeks, and that described by Aristophanes, 

\[ \text{Tiktei πρώτησιν υπηνεμιον νηεη μελανόπτερος ὀδόν,} \]

part of the ceremony in the Dionysiac and other mysteries consisted of the consecration of an egg; by which, according to Porphyry, was signified the world: 'Ερυμνεύει δὲ τὸ ὄδον τὸν κόσμον. Whether this egg typified the ark, as Bryant and Faber suppose, is not material to the proof of the antiquity and wide diffusion of the belief, that the world, in the beginning, existed in such a figure. A similar account of the first aggregation of the elements in the form of an egg is given in all the Puráñas, with the usual epithet Haima or Hiraýya, 'golden', as it occurs in Manu., I, 9.
the character of Brahmá. Its womb, vast as the mountain Meru, was composed of the mountains; and the mighty oceans were the waters that filled its cavity. In that egg, O Brahman, were the continents and seas and mountains, the planets and divisions of the universe, the gods, the demons, and mankind. And this egg was externally invested by seven natural envelopes; or by water, air, fire, ether, and Ahamkára, the origin of the elements, each tenfold the extent of that which it invested; next came the principle of Intelligence; and, finally, the whole was surrounded by the indiscreet Principle: resembling, thus, the cocoa-nut, filled interiorly with pulp, and exteriorly covered by husk and rind.

1 Here is another analogy to the doctrines of antiquity relating to the mundane egg: and, as the first visible male being, who, as we shall hereafter see, united in himself the nature of either sex, abode in the egg, and issued from it; so "this first-born of the world, whom they represented under two shapes and characters," and who sprang from the mundane egg, was the person from whom the mortals and immortals were derived. He was the same as Dionysus, whom they styled, παραβύγονον διήνυ τριγώνον Βαγχείον "Ανακα "Αγιον ἀρατήν κρίτιον δικέρωτα δίμορφον:" or, with the omission of one epithet, δικέρωτα:

* The reading of many MSS. and of the commentator, and that which seems to claim the preference, is:

भेंगरवममुतम वराण्य महीपरः।

"Meru was its amnion, and the other mountains were its chorion."

† The word ahamkára is supplied to the original by the translator. The commentary is silent.

‡ A new translation of this entire paragraph and of the first sentence of the next will be seen in Original Sanskrit Texts, Part IV., pp. 34 and 35.
Affecting then the quality of activity, Hari, the lord of all, himself becoming Brahmá, engaged in the creation of the universe. Vishňu, with the quality of goodness, and of immeasurable power, preserves created things through successive ages, until the close of the period termed a Kalpa; when the same mighty deity, Janárdana,¹ invested with the quality of darkness, assumes the awful form of Rudra, and swallows up the universe. Having thus devoured all things, and converted the world into one vast ocean, the Supreme reposes upon his mighty serpent-couch amidst the deep: he awakes after a season, and, again, as Brahmá, becomes the author of creation.*

Thus the one only god, Janárdana, takes the designation of Brahmá, Vishňu, and Šiva, accordingly as he creates, preserves, or destroys.² Vishňu, as creator,

¹ Janárdana is derived from Jana (जन), ‘men’, and Ardana (अर्दन), ‘worship’; ‘the object of adoration to mankind’.
² This is the invariable doctrine of the Puráñas, diversified only according to the individual divinity to whom they ascribe identity with Paramátmā or Parameśvara. In our text, this is

* Almost the whole of this chapter and of the next occurs, often nearly word for word, in the Márkaśideya-puráña, XLV. et seg.
† चर्देव signifies “solicitation”. But there are preferable derivations of Janárdana. For instance, Śankara Āchārya, in his gloss on the thousand names of Vishňu enumerated in the Anuśásana-parvan of the Mahábhárata, takes its constituent jana, “people”, to stand for “the wicked”, and interprets ardana by “chastiser or extirpator”. His words, in part, are : जनार्दनायां जनार्दनायां चिन्तित | According to the Mahábhárata itself, in another place, Váruṇdeva is called Janárdana because of his striking terror into the Dasyus. See Original Sanskrit Texts, Part IV., pp. 182 and 183.
creates himself; as preserver, preserves himself; as
destroyer, destroys himself at the end of all things.
This world of earth, air, fire, water, ether, the senses,
and the mind; all that is termed spirit;—that also is the
lord of all elements, the universal form, and imperish-
able. Hence he is the cause of creation, preservation,
and destruction; and the subject of the vicissitudes
inherent in elementary nature. He is the object and

Vishńu; in the Śaiva Puráṇas, as in the Linga, it is Śiva; in
the Brahma Vaivarta, it is Kṛishṇa. The identification of one
of the hypostases with the common source of the triad was an
incongruity not unknown to other theogonies: for Cneph, amongst
the Egyptians, appears, on the one hand, to have been identified
with the supreme being, the indivisible unity; whilst, on the
other, he is confounded with both Emeph and Ptha, the second
and third persons of the triad of hypostases. Cudworth, I., 4. 18.

1 The world that is termed spirit; explained, by the commentator, which, indeed,
bears the appellation spirit; conformably to the text of the
Vedas, this universe is, indeed, spirit.† This
is rather Vedánta than Sánkhyā, and appears to deny the existence
of matter. And so it does, as an independent existence; for the
origin and end of infinite substance is the deity or universal
spirit: but it does not therefore imply the non-existence of the
world as real substance.

2 Vishńu is both Bhúteśa (lord of the elements),
or of created things, and Viśwarúpa (universal
substance).‡ He is, therefore, as one with sensible things, sub-
ject to his own control.

‡ Rather: "That which is termed spirit is the world."
‡ The commentary has: स एव सर्वभूतातानागीर्म: भवति। वि-
स्वरूपस्म। ततो सृष्टिः पितुपुष्पादिपि खितम्। Viśvarúpaḥ, an adjective
in the masculine, means "omniform".
author of creation: he preserves, destroys, and is preserved. He, Vishnú, as Brahmá, and as all other beings, is infinite form. He is the Supreme, the giver of all good, the fountain of all happiness.¹

¹ Vareṇya (वरेण्यः), 'most excellent'; being the same, according to the commentator, with supreme felicity: परमाग्रह्य-पल्लवः।

* He writes: वरेण्यो वर्णीयः: परमाग्रह्य-पल्लवः। "Vareṇya, i. e., 'of a form to be elected', on account of his being, essentially, supreme felicity."
CHAPTER III.

Measure of time. Moments or Káshthás, &c.; day and night; fortnight, month, year, divine year: Yugas or ages: Maháyuga or great age: day of Brahmá: periods of the Manus: a Manvantara: night of Brahmá and destruction of the world: a year of Brahmá: his life: a Kalpa: a Parárdha: the past or Pádma Kalpa: the present or Váráha.

Maitreya.—How can creative agency be attributed to that Brahma who is without qualities, illimitable, pure, and free from imperfection?

Parásara.—The essential properties of existent things are objects of observation, of which no foreknowledge is attainable; and creation and hundreds of properties belong to Brahma,* as inseparable parts of his essence; as heat, O chief of sages, is inherent in fire.¹

¹ Agency depends upon the Rajo-guña, the quality of foulness or passion, which is an imperfection. Perfect being is void of all qualities, and is, therefore, inert:

Omnis enim per se divom natura necesse est
Immortali ævo summa cum pace fruatur.

But, if inert for ever, creation could not occur. The objection is rather evaded than answered. The ascribing to Brahma of innumerable and unappreciable properties is supported, by the com-

* श्रत्यः सर्वभावानामस्विक्ष्यायान्त्विन्योः ||
यतो ततो त्रहस्सवासू स्वायत्ता भावश्लत्यः ||
भवन्ति तपतां भेष्ठ पावकस्य यथोष्ट्यताः ||

"Seeing that the potencies of all existences are understood only through the knowledge of that—i.e., Brahma—which is beyond reasoning, creation and the like, such potencies of existences, are referrible to Brahma", &c.

Professor Wilson preferred श्रत्यो to यतो ।
Hear, then, how the deity Náráyaña, in the person of Brahmá, the great parent of the world, created all existent things.

mentator, with vague and scarcely applicable texts of the Vedas. 'In him there is neither instrument nor effect: his like, his superior, is nowhere seen:'


ग तत्त्व कार्यं कर्यं च विवेत् ।
एत तत्त्वमः श्रवणीयं हि श्रवणीयं ॥

'That supreme soul is the subjugator of all, the ruler of all, the sovereign of all': स वायुभावं सर्वं वशी सर्वं श्रवणीयं: सर्वं श्रवणीयम्।* In various places of the Vedas, also, it is said that his power is supreme, and that wisdom, power, and action are his essential properties:

पराश शास्त्रिग्रंथिनिभ शुच्यते।
स्मानांशिकी शास्त्रविविधिया च ॥

The origin of creation is also imputed, in the Vedas, to the rise of will or desire in the Supreme: सो तत्तमत बहु स्नान प्रजापित। † 'He wished, I may become manifold, I may create creatures.' The Bhágavata expresses the same doctrine: 'The supreme being was before all things alone, the soul and lord of spiritual substance. In consequence of his own will, he is secondarily defined, as if of various minds':

भगवानं चासेद्वयं चासहास्वः विसः।
चालीक्रेयानितावत्ताम नानासंस्कृतवचः ॥

* Satapatha-brāhmaṇa, XIV., 7, 2, 24. Compare the Brähad-draiyaka Upanishad, IV., 4, 22.
† These verses are continuous with those above, beginning with ग तत्त्व। They are from the Śvetáståtatra Upanishad, VI., 8.
‡ See the Satapatha-brāhmaṇa, XI., 5, 8, 1. The Chhändogya Upanishad, p. 398, has: तद्धैत बहु स्नान प्रजापित।

The quotations thus far in Professor Wilson's note are taken from the commentary, which gives no precise clue to their derivation.

§ Bhágavata-purāṇa, III., 5, 23. The second line may mean: "Soul—i.e., Bhágavat, Brahmá, or the Absolute—, when it follows its own desire, implies a variety of conceptions."
Brahmá is said to be born: a familiar phrase, to signify his manifestation; and, as the peculiar measure of his presence, a hundred of his years is said to constitute his life. That period is also called Para, and the

This will, however, in the mysticism of the Bhágavata, is personified as Mâyá:

‘She (that desire) was the energy of the Supreme, who was contemplating (the uncreated world); and, by her, whose name is Mâyá, the lord made the universe.’ This, which was, at first, a mere poetical personification of the divine will, came, in such works as the Bhágavata, to denote a female divinity, coequal and coeternal with the First Cause. It may be doubted if the Vedas authorize such a mystification; and no very decided vestige of it occurs in the Vishńu Puráña.

Burnouf translates the stanza in these words: “Au commencement cet univers était Bhagavat, l’âme et le souverain maître de toutes les âmes; Bhagavat existait seul sans qu’aucun attribut le manifestât, parce que tout désir était éteint en son cœur.”

The commentator on the Bhágavata, Śrídharā Swámin, explains the latter part of the stanza in three ways: तत् सुमिष्टिताः वर्षीयते ततः पूर्वे-वस्मामाह || दृढः विचाराते सुहि: पूर्वे पनसाला भयवनेत्र एवास। चारसित: चार्कानामेव लक्ष्यं विस्मु: स्मानीच। नाग्न्यृप्रदेशो विचिद्वासीत: || कार्कावासालस्ते ॥ पि पुष्कर्मविद्वाराप्रदेशं। जनामालस्यप्रदेशं। जनानद्रव्रुद्धार्द्धि अतितिमनोपसक्षत इति: तथा यद्व: || चकार्कश्रविधी काव्यवासमश्च: ॥ याद: वृद्धैर्चाचात्मकार्थगिभ्या विशेषाय शरणमाऽपि पद्धृति स तदार्थकार्यितमविद्धि। चालिकाहर्षि माध्या ॥ तथा चपूजयते वचं सचि ॥ यद्व: || जनानद्रव्रुद्धार्द्धि काव्यवासाय भक्तारामलगु-पुराकामित्वं ॥

* Bhágavata-puráña, III, 5, 25. Burnouf’s translation is as follows: “Or l’énergie de cet être doué de vue, énergie qui est à la fois ce qui existe et ce qui n’existe pas [pour nos organes], c’est là ce qui se nomme Mâyâ, et c’est par elle, illustre guerrier, que l’Étre qui pénètre toutes choses créa cet univers.”
half of it, Parárdha. I have already declared to you, O sinless Brahman, that Time is a form of Vishnú. Hear, now, how it is applied to measure the duration of Brahmá and of all other sentient beings, as well as of those which are unconscious; as* the mountains, oceans, and the like.

O best of sages, fifteen twinklings of the eye make a Káshthá; thirty Káshthás, one Kalá; and thirty Kalás, one Muhúrtá.² Thirty Muhúrtas constitute a day and

---

¹ This term is also applied to a different and still more protracted period. See b. VI., c. 3.

² The last proportion is rather obscurely expressed: तासू विश्वकोषान्तिको विधि: | 'Thirty of them (Kalás) are the rule for the Muhúrtá'. The commentator says it means that thirty Kalás make a Ghaúká (or Gharí); and two Ghaúkás, a Muhúrtá: but his explanation is gratuitous, and is at variance with more explicit passages elsewhere; as in the Matsya: चिन्त्यंक्षालेय अविश्वूर्त: | 'A Muhúrtá is thirty Kalás. In these divisions of the twenty-four hours, the Kúrma, Márkaúdeya, Matsya, Váyu, and Linga Puráñas exactly agree with our authority. In Manu, I., 64, we have the same computation, with a difference in the first article, eighteen Nimeshas being one Káshthá. The Bhávishya P. follows Manu, in that respect, and agrees, in the rest, with the Padma, which has:

15 Nimeshas = 1 Káshthá.
30 Káshthás = 1 Kalá.
30 Kalás = 1 Kshaña.
12 Kshañás = 1 Muhúrtá.
30 Muhúrtas = 1 day and night.

In the Mahábhárata, Moksha Dharma, it is said that thirty Kalás and one-tenth, or, according to the commentator, thirty Kalás and three Káshthás, make a Muhúrtá. A still greater variety,

* Supply "the earth", bhd.
night of mortals: thirty such days make a month, divided into two half-months: six months form an Ayana

however, occurs in the Bhágavata* and in the Brahma Vaivarta P. These have:

2 Paramánius = 1 Ańu.
3 Ańus = 1 Trasareńu.
3 Trasareńus = 1 Trutf.
100 Trutfis = 1 Vedha.
3 Vedhas = 1 Lava.
3 Lavas = 1 Nimesha.
3 Nimeshas = 1 Kshańa.
5 Kshańas = 1 Káshšá.
15 Káshšás = 1 Laghu.
15 Laghus = 1 Nádiká.
2 Nádikás = 1 Muhúrta.
6 or 7 Nádikás = 1 Yama† or watch of the day or night.

Allusions to this, or either of the preceding computations, or to any other, have not been found in either of the other Puráñas. Yet the work of Gopála Bhat+a, from which Mr. Colebrooke states he derived his information on the subject of Indian weights and measures (A. R., Vol. V., 105), the Sankhyá Parimáña, cites the Varáha P. for a peculiar computation, and quotes another from the Bhavishya, different from that which occurs in the first chapter of that work, to which we have referred. The principle of the calculation adopted by the astronomical works is different. It is: 6 respirations (Práña) = 1 Vikalá; 60 Vikalás = 1 Dańđa; 60 Dańdás = 1 sidereal day. The Nimesha, which is the base of one of the Paurá́ník modes, is a twinkle of the eye of a man at rest; whilst the Paramáńu, which is the origin of the other, and, apparently, more modern, system considering the works in which it occurs, is the time taken by a Paramáńu, or mote in the sunbeam, to pass through a crevice in a shutter. Some indications of this calculation being in common currency occur in the Hindústáni

* III., 11, 5 et seq.
† The Bhágavata-purá́ña has prahara, a synonym of yama.
(the period of the sun's progress north or south of the ecliptic): and two Ayanas compose a year. The southern Ayana is a night, and the northern, a day, of the gods. Twelve thousand divine years, each composed of (three hundred and sixty) such days,* constitute the period of the four Yugas or ages. They are thus distributed: the Kṛta age has four thousand divine years; the Tretā, three thousand; the Dwāpara, two thousand; and the Kali age, one thousand: so those acquainted with antiquity have declared: The period that precedes a Yuga is called a Sandhyā; and it is of as many hundred years as there are thousands in the Yuga; and the period that follows a Yuga, termed the Sandhyāṁśa, is of similar duration. The interval between the Sandhyā and the Sandhyāṁśa is the Yuga, denominated Kṛta, Tretā, &c. The Kṛta, Tretā, Dwāpara, and Kali constitute a great age, or aggregate of four ages: a thousand such aggregates are a day of Brahmā; and fourteen Manus reign within that term. Hear the division of time which they measure.¹

1 These calculations of time are found in most of the Purāṇas, with some additions, occasionally, of no importance; as that of the year of the seven Rishis, 3080 mortal years, and the year of Dhruva, 9090 such years, in the Linga P. In all essential points, the computations accord; and the scheme, extravagant as it may

* There is nothing, in the original, answering to "each .... days".
† This word, لطخ, being Arabic, can scarcely have any connexion with the Sanskrit laghu.
Seven Rishiś, certain (secondary) divinities, Indra, * Manu, and the kings his sons, are created and perish
appear, seems to admit of easy explanation. We have, in the first place, a computation of the years of the gods in the four ages, or:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yuga</th>
<th>Years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kṛita Yuga</td>
<td>4000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sandhyā</td>
<td>400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sandhyāṁśa</td>
<td>400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tretā Yuga</td>
<td>3000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sandhyā</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sandhyāṁśa</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dwāpara Yuga</td>
<td>2000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sandhyā</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sandhyāṁśa</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kali Yuga</td>
<td>1000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sandhyā</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sandhyāṁśa</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If these divine years are converted into years of mortals, by multiplying them by 360 (a year of men being a day of the gods), we obtain the years of which the Yugas of mortals are respectively said to consist:

\[
\begin{align*}
4800 \times 360 &= 1,728,000 \\
3600 \times 360 &= 1,296,000 \\
2400 \times 360 &= 864,000 \\
1200 \times 360 &= 432,000 \\
\end{align*}
\]

\[4,320,000, \text{ a Mahāyuga.}\]

So that these periods resolve themselves into very simple elements: the notion of four ages in a deteriorating series expressed by

* In the Sanskrit, Śakra, an epithet of Indra.
at one period;\textsuperscript{1} and the interval, called a Manuwartara, is equal to seventy-one times the number of years contained in the four Yugas, with some additional years:\textsuperscript{2}

descending arithmetical progression, as 4, 3, 2, 1; the conversion of units into thousands; and the mythological fiction, that these were divine years, each composed of 360 years of men. It does not seem necessary to refer the invention to any astronomical computations, or to any attempt to represent actual chronology.

\textsuperscript{1} The details of these, as occurring in each Manuwartara, are given in the third book, c. 1 and 2.

\textsuperscript{2} सत्युथुगाना संख्यात साधिता सिंहस्मृति:

One and seventy enumerations of the four ages, with a surplus.' A similar reading occurs in several other Purānas; but none of them state of what the surplus or addition consists. But it is, in fact, the number of years required to reconcile two computations of the Kalpa. The most simple, and, probably, the original, calculation of a Kalpa is its being 1000 great ages, or ages of the gods:

प्राणववेदसाहस्रं देवान्य ऋनमुच्चते

देविकान्य युगानां तु सहस्त्र परिशंक्षाया

नारायणमहाश्रेण तावती राशिमर्चि

Bhavishya P. Then 4,320,000 years, or a divine age, $\times 1000 = 4,320,000$ years, or a day or night of Brahmā. But a day of Brahmā is also seventy-one times a great age multiplied by fourteen: 4,320,000 $\times 71 \times 14 = 4,294,080,000$, or less than the preceding by 25,920,000; and it is to make up for this deficiency, that a certain number of years must be added to the computation by Manuwartaras. According to the Sūrya Siddhānta, as cited by Mr. Davis (A. R., Vol. II., 231), this addition consists of a Sandhi to each Manuwartara, equal to the Satya age, or 1,728,000 years; and one similar Sandhi at the commencement of the Kalpa: \textsuperscript{*} thus, 4,320,000 $\times 71 = 306,720,000 + 1,728,000 = 308,448,000 \times 14 = 4,318,272,000 + 1,728,000 = 4,320,000,000. The Paurāniks, however, omit the

\textsuperscript{*} Sūrya-siddhānta, I., 12; p. 17 of my edition in the Bibliotheca Indica; p. 10 of the American translation, and p. 4 of Pandit Bāpu Deva Śāstrī’s translation.
this is the duration of the Manu, the (attendant) divinities, and the rest, which is equal to 852,000 divine years, or to 306,720,000 years of mortals, independent of the additional period. Fourteen times this period constitutes a Brāhma day; that is, a day of Brahmā; the term (Brāhma) being the derivative form. At the end of this day, a dissolution of the universe occurs,* when all the three worlds, earth, and the regions of space are consumed with fire. The dwellers of Maharāloka (the region inhabited by the saints who survive the world), distressed by the heat, repair then to Janaloaka (the region of holy men after their decease). When the three worlds are but one mighty ocean, Brahmā, who is one with Nārāyaṇa, satiate with the demolition of the universe, sleeps upon his serpent-bed—contemplated, the lotos-born, by the ascetic inhabitants of

Sandhi of the Kalpa, and add the whole compensation to the Manwantaras. The amount of this, in whole numbers, is 1,851,428 in each Manwantara, or 4,320,000 × 71 = 306,720,000 + 1,851,428 = 308,571,428 × 14 = 4,319,999,992; leaving a very small inferiority to the result of the calculation of a Kalpa by a thousand great ages. To provide for this deficiency, indeed, very minute subdivisions are admitted into the calculation; and the commentator on our text says that the additional years, if of gods, are 5142 years, 10 months, 8 days, 4 watches, 2 Muhūrtas, 8 Kalās, 17 Kāshṭhās, 2 Nimeshas, and 1/7 of a Nimesha; if of mortals, 1,851,428 years, 6 months, 24 days, 12 Nādīs, 12 Kalās, 25 Kāshṭhās, and 10 Nimeshas. It will be observed that, in the Kalpa, we have the regular descending series 4, 3, 2, with ciphers multiplied ad libitum.

* For "the term", &c., read: "At the end of this day occurs a recoalescence of the universe, called Brahmā's contingent recoalescence:"

प्रायः नैमित्तिको नाम तम्भालि प्रतिसंचरः।

Vide infra, VI, 3, ad init.: also see the Mārkaṇḍeya-purāṇa, XLVI., 38.
the Janaloka—for a night of equal duration with his day; at the close of which he creates anew. Of such days and nights is a year of Brahmá composed; and a hundred such years constitute his whole life.¹ One Parárdha,² or half his existence, has expired, terminating with the Mahá Kalpa³ called Pádma. The Kalpa

¹ The Brahma Vaivarta says 108 years; but this is unusual. Brahmá’s life is but a Nimesha of Krišhá, according to that work; a Nimesha of Śiva, according to the Śaiva Puráṇa.

² In the last book, the Parárdha occurs as a very different measure of time; but it is employed here in its ordinary acceptance.*

³ In theory, the Kalpas are infinite; as the Bhavishya:

चौटिकोटिसहस्त्रशि कल्पानां मुनिक्रत्नमः ।
गतानि तावेकिन्याशि ॥

‘Excellent sages, thousands of millions of Kalpas have passed; and as many are to come.’ In the Linga Puráṇa, and others of the Śaiva division, above thirty Kalpas are named, and some account given of several; but they are, evidently, sectarian embellishments. The only Kalpas usually specified are those which follow in the text: the one which was the last, or the Pádma, and the present or Váráha. The first is also commonly called the Bráhma; but the Bhágavata distinguishes the Bráhma, considering it to be the first of Brahmá’s life, whilst the Pádma was the last of the first Parárdha. The term Mahá, or great, Kalpa, applied to the Pádma, is attached to it only in a general sense; or, according to the commentator, because it comprises, as a minor Kalpa, that in which Brahmá was born from a lotos. Properly, a great Kalpa is not a day, but a life, of Brahmá; as in the Brahma Vaivarta:

अष्ट्रोष्ट्रायुपाकल्पः कालविविकोनिष्पितः ।
युत्रकल्पः बड़तरानि संवत्ताद्धः सूत्ता: ॥

‘Chronologers compute a Kalpa by the life of Brahmá. Minor Kalpas, as Sáṅvarta and the rest, are numerous.’ Minor Kalpas

* See Goldstücker’s Sanskrit Dictionary, sub voce चुप्तः.
(or day of Brahmá) termed Váráha is the first of the second period of Brahmá’s existence.

here denote every period of destruction, or those in which the Sañvarta wind, or other destructive agents, operate. Several other computations of time are found in different Puráñas; but it will be sufficient to notice one which occurs in the Hari Vaḿśa;* as it is peculiar, and because it is not quite correctly given in M. Langlois’s translation. It is the calculation of the Mánava time, or time of a Manu:

10 divine years = a day and night of a Manu.
10 Mánava days = his fortnight.
10 Mánava fortights = his month.
12 Mánava months = his season.
6 Mánava seasons = his year.

Accordingly, the commentator says 72000 divine years make up his year. The French translation has: “Dix années des dieux font un jour de Manou; dix jours des dieux font un Pakcha de Manou”, &c. The error lies in the expression “jours des dieux”, and is evidently a mere inadvertence; for, if ten years make a day, ten days can scarcely make a fortnight.

CHAPTER IV.

Náráyána's appearance, in the beginning of the Kalpa, as the Varáha or boar: Píthiví (Earth) addresses him: he raises the world from beneath the waters: hymned by Saunandana and the Yogins. The earth floats on the ocean: divided into seven zones. The lower spheres of the universe restored. Creation renewed.

MAITREYA.—Tell me, mighty sage, how, in the commencement of the (present) Kalpa, Náráyána, who is named Brahmá,* created all existent things.  

PARÁSARA.—In what manner the divine Brahmá, who is one with Náráyána, created progeny, and is thence named the lord of progeny (Prajápati), the lord god, you shall hear.†

At the close of the past (or Pádma) Kalpa, the divine Brahmá, endowed with the quality of goodness, awoke from his night of sleep, and beheld the universe void. He, the supreme Náráyána, the incomprehensible, the sovereign of all creatures, invested with the form of

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1 This creation is of the secondary order, or Pratisarga (प्रतिसर्ग); water, and even the earth, being in existence, and, consequently, having been preceded by the creation of Mahat and the elements. It is also a different Pratisarga from that described by Manu, in which Swayaḿbhu first creates the waters, then the egg: one of the simplest forms, and, perhaps, therefore, one of the earliest, in which the tradition occurs.

* Read “that Brahmá, who is named Náráyána”: ब्रह्मा नारायणां

† Read, on the faith of my MSS.: “Hear from me in what manner the divine Brahmá, one with Náráyána, and the god who is lord of the Progenitors — prajápati-pati —, created progeny”:  

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Brahmá, the god without beginning, the creator of all things; of whom, with respect to his name Náráyaṇa, the god who has the form of Brahmá, the imperishable origin* of the world, this verse is repeated: "The waters are called Nárá, because they were the offspring of Nara (the supreme spirit); and, as, in them, his first (Ayana) progress (in the character of Brahmá) took place, he is thence named Náráyaṇa (he whose place of moving was the waters)."  

1 This is the well-known verse of Manu, I., 10, † rendered, by Sir Wm. Jones: "The waters are called nádrāḥ, because they were the production of Nara, or the spirit of god; and, since they were his first ayana, or place of motion, he thence is named Náráyaṇa, or moving on the waters." Now, although there can be little doubt that this tradition is, in substance, the same as that of Genesis, the language of the translation is, perhaps, more scriptural than is quite warranted. The waters, it is said in the text of Manu, were the progeny of Nara, which Kulluká Bhāṭa explains Paramátman, 'the supreme soul'; that is, they were the first productions of god in creation. Ayana, instead of 'place

**Prakrit: **सस्यः सच्चो भगवान्मयमा नारायणानि तथैव विचारम्॥

But compare the Márahavilāya-puráṇa, XLVII., 1.

*Prabhavapayo.* See the editor's first note in p. 21, supra.

† Supply "when the world had become one ocean": जगसिकारवियः।

:: अपि नारा हति प्रोक्ता औपि व्र नारसूरवः।

ता चद्धायांत पृथ्वी तेन नारायणः सुः।॥

In the Vishnú-puráṇa, the last line begins: चयनं तत्तथ ततः।

The Harivāsaḥ—I., 36—takes the stanza from the Mānavā-dharmaśāstra, without alteration. Compare the Mahābhārata, Vana-parvan, 12952 and 15819; and the Śānti-parvan, 13168. Also see Goldstücker’s Sanskrit Dictionary, sub voce चयन।

It is beyond doubt that the verses quoted above palter with the etymology of the word नारायण. On the taddhita affix चयन, which cannot mean “son”, see the gāña on Pāṇini, IV., 1, 99.
ding that within the waters lay the earth, and being desirous to raise it up, created another form for that of motion', is explained by Áśraya, 'place of abiding.' Náráyaña means, therefore, he whose place of abiding was the deep. The verse occurs in several of the Puráñas, in general in nearly the same words, and almost always as a quotation, as in our text:

The Linga, Váyu, and Márkañádeya Puráñas, citing the same, have a somewhat different reading, or:

\[ \text{रम् चोद्धरस्तिं स्वाम्} \]

\[ \text{अपो नारा वै तनव र्वपा नाम गृहम्} \]

\[ \text{अध्ये तयस्त्याति नारायण: स्वतः है} \]

\[ \text{‘अपह (is the same as) नाराह, or bodies (Tanavah); such, we have heard (from the Vedas), is the meaning of अपह. He who sleeps in them is, thence, called Náráyaña.’} \]

The ordinary sense of Tanu is either ‘minute’ or ‘body’; nor does it occur amongst

* The Linga-puráña—Prior Section, LXX, 119 and 120—has:

\[ \text{अपो नारायण शून्य र्वपा नाम गृहम्} \]

\[ \text{अध्ये तत्समाधिन छत्रवाहिनो यत् है} \]

\[ \text{अध्ये तयस्त्याति नारायण: स्वतः है} \]

The Márkañádeya-puráña—XLVII., 5—has, in one MS. that has been consulted:

\[ \text{अपो नारा इति प्रोक्ता भाषी वै नरसुन्व: है} \]

\[ \text{तत्तु इति स यशाक्ष तेन नारायण: स्वतः है} \]

A second MS. has the first line the same, but, for the second:

\[ \text{बशक्त तत्तु ता: प्रोक्त्याति नारायण: स्वतः है} \]

And a third MS., while agreeing as to the second line, begins:

\[ \text{अपो नारा वै तनव र्वपा नाम गृहम् है} \]

Three MSS. of the Váyu-puráña have the first verse like this last, and, as the second:

\[ \text{अध्ये तयस्त्याति नारायण: स्वतः है} \]

In another place the Váyu has, according to all my MSS.:

\[ \text{अपो नारायणस्वं र्वपा नाम गृहम् है} \]

\[ \text{अध्ये तत्समाधिन तेन नारायण: स्वतः है} \]

† "Water is the body of Nara: thus we have heard the name of water explained. Since Brahman rests on the water, therefore he is termed Náráyaña.”

Here, and so in the Váyu-puráña,—see the last note—तत्समाधिन, if not a copyist's mistake, denotes cause in two kinds, i. e., “hence” in an absolute sense.
purpose; and, as, in preceding Kalpas, he had assumed the shape of a fish or a tortoise, so, in this, he took

the synonyms of water in the Nirukta of the Vedas. It may, perhaps, be intended to say, that Nárā́ or Ápá has the meaning of 'bodily forms', in which spirit is enshrined, and of which the waters, with Vishnú resting upon them, are a type; for there is much mysticism in the Puránas in which the passage thus occurs. Even in them, however, it is introduced in the usual manner, by describing the world as water alone, and Vishnú reposing upon the deep:

एकायनं तदा तस्मातेऽखारवशंगमे।
तदा स भवति जल्ला सहसूचवे संज्ञेयः॥

Váyu P.* The Bhágavata† has, evidently, attempted to explain the ancient text:

पुष्पयो न च विनिर्विश्व चराद्री स चिनिष्ठत:।
आज्ञनि च यज्ञमिविचंतने स्वाभीकृतचः शुष्यते:॥
तस्मात्लीलाःसमृद्धाः सहस्परिव्यािर्॥

‘When the embodied god, in the beginning, divided the mundane egg, and issued forth, then, requiring an abiding-place, he created the waters: the pure created the pure. In them, his own created, he abode for a thousand years, and thence received the name of Náráyana: the waters being the product of the embodied deity;’‡ i. e., they were the product of Nara or Vishnú, as the first male

* The same passage occurs in the Linga-puráña, Prior Section, LXX., 116 and 117. And compare the Mahábhárata, Vana-parvan, 15813—15.

† These verses, in an almost identical shape, are found in the Váyu-puráña. See, further, the Linga-puráña, Prior Section, IV., 59.

‡ Burnouf translates: “Purucha, ayant divisé en deux parties l’œuf [de Brahmã], lorsqu’il en sortit au commencement, réflechit à se faire un lieu où il pût se mouvoir; et pur, il créa les eaux pures. Il habita sur ces eaux créées par lui, pendant mille années; de là vient qu’il reçoit le nom de Náráyana, parce que les eaux qui sont nées de Purucha [sont appelées Nárâ].”
the figure of a boar. Having adopted a form composed of the sacrifices of the Vedas, for the preservation of the whole earth, the eternal, supreme, and universal soul, the great progenitor of created beings, eulogized by Sanaka and the other saints who dwell in the sphere of holy men (Janaloka); he, the supporter of spiritual and material being, plunged into the ocean. The goddess Earth, beholding him thus descending to the subterrene regions, bowed in devout adoration, and thus glorified the god:—

Prithivi (Earth).—Hail to thee, who art all creatures; to thee, the holder of the mace and shell: elevate me now from this place, as thou hast upraised me in days of old. From thee have I proceeded; of thee do I consist; as do the skies and all other existing things. Hail to thee, spirit of the supreme spirit; to thee, soul

or Viráj, and were, therefore, termed Nára: and, from their being his Ayana or Sthána, his ‘abiding-place’, comes his epithet of Náráyaña.

1 The Varáha form was chosen, says the Váyu P., because it is an animal delighting to sport in water.† But it is described, in many Puráñás, as it is in the Vishnú, as a type of the ritual of the Vedas; as we shall have further occasion to remark. The elevation of the earth from beneath the ocean, in this form, was, therefore, probably at first an allegorical representation of the extrication of the world from a deluge of iniquity, by the rites of religion. Geologists may, perhaps, suspect, in the original and unmystified tradition, an allusion to a geological fact, or the existence of lacustrine mammalia in the early periods of the earth.

† Sthirátman.
of soul; to thee, who art discrete and indiscreet matter; who art one with the elements and with time. Thou art the creator of all things, their preserver, and their destroyer, in the forms, O lord, of Brahmá, Vishńu, and Rudra, at the seasons of creation, duration, and dissolution. When thou hast devoured all things, thou reposest on the ocean that sweeps over the world,* meditated upon, O Govinda, by the wise. No one knoweth thy true nature; and the gods adore thee only in the forms it hath pleased thee to assume. They who are desirous of final liberation worship thee as the supreme Brahma; † and who that adores not Vásudeva shall obtain emancipation? Whatever may be apprehended by the mind, whatever may be perceived by the senses, whatever may be discerned by the intellect, all is but a form of thee. I am of thee, upheld by thee; thou art my creator, and to thee I fly for refuge: hence, in this universe, Mádhavan (the bride of Mádhava or Vishńu) is my designation. Triumph to the essence of all wisdom, to the unchangeable; ‡ the imperishable: triumph to the eternal; to the indiscrete, to the essence of discrete things: to him who is both cause and effect; who is the universe; the sinless lord of sacrifice; † triumph. Thou art sacrifice; thou art the oblation; § thou art the

1 Yaujapati (यज्ञपति), 'the bestower of the beneficial results of sacrifices.'

* Literally, in place of "thou reposest", &c., "the world having been converted into one ocean, thou reposest": अग्निविभक्ति पीते शरीर लवे।
† Read: "Worshiping thee, the supreme Brahma, they who were desirous of final liberation have compassed it": लामाराथ पर ब्रह्म चाता मुक्ति सुमुकः।
‡ Stilamayya, "the gross", "the concrete."
§ Rather, "the formula vashat", vashatkara,
mystic Omkāra; thou art the sacrificial fires; thou art the Vedas, and their dependent sciences; thou art, Hari, the object of all worship.¹ The sun, the stars, the planets, the whole world; all that is formless, or that has form; all that is visible, or invisible; all, Purushottama, that I have said, or left unsaid; all this, Supreme, thou art. Hail to thee, again and again! hail! all hail!

Parāśara.—The auspicious supporter of the world, being thus hymned by the earth, emitted a low murmuring sound, like the chanting of the Sāma Veda; and the mighty boar, whose eyes were like the lotos, and whose body, vast as the Nila mountain, was of the dark colour of the lotos-leaves,² uplifted upon his ample tusks the earth from the lowest regions. As he reared up his head, the waters shed from his brow purified the great sages, Sanándana and others, residing in the sphere of the saints. Through the indentations made by his hoofs, the waters rushed into the

¹ Yajnapurusha (यज्ञपुरुष), ‘the male or soul of sacrifice’; explained by Yajnamūrti (यज्ञमूर्ति), ‘the form or personification of sacrifice’; or Yajnáradhya (यज्ञाराध्य), ‘he who is to be propitiated by it.’

² Varāha Avatāra. The description of the figure of the boar is much more particularly detailed in other Purāṇas. As in the Vāyu: “The boar was ten Yojanas in breadth, a thousand Yojanas high; of the colour of a dark cloud; and his roar was like thunder; his bulk was vast as a mountain; his tusks were white, sharp, and fearful; fire flashed from his eyes like lightning, and he was radiant as the sun; his shoulders were round, fat, and large; he strode along like a powerful lion; his haunches were fat, his loins

* Supply “full-blown”, sphuta.
† Supply “sinless”, apakālmasa.
lower worlds with a thundering noise. Before his breath the pious denizens of Janaloka were scattered;

were slender, and his body was smooth and beautiful.”* The Matsya P. describes the Varāha in the same words, with one or two unimportant varieties. The Bhāgavata † indulges in that amplification which marks its more recent composition, and describes the Varāha as issuing from the nostrils of Brahmā, at first of the size of the thumb, or an inch long, and presently increasing to the stature of an elephant. That work also subjoins a legend of the death of the demon Hiraṇyākṣha,‡ who, in a preceding existence, was one of Vishnū’s doorkeepers, at his palace in Vaikuṇṭha. Having refused admission to a party of Munis, they cursed him; and he was, in consequence, born as one of the sons of Diti. When the earth, oppressed by the weight of the mountains, sank down into the waters, Vishnū was beheld in the subterranean regions, or Rasātala, by Hiraṇyākṣha, in the act of carrying it off. The demon claimed the earth, and defied Vishnū to combat; and a conflict took place, in which Hiraṇyākṣha was slain. This legend has not been met with in any other Purāṇa, and certainly does not occur in the chief of them, any more than in our text. In the Moksha Dharma of the Mahābhārata, c. 35, Vishnū destroys the demons, in the form of the Varāha; but no particular individual is specified; nor does the elevation of the earth depend upon their discomfiture. The Kālikā Upapurāṇa has an absurd legend of a conflict between Śiva as a

* वृष्ण्योजनविश्वायः शत्योजनमुच्छितस्म।
श्रीमंगधप्रतीकायं संविंचानितविनिर्मणम।
महापर्वतवर्धायं चैवं तीर्थोषयिद्विश्राम।
विष्णुविभ्रस्तकाश्रयाश्रयसंपत्तेतस्म।
पीनवुसाधतज्ञन्यं सिंहविभ्रस्तसमानिन्त।
पीलीसतनक्तिदेशं सुखस्य गुणबिभाषणम।
कपालखायितो विपुल द्राक्षरङ्गितं इति।
पृथिवियुद्धरश्यायाय प्रविशेषः रसाततस्म।

† III, 13, 18 et seq.
‡ III, 18 and 19.
and the Munis sought for shelter amongst the bristles upon the scriptural body of the boar, trembling as he rose up, supporting the earth, and dripping with moisture. Then the great sages, Sanandana and the rest, residing continually in the sphere of saints, were inspired with delight; and, bowing lowly, they praised the stern-eyed upholder of the earth.*

_The Yogins._—Triumph, lord of lords supreme; Kesava, sovereign of the earth, the wielder of the mace, the shell, the discus, and the sword: cause of production, destruction, and existence. _Thou art, O god: there is no other supreme condition but thou._ Thou, lord, art the person of sacrifice: for thy feet are the Vedas; thy tusk is the stake to which the victim is bound; in thy teeth are the offerings; thy mouth is the altar; thy tongue is the fire; and the hairs of thy body are the sacrificial grass. Thine eyes, O omnipotent, are day and night; thy head is the seat of all, the place of Brahma; thy mane is all the hymns of the Vedas; thy nostrils are all oblations: O thou, whose snout is the ladle of oblation; whose deep voice is the chanting of the Sáma Veda; whose body is the hall of sacrifice; whose joints are the different ceremonies; and whose ears have the properties of both voluntary and obligatory rites:¹ do thou, who art eternal, who art in size a

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Śarabha, a fabulous animal, and Vishṇu as the Varāha, in which the latter suffers himself and his offspring begotten upon earth to be slain.

¹ This, which is nothing more than the development of the notion that the Varāha incarnation typifies the ritual of the Vedas,
mountain,* be propitious. We acknowledge thee, who hast traversed the world, O universal form, to be the beginning, the continuance, and the destruction of all things: thou art the supreme god. Have pity on us, O lord of conscious and unconscious beings. The orb of the earth is seen seated on the tip of thy tusks, as if thou hadst been sporting amidst a lake where the lotos floats, and hadst borne away the leaves covered with soil. The space between heaven and earth is occupied by thy body, O thou of unequalled glory, resplendent with the power of pervading the universe, O lord, for the benefit of all. Thou art the aim of all: there is none other than thee, sovereign of the world: this is thy might, by which all things, fixed or movable, are pervaded. This form, which is now beheld, is thy form, as one essentially with wisdom. Those who have not practised devotion conceive erroneously of the nature of the world. The ignorant, who do not perceive that this universe is of the nature of wisdom, and judge of it as an object of perception only, are lost in the ocean of spiritual ignorance. But they who know true wisdom, and whose minds are pure, behold this whole world as one with divine knowledge, as one with thee, O god. Be favourable, O universal spirit: raise up this earth, for the habitation of created beings. Inscrutable deity, whose eyes are like lotoses, give us felicity: O lord, thou art endowed with the quality of goodness:

is repeated in most of the Purāṇas, in the same or nearly the same words.

* The MSS. within my reach omit the words answering to "who art in size a mountain".
raise up, Govinda, this earth, for the general good. Grant us happiness, O lotos-eyed. May this, thy activity in creation, be beneficial to the earth. Salutation to thee. Grant us happiness, O lotos-eyed.

Parāśara.—The supreme being thus eulogized, upholding the earth, raised it quickly, and placed it on the summit of the ocean, where it floats like a mighty vessel, and, from its expansive surface, does not sink beneath the waters.* Then, having levelled the earth, the great eternal deity divided it into portions, by mountains. He who never wills in vain created, by his irresistible power, those mountains again upon the earth, which had been consumed at the destruction of the world. Having then divided the earth into seven great portions or continents, as it was before, he constructed, in like manner, the four (lower) spheres, earth, sky, heaven, and the sphere of the sages (Maharloka). Thus Hari, the four-faced god, invested with the quality of activity, and taking the form of Brahmá, accomplished the creation. But he (Brahmá) is only the instrumental cause of things to be created; the things that are capable of being created arise from nature as a common material cause. With exception of one instrumental cause alone, there is no need of any other cause; for (imperceptible) substance becomes perceptible substance according to the powers with which it is originally imbued.†

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1 This seems equivalent to the ancient notion of a plastic

* A large portion of the present chapter, down to this point, has been translated anew in Original Sanskrit Texts, Part IV., pp. 32 and 33.

† दिनिसतमाह्यकेशो युध्यानां यज्ञंतर्णि।

पाराजार्योऽभुताय ये युध्यत्रतयाः॥

I. 5
nature; "all parts of matter being supposed able to form themselves artificially and methodically *** to the greatest advantage of their present respective capabilities." This, which Cudworth (c. III.) calls hylozoism, is not incompatible with an active creator: "not ** that he should αὐτούργειν ἀπαντα, set his own hand ** to every work," which, as Aristotle says, would be, ἀπρεπὲς ** τῷ Θεῷ, unbecoming God; but, as in the case of Brahmá and other subordinate agents, that they should occasion the various developments of crude nature to take place, by supplying that will, of which nature itself is incapable. Action being once instituted by an instrumental medium, or by the will of an intellectual agent, it is continued by powers, or a vitality inherent in nature or the matter of creation itself. The efficiency of such subordinate causes was advocated by Plato, Aristotle, and others; and the opinion of Zeno, as stated by Laërtius, might be taken for a translation of some such passage as that in our text: "'Εστι δὲ φύσις ἔξις εἰς αὐτής κινομένη κατὰ σπερματικάς λόγους, ἀποτελούσα τῇ καὶ συνέχουσα τὰ ἐξ αὐτῆς ἐν ὁμοιμένοις χρόνοις, καὶ τοιαύτα δρώσα ἐφ ὀίων ἀπεκφειά. Nature is a habit moved from itself, according to ** seminal principles; perfecting and containing those several things which in determinate times are produced from it, and acting agreeably to that from which it was secreted." Intell. System, I., 328. So the commentator illustrates our text, by observing that the cause of the budding of rice is in its own seed, and its development is from itself, though its growth takes place only

नित्यब्रह्माच भुजिकों नारायणविद्वेशसति।
गीतके तपस्त श्रेष्ठ हथित्या वशु वशुतानि॥

These rather obscure verses lend themselves without violence, to some such interpretation as the following: "He is only the ideal cause of the potencies to be created in the work of creation; and from him proceed the potencies to be created, after they have become the real cause. Save that one ideal cause, there is no other to which the world can be referred. Worthiest of ascetics, through its potency—i. e., through the potency of that cause—every created thing comes by its proper nature."

In the Vedánta and Nyáya, nimita is the efficient cause, as contrasted with upádána, the material cause. In the Sánkhya, pradhána implies
at a determinate season, in consequence of the instrumental agency of the rain.

the functions of both. The author, it appears, means to express, in the passage before us, that Brahmā is a cause superior to pradhāna. This cause he calls nīmitta. It was necessary, therefore, in the translation, to choose terms neither Vedánta nor Sánkhya. "Ideal cause" and "real cause" may, perhaps, answer the purpose.
CHAPTER V.

Vishóu as Brahmá creates the world. General characteristics of creation. Brahmá meditates, and gives origin to, immovable things, animals, gods, men. Specific creation of nine kinds: Mahat, Tanmátra, Aindiya, inanimate objects, animals, gods, men, Anugraha, and Kaumára. More particular account of creation. Origin of different orders of beings from Brahmá's body under different conditions; and of the Vedas from his mouths. All things created again as they existed in a former Kalpa.

MAITREYA.—Now unfold to me, Brahman, how this deity created the gods, sages, progenitors, demons, men, animals, trees, and the rest, that abide on earth, in heaven, or in the waters; how Brahmá, at creation, made the world, with the qualities, the characteristics, and the forms of things.¹

PARÁŚARA.—I will explain to you, Maitreya: listen attentively, how this deity, the lord of all, created the gods and other beings.

¹ The terms here employed are for qualities, Guñas; which, as we have already noticed, are those of goodness, fowlness, and darkness.* The characteristics or Swabhávas are the inherent properties of the qualities, by which they act, as soothing, terrific, or stupefying; and the forms, Swarúpas, are the distinctions of biped, quadruped, brute, bird, fish, and the like.

* See Professor Wilson's note in p. 34, supra, and the appended comment.
Whilst he (Brahmá) formerly, in the beginning of the Kalpas,* was meditating on creation, there appeared a creation beginning with ignorance, and consisting of darkness. From that great being appeared fivefold Ignorance, consisting of obscurity, illusion, extreme illusion, gloom, utter darkness. The creation of the creator thus plunged in abstraction was the fivefold (immovable) world, without intellect or reflection, void of perception or sensation, incapable of feeling, and

1 Or Tamas (तमस), Moha (मोह), Mahámoha (महामोह), Támisra (तामिस्र), Andhatámisra (अन्धतामिस्र); they are the five kinds of obstruction, Viparyaya (विपर्यय), of soul's liberation. According to the Sánkhya, they are explained to be: 1. The belief of material substance being the same with spirit; 2. Notion of property or possession, and consequent attachment to objects, as children and the like, as being one's own; 3. Addiction to the enjoyments of sense; 4. Impatience or wrath; and 5. Fear of privation or death. They are called, in the Pátanjála philosophy, the five affections, Klesa (कले), but are similarly explained by Avidyá (अविद्या), 'igno-
rance'; Asmitá (अस्मीता), 'selfishness', literally 'I-anness'; Rága (राग), 'love'; Dwesha (द्वेष), 'hatred'; and Abhiniveśa (अभिनिवेश), 'dread of temporal suffering'. Sánkhyá Kárkiká, pp. 148-150. This creation by Brahmá in the Váráha Kalpa begins in the same way, and in the same words, in most of the Puráñas. The Bhágavata† reverses the order of these five products, and gives them, Andhatámisra, Támisra, Mahámoha, Moha, and Tamas; a variation obviously more immethodical than the usual reading of the text, and adopted, no doubt, merely for the sake of giving the passage an air of originality.

* Compare Original Sanskrit Texts, Part I., p. 20.
† III., 12, 2. In the same Puráña, III., 20, 18, we have támisra andhatámisra, tamas, mohá, and mahátamas.
destitute of motion.† Since immovable things were first created, this is called the first creation.† Brahmá,

1 This is not to be confounded with elementary creation, although the description would very well apply to that of crude nature or Pradhána; but, as will be seen presently, we have here to do with final productions, or the forms in which the previously created elements and faculties are more or less perfectly aggregated. The first class of these forms is here said to be immovable things; that is, the mineral and vegetable kingdoms: for the solid earth, with its mountains, and rivers, and seas, was already prepared for their reception. The 'fivefold' immovable creation is, indeed, according to the comment, restricted to vegetables, five orders of which are enumerated, or: 1. trees; 2. shrubs; 3. climbing plants; 4. creepers; and 5. grasses.‡

* प्रवाशित; सन्तोषो कृतेहृद्विधान।
  बहिरहत्स प्रकाशः संवृताः नवावः।

"Of him meditating was a fivefold creation—viz., of things—without reflection, devoid of clearness in all matters external and internal, dull of nature, essentially immovable."

Another reading of the second line gives बहिरहत्स प्रकाशः। चर्मतिबिधान, being taken in connexion with विश्व, the meaning is, then: "devoid of reflection on external objects, endowed with inward manifestations." This is according to the commentary, which interprets the "inward manifestations" as being cognitions chiefly of a sensual kind.

The word चर्म, as used in the stanza quoted, is very unusual.

† मुख्य नगा चतुर्विंशतः मुख्यस्वरूपस्वतस्वस्तमि।

"Inasmuch as things immovable are designated as primary, this is distinguished as the primary creation."

The commentator refers to a sacred text for the explanation that immovable things are technically styled "primary", mukhya, on the ground that they were produced at the beginning of the creation of the gods and others: मुखे देवादिवस्मिनां भास्मात्म्मा; प्रीत्ता निगम्येन्ति श्रेष्ठः।

See the editor's first note in p. 75, infra.

‡ In the words of the commentary: दुपक्षयमावनिस्वस्वस्वरूपः आत्मविरागः। But the grammar here looks very doubtful.
beholding that it was defective,* designed another; and, whilst he thus meditated, the animal creation was manifested, to the products of which the term Tiryaksrotas is applied, from their nutriment following a winding course.† These were called beasts, &c.: and their characteristic was the quality of darkness; they being destitute of knowledge, uncontrolled in their conduct; and mistaking error for wisdom; being formed of egoism and self-esteem,§ labouring under the twenty-eight kinds of imperfection,§ manifesting inward sen-

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1 Tiryak (तिर्यक), ‘crooked’, and Srotas (स्रोतस), ‘a canal’.
2 Twenty-eight kinds of Badhas (बध), which, in the Sánkhya system, mean disabilities, as defects of the senses, blindness, deafness, &c.; and defects of intellect, discontent, ignorance, and the like. S. Káriká, pp. 148, 151. In place of Badha, however, the more usual reading, as in the Bhágavata, Váráha, and Márkañdéya Puráñas, is Vidha (विध), ‘kind’, ‘sort’;|| as अष्टविधिशचि-धात्रिः: || implying twenty-eight sorts of animals. These are thus specified in the Bhágavata, III., 10, 20-22: Six kinds have single hoofs: nine have double, or cloven, hoofs; and thirteen have five claws, or nails, instead of hoofs. The first are the

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* Because, according to the commentator, the universe “did not as yet possess that which is the purpose of man”, namely, sacrificial acts and the knowledge of Brahmá. The purport is, that human beings were not yet created: for only they can comply with the ceremonial requirements of the Mímánásá, and pursue the study of the Vedánta. The words of the commentator are: त सुखसर्ववसा दाने पुष्पायर्थिहिं दुः ||

See, further, my third note in p. 73, infra.

† “Since the channel for their food is in a horizontal position”, agreeably to the commentator, who refers to authority for this explanation.

‡ “Taking the wrong way”, utpathagráhín.

§ अष्टविधाः अष्टासाणाः: || Compare the remarks under अभिमान in Goldstücker’s Sanskrit Dictionary.

|| But see Pádini, IV., 2, 54.

¶ Márkañdéya-puráña, XLVII., 20.
sations, and associating with each other (according to their kinds).*

Beholding this creation also imperfect, Brahmá again meditated; and a third creation appeared, abounding with the quality of goodness, termed Úrdhwasrotas.¹ The beings thus produced in the Úrdhwasrotas creation were endowed with pleasure and enjoyment, unencumbered internally or externally, and luminous within and without. † This, termed the creation of immortals,‡

horse, the mule, the ass, the yak, the Šarabha, and the Gaura or white deer. The second are the cow, the goat, the buffalo, the hog, the gayal, the black deer, the antelope, the camel, and the sheep. The last are the dog, jackal, wolf, tiger, cat, hare, porcupine, lion, monkey, elephant, tortoise, lizard, and alligator. §

¹ Úrdhwa (अर्ध), ‘above’, and Srotas, as before; their nourishment being derived from the exterior, not from the interior, of the body; according to the commentator: जागर्णूपरिः देहान्धिरिव चौत आहारप्रह्य चैव स: | as a text of the Vedas has it: ‘Through satiety derived from even beholding ambrosia’; अनूत-द्ग्रेषाधिव तुसि: ||

* अनूत-मूलसाधि दवें आहारता परसरस।
“Endowed with inward manifestations, and mutually in ignorance about their kind and nature.”

† शव चौधरितिबन्धवा बाहृविताः गाजूता: |
प्रकाशा बाहृविताः जाध्वेजातो भव: युता: ॥
“Those beings in which was a preponderance of happy and pleasurable feelings, and that were undull externally and internally, and possessed outward and inward manifestations, were called Úrdhwasrotas.”

‡ Deva-sarga.
§ “Black deer” is क्रीह्य, “antelope”, रुरु; “lizard”, गोधात; and “alligator”, मकराः.

The gods are called Úrdhwasrotas, because they obtain their food extraneously to the body. That is to say, the bare sight of aliment stands, to them, in place of eating it: “for there is satisfaction from the mere beholding of ambrosia”. So says—not a Vaidik text, but—the
was the third performance of Brahmā, who, although well pleased with it, still found it incompetent to fulfil his end.* Continuing, therefore, his meditations, there sprang, in consequence of his infallible purpose,† the creation termed Arvāksrotas, from indiscrete nature. The products of this are termed Arvāksrotas, ¹ from the downward current (of their nutriment). They abound with the light of knowledge; but the qualities of darkness and of foulness predominate. Hence they are afflicted by evil, and are repeatedly impelled to action. They have knowledge both externally and internally, and are the instruments (of accomplishing the object of creation, the liberation of soul).‡ These creatures were mankind.§

I have thus explained to you, excellent Muni, six ²

¹ Arvāk (अर्वाक), ‘downwards’, and Srotas (स्रोतस्), ‘canal’. ||
² This reckoning is not very easily reconciled with the crea-

commentator. The quotation from the Veda, which he adds, in support of his view, is: ज हूँ वै देवा सदासि शापि पिबलि। एवंदेवायुधं हृद्या नुष्णिल। “The gods do not, indeed, either eat or drink. Having looked upon this ambrosia, they are satisfied.”

* The translation is here somewhat compressed.
† Satyābhādhayin,—here an epithet of Brahmā,—“true to his will”. The commentator explains it by satya-sāṅkalpa.
‡ The words in brackets are supplied by the translator. The commentator says: साधना: वर्णभाषाधिशास्त्रारिष्ट। Allusion is made, in the original text, to man’s exclusive prerogative to engage in sacrifice and to explore the nature of spirit. See the editor’s first note in p. 71, supra.
§ For another rendering, see Original Sanskrit Texts, Part I., pp. 20 and 21.
|| Men are called arvāksrotas, because they are developed by means of their food going downwards. So says the commentator: वर्णाश्चाय-\nध: प्रथिऐवाह्य अथर्षत राजासि साधकस्मिन्न वाताः। Possibly the right word is arvāksrotas.
creations. The first creation was that of Mahat or Intellect, which is also called the creation of Brahmá.¹ The second was that of the rudimental principles (Tānmātras), thence termed the elemental creation (Bhūta-sarga). The third was the modified form of egotism,* termed the organic creation, or creation of the senses (Aindriyaka). These three were the Prákrita creations, the developments of indiscrete nature, preceded by the indiscrete principle.² The fourth or fundamental creations described; for, as presently enumerated, the stages of creation are seven. The commentator, however, considers the Úrđhvasrotas creation, or that of the superhuman beings, to be the same with that of the Indriyas or senses, over which they preside; by which the number is reduced to six.†

¹ This creation being the work of the supreme spirit, अन्ध परसाध्वा तत्स्पूजः: संर्ग विभिन्न रूपयोः: † according to the commentator: or it might have been understood to mean, that Brahmá was then created, being, as we have seen, identified with Mahat, 'active intelligence', or the operating will of the Supreme. See note in p. 33, supra.

² The text is: सः संभूतो वृद्धिपूर्वकः: | which is, as rendered in the text, 'creation preceded by, or beginning with, Buddhi, in-

* ”Modified form of egotism” here translates vaikārika; and this is synonymous with sattvika, the adjective of sattva. See Professor Wilson’s note in p. 34, and the editor’s comment in p. 35, supra.

† Mention has been made, in the second chapter, of three creations, denominated mahattattva, bhūta, and indriya; and we have just read of four, the mukhyā, tiryakṣrotas, ārdhwasrotas, and arvākṣrotas. The indriya comprehends the ārdhwasrotas, according to the commentator. He speaks of a reading “seven”, instead of “six”; when, he says, the ārdhwasrotas is not comprised in the indriya; and the order of the creations is as follows: mahattattva, bhūta, indriya, mukhya, tiryakṣrotas, ārdhwasrotas, and arvākṣrotas.

† Most of my copies of the commentary have: चत्वार अन्धा परसाध्वा तत्स्पूजः: सः रूपयोः: |
tion (of perceptible things) was that of inanimate bodies.* The fifth, the Tairyagyonya creation, was that of animals. The sixth was the Urddhasrotas creation, or that of the divinities. The creation of the Arvakrsrotas beings was the seventh, and was that of man. There is an eighth creation, termed Anugraha, which possesses both the qualities of goodness and
telligence.' The rules of euphony would, however, admit of a mute negative being inserted, or स्मृतो जुल्लिपुर्वेकः: । 'preceded by ignorance'; that is, by the chief principle, crude nature or Pradhána, which is one with ignorance: but this seems to depend on notions of a later date and more partial adoption than those generally prevailing in our authority; and the first reading, therefore, has been preferred. It is also to be observed, that the first unintellectual creation was that of immovable objects (as in p. 69, supra), the original of which is अभुतिपुर्वेकः सम्र: प्रातुर्नृत्यकोमस्यः ।
and all ambiguity of construction is avoided. The reading is also established by the text of the Linga Puráña, which enumerates the different series of creation in the words of the Vishnú, except in this passage, which is there transposed, with a slight variation of the reading. Instead of

मत्स्रो महत्त: सारी विषयो अवश्यस्तु सः ।
it is

मत्स्रो महत्त: सारी समृती जुल्लिपुर्वेकः ।

'The first creation was that of Mahat; Intellect being the first in manifestation.' The reading of the Váyu P. is still more tautological, but confirms that here preferred:

मत्स्रो महत्त: सारी विषयो महतस्तु सः ।

See also note 2 in the next page.

* सुखस्यग्नतुस्त्वस्तु सुखा वै खास्वराय: भूता: ।
"And the fourth creation is here the primary; for things immovable are emphatically known as primary."

See the editor's second note in p. 70, supra.
† Linga-puráña, Prior Section, LXX., 162.
darkness.¹ Of these creations five are secondary and three are primary.² But there is a ninth, the Kaumára

¹ The Anugraha creation, of which no notice has been found in the Mahábhárata, seems to have been borrowed from the Sánkhyya philosophy. It is more particularly described in the Padma, Márkaṇḍeya, * Linga, † and Matsya Puráñas; as:

पच्चीस ५८वष: सच: स चतुर्भी अविविक्षितः ।
विपर्ययाविषयका च विभेक गुण्या सत्वेक च।

'The fifth is the Anugraha creation, which is subdivided into four kinds; by obstruction, disableity, perfectness, and acquiescence.' This is the Pratyayasarga or intellectual creation of the Sánkhyaśas (S. Kárفكá, v. 46, p. 146); the creation of which we have a notion, or to which we give assent (Anugraha), in contradistinction to organic creation, or that existence of which we have sensible perception. In its specific subdivisions, it is the notion of certain inseparable properties in the four different orders of beings: obstruction or stolidity in inanimate things; inability or imperfection in animals; perfectibility in man; and acquiescence or tranquil enjoyment in gods. So also the Váyu P.:

खाबरिद्व विपर्ययाविषयकोपरिवर्तनाधिकारिता ।
विभेकादिवर्ग स्वघाशु तुष्टिदेविवद स्वाच्छः।

² Or Vaikríta, derived mediatly from the first principle, through its Vikrítais, 'productions' or 'developments'; and Prákritá, derived more immediately from the chief principle itself. Mahat and the two forms of Ahamkára, or the fundamental elements and the senses, constitute the latter class; inanimate beings, &c. compose the former: or the latter are considered as the work of Brahmá, whilst the three first are evolved from Pradhrána. So the Váyu:

* XLVII., 28; where, however, the second half of the stanza is read:

विपर्ययाविषय च थाक्या गुण्या तथा च।

† Prior Section, LXX., 157.

‡ The Váyu-puráña, to the same effect—only that it substitutes "eighth" for "fifth"—as the verses given above, is cited by the commentator. Then follows the stanza with which the note concludes.
creation, which is both primary and secondary. These are the nine creations of the great progenitor of all,

The three creations beginning with Intelligence are elemental; but the six creations which proceed from the series of which Intellect is the first are the work of Brahmā.

1 We must have recourse, here also, to other Purāṇas, for the elucidation of this term. The Kaumāra creation is the creation of Rudra or Nilalohita, a form of Śiva, by Brahmā, which is subsequently described in our text, and of certain other mind-born sons of Brahmā, of whose birth the Vishnua P. gives no further account. They are elsewhere termed Sanatkumāra, Sananda, Sanaka, and Sanatana, with sometimes a fifth, Rībhū, added. These, declining to create progeny, remained, as the name of the first implies, ever boys, Kumāras; that is, ever pure and innocent; whence their creation is called the Kaumāra. Thus the Vāyu:

And the Linga has:

‘Being ever as he was born, he is here called a youth; and hence his name is well known as Sanatkumāra.’ This authority makes Sanatkumāra and Rībhū the two first born of all:

whilst the text of the Hari Vamśa limits the primogeniture to Sanatkumāra:

In another place, however, it enumerates, apparently, six, or the

* Prior Section, LXX., 174.
† Prior Section, LXX., 170 and 171.
and, both as primary and secondary, are the radical causes of the world, proceeding from the sovereign creator. What else dost thou desire to hear?

above four, with Sana, and either Ribhu or another Sanatana: for the passage is corrupt. The French translation* ascribes a share in creation to Sanatkumara: 'Les sept Pradjapatis, Roudra, Scanda (son fils), et Sanatcouna se mirent à produire les êtres, répandant partout l'inépuisable énergie du Dieu.' The original is:

सन्तिष्यं जगयति यथा प्राया चतुः भारत ।

सन्तिष्यं सन्तकुमारः तेषां संविष्य तिष्ठत्: ॥†

Sankshipya is not 'répandant', but 'restraining'; and Tishthatab, being in the dual number, relates, of course, to only two of the series. The correct rendering is: 'These seven (Prajapatis) created progeny; and so did Rudra: but Skanda and Sanatkumara, restraining their power, abstained (from creation).' So the commentator:

These sages, however, live as long as Brhamâ; and they are only created by him in the first Kalpa, although their generation is very commonly, but inconsistently, introduced in the Vârâha or Pâdma Kalpa. This creation, says the text, is both primary (Prâkriti) and secondary (Vaikriti). It is the latter, according to the commentator, as regards the origin of these saints from Brhamâ: it is the former, as affects Rudra, who, though proceeding from Brhamâ, in a certain form was in essence equally an immediate production of the first principle. These notions, the birth of Rudra and the saints, seem to have been borrowed from the Saivas, and to have been awkwardly engrafted upon the Vaishnava system. Sanatkumara and his brethren‡ are always described, in the Saiva Purânas, as Yogins: as the Kûrna, after enumerating them, adds:

यम्के प्रविष्टा विष्णु: परं वैराम्बसार्थिता: ॥

† Stanza 44.
‡ On the subject of these personages, see Original Sanskrit Texts, passim, and the Sankhya-sûtra, Preface, pp. 13 et seq., foot-note.
MAITREYA.—Thou hast briefly related to me, Muni, the creation of the gods and other beings. I am desirous, chief of sages, to hear from thee a more ample account of their creation.

PARÁŚARA.—Created beings, although they are destroyed (in their individual forms) at the periods of dissolution, yet, being affected by the good or evil acts of former existence, they are never exempted from their consequences; and, when Brahmá creates the world anew, they are the progeny of his will, in the fourfold condition of gods, men, animals, or inanimate things. Brahmá then, being desirous of creating the four orders of beings, termed gods, demons, progeni-

"These five, O Brahmans, were Yogins, who acquired entire exemption from passion:" and the Hari Varśa, although rather Vaisñava than Śaiva, observes, that the Yogins celebrate these six, along with Kapila, in Yoga works:

अष्टादश योगियं वैष्णव यज्ञशैली स्वालं निवृत्त: ||

चतुर्दशोथ्यं योगोत्तमं चाम्सुमयं स्वालं निवृत्त: ||

The idea seems to have been amplified also in the Śaiva works; for the Linga P. describes the repeated birth of Śiva, or Vāmadeva, as a Kumāra, or boy, from Brahmá, in each Kalpa, who again becomes four. Thus, in the twenty-ninth Kalpa, Śvetaloha is the Kumāra; and he becomes Sananda, Nandana, Viśwananda, Upanandana; all of a white complexion: in the thirtieth, the Kumāra becomes Virajas, Viváha, Viśoka, Viśwabhāvana; all of a red colour: in the thirty-first, he becomes four youths of a yellow colour; and, in the thirty-second, the four Kumáras were black. All these are, no doubt, comparatively recent additions to the original notion of the birth of Rudra and the Kumáras; itself obviously a sectarian innovation upon the primitive doctrine of the birth of the Prajápati or will-born sons of Brahmá.

* Stanza 12439.
tors, and men, collected his mind into itself. Whilst thus concentrated, the quality of darkness pervaded his body; and thence the demons (the Asuras) were first born, issuing from his thigh. Brahmá then abandoned that form which was composed of the rudiment of darkness, and which, being deserted by him, became night. Continuing to create, but assuming a different shape, he experienced pleasure; and thence from his mouth proceeded the gods, endowed with the quality of goodness. The form abandoned by him became day, in which the good quality predominates; and hence by day the gods are most powerful, and by night the demons. He next adopted another person, in which the rudiment of goodness also prevailed; and, thinking of himself as the father of the world, the progenitors (the

1 These reiterated, and not always very congruous, accounts of the creation are explained, by the Puráñas, as referring to different Kalpas or renovations of the world, and therefore involving no incompatibility. A better reason for their appearance is, the probability that they have been borrowed from different original authorities. The account that follows is evidently modified by the Yogi Saivas, by its general mysticism, and by the expressions with which it begins:

tanı devaśuruṣyā satellite śauryābharadvaśa

‘Collecting his mind into itself’, many according to the comment, is the performance of the Yoga (Yúyuje). The term Ambhánsi, lit., ‘waters’, for the four orders of beings, gods, demons, men, and Pitris, is, also, a peculiar, and, probably, mystic, term. The commentator says it occurs in the Vedas, as a synonym of gods, &c.: ेतानि चलार्यम्या इस्व:  षुरा इति छूटि: । The Váyu Puráña derives it from स्व ‘to shine’; because the different orders of beings shine, or flourish, severally, by moonlight, night, day, and twilight: शालिच चलार्यम्या ।&c.
Pitris) were born from his side.* The body, when he abandoned it, became the Sandhyá (or evening twilight), the interval between day and night. Brahmá then assumed another person, pervaded by the quality of foulness; and from this, men, in whom foulness (or passion) predominates, were produced. Quickly abandoning that body, it became morning twilight, or the dawn. At the appearance of this light of day, men feel most vigour; while the progenitors are most powerful in the evening season. In this manner, Maitreya, Jyotná (dawn), Rátri (night), Ahan (day), and Sandhyá (evening), are the four bodies of Brahmá invested by the three qualities.¹

¹ This account is given in several other Puránas: in the Kúrma, with more simplicity; in the Padma, Linga, and Váyu, with more detail. The Bhágavata, as usual, amplifies still more copiously, and mixes up much absurdity with the account. Thus, the person of Sandhyá, ‘evening twilight’, is thus described: “She appeared with eyes rolling with passion, whilst her lotos-like feet sounded with tinkling ornaments: a muslin vest depended from her waist, secured by a golden zone: her breasts were protuberant and close together; her nose was elegant; her teeth, beautiful; her face was bright with smiles, and she modestly concealed it with the skirts of her robe; whilst the dark curls clustered round her brow.”† The Asuras address her, and win her to become their

* “Of the world” and “from his side” are adopted from the commentary.

† Bhágavata-púrāṇa, III., 20, 29-31:

तां क्षणविश्बाः पित Disabilities मद्विदुक्ष्यलोचनाम् ।
बाधीकाविनिलसु कूलाच्चस्रोधसम् ॥
अभिप्रायविगुणिरतनांतरयोधराम् ।
बुनाराश्रुष्टिः स्थितःविश्वलोचनाम् ॥
गृहारमाण श्रीदयालान भीमालकावक्षिणीम् ।

I. 6
Next, from Brahmá, in a form composed of the quality of foulness, was produced hunger, of whom anger was born: and the god put forth, in darkness, beings emaciate with hunger, of hideous aspects, and with long beards. Those beings hastened to the deity. Such of them as exclaimed Oh preserve us! were, thence, called Rákshasas: others, who cried out Let us eat, bride. To the four forms of our text the same work adds: Tandri, ‘sloth’; Jrimbha, ‘yawning’; Nidrá, ‘sleep’; Unmáda, ‘insanity’; Antardhána, ‘disappearance’; Pratibimba, † ‘reflexion’; which become the property of Pişáchas, Kiṃnaras, Bhútas, Gandharvas, Vidyádharas, Sádhyas, Píthas, and Manus. The notions of night, day, twilight, and moonlight being derived from Brahmá seem to have originated with the Vedas. Thus, the commentator on the Bhágavata observes: याख नुषुरासीतंत्रमपाहत सा तामिक खामबदेरति खुति: | ‘That which was his body, and was left, was darkness: this is the Śruti.’ All the authorities place night before day, and the Asuras or Titans, before the gods, in the order of appearance; as did Hesiod and other ancient theogonists.

† From Raksh (रक्ष), ‘to preserve.’
were denominated, from that expression, Yakshas.\footnote{From Yakṣh (यक्ष), स to eat.} Beholding them so disgusting, the hairs of Brahmá\footnote{From Śṛip (सूर), serpo, ‘to creep’, and from Hā (हा), ‘to abandon.’} were shrivelled up, and, first falling from his head, were again renewed upon it. From their falling, they became serpents, called Sarpa, from their creeping, and Ahi, because they had deserted the head.\footnote{Gāṁ dhayantali (गां धयानलः), ‘drinking speech.’} The creator of the world, being incensed, then created fierce beings, who were denominated goblins, Bhūtas (malignant fiends), and eaters of flesh.\footnote{Nyanku.} The Gandharvas were next born, imbibing melody. Drinking of the goddess of speech, they were born, and thence their appellation.\footnote{Professor Wilson’s “from that expression”, in the text, answers to yakṣaṁdāt. According to the commentator, this word means “from eating”; for he takes yakṣa, its base, to be a substitute for yakṣh. The sense of yakṣh, in classical Sanskrit, is “to venerate”. For the derivation of the words rākṣasa and yakṣha, see the Lingapurāṇa, Prior Section, LXX., 227 and 228.}

The divine Brahmá, influenced by their material energies, having created these beings, made others of his own will. Birds he formed from his vital vigour; sheep, from his breast; goats, from his mouth; kine, from his belly and sides; and horses, elephants, Śarabhas, Gayals, deer, camels, mules, antelopes;\footnote{* Vedhas, in the Sanskrit.} and other
animals, from his feet; whilst from the hairs of his body sprang herbs, roots, and fruits.

Brahmá, having created, in the commencement of the Kalpa, various plants, employed them in sacrifices, in the beginning of the Tretá age. Animals were distinguished into two classes, domestic (village) and wild (forest). The first class contained the cow, the goat, the hog, the sheep, the horse, the ass, the mule; the latter, all beasts of prey; and many animals with cloven hoofs, the elephant, and the monkey. The fifth order were the birds; the sixth, aquatic animals; and the seventh, reptiles and insects.¹

From his eastern mouth Brahmá then created the Gáyatra metre, the Rig-veda, the collection of hymns termed Trivrit, the Rathantara portion of the Sáma-veda, and the Agnishtoma sacrifice: from his southern mouth he created the Yajur-veda, the Traishṭubha metre, the collection of hymns called Panchadaśa, the Bráhat Sáman, and the portion of the Sáma-veda termed Ukthya: from his western mouth he created

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¹ This and the preceding enumeration of the origin of vegetables and animals occurs in several Puráṇas, precisely in the same words. The Linga adds a specification of the Áraṇya or wild animals, which are said to be the buffalo, gayal, bear, monkey, Śrabha, wolf, and lion.

* Insert "sacrificial animals", pādu.
† The MSS. consulted by me have "man" purusha. The commentator observes, that, in the nara-medha, or human sacrifice, man is accounted a sacrificial animal. His words are: पुष्पो मनुष्यः। नरमेद्धे तस्म पशु-भक्ष्यानात्।
‡ Śwāpada.
§ "Reptiles and insects", sarisēpā.
the Sáma-veda, the Jagatí metre, the collection of hymns termed Saptadaśa, the portion of the Sáman called Vairúpa, and the Atirátra sacrifice: and from his northern mouth he created the Ekavinśa collection of hymns, the Atharva-veda, the Áptoryáman rite, the Anushúubh metre, and the Vairája portion of the Sáma-veda.¹

¹ This specification of the parts of the Vedas that proceed from Brahmá occurs, in the same words, in the Váyu, Linga, Kárma, Padma, and Márrkaṇḍeya Puráñas. The Bhágavata offers some important varieties: “From his eastern and other mouths he created the Rích, Yajus, Sáman, and Atharva Vedas; the Sástra (शस्त्र) or ‘the unuttered incantation’; Ijyá (रक्षा), ‘oblation’; Stuti (स्तुति) and Stoma (स्तोत्र), ‘prayers’ and ‘hymns’; and Práyaśchitta (प्रायश्चित्त), ‘expiation’, or ‘sacred philosophy’ (Bráhma): also the Vedas of medicine, arms, music, and mechanics; and the Itihásas and Puráñas, which are a fifth Veda: also the portions of the Vedas called Shódasín, Ukthya, Purishin, Agništut, Áptoryáman, Atirátra, Vájapeya, Gosava;† the four

* It is on the authority of the commentator, as supplementing the text, that Gáyatra and Anushúubh are here said to be metres; that Agništoma, Atirátra, and Áptoryáman are taken to denote parts of a sacrifice, viz., of the Jyotištoma; and that Vairúpa and Vairája denominate sundry verses of the Sáma-veda. But the commentator also says that Ukthya is, here, a stage of a sacrifice: सौमसंख्याग. He means the Jyotištoma.

As to Áptoryáman, both in the Víshnu-púrāṇa and in the Bhágavata, it is to be regarded as a Panrásik alteration of the Vaidik Áptoryáma.

For Vairúpa and Vairája, see Benfey’s Index to the Sáma-veda: Indische Studien, Vol. III., p. 238.

Professor Wilson’s “Gáyatri”, “Trishúubh”, and “Uktha” have been corrected to Gáyatra, Traishúubha, and Ukthya.

See, regarding the passage thus annotated, Original Sanskrit Texts, Part III., pp. 6 and 7.

† These are not characterized, in the original, as “portions of the Vedas”. They are sacrificial proceedings.
In this manner, all creatures, great or small, proceeded from his limbs. The great progenitor of the parts of virtue, purity, liberality, piety, and truth; the orders of life, and their institutes and different religious rites and professions; and the sciences of logic, ethics, and polity. The mystic words and monosyllable proceeded from his heart; the metre Ushnīh, from the hairs of his body; Gāyatrī, from his skin; Trishūbh, from his flesh; Anushūbh, from his tendons; Jagatī, from his bones; Pankti, from his marrow; Brāhatī, from his breath. The consonants were his life; the vowels, his body; the sibilants, his senses; the semi-vowels, his vigour. 77 This mysticism, although, perhaps, expanded and amplified by the Paurāṇiks, appears to originate with the Vedas; as in the text āhurātrāvāman. The metre was of the tendons. The different portions of the Vedas specified in the text are yet, for the most part, uninvestigated.

* Bhāgavata-purāṇa, III., 12, 37-41 and 44-47:
world, having formed the gods, demons, and Pitris,* created, in the commencement of the Kalpa, the Yakshas, Piśáchas (gnoblins), Gandharvas, and the troops of Apsarasas, the nymphs of heaven, Naras (centaurs, or beings with the limbs of horses and human bodies), and Kimnáras (beings† with the heads of horses), Rákshasas, birds, beasts, deer, serpents, and all things permanent or transitory, movable or immovable. This did the divine Brahmá, the first creator and lord of all. And these things, being created, discharged the same functions as they had fulfilled in a previous creation,‡ whether malignant or benign, gentle or cruel, good or evil, true or false; and, accordingly as they are actuated by such propensities, will be their conduct.

And the creator§ displayed infinite variety in the objects of sense, in the properties of living things, and in the forms of bodies. He determined, in the beginning, by the authority of the Vedas, the names and forms and functions of all creatures, and of the gods; and the names and appropriate offices of the ōshis, as they also are read in the Vedas.||

In like manner as the products of the seasons designate, in periodical revolution, the return of the same season, so do the same circumstances indicate the recurrence of the same Yuga or age; and thus, in the beginning of each Kalpa, does Brahmá repeatedly create the world, possessing the power that is derived

* Add "men", manushya.
† Literally, "men", manushya.
‡ See Original Sanskrit Texts, Part I., p. 21.
§ Supply Dhati, a name of Brahmá.
|| See Original Sanskrit Texts, Part III., p. 4, second foot-note.
from the will to create, and assisted by the natural and essential faculty of the object to be created.*

"As, in every season, multifarious tokens are, in turn, beheld thereof, so, at the beginnings of the Yugas, it is with their products. Possessed of the desire and of the power to create, and impelled by the potencies of what is to be created, again and again does he, at the outset of a Kalpa, put forth a similar creation."

The writer may have had in mind a stanza of the Māṇava-dharma-
śāstra: I., 30.
CHAPTER VI.


Maitřeya.—Thou hast briefly noticed, illustrious sage, the creation termed Arváksrotas, or that of mankind. Now explain to me more fully how Brahmá accomplished it; how he created the four different castes;* what duties he assigned to the Brahmans and the rest.¹

Paráśara.—Formerly, O best of Brahmans, when the truth-meditating† Brahmá was desirous of creating the world, there sprang, from his mouth, beings especially endowed with the quality of goodness; others, from his breast, pervaded by the quality of foulness; others, from his thighs, in whom foulness and darkness prevailed; and others, from his feet, in whom the quality of darkness predominated. These were, in succession, beings of the several castes,—Brahmans, Kṣaṭriyas, Vaiśyas, and Śūdras; produced from the mouth,

¹ The creation of mankind here described is rather out of its place, as it precedes the birth of the Prajápatís, or their progenitors. But this want of method is common to the Puráñas, and is evidence of their being compilations from various sources.

* Add “and with what qualities”: चतुर्वांश।
† Satyābhidhányin, “true to his will.” The commentator here, for the second time, explains it by satya-sankalpa. See my second note in p. 73, supra.
the breast, the thighs, and the feet, of Brahmá.¹ These he created for the performance of sacrifices; the four castes being the fit instruments of their celebration.² By sacrifices, O thou who knowest the truth, the gods are nourished; and, by the rain which they bestow, mankind are supported;³ and thus sacrifices, the source of happiness, are performed by pious men, attached to their duties, attentive to prescribed obligations, and walking in the paths of virtue. Men acquire (by them) heavenly fruition, or final felicity: they go, after death, to whatever sphere they aspire to, as the consequence of their human nature. The beings who were created by Brahmá, of these four castes, were, at first, endowed with righteousness and perfect faith; they abode wherever they pleased, unchecked by any impediment; their hearts were free from guile; they were pure, made free from soil, by observance of sacred institutes. In their sanctified minds Hari dwelt; and they were filled with perfect wisdom, by which they contemplated the glory

¹ This original of the four castes is given in Manu,† and in most of the Puráñas. We shall see, however, that the distinctions are subsequently ascribed to voluntary election, to accident, or to positive institutions.

² According to Manu, oblations ascend to and nourish the sun; whence the rain falls upon earth, and causes the growth of corn.‡ Burnt-offerings are, therefore, the final causes of the support of mankind.

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* See Original Sanskrit Texts, Part I, pp. 21 and 22.
† In the Mánava-dharma-sástra, I, 31, the Kshatriya is said to have proceeded from the arms of Brahmá. And so state the Purusāsūkta of the Rg-veda, &c.
‡ Mánava-dharma-sástra, III., 76.
of Vishnú. After a while, (after the Tretá age had continued for some period), that portion of Hari which has been described as one with Kála (time) infused into created beings sin, as yet feeble, though formidable, or passion and the like—the impediment of soul’s liberation, the seed of iniquity, sprung from darkness and desire. The innate perfectness of human nature was then no more evolved: the eight kinds of perfection, Rasollásá and the rest, were impaired; and, these

1 This description of a pure race of beings is not of general occurrence in the Puráñas. It seems here to be abridged from a much more detailed account in the Brahmánda, Váyu, and Márkañdeya Puráñas. In those works, Brahmá is said to create, in the beginning of the Kalpa, a thousand pairs of each of the four classes of mankind, who enjoy perfect happiness during the Káta age, and only gradually become subject to infirmities, as the Tretá or second age advances.

2 These eight perfections or Siddhis are not the supernatural faculties obtained by the performance of the Yoga. They are described, the commentator says, in the Skanda and other works; and from them he extracts their description: 1. Rasollásá, the spontaneous or prompt evolution of the juices of the body, independently of nutriment from without; 2. Trípti, mental satisfaction, or freedom from sensual desire; 3. Sámya, sameness of degree; 4. Tulyatá, similarity of life, form, and feature; 5. Viśoká, exemption alike from infirmity or grief; 6. Consummation of pence and meditation, by attainment of true knowledge; 7. The power of going everywhere at will; 8. The faculty of reposing at any time or in any place.* These attributes are alluded to,

* I add the text from MSS. at my disposal. To judge from Professor Wilson’s translation, his text must have been rather different.

रसोख्स सा ववात शुक्लक्स्यसः: स्त्रात्खति एुणि।
रवीवहासाख्सा सा सिविलस्या हन्ति बुधेन सर: ||
being enfeebled, and sin gaining strength, mortals were afflicted with pain, arising from susceptibility to contrasts, (as heat and cold, and the like). * They therefore constructed places of refuge, protected by trees, by mountains, or by water; surrounded them by a ditch or a wall, and formed villages and cities; and in them erected appropriate dwellings, as defences against the sun and the cold. † Having thus provided security

though obscurely, in the Vāyu, and are partly specified in the Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇa. ‡

† In the other three Purāṇas, in which this legend has been found, the different kinds of inhabited places are specified and introduced by a series of land measures. Thus, the Mārkaṇḍeya ‡ states that 10 Paramāṇus = 1 Parasūkshma; 10 Parasūkshmas = 1 Trasareṇu; 10 Trasareṇus = 1 particle of dust or Mahīrajas;

* See Original Sanskrit Texts, Part I., pp. 22 and 23.
† XLIX., 18, et seq.
‡ XLIX., 36-40:
against the weather, men next began to employ themselves in manual labour, as a means of livelihood, (and

10 Mahirájasas = 1 Bálágra, 'hair's point'; 10 Bálagras = 1 Likhyá; 10 Likhyás = 1 Yúká; 10 Yúkás = 1 heart of barley (Yavodara); 10 Yavodaras = 1 grain of barley of middle size; 10 barley-grains = 1 finger, or inch; 6 fingers = a Pada or foot (the breadth of it); 2 Padas = 1 Vitasti or span; 2 spans = 1 Hasta or cubit; 4 Hastas = a Dhanus, a Dañá or staff, or 2 Nádíkás; 2000 Dhanusas = a Gavyúti; 4 Gavyútis = a Yojana. The measurement of the Brahmánáda is less detailed. A span from the thumb to the first finger is a Pradesá; to the middle finger, a Tálá;* to the third finger, a Gokarñà; and, to the little finger, a Vitasti, which is equal to twelve Angulas or fingers; understanding, thereby, according to the Váyu, a joint of the finger (आवृत्तयथा). According to other authorities, it is the breadth of the thumb at the tip.

For this passage, I have used manuscripts, in preference to the Calcutta edition of the Márkaṇñéya-púrāña. According to my text, the measures noted are as follows:

A paramánu is a para súkshma, ultimate minimum; or the sense may be

8 paramánus = 1 para súkshma.
8 para súkshmas = 1 trasarenu.
8 trasareṇus = 1 mahirájasas.
8 mahirájasas = 1 bálágra.
8 bálágras = 1 likshá.
8 likshás = 1 yúká.
8 yúkás = 1 yavodara.
8 yavodaras = 1 angula.
6 angulas = 1 pada.
2 padas = 1 vitasti.
2 vitastis = 1 hasta, long cubit.
4 hastas = 1 dhanurdañá, bow-staff.
2 dhanurdañás = 1 nádíká.
2000 dhanus = 1 kroñá.
2 kroñás = 1 gavyúti.
4 gavyútis = 1 yojana.

Compare Colebrooke, Asiatic Researches, Vol. V., pp. 103 and 104.

* Corrected from Professor Wilson's "Nála".
cultivated) the seventeen kinds of useful grain—rice, barley, wheat, millet, sesameum, panic,* and various

(A. R., Vol. V., 104.) The Vāyu, giving similar measurements,† upon the authority of Manu‡ (मनोरेण च प्राप्तानि), although such a statement does not occur in the Manu Sanhitā, adds, that 21 fingers = 1 Ratni; 24 fingers = 1 Hasta or cubit; 2 Ratnis = 1 Kishku; 4 Hastas = 1 Dhanus; 2000 Dhanusas = 1 Gavyūti; and 8000 Dhanusas = 1 Yojana. Durgas or strongholds are of four kinds; three of which are natural, from their situation in mountains, amidst water, or in other inaccessible spots. The fourth is the artificial defences of a village (Gráma), a hamlet (Khetāka), or a city (Pura or Nagara), which are, severally, half the size of the next in the series. The best kind of city is one which is about a mile long by half a mile broad, built in the form of a parallelogram, facing the north-east, and surrounded by a high wall and ditch. A hamlet should be a Yojana distant from a city; a village, half a Yojana from a hamlet. The roads leading to the cardinal points from a city should be twenty Dhanusas (above 100 feet) broad:

* "Millet" and "panic", avi and priyangu.

† चन्द्राहुस: ब्रह्मादिश्वास: वासः मन्त्र ज्ञाते।
ताल: सूतो समयमया गोकर्णायासायनया ॥
कालिया चित्रलिखन्तु वातशकुन्तत ज्ञाते।
रतिरुतपायेतरं संक्ष्या लेखाविष्ठितं: ॥
चतुर्विशेषतिविलापं हस्त: खाद्भुतालि:(-नां?) तु।
किकूः सूतो द्विरितिसु द्विचलारिथदुःखसं।
चतुर्दशं धनुर्दशों नालिका चुनिमेव च।
धनु:सहिते स तच गुणितितिविभाषिते॥
वधिरं धनुःसहस्त्राणि चोजनं तैरिविष्ठिते।

‡ In one of the four MSS. of the Vāyu-purāṇa that I have consulted, the verses quoted in the last note are introduced by a stanza and a half, at the beginning of which are the words मनोरेण च प्राप्तानि. But these words mean nothing; and there is no reference to Manu. We here simply have a clerical error, in place of the opening words of the passage cited, in p. 92, from the Mārkandeya-purāṇa. The forementioned MS. of the Vāyu-purāṇa must have been transcribed from a somewhat ancient copy, or from one in the Bengali character.
sorts of lentils, beans, and pease. These are the kinds cultivated for domestic use. But there are fourteen kinds* which may be offered in sacrifice. They are: rice, barley, Másha, wheat, millet, and sesame; Priyangu is the seventh, and Kulatthaka-pulse, the eighth. The others are: Śyámáka, a sort of panic; Nívára, uncultivated rice; Jartila, wild sesame; Gavedhuká (coix barbata); Markatáka, wild panic; and (a plant called) the seed or barley of the Bambu (Veñuyava).† These,

a village road should be the same: a boundary road, ten Dhanaus; a royal or principal road or street should be ten Dhanaus (above fifty feet) broad: a cross or branch road should be four Dhanaus. Lanes and paths amongst the houses are two Dhanaus in breadth; footpaths, four cubits; the entrance of a house, three cubits; the private entrances and paths about the mansion, of still narrower dimensions.‡ Such were the measurements adopted by the first builders of cities, according to the Puráñas specified.

These are enumerated in the text, as well as in the Váyu and Máarkaṇḍeeya Puráñas, and are: Udára, a sort of grain with long stalks (perhaps a holcus); Koradúsha (Paspalum kora); Chínaka, a sort of panic (Paspalum millaceum); Másha, kidney bean (Phaseolus radiatus); Måuga (Phaseolus mungo); Masúra, lentil (Ervum hirsutum); Nishpáva, a sort of pulse; Kulatthaka (Dolichos biflorus); Ádhaká (Cytisus cajanum); Chañaka, chick pea (Cicer arietinum); and Śaña (Crotolaria).

* Supply "cultivated and wild", ग्राम्यार्ष्टाः.
† The Máarkaṇḍeeya-puráña, XLIX., 70, et seg., omits másha, but, by compensation, inserts kuruśinda between gavedhuká and markatáka. The MSS. I have seen of that Puráña afford no warrant for such readings of the edition in the Bibliotheca Indica as jartila for jartila, veñugradha for veñuyava, and, in the preceding list, gāśa for śaña.

The Váyu-puráña, though professing to name only fourteen vegetable productions that may be used in sacrifice, names all that are mentioned in the Viśhnu-puráña, and one more. The fifteenth is kuruśinda.
‡ Máarkaṇḍeeya-puráña, XLIX., 41, et seg.
cultivated or wild, are the fourteen grains that were produced for purposes of offering in sacrifice; and sacrifice (the cause of rain) is their origin also. They, again, with sacrifice, are the great cause of the perpetuation of the human race; as those understand who can discriminate cause and effect. Thence sacrifices were offered daily; the performance of which, O best of Munis, is of essential service to mankind, and expiates the offences of those by whom they are observed. Those, however, in whose hearts the drop of sin derived from Time (Kāla) was still more developed, assented not to sacrifices, but reviled both them and all that resulted from them, the gods, and the followers of the Vedas. Those abusers of the Vedas, of evil disposition and conduct, and seceders from the path of enjoined duties, were plunged in wickedness.  

The means of subsistence having been provided for the beings he had created, Brahmā prescribed laws suited to their station and faculties, the duties of the several castes and orders, and the regions of those of

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1 This allusion to the sects hostile to the Vedas—Buddhists or Jainas—does not occur in the parallel passages of the Vāyu and Mārkaṇḍeya Purāṇas.

2 The Vāyu goes further than this, and states that the castes were now first divided according to their occupations; having, indeed, previously stated that there was no such distinction in the Kṛita age:

वर्णोत्सामवस्वभाग न नन्दात्सन धर्मः ।

Brahmā now appointed those who were robust and violent to be Kshatriyas, to protect the rest; those who were pure and pious he made Brahmans; those who were of less power, but industrious,

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* See Original Sanskrit Texts, Part I., p. 23.
the different castes who were observant of their duties.* The heaven of the Pitris is the region of devout Brahmans; the sphere of Indra, of Kshatriyas who fly not from the field. The region of the winds is assigned to the Vaiśyas who are diligent in their occupations; and submissive Śūdras are elevated to the sphere of the Gandharvas. Those Brahmans who lead religious lives go to the world of the eighty-eight thousand saints; and that of the seven Kishis is the seat of pious anchorets and hermits. The world of ancestors is that of respectable householders; and the region of Brahmā

and addicted to cultivate the ground, he made Vaiśyas; whilst the feeble and poor of spirit were constituted Śūdras. And he assigned them their several occupations, to prevent that interference with one another which had occurred as long as they recognized no duties peculiar to castes.†

* See Original Sanskrit Texts, Part I., p. 23. The original has Prajāpati in place of “Brahmā”. “Orders” renders dhārama.
† इतरं ज्ञत्वार्यामेव ज्ञाप्यामास फिदिताः।
उपग्रहताः से तासे घाउनो निगमायावाया।
साध उल्ल प्राण मोह नो माहृताः ते।
चे चाये नायवलानीया वेश स्व सभायाः।
कोनाशास्त्रयान्तर्विद्यामानाः।
बैरनहो तु ताना च। कोनाशास्त्रव्यायिसा विक्षावनाः।
शोचनाश्रयो भावतार्याजु वे रता।
निकृष्ठायां भविष्यं रुयायायालास्वनीतु स।
तेवा कमाशनि परमाणु ज्ञानास्वयं स्वर्जाः।
संकेतानी प्रस्तावां तु चातुर्यास्व सर्जाः।
पुत्रं प्रजातु ता मोहात्त्वामानस्वायमायामायामायामायमायामाय।
वर्षाधिकारियावयो अव्यायान परस्यारस।

For another translation of this passage, and several various readings, see Original Sanskrit Texts, Part I., pp. 30 and 31.
is the asylum of religious mendicants. The imperishable region of the Yogins is the highest seat of Vishnú, where they perpetually meditate upon the supreme being, with minds intent on him alone. The sphere where they reside the gods themselves cannot behold. The sun, the moon, the planets shall repeatedly be and cease to be; but those who internally repeat the mystic adoration of the divinity shall never know decay.

1 These worlds, some of which will be more particularly described in a different section, are the seven Lokas or spheres above the earth: 1. Prájápatya or Pitri-loka: 2. Indra-loka or Swarga: 3. Marul-loka or Diva-loka, heaven: 4. Gandharva-loka, the region of celestial spirits; also called Mahar-loka: 5. Jana-loka or the sphere of saints. Some copies read eighteen thousand; others, as in the text, which is also the reading of the Padma Puráña: 6. Tapo-loka, the world of the seven sages: and 7. Brahma-loka or Satya-loka, the world of infinite wisdom and truth. The eighth, or high world of Vishnú, परम पद्म is a sectarian addition, which, in the Bhágavata, is called Vaikuṇtha, and, in the Brahma Vaivarta, Go-loka; both, apparently, and, most certainly, the last, modern inventions.

* “Heaven of the Pitris” and “world of ancestors”: in the original, Prájápatya. “Region of the winds” and “sphere of the Gandharvas”, Máruṭa and Gánḍharva. “Brahmans who lead religious lives”, guruvādik; which the commentator explains as meaning conventuals abiding for life with a spiritual guide, and devoted to theology. They are said to inherit the region of the Válikhilyas and other high saints. “Pious anchorites and hermits”, vaṇautakas; the same as vánaprastha. “Religious mendicants”, nīyās; one with sákhānīyās. The original leaves “householders” unqualified.

† Brahma, in the Sanskrit.
‡ Such MSS. as I have consulted exhibit the reading:

तिष्यं तत्तं खारं चतु प्रह लि सुरः।

§ “The sun, the moon, and other planets.” The original is in the note following.
For those who neglect their duties, who revile the Vedas, and obstruct religious rites, the places assigned, after death, are the terrific regions of darkness, of deep gloom, of fear, and of great terror, the fearful hell of sharp swords, the hell of scourges and of a waveless sea.\(^1\)

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\(^1\) The divisions of Naraka or hell, here named, are again more particularly enumerated, b. II., c. 6.

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* गला गला निर्वतनी चन्द्रसूर्याद्यो यहाँः ।
 स्वरोपिन न निवतनी द्रादशाचाराविन्तकः ॥
 तामिस्तमन्तासीर्मध महारीरर्मीरवी ।
 सण्डितवच घोरं कालसूचमवीचितत् ॥
 विनिद्वकाणां वेद्य कथ्यावाचारात्वारिषुम ।
 ख्यास्मेतमसाख्यातं लघमेतवाभिनिश्चे ये ॥

The द्रादशाचार, or "spell of twelve syllables",—Professor Wilson's "mystic adoration of the divinity",—consists of the words चाँ चाँ चाँ
भगवते वायुदेवाय। Also see the Professor's Sanskrit Dictionary, sub
voice द्रादशाचारमन।
CHAPTER VII.

Creation continued. Production of the mind-born sons of Brahmá; of the Prajápatis; of Sanandana and others; of Rudra and the eleven Rudras; of the Manu Swáyanbhuya and his wife Śatarúpá; of their children. The daughters of Daksha, and their marriage to Dharma and others. The progeny of Dharma and Adharma. The perpetual succession of worlds, and different modes of mundane dissolution.

PARÁSARA.—From Brahmá, continuing to meditate, were born mind-engendered progeny, with forms and faculties derived from his corporeal nature; embodied spirits, produced from the person* of that all-wise† deity. All these beings, from the gods to inanimate things, appeared as I have related to you;¹ being the abode of the three qualities. But, as they did not multiply themselves, Brahmá created other mind-born sons, like himself; namely: Bhṛigu, Pulastya, Pulaha, Kratu, Angiras, Maríchi, Daksha, Atri, and Vasishtha. These are the nine Brahmas (or Brahmarshis) celebrated in the Puráñas.²‡ Sanandana and the other sons of Brahmá.§

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¹ It is not clear which of the previous narratives is here referred to; but it seems most probable that the account in pp. 70-72 is intended.

² Considerable variety prevails in this list of Prajápatis, Brahmaputras, Brahmas, or Brahmarshis; but the variations are of

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* Literally, "limbs", gātra.
† Dhāmat.
‡ See Original Sanskrit Texts, Part I., pp. 24, 25, and 80.
§ Vedhas, in the Sanskrit.
were previously created by him. But they were without desire or passion, inspired with holy wisdom, estranged

the nature of additions made to an apparently original enumeration of but seven, whose names generally recur. Thus, in the Mahábhárata, Moksha Dharma, we have, in one place, Maríchi, Atri, Angíras, Puláṣṭya, Puláha, Kratu, and Vasishthá:

\[ \text{श्रेष्ठ: सन्न वै पुत्र श्रीमान्यान: स्वयंभूव:।} \]

‘the seven high-minded sons of the self-born Brahmá.’ In another place of the same, however, we have Daksha substituted for Vasishthá:

\[ \text{श्रीमान्यसूचीं पुत्रानां श्रेष्ठसंस्मृतम:।} \]

\[ \text{मरीचिस्तन्थरस्तु पुत्रस्य पुत्रह जनमे।} \]

‘Brahmá then created mind-begotten sons, of whom Daksha was the seventh, with Maríchi,’ &c. These seven sons of Brahmá are also identified with the seven Rishis; as in the Váyu:

\[ \text{भूष्य वस्तेयस्तेव उत्पत्ति: स्वस्मान्यसा।} \]

\[ \text{पुत्रेः अज्ञातात्: स्वयंसेव स्वयंभूव:।} \]

although, with palpable inconsistency, eight are immediately enumerated; or: Bhúgu, Maríchi, Atri, Angíras, Puláṣṭya, Puláha, Kratu, and Vasishthá. The Uttara Khańḍa of the Padma Puráṇa substitutes Kardama for Vasishthá. The Bhágavata includes Daksha, enumerating nine.† The Matsya agrees with Manu, in adding Nárada to the list of our text. The Kúrma Puráṇa adds Dharma and Sankalpa. The Linga, Brahmáńḍa, and Váyu Puráńas also add them, and extend the list to Adharma and Ruculi. The Hari Vańśa, in one place, inserts Gautama, and, in another, Manu. Altogether, therefore, we have seventeen, instead of seven. But the accounts given of the origin of several of these show that they were not, originally, included amongst the Mánasaputtas or sons of Brahmá’s mind; for even Daksha, who finds a place in all the lists except one of those given in the Mahábhárata, is

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* Śánti-parvan., 7569, 7570: and see 13075.
† Ibid., 7534.
‡ The Bhágavata-puráńa, III., 12, 22, includes Daksha and Nárada; thus enumerating ten.
from the universe, and undesirous of progeny. This when Brahmá perceived, he was filled with wrath

uniformly said to have sprung from Brahmá's thumb: and the same patriarch, as well as Dharma, is included, in some accounts, as in the Bhágavata and Matsya Puráñas, amongst a different series of Brahmá's progeny, or virtues and vices; or: Daksha (dexterity), Dharma (virtue), Káma (desire), Krodha (passion), Lobha (covetousness), Moha (infatuation), Mada (insanity), Pramoda (pleasure), Mrityu (death), and Angaja (lust). These are severally derived from different parts of Brahmá's body; and the Bhagávata, adding Kardama (soil, or sin) to this enumeration, makes him spring from Brahmá's shadow. The simple statement that the first Prajápati sprang from the mind, or will, of Brahmá, has not contented the depraved taste of the mystics; and, in some of the Puráñas, as the Bhágavata, Linga, and Váyu, they also are derived from the body of their progenitor; or: Bhrégu, from his skin; Marichi, from his mind; Atri, from his eyes; Angirás, from his mouth; Pulastya, from his ear; Pulaha, from his navel; Kratu, from his hand; Vasishtha, from his breath; Daksha, from his thumb; and Nárada, from his hip. They do not exactly agree, however, in the places whence these beings proceed; as, for instance, according to the Linga, Marichi springs from Brahmá's eyes, not Atri, who, there, proceeds, instead of Pulastya, from his ears. The Váyu has, also, another account of their origin, and states them to have sprung from the fires of a sacrifice offered by Brahmá; an allegorical mode of expressing their probable original,—considering them to be, in some degree, real persons,—from the Brahmanical ritual, of which they were the first institutions and observers. The Váyu Puráña also states, that, besides the seven primitive Rishis, the Prajápati are numerous, and specifies Kardama, Kaśyapa, Śesha, Vikránta, Suśravas, Bahu-putra, Kumára, Vivasvat, Suchiśravas, Prácetasas (Daksha), Arishťanemi, Bahula. These and many others were Prajápati:

_शुचिवादयोऽविश्यः वहचछ ग्रन्थिरः_ ।

In the beginning of the Mahábhárata (Ádi Parvan), we have, again, a different origin; and, first, Daksha, the son of the Práchetasas, it
capable of consuming the three worlds, the flame of which invested, like a garland, heaven, earth, and hell. Then from his forehead, darkened with angry frowns, sprang Rudra,\(^1\) radiant as the noon-tide sun, fierce,

is said, had seven sons, after whom the twenty-one Prajápatis were born, or appeared. According to the commentator, the seven sons of Daksha were the allegorical persons Krodha, Tamas, Dama, Vikrita, Angiras, Kardama, and Ásya; and the twenty-one Prajápatis, the seven usually specified,—Marichi and the rest,—and the fourteen Manus. This looks like a blending of the earlier and later notions.

\(^1\) Besides this general notice of the origin of Rudra and his separate forms, we have, in the next chapter, an entirely different set of beings so denominated; and the eleven alluded to in the text are also more particularly enumerated in a subsequent chapter. The origin of Rudra, as one of the agents in creation, is described in most of the Puráñas. The Mahábhárata, indeed, refers his origin to Vishnú; representing him as the personification of his anger, whilst Brahmá is that of his kindness:

\begin{quote}
च्छः: चन्द्रे लब्धात्रां शुद्धि देवता वै तथा।
कोयकविश्व संवधना वै: संहारकारक:।
एती ही विषुविश्वासि मसाध्रोधवाहसि।
तद्रिदित्तितम्यानि बुद्धिसंहारकारकं॥
\end{quote}

The Kûrma Puráña makes him proceed from Brahmá's mouth, whilst engaged in meditating on creation. The Varáha Puráña makes this appearance of Rudra the consequence of a promise made by Śiva to Brahmá, that he would become his son. In the parallel passages in other Puráñas, the progeny of the Rudra created by Brahmá is not confined to the eleven, but comprehends infinite numbers of beings, in person and equipments like their parent; until Brahmá, alarmed at their fierceness, numbers, and immortality, desires his son Rudra, or, as the Matsya calls him, Vámadeva, to form creatures of a different and mortal nature. Rudra refusing to do this, desists; whence his name Sthánu, from Sthá, 'to stay'. Linga, Váyu Puráñas, &c.

\* \* \* Mahábhárata, Śánti-parvan, 13146-7.
and of vast bulk, and of a figure which was half male, half female. Separate yourself, Brahmá said to him, and, having so spoken, disappeared; obedient to which command, Rudra became twofold, disjoining his male and female natures. His male being he again divided into eleven persons, of whom some were agreeable, some hideous; some fierce, some mild. And he multiplied his female nature manifold, of complexions black or white.†

Then Brahmá² created, himself, the Manu Sváyam-

¹ According to the Váyu, the female became, first, twofold, or one half white, and the other, black; and each of these, again, becomes manifold, being the various energies or Śaktis of Mahádeva, as stated by the Kúrma, after the words which are those of our text:

ता वै विभूतयो विद्मा विषुता: शल्लोच्च भूव।
The Linga and Váyu specify many of their names. Those of the white complexion, or mild nature, include Lakshmi, Saraswati, Gaurí, Umá, &c.; those of the dark hue, and fierce disposition, Durgá, Káli, Chaṇḍi, Mahárátri, and others.

² Brahmá, after detaching from himself the property of anger, in the form of Rudra, converted himself into two persons, the first male, or the Manu Sváyamáhuva, and the first woman, or Śatarápá. So, in the Vedas: एवाभम वै पुनः नामस्वित। ‘So himself was indeed (his) son.’ The commencement of production through sexual agency is here described with sufficient distinctness; but the subject has been rendered obscure by a more com-

* According to the commentator, “fierce” and “mild” are exegetical of “agreeable” and “hideous”.
† See Original Sanskrit Texts, Part IV., p. 331.
‡ This quotation requires to be slightly altered. The commentator, after citing आदानेव from the Vishnu-puráña, proceeds: आदान वै पुजनामासिटि चुति:। These words, ending with पुजनामासि, are from the Satapatha-brāhmaṇa, XIV., 9, 4, 26.
bhuvā, born of, and identical with, his original self, for the protection of created beings: and the female

plicated succession of agents, and, especially, by the introduction of a person of a mythic or mystical character, Virāj. The notion is thus expressed in Manu: "Having divided his own substance, the mighty power Brahmā became half male and half female; and from that female he produced Virāj. Know me to be that person whom the male Virāj produced by himself." I. 32, 33.* We have, therefore, a series of Brahmā, Virāj, and Manu, instead of Brahmā and Manu only; also the generation of progeny by Brahmā, begotten on Śatarūpā, instead of her being, as in our text, the wife of Manu. The idea seems to have originated with the Vedas, as Kullūka Bhatta quotes a text: तस्य विराजायत्।

‘Then (or thence) Virāj was born’. The procreation of progeny by Brahmā, however, is at variance with the whole system, which, almost invariably, refers his creation to the operation of his will: and the expression, in Manu, तस्यां स विराजमसुज्जयत्।

‘he created Virāj in her’, does not necessarily imply sexual intercourse. Virāj also creates, not begets, Manu. And in neither instance does the name of Śatarūpā occur. The commentator on Manu, however, understands the expression Asrījat to imply the procreation of Virāj: मेघुनिन घनेश। and the same interpretation is given by the Matsya Purāṇa, in which the incestuous passion of Brahmā for Śatarūpā,—his daughter, in one sense, his sister, in another,—is described; and by her he begets Virāj, who there is called, not the progenitor of Manu, but Manu himself:

तत: कालेश महता तस्य: पुषोभववनुः।

खारंभृव रति खात: स विराजिति न: शुभम्।†

This, therefore, agrees with our text, as far as it makes Manu the son of Brahmā, though not as to the nature of the connexion.

* हिन्दा कुलामगो दैहमयेशु पुषोभववत्।

बर्जेन नारी तस्यां स विराजमसुज्जयत्।||

तथा कल्पुषुज्जयतुः स खार्य पुषोभववत्।

t मां विराजसंवेश सहारमेव विराजसंवत्माः।||

† Matsya-purāṇa, III., 49, 50.
portion of himself he constituted Śatarūpā, whom austerity purified from the sin (of forbidden nuptials),

The reading of the Agni and Padma Purāṇas is that of the Vishnū: and the Bhāgavata agrees with it, in one place; stating, distinctly, that the male half of Brahmā was Manu, the other half, Śatarūpā:

वसु तच युमान्ति। महान्: सार्वभू: स्वरत्।
व्यासाच्चक्षुध्यापेक्षाम महाविष्णु महादेव:।

Bhāgavata, III., 12, 53, 54: and, although the production of Virāj is elsewhere described, it is neither as the son of Brahmā nor the father of Manu. The original and simple idea, therefore, appears to be, the identity of Manu with the male half of Brahmā, and his being; thence, regarded as his son. The Kūrma Purāṇā gives the same account as Manu, and in the same words. The Linga Purāṇā and Vāyu Purāṇā describe the origin of Virāj and Śatarūpā from Brahmā; and they intimate the union of Śatarūpā with Purusha or Virāj, the male portion of Brahmā, in the first instance, and, in the second, with Manu, who is termed Vairāja, or the son of Virāj: वेनाज्ञु मनु: स्मृत:। The Brahma Purāṇā, the words of which are repeated in the Hari Vāraṇā, introduces a new element of perplexity, in a new name, that of Āpava. According to the commentator, this is a name of the Prajāpati Vasishthā: बायपर्वसिद्धायपरस्त्र: प्रजापत:। As, however, he performs the office of Brahmā, he should be regarded as that divinity. But this is not exactly the case, although it has been so rendered by the French translator. Āpava becomes twofold, and, in the capacity of his male half, begets offspring by the female. Again, it is said Vishnū created Virāj, and Virāj created the male, which is Vairāja or Manu; who was, thus, the second interval (Antara) or stage in creation. That is, according to the commentator, the first stage was the creation of Āpava, or Vasishthā, or Virāj, by Vishnū, through the agency of Hiraṇyagarbha or Brahmā; and the next was that of the creation of Manu by Virāj. Śatarūpā appears as, first, the bride of Āpava, and then as the wife of Manu. This account, therefore, although obscurely expressed, appears to be essentially the same with that of Manu;
and whom the divine Manu Śvāyambhuva took to wife. From these two were born two sons, Priyavrata and

and we have Brahmá, Viráj, Manu, instead of Brahmá and Manu. It seems probable that this difference, and the part assigned to Viráj, has originated, in some measure, from confounding Brahmá with the male half of his individuality, and considering as two beings that which was but one. If the Purusha or Viráj be distinct from Brahmá, what becomes of Brahmá? The entire whole and its two halves cannot coexist; although some of the Pauráṇiks and the author of Manu seem to have imagined its possibility, by making Viráj the son of Brahmá. The perplexity, however, is still more ascribable to the personification of that which was only an allegory. The division of Brahmá into two halves designates, as is very evident from the passage in the Vedas given by Mr. Colebrooke, (As. R., VIII., 425, *) the distinction of corporeal substance into two sexes; Viráj being all male animals, Śatarúpa, all female animals. So the commentator on the Hari Vaṁśa explains the former to denote the horse, the bull, &c., and the latter, the mare, the cow, and the like. In the Bhágavata, the term Viráj implies Body collectively, as the commentator observes: समन्तिश्चरीरं विहिष्यति प्रतयप्राणो प्रतपञ्चविंचन विराजं प्रतपञ्चविंवे वधे, पुमाज। "As the sun illuminates his own inner sphere, as well as the exterior regions, so soul, shining in body (Virája), irradiates all without and within.' विराजं प्रतपञ्चविंवे: प्रकायं भाषां प्रकाश्च वर्णित। All, therefore, that the birth of Viráj was intended to express, was, the creation of living body, of creatures of both sexes; and, as, in consequence, man was produced, he might be said to be the son of Viráj, or bodily existence. Again, Śatarúpa, the bride of Brahmá, or of Viráj, or of Manu, is nothing more than beings of varied or manifold forms, from Śata, 'a hundred', and क्षेत्र 'form'; explained, by the annotator on the Hari Vaṁśa, by Anantarúpa (विविधक्षेत्र), 'of infinite', and Vividhārūpa (विविधक्षेत्र), 'of diversified shape'; being, as he states, the same as Máyah, 'illusion', or the power

* Miscellaneous Essays, Vol. I., p. 64.
Uttánapáda, and two daughters, named Prasúti and Ákúti, graced with loveliness and exalted merit. Prasúti he gave to Daksha, after giving Ákúti to the patriarch Ruchi, who espoused her. Ákúti bore to Ruchi twins, Yajna and Dakshiṇá, who afterwards of multiform metamorphosis: चनेकल्पधारागसामयिः। तथा वद्व्यात् कथानन्दायः। त्वमात्र तथैवि च्यातिनिं नरिमे दिषोः।

1 The Brahma Puráṇa has a different order, and makes Víra the son of the first pair, who has Uttánapáda, &c. by Kámyá. The commentator on the Hari Vamśa quotes the Váyu for a confirmation of this account. But the passage there is:

वैराजायुपशाहीरीं शतिन्या व्रजायत।
सितकटोश्चापपाद्रीं पुरी पुज्यवतां वरी।

2 The Bhágavata adds a third daughter, Devahúti; for the purpose, apparently, of introducing a long legend of the Kíshi Kardama, to whom she is married, and of their son Kapila: a legend not met with anywhere else.

3 Ruchi is reckoned amongst the Prajápatís, by the Linga and Váyu Puráṇas.

4 These descendants of Swáyambhuva are, all, evidently, allegorical. Thus, Yajna (यज्ञ) is 'sacrifice', and Dakshiṇá (दक्षिणा), 'donation' to Brahmans.

* See Original Sanskrit Texts, Part I., p. 25.
† Matsya-puráṇa, IV., 10, 11.
became husband and wife, and had twelve sons, the deities called Yāmas,¹ in the Manwantara of Śvāyambhūva.

The patriarch Daksha had, by Prasūti, twenty-four daughters.² Hear from me their names: Śraḍḍhā (faith), Lakshmi (prosperity), Dhṛiti (steadiness), Tushṭi (resignation), Pushṭi (thriving), Medhā (intelligence), Kriyā (action, devotion), Budhhi (intellect), Lūjjā (modesty), Vapus (body), Śánti (expiation), Siddhi (perfection), Kīrtti (fame). These thirteen daughters of Daksha, Dharma (righteousness) took to wife. The other eleven bright-eyed and younger daughters of the patriarch were: Khyāti (celebrity), Satī (truth), Sanshūttī (fitness), Smrīti (memory), Prīti (affection), Kshamā (patience), Saṁnati (humility), Anasuyā (charity), Īrjā (energy), with Swāhā (offering), and Swadhā (oblation). These maidens were respectively wedded to the Munis Bṛigu, Bhava, Maršchi, Angiras, Pulastya, Pulaha, Kratu, Atri, and Vasishṭha, to Fire (Vahni),* and to the Pitṛis (progenitors).³†

¹ The Bhāgavata (b. IV. c. 1) says the Tushitas: but they are the divinities of the second, not of the first, Manwantara; as appears also in another part of the same, where the Yāmas are likewise referred to the Śvāyambhūva Manwantara.

² These twenty-four daughters are of much less universal occurrence in the Purāṇas than the more extensive series of fifty or sixty, which is subsequently described, and which appears to be the more ancient legend.

³ The twenty-four daughters of Daksha are similarly named

* For Vahni’s wife, Swāhā, and for other allegorical females here mentioned, as originating from particles of prakṛiti, see the Brahmavaivarta-purāṇa, in Prof. Aufrecht’s Catalog. Cod. Manuscript, &c., p. 23.
† See Original Sanskrit Texts, Part IV., p. 324.
The progeny of Dharma, by the daughters of Daksha, were as follows: by Śraddhā, he had Kāma (desire); by Lakshmī, * Darpa (pride); by Dhṛiti, Niyama (precept); by Tushṭi, Santosha (content); by Pushṭi, Lobha (cupidity); by Medhā, Śruta (sacred tradition); by Kriyā, Daṁda, Naya, and Vinaya (correction, polity, and prudence); by Buddhī, Bodha (understanding); by Lajjā, Vīnaya (good behaviour); by Vapus, Vyavasāya (perseverance). Śānti gave birth to Kshema (prosperity); Siddhi, to Sukha (enjoyment); and Kīrtti, to

and disposed of in most of the Purāṇas which notice them. The Bhāgavata, having introduced a third daughter of Swāyambhuva, has a rather different enumeration, in order to assign some of them, the wives of the Prajāpati, to Kārdama and Devahūti. Daksha had, therefore, it is there said (b. IV. c. 1), sixteen daughters, thirteen of whom were married to Dharma, named Śraddhā, Maitri (friendship), Dayā (clemency), Śānti, Tushṭi, Pushṭi, Kriyā, Umnati (elevation), Buddhī, Medhā, Titikshā (patience), Hri (modesty), Murti (form); and three, Sati, Swāhā, and Swadhā, married, as in our text. Some of the daughters of Devahūti repeat these appellations; but that is of slight consideration. They are: Kalā (a moment), married to Marichi; Anasuyā, to Atri; Śraddhā, to Angiras; Havirbhū (oblation-born), to Pulastya; Gati (movement), to Pulaha; Kriyā, to Kratu; Khyāti, to Bhṛigu; Arundhati, to Vasishṭha; and Śānti, to Atharvan.† In all these instances, the persons are, manifestly, allegorical, being personifications of intelligences and virtues and religious rites, and being, therefore, appropriately wedded to the probable authors of the Hindu code of religion and morals, or to the equally allegorical representation of that code, Dharma, moral and religious duty.

* In the original, Chālā.
† The Bhāgavata-purāṇa, in the texts that I have examined, pairs Ujā with Vasishṭha, and Chittī with Atharvan.
Yaśas (reputation).\(^1\) These were the sons of Dharma; one of whom, Kāma, had Harsha (joy) by his wife Nandī (delight).

The wife of Adharma\(^2\) (vice) was Himsā (violence), on whom he begot a son, Anṛita (falsehood), and a daughter, Nikṛiti (immorality). They intermarried, and had two sons, Bhaya (fear) and Naraka (hell); and

\(^1\) The same remark applies here. The Purāṇas that give these details generally concur with our text. But the Bhāgavata specifies the progeny of Dharma in a somewhat different manner; or, following the order observed in the list of Dhārma’s wives, their children are: Šita* (truth), Prasāda (favour), Abhaya (fearlessness), Sukha, Muda (pleasure), Smaya (wonder), Yoga (devotion), Darpa, Artha (meaning†), Smṛiti (memory), Kāhema, Prasraya (affection), and the two saints Nara and Nārāyaṇa, the sons of Dharma by Mūrti. We have occasional varieties of nomenclature in other authorities; as, instead of Śruta, Sama; Kūrma Purāṇa: instead of Daṇḍanaya, Samaya; and, instead of Bodha, Apramāda; Linga Purāṇa: and Siddha, in place of Sukha: Kūrma Purāṇa.

\(^2\) The text rather abruptly introduces Adharma and his family. He is said, by the commentator, to be the son of Brahmā; and the Linga Purāṇa enumerates him amongst the Prajāpatis, as well as Dharma. According to the Bhāgavata, he is the husband of Mṛishā (falsehood), and the father of Dambha (hypocrisy) and Māyā (deceit), who were adopted by Nirṛiti. The series of their descendants is, also, somewhat varied from our text; being, in each descent, however, twins, which intermarry, or: Loba (covetousness) and Nikṛiti, who produce Krodha (wrath) and Himśā: their children are Kāli (wickedness) and Durakti (evil speech): their progeny are Mṛityu and Bhī (fear): whose offspring are Niraya (hell) and Yātanā (torment).

* The MSS. which I have inspected give Šubha, “felicity”.
†?
twins to them, two daughters, Māyā (deceit) and Vedanā (torture), who became their wives. The son of Bhaya and Māyā was the destroyer of living creatures, or Mṛityu (death); and Duḥkha (pain) was the offspring of Naraka* and Vedanā. The children of Mṛityu were: Vyādhi (disease), Jarā (decay), Śoka (sorrow), Trishṇā (greediness), and Krodha (wrath). These are all called the inflictors of misery, and are characterized as the progeny of Vice† (Adharma): They are all without wives, without posterity, without the faculty to procreate. They are the terrific forms of Vishnū, and perpetually operate as causes of the destruction of this world. On the contrary, Daksha and the other Rishis,§ the elders of mankind, tend perpetually to influence its renovation; whilst the Manus and their sons,∥ the heroes endowed with mighty power, and treading in the path of truth, as constantly contribute to its preservation.

MAITREYA.—Tell me, Brahmā, what is the essential nature of these revolutions, perpetual preservation, perpetual creation, and perpetual destruction.

PARĀŚARA.—Madhusūdana, whose essence is incomprehensible, in the forms of these (patriarchs and Manus), is the author of the uninterrupted vicissitudes of creation, preservation, and destruction. The dissolu-

* Ramana, in the original.
† अधर्मलघुष्ठः, “essentially vicious”. The commentator says: पापहयः। यथा मात्रेनाधर्मलघुष्ठः। तस्यस्य।
‡ For some additions, including Nirīti and Alakshmi, see the Mārkañdeya-purāṇa, L., 33, et seq.
§ Four are named in the Sanskrit: Daksha, Marichi, Atri, and Bhrigu.
∥ An epithet is here omitted: ब्रह्म, “kings”.
tion of all things is of four kinds: Naimittika, *occasional*; Prákritika, ‘elemental’; Ātyantika, ‘absolute’; Nitya, ‘perpetual’.

1 The first, also termed the Bráhma

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1 The three first of these are more particularly described in the last book. The last, the Nitya or constant, is differently described by Colonel Vans Kennedy (Researches into the Nature and Affinity of Ancient and Hindu Mythology, p. 224, note). "In the seventh chapter, however", he observes, "of the first part of the Vishnú Puráñá, it is said that the naimittika, prákritika, ātyantika, and nitya are the four kinds of pralaya to which created things are subject. The naimittika takes place when Brahmá slumbers; the prákritika, when this universe returns to its original nature; ātyantika proceeds from divine knowledge, and consequent identification with the supreme spirit; and nitya is the extinction of life, like the extinction of a lamp, in sleep at night." For this last characteristic, however, our text furnishes no warrant. Nor can it be explained to signify, that the Nitya Pralaya means no more than "a man’s falling into sound sleep at night". All the copies consulted on the present occasion concur in reading:

निखः सृद्ध जातार्यो यो विनाशो दिवानिशाच।

as rendered above. The commentator supplies the illustration, द्रीपव्याशावतः ‘like the flame of a lamp’; but he also writes: जातार्यो दिवानिशो यो विनाशः स निखः ‘That which is the destruction of all that are born, night and day, is the Nitya or constant.’ Again, in a verse presently following, we have the Nitya Sarga, ‘constant or perpetual creation’, as opposed to constant dissolution:

भूतात्मनुदिधं यत्र जायन्ति सुनिस्वतस्मः।

निखः सः तेन प्रोक्तः पुराणार्थविचारसः॥

‘That in which, O excellent sages, beings are daily born, is termed constant creation, by those learned in the Puráñáas.’ The commentator explains this: अशुद्धित्रुद्धिमवाहो निखसन्ध र्ववरः।

‘The constant flow or succession of the creation of ourselves and other creatures is the Nitya or constant creation. This is the

* See the editor’s note in p. 52, supra.
dissolution, occurs when the sovereign of the world reclines in sleep. In the second, the mundane egg resolves into the primary element, from whence it was derived. Absolute non-existence of the world is the absorption of the sage,* through knowledge, into supreme spirit. Perpetual destruction is the constant disappearance, day and night, of all that are born. The productions of Prakṛiti form the creation that is termed the elemental (Prākṛita). That which ensues after a minor dissolution is called ephemeral creation; and the daily generation of living things is termed, by those who are versed in the Purāṇas, constant creation. In this manner, the mighty Vishnū, whose essence is the elements, abides in all bodies, and brings about production, existence, and dissolution.† The faculties of Vishnū, to create, to preserve, and to destroy, operate successively, Maitreya, in all corporeal beings, and at all seasons; and he who frees himself from the influence of these three faculties, which are essentially composed of the three qualities (goodness, foulness, and darkness), goes to the supreme sphere, from whence he never again returns.

meaning of the text.' It is obvious, therefore, that the alternation intended is that of life and death, not of waking and sleep.

* Yogn.  
† Sannyama.
CHAPTER VIII.

Origin of Rudra: his becoming eight Rudras: their wives and children. The posterity of Bhṛigu. Account of Śrī in conjunction with Vishūnu. (Sacrifice of Daksha.)

Parāśara.—I have described to you, O great Muni, the creation of Brahmā in which the quality of darkness prevailed. I will now explain to you the creation of Rudra.¹

In the beginning of the Kalpa, as Brahmā purposed to create a son, who should be like himself, a youth of a purple complexion² appeared; crying with a low cry, and running about.³ Brahmā, when he beheld him thus afflicted, said to him: “Why dost thou weep?” “Give me a name”, replied the boy. “Rudra be thy name”, rejoined the great father of all creatures: “be composed; desist from tears.” But, thus addressed,

¹ The creation of Rudra has been already adverted to; and that seems to be the primitive form of the legend. We have, here, another account, grounded, apparently, upon Śaiva or Yoga mysticism.

² The appearance of Rudra as a Kumāra, ‘a boy’, is described, as of repeated occurrence, in the Linga and Vāyu Purāṇas, as already noticed (pp. 76, et seq.); and these Kumāras are of different complexions in different Kalpas. In the Vaishnava Purāṇas, however, we have only one original form, to which the name of Nilalohita, ‘the blue and red or purple complexioned’, is assigned. In the Kūrma, this youth comes from Brahmā’s mouth; in the Vāyu, from his forehead.

³ This is the Paurāṇik etymology: रोड़नास्त्रवाचिक बुद्र : | or Rud, ‘to weep’, and Dru, ‘to run’. The grammarians derive the name from Rud, ‘to weep’, with Rak affix.

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the boy still wept seven times; and Brahmá therefore gave to him seven other denominations: and to these eight persons regions and wives and posterity belong. The eight manifestations, then, are named Rudra, Bhava, Śarva, Īśána, Paśupati, Bhíma, Ugra, and Mahádeva, which were given to them by their great progenitor.* He also assigned to them their respective stations, the sun, water, earth, air, fire,† ether, the ministrant Brahman, and the moon; for these are their several forms.¹ The wives of the sun and the other

¹ The Váyu details the application of each name severally. These eight Rudras are, therefore, but one, under as many appellations, and in as many types. The Padma, Márkañdeya, Kúrma, Linga, and Váyu agree with our text in the nomenclature of the Rudras, and their types, their wives, and progeny. The types are those which are enumerated in the Nándi or opening benedictory verse of Śakuntalá; and the passage of the Vishnú Puráña was found, by M. Chezy, on the envelope of his copy. He has justly corrected Sir William Jones’s version of the term दीर्घी, ‘the sacrifice is performed with solemnity’; as the word means, ‘Brahmane officiant’, दीर्घीतो ब्राह्मण: | ‘the Brahman who is qualified, by initiation (Dikshá), to conduct the rite.’ These are considered as the bodies, or visible forms, of those modifications of Rudra which are variously named, and which, being praised in them, severally abstain from harming them: तेषु पूज्याय वन्यः क्षात्त । भ्रात्रात्र स्हिष्यति । Váyu Puráña. The Bhágavata, III., 12, 11-13, has a different scheme, as usual; but it confounds the notion of the eleven Rudras, to whom the text subsequently adverts, with that of the eight

* See an almost identical passage, from the Márkañdeya-puráña, LII., 2, et seq., translated in Original Sanskrit Texts, Part IV., p. 286.
† In most MSS. seen by me the order is “fire, air”; and so in other Puránas than the Vishnú.
manifestations, termed Rudra and the rest, were, respectively: Suvarchalā, Ushá,* Vikesí, Sivá, Swáhá, Diśas, Dikshá, and Rohini. Now hear an account of their progeny, by whose successive generations this world has been peopled. Their sons, then, were, severally: Śanaischara (Saturn), Śukra (Venus), the fiery-bodied † (Mars), Manojava (Hanumat†), Skanda, Swarga,§ Santána, and Budha (Mercury).

It was the Rudra of this description that married Satí, who abandoned her corporeal existence in consequence of the displeasure of Daksha.¹ She after-

here specified. These eleven it terms Manyu, Manu, Mahinas, Mahat, Śiva, Ritadhvaja,|| Ugraretas, Bhava, Kála, Vámadeva, and Dhritavrata; their wives are Dhi, Dhriti, Rasalomá, Niyut, Sarpi,‖ Ilá, Ambiká, Irávati, Svadhá, Dikshá, Rudrání; and their places are the heart, senses, breath, ether, air, fire, water, earth, sun, moon, and tapas or ascetic devotion. The same allegory or mystification characterizes both accounts.

¹ See the story of Daksha’s sacrifice at the end of the chapter.

* Several of the MSS. inspected by me have Suvarchalá and Umá. The Márkaṇdeya-puráṇa, LII., 9, has Umá.

† Lohitánga.

‡ The commentator says that Manojava is “a certain wind”. Hanumat is called, however, Anilátmajá, Pavanatanaya, Váyuputra, &c., “Son of the Wind”; and Marutwat.

§ Some MSS. have Sarga; and so has the Márkaṇdeya-puráṇa, LII., 11.

‖ The Bombay editions of the Bhágavata-puráṇa have Krutudhvaja.

¶ दीर्घूर्तितिष्ठूषोमा च नित्यलयितिबािधिमा।

रायति सुधा दीपा स्वाधीन नद्रास्तो नद्रा ते सिद्ध: ||

“Dhi, Dhriti, Usáná, Umá, Niyut, Sarpi, Ilá, Ambiká, Irávati, Sudhá, and Dikshá, the Rudrásís, are thy wives, Rudra.”

Víitti is a variant, of common occurrence, for Dhriti. “Rasalomá” and “Swadhá” are not found in any MS. that I have seen. Sarpis must be feminine. Sarpis would be neuter.
wards was the daughter of Himavat (the snowy mountains) by Mená; and, in that character, as the only Umá, the mighty Bhava again married her.\(^1\) The divinities Dhátrí and Vidhátrí were born to Bhrígu by Khyáti; as was a daughter, Śrí, the wife of Náráyaña, the god of gods.\(^2\)

**MAITREYA.**—It it commonly said that the goddess Śrí was born from the sea of milk, when it was churned for ambrosia. How, then, can you say that she was the daughter of Bhrígu by Khyáti?

**Praśārā.**—Śrī, the bride of Vishúu, the mother of the world, is eternal, imperishable. In like manner as he is all-pervading, so also is she, O best of Brahmans, omnipresent. Vishúu is meaning; she is speech. Hari is polity (Nāya); she is prudence (Nité). Vishúu is understanding; she is intellect. He is righteousness; she is devotion. He is the creator; she is creation. Śrī is the earth; Hari, the support of it. The deity is content; the eternal Lakshmi is resignation. He is desire; Śrī is wish. He is sacrifice; she is sacrificial donation (Dakshiňá). The goddess is the invocation which attends the oblation;\(^\dagger\) Janárdana is the obla-

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\(^1\) The story of Umá’s birth and marriage occurs in the Śiva Puráña, and in the Káśi Khańda of the Skanda Puráña: it is noticed briefly, and with some variation from the Puráñas, in the Rámaśa, first book: it is also given, in detail, in the Kumára Sanábhava of Kálidása.

\(^2\) The family of Bhrígu is more particularly described in the tenth chapter. It is here mentioned merely to introduce the story of the birth of the goddess of prosperity, Śrī.

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* See *Original Sanskrit Texts*, Part IV., p. 324.

\(^\dagger\) For “the invocation which attends the oblation”, read “the oblation of clarified butter”, ájyádhati, not ájyádhuti.
tion.* Lakshmí is the chamber where the females are present (at a religious ceremony); Madhusúdana, the apartment of the males of the family. Lakshmí is the altar; Hari, the stake (to which the victim is bound). Śrí is the fuel; Hari, the holy grass (Kuśa). He is the personified Sáma-veda; the goddess, lotos-throned, is the tone of its chanting.† Lakshmí is the prayer of oblation (Swáhá); Vásudeva, the lord of the world, is the sacrificial fire. Śauri (Vishnú) is Śánkara (Śiva); and Śrí is the bride of Śiva (Gaurí). Keśava, O Maitreyá, is the sun; and his radiance is the lotos-seated goddess. Vishnú is the tribe of progenitors (Pitriqaña); Padmá is their bride (Swadhá), the eternal bestower of nutriment.§ Śrí is the heavens; Vishnú, who is one with all things, is wide-extended space. The lord of Śrí is the moon; she is his unfading light. She is called the moving principle of the world; he, the wind which bloweth everywhere. Govinda is the ocean; Lakshmí, its shore. Lakshmí is the consort of Índra (Índrá); Madhusúdana is Devendra. The holder of the discus (Vishnú) is Yama (the regent of Tartarus); the lotos-throned goddess is his dusky spouse (Dhúmorná). Śrí is wealth; Śridhara (Vishnú) is, himself, the god of riches (Kubera). Lakshmí, illustrious Bráhman, is Gaurí; and Keśava is the deity of ocean (Varuña). Śrí

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* To render puρoddása, "a sacrificial cake of ground rice". See Colebrooke’s Two Treatises on the Hindu Law of Inheritance, p. 234, first annotation, and p. 337, second annotation.
† “The tone of its chanting”, udgiti.
‡ Here called Bhúti, in several of the MSS. I have examined.
§ Most of the MSS. consulted by me have, not "śāśvatpuṣṭhidá", “the eternal bestower of nutriment”, but "śashvatpuṣṭhidá", “the perpetual bestower of contentment".
is the host of heaven (Devasena); the deity of war, her lord, is Hari. The wielder of the mace is resistance; the power to oppose is Sri. Lakshmi is the Kashtha and the Kalá; Hari, the Nimesha and the Muhúrta. Lakshmi is the light; and Hari, who is all, and lord of all, the lamp. She, the mother of the world, is the creeping vine; and Vishnu, the tree round which she clings. She is the night; the god who is armed with the mace and discus is the day. He, the bestower of blessings, is the bridegroom; the lotos-throned goddess is the bride. The god is one with all male, the goddess one with all female, rivers. The lotos-eyed deity is the standard; the goddess seated on a lotos, the banner. Lakshmi is cupidity; Nárayana, the master of the world, is covetousness. O thou who knowest what righteousness is, Govinda is love; and Lakshmi, his gentle spouse, is pleasure. But why thus diffusely enumerate their presence? It is enough to say, in a word, that, of gods, animals, and men, Hari is all that is called male; Lakshmi is all that is termed female. There is nothing else than they.

SACRIFICE OF DAKSHA.¹

(From the Váyu Puráña.)

"There was formerly a peak of Meru, named Sávitra, abounding with gems, radiant as the sun, and celebrated

¹ The sacrifice of Daksha is a legend of some interest, from its historical and archeological relations. It is, obviously, intended

* There is nothing, in the MSS. I have seen, answering to "his gentle spouse".
† Rága, "love"; rati, "pleasure".
throughout the three worlds; of immense extent, and
difficult of access, and an object of universal veneration.
Upon that glorious eminence, rich with mineral trea-
sures, as upon a splendid couch, the deity Śiva reclined,
accompanied by the daughter of the sovereign of
mountains, and attended by the mighty Ádityas, the
powerful Vasus, and by the heavenly physicians, the
to intimate a struggle between the worshippers of Śiva and of
Vishñu, in which, at first, the latter, but, finally, the former,
acquired the ascendancy. It is, also, a favourite subject of Hindu
sculpture, at least with the Hindus of the Śaiva division, and
makes a conspicuous figure both at Elephanta and Ellora. A re-
presentation of the dispersion and mutilation of the gods and
sages by Vīrābhādra, at the former, is published in the Archaeo-
logia, Vol. VII., 326, where it is described as the Judgment of
Solomon! A figure of Vīrābhādra is given by Niebuhr, Vol. II.,
tab. 10; and the entire group, in the Bombay Transactions, Vol. I.,
p. 220. It is described, p. 229: but Mr. Erskine has not verified
the subject, although it cannot admit of doubt. The group de-
scribed, p. 224, probably represents the introductory details given
in our text. Of the Ellora sculptures, a striking one occurs in
what Sir C. Malet calls the Doomar Leyna cave, where is "Veer
Budder, with eight hands. In one is suspended the slain Rajah
Dutz." A. R. Vol. VI., 396. And there is also a representation
of 'Ehr Budr' in one of the colonnades of Kailas; being, in fact,
the same figure as that at Elephanta. Bombay Tr., Vol. III., 287.
The legend of Daksha, therefore, was popular when those cavern
temples were excavated. The story is told in much more detail
in several other Puráñas, and with some variations, which will
be noticed: but the above has been selected as a specimen of the
style of the Váyu Puráña, and as being a narration which, from
its inartificial, obscure, tautological, and uncircumstantial con-
struction, is, probably, of an ancient date. The same legend, in
the same words, is given in the Brahma Puráña.
sons of Aśvinī; by Kubera,* surrounded by his train of Guhyakas, the lord of the Yakshas, who dwells on Kailāsa. There also was the great Muni Uśanas: there were Rishis of the first order, with Sanatkumāra at their head; divine Rishis, preceded by Angiras; Viśvāvasu, with his bands of heavenly choristers; the sages Nárada and Parvata; and innumerable troops of celestial nymphs. The breeze blew upon the mountain, bland, pure, and fragrant; and the trees were decorated with flowers that blossomed in every season. The Vidyādhāras and Siddhas, affluent in devotion, waited upon Mahādeva, the lord of living creatures; † and many other beings, of various forms, did him homage. Rākshasas of terrific semblance, and Piśāchas of great strength, of different shapes and features, armed with various weapons, and blazing like fire, were delighted to be present, as the followers of the god. There stood the royal Nandin, ‡ high in the favour of his lord, armed with a fiery trident, § shining with inherent lustre; and there the best of rivers, Gāṅgā; the assemblage of all holy waters, ¶ stood adoring the mighty deity. Thus worshipped by all the most excellent of sages and of gods, abode the omnipotent and all-glorious Mahādeva.

“In former times Daksha commenced a holy sacrifice on the side of Himavat, at the sacred spot Gāṅgā-

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* In the original, Vaiśravaṇa.
† Paśupati: rather, “lord of sacrificial animals”; and so in p. 125, l. 3.
‡ In the Sanskrit, Nandīswara.
§ Śāla, “a pike”; and so wherever “trident” occurs in the present extract from the Vāyu-purāṇa.
¶ The more literal rendering would be: “rising from the water of all holy places situate on streams”: सर्वतीर्थज्जोश्वरः ।
† Instead of “omnipotent and all-glorious”, read “divine”, bhagavat.
dwára, frequented by the Rishis. The gods, desirous of assisting at this solemn rite, came, with Indra* at their head, to Mahádeva, and intimated their purpose, and, having received his permission, departed, in their splendid chariots, to Gangádwára, as tradition reports.\footnote{1} They found Daksha, the best of the devout, surrounded by the singers and nymphs of heaven, and by numerous sages, beneath the shade of clustering trees and climbing plants; and all of them, whether dwellers on earth, in air, or in the regions above the skies, approached the patriarch with outward gestures of respect. The Ádityas, Vasus, Rudras, † Maruts, all entitled to partake of the oblations, together with Jishńu, were present. The (four classes of Pitris) Úshmapas, Somapas, Ájyapas, and Dhúmapas, (or those who feed upon the flame, the acid juice, the butter, or the smoke of offerings), the Aświns, and the progenitors, came along with Brahmá. Creatures of every class, born from the womb, the egg, from vapour, or vegetation, came upon their invocation; as did all the gods, with their brides, who, in their resplendent vehicles, blazed like so many fires.

\footnote{1} Or this may be understood to imply, that the original story is in the Vedas; the term being, as usual in such a reference, \textit{रूति तृती}; Gangádwára, the place where the Ganges descends to the plains—or Haridwár, as it is more usually termed—is usually specified as the scene of action. The Linga is more precise, calling it Kanakhala, which is the village still called Kankhal, near Haridwár (Megha Dúta, p. 59). It rather inaccurately, however, describes this as upon Haṁsa peak, a point of the Himálaya: हभमधुः हिमवच्छिङ्करे।

\footnote{* The Sanskrit has Kratu.} \footnote{† Add Sádhyas.
Beholding them thus assembled, the sage Dadhícha was filled with indignation, and observed: 'The man who worships what ought not to be worshipped, or pays not reverence where veneration is due, is guilty, most assuredly, of heinous sin.' Then, addressing Daksha, he said to him: 'Why do you not offer homage to the god who is the lord of life* (Paśubhartīi)?' Daksha spake: 'I have already many Rudras present, armed with tridents, wearing braided hair, and existing in eleven forms. I recognize no other Mahádeva.' Dadhícha spake: 'The invocation that is not addressed to Īśa is, for all, but a solitary (and imperfect) summons. Inasmuch as I behold no other divinity who is superior to Śankara, this sacrifice of Daksha will not be completed.'† Daksha spake: 'I offer, in a golden cup, this entire oblation, which has been consecrated by many prayers, as an offering ever due to the unequalled Vishnu, the sovereign lord of all.'

1 The Kūrma Purāṇa gives also this discussion between Dadhícha and Daksha; and their dialogue contains some curious matter. Daksha, for instance, states that no portion of a sacrifice is ever allotted to Śiva, and no prayers are directed to be addressed to him, or to his bride:

* Rather, "the guardian of animals fit for sacrifice".
† वचारां दृश्यारूढोऽध्वनि न विश्वासम दैवतम ||
तथा द्रश्य चिपुलो यज्ञोण्यं न भविष्यति।

For the text, from the Mahābhārata, of a passage nearly identical with that in which these verses occur, accompanied by a very different rendering from that given above, see Original Sanskrit Texts, Part IV., pp. 314, et seq.
† The epithet makhśa, "lord of sacrifice", is here omitted.
"In the meanwhile the virtuous daughter of the mountain king, observing the departure of the divinities, addressed her lord, the god of living beings, and said—Umá spake—'Whither, O lord, have the gods, preceded by Indra,* this day departed? Tell me truly,

Dadhicha apparently evades the objection, and claims a share for Rudra, consisting of the triad of gods, as one with the sun, who is, undoubtedly, hymned by the several ministering priests of the Vedas:

Daksha replies that the twelve Ádityas receive special oblations; that they are all the suns; and that he knows of no other. The Munis, who overhear the dispute, concur in his sentiments:

These notions seem to have been exchanged for others, in the days of the Padma Purāṇa and Bhágavata; as they place Daksha's neglect of Śiva to the latter's filthy practices,—his going naked, smearing himself with ashes, carrying a skull, and behaving as if he were drunk or crazed; alluding, no doubt, to the practices of Śaiva mendicants, who seem to have abounded in the days of Śankara Āchārya, and since. There is no discussion in the Bhágavata; but Rudra is described as present at a former assembly, when his father-in-law censured him before the guests, and, in consequence, he departed in a rage. His follower Nandin† curses the company; and Bhrigu retorts in language descriptive of the Vámačarins or left hand worshippers of Śiva. "May all those",

* Śakra, in the original.
† Nandîśwara.
O thou who knowest all truth; for a great doubt perplexes me.' Mahēśwara spake: 'Illustrious goddess, the excellent patriarch Daksha celebrates the sacrifice of a horse; and thither the gods repair.' Devī spake: 'Why, then, most mighty god, dost thou also not proceed to this solemnity? By what hinderance is thy progress thither impeded?' Mahēśwara spake: 'This is the contrivance, mighty queen, of all the gods, that, in all sacrifices, no portion should be assigned to me. In consequence of an arrangement formerly devised, the gods allow me, of right, no participation of sacrificial offerings.' Devī spake: 'The lord god lives in all bodily forms;* and his might is eminent through his superior faculties. He is unsurpassable, he is unapproachable, in splendour and glory and power. That such as he should be excluded from his share of oblations fills me with deep sorrow; and a trembling, O sinless, seizes upon

he says,† "who adopt the worship of Bhava (Śiva), all those who follow the practices of his worshippers, become heretics, and opposers of holy doctrines. May they neglect the observances of purification; may they be of infirm intellects, wearing clotted hair, and ornamenting themselves with ashes and bones; and may they enter the Śaiva initiation, in which spirituous liquor is the libation."

* Professor Wilson doubtless read सच्चंद्रेषु : but the MSS. which I have consulted give सच्छद्रेषु, "in all the gods".
† Bhāgavata-purāṇa, IV., 2, 28-29:

भव्वत्तधरा येच च च तात्त्समचरताः:
पाशविद्वदली भवतु सच्चंद्रपरिपूर्णम्:
वषयस्वं सुधिथिहो बटामुखाशिक्षारिषः:
विशाली शीवदीवा चच दैवे सुराश्वम

This passage will be found translated in Original Sanskrit Texts, Part IV., p. 321.
my. frame. Shall I now practise bounty, restraint, or penance, so that my lord, who is inconceivable, may obtain a share,—a half, or a third portion,—of the sacrifice?"  

"Then the mighty and incomprehensible deity, being pleased, said to his bride, thus agitated and speaking: 'Slender-waisted queen of the gods, thou knowest not the purport of what thou sayest. But I know it, O thou with large eyes; for the holy declare all things by meditation. By thy perplexity this day are all the gods,

\[1\] This simple account of Sati's share in the transaction is considerably modified in other accounts. In the Kurma, the quarrel begins with Daksha the patriarch's being, as he thinks, treated, by his son-in-law, with less respect than is his due. Upon his daughter Sati's subsequently visiting him, he abuses her husband, and turns her out of his house. She, in spite, destroys herself.  

\[2\] It is in this subsequent birth that the sacrifice occurs. The Linga and Matsya allude to the dispute between Daksha and Sati, and to the latter's putting an end to herself by Yoga:

\[3\] The Padma, Bhagavata, and Skanda,—in the Kashi Khañda,—relate the dispute between father and daughter in a like manner, and in more detail. The first refers the death of Sati, however, to a prior period; and that and the Bhagavata both ascribe it to Yoga:

\[4\] The Kashi Khañda, with an improvement indicative of a later age, makes Sati throw herself into the fire prepared for the solemnity.

* Bhagavata-purana, IV., 4, 27.
with Mahendra and all the three worlds, utterly confounded. In my sacrifice, those who worship me repeat my praises, and chant the Rathantara song of the Sāma-veda. My priests worship me in the sacrifice of true wisdom, where no officiating Brahman is needed; and, in this, they offer me my portion.'* Devī spake: 'The lord is the root of all, † and, assuredly, in every assemblage of the female world, praises or hides himself at will.' Mahādeva spake: 'Queen of the gods, I praise not myself. Approach, and behold whom I shall create for the purpose of claiming my share of the rite.'

"Having thus spoken to his beloved spouse, the mighty Maheśwara created, from his mouth, a being like the fire of fate; ‡ a divine being, with a thousand heads, a thousand eyes, a thousand feet; wielding a thousand clubs, a thousand shafts; holding the shell, the discus, the mace, and bearing a blazing bow and battle-axe; § fierce and terrific, shining with dreadful splendour, and decorated with the crescent moon; clothed in a tiger's skin dripping with blood, having a capacious stomach, and a vast mouth armed with formidable tusks. His ears were erect; his lips were pendulous; his tongue was lightning; his hand brandished the thunder bolt; flames streamed from his hair; a necklace of pearls wound round his neck; a garland of flame descended on his breast. Radiant with lustre, he looked like the final fire that consumes the world. Four tremendous tusks projected from a mouth which

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* See Original Sanskrit Texts, Part IV., p. 316, note 281.
† Supradhāra.
‡ Kālāgni. Some MSS. have krodhāgni, "the fire of wrath".
§ Add "sword", asi.
extended from ear to ear. He was of vast bulk, vast strength, a mighty male and lord, the destroyer of the universe, and like a large fig-tree in circumference; shining like a hundred moons at once; fierce as the fire of love; having four heads, sharp white teeth, and of mighty fierceness, vigour, activity, and courage; glowing with the blaze of a thousand fiery suns at the end of the world; like a thousand undimmed moons; in bulk, like Himádri, Kailása, or Sumeru, or Mandara, with all its gleaming herbs; bright as the sun of destruction at the end of ages; of irresistible prowess and beautiful aspect; irascible, with lowering eyes, and a countenance burning like fire; clothed in the hide of the elephant and lion,* and girt round with snakes; wearing a turban on his head, a moon on his brow; sometimes savage, sometimes mild; having a chaplet of many flowers on his head, anointed with various unguents, adorned with different ornaments and many sorts of jewels, wearing a garland of heavenly Karñikára flowers, and rolling his eyes with rage. Sometimes he danced; sometimes he laughed aloud; sometimes he stood wrapt in meditation; sometimes he trampled upon the earth; sometimes he sang; sometimes he wept repeatedly. And he was endowed with the faculties of wisdom, dispassion, power, penance, truth, endurance, fortitude, dominion, and self-knowledge.

"This being then knelt down upon the ground, and, raising his hands respectfully to his head, said to Mahádeva: 'Sovereign of the gods, command what it

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* The original, in the MSS. known to me, is मुगौन्न्तर्क्षितस्वर्ग, in the accusative. That is to say, there is no mention of "the elephant", I.
is that I must do for thee'; to which Maheśwara rephed: 'Spoil the sacrifice of Daksha.' Then the mighty Vīrabhadra, having heard the pleasure of his lord, bowed down his head to the feet of Prajāpati,* and, starting like a lion loosed from bonds, despoiled the sacrifice of Daksha; knowing that he had been created by the displeasure of Devī. She, too, in her wrath, as the fearful goddess Rudrakālī, accompanied him, with all her train, to witness his deeds. Vīrabhadra, the fierce, abiding in the region of ghosts, is the minister of the anger of Devī. And he then created, from the pores of his skin, powerful demigods,† the mighty attendants upon Rudra, of equal valour and strength, who started, by hundreds and thousands, into existence. Then a loud and confused clamour filled all the expanse of ether, and inspired the denizens of heaven with dread. The mountains tottered, and earth shook; the winds roared, and the depths of the sea were disturbed; the fires lost their radiance, and the sun grew pale; the planets of the firmament shone not, neither did the stars give light; the Rishis ceased their hymns, and gods and demons were mute; and thick darkness eclipsed the chariots of the skies.¶

"Then from the gloom emerged fearful and numerous forms, shouting the cry of battle; who instantly

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* The description of Vīrabhadra and his followers is given in other Purāṇas, in the same strain, but with less detail.

† In the original, Umāpati.

‡ The original calls them Raumas:

śांग्रुज्जोभोमन्दुवीर्यो रीमात्मणं ग्रीघ्रं

¶ Hereabouts the translation is somewhat free.
broke or overturned the sacrificial columns, trampled upon the altars, and danced amidst the oblations. Running wildly hither and thither, with the speed of wind, they tossed about the implements and vessels of sacrifice, which looked like stars precipitated from the heavens. The piles of food and beverage for the gods, which had been heaped up like mountains; the rivers of milk; the banks of curds and butter; the sands of honey, and butter-milk, and sugar; the mounds of condiments and spices of every flavour; the undulating knolls of flesh and other viands; the celestial liquors, pastes, and confections, which had been prepared; these the spirits of wrath devoured, or defiled, or scattered abroad. Then, falling upon the host of the gods, these vast and resistless Rudras beat or terrified them, mocked and insulted the nymphs and goddesses, and quickly put an end to the rite, although defended by all the gods; being the ministers of Rudra’s wrath, and similar to himself. Some then made a hideous clamour, whilst others fearfully shouted, when Yajna was decapitated. For the divine Yajna, the lord of sacrifice, then began to fly up to heaven, in the shape of a deer; and Virabhadra, of immeasurable spirit, apprehending his power,

1 Their exploits, and those of Virabhadra, are more particularly specified elsewhere, especially in the Linga, Kúrma, and Bhágavata Puráñas. Indra is knocked down and trampled on; Yama has his staff broken; Saraswati and the Mártrís have their noses cut off; Mitra or Bhaga has his eyes pulled out; Pusheen has his teeth knocked down his throat; Chandra is pummelled; Váhni’s hands are cut off; Bhúgu loses his beard; the Brahmans are pelted with stones; the Prajápatís are beaten; and the gods and demigods are run through with swords, or stuck with arrows.
cut off his vast head, after he had mounted into the sky.¹ Daksha, the patriarch, his sacrifice being destroyed, overcome with terror, and utterly broken in spirit, fell, then, upon the ground, where his head was spurned by the feet of the cruel Vírabhadra.² The thirty scores* of sacred divinities were all presently

¹ This is also mentioned in the Linga and in the Hari Vanśa: and the latter thus accounts for the origin of the constellation Mrigāśīras; Yajna, with the head of a deer, being elevated to the planetary region, by Brahmá.

² As he prays to Śiva presently, it could not well be meant, here, that Daksha was decapitated, although that is the story in other places. The Linga and Bhágavata both state that Vírabhadra cut off Daksha’s head, and threw it into the fire. After the fray, therefore, when Śiva restored the dead to life, and the mutilated to their limbs, Daksha’s head was not forthcoming. It was, therefore, replaced by the head of a goat, or, according to the Káśi Khañḍa, that of a ram. No notice is taken, in our text, of the conflict elsewhere described between Vírabhadra and Vishńu. In the Linga, the latter is beheaded; and his head is blown, by the wind, into the fire. The Kúrma, though a Śaiva Puráña, is less irreverent towards Vishńu, and, after describing a contest in which both parties occasionally prevail, makes Brahmá interpose, and separate the combatants. The Káśi Khañḍa of the Skanda Puráña describes Vishńu as defeated, and at the mercy of Vírabhadra, who is prohibited, by a voice from heaven, from destroying his antagonist; whilst, in the Hari Vanśa, Vishńu compels Śiva to fly, after taking him by the throat and nearly strangling him. The blackness of Śiva’s neck arose from this throttling, and not, as elsewhere described, from his drinking the poison produced at the churning of the ocean.

* "Three hundred and thirty millions". The original is:

चचिलकृष्णश्रीवनामा ता: कृष्णो विमलाबोधका: ।
पारशुपितकिरितमिन्यु बद्धा: सिंहविन च ॥
bound, with a band of fire, by their lion-like foe; and they all then addressed him, crying: 'O Rudra, have mercy upon thy servants! O lord, dismiss thine anger!' Thus spake Brahmá, and the other gods, and the patriarch Daksha; and, raising their hands, they said: 'Declare, mighty being, who thou art.' Vírabhadra said: 'I am not a god, nor an Áditya; nor am I come hither for enjoyment, nor curious to behold the chiefs of the divinities. Know that I am come to destroy the sacrifice of Daksha, and that I am called Vírabhadra, the issue of the wrath of Rudra. Bhadrakálí, also, who has sprung from the anger of Deví, is sent here, by the god of gods, to destroy this rite. Take refuge, king of kings, with him who is the lord of Umá. For better is the anger of Rudra than the blessings of other gods.'

"Having heard the words of Vírabhadra, the righteous Daksha propitiated the mighty god, the holder of the trident, Maheśwara. The hearth of sacrifice, deserted by the Brahmanas, had been consumed; Yajna had been metamorphosed to an antelope; the fires of Rudra's wrath had been kindled; the attendants, wounded by the tridents of the servants of the god, were groaning with pain; the pieces of the uprooted sacrificial posts were scattered here and there; and the fragments of the meat-offerings were carried off by flights of hungry vultures and herds of howling jackals. Suppressing his vital airs, and taking up a posture of meditation, the many-sighted victor of his foes, Daksha, fixed his eyes everywhere upon his thoughts. Then the god of gods appeared from the altar, resplendent as a thousand suns, and smiled upon him, and said: 'Daksha, thy sacrifice has been destroyed
through sacred knowledge. I am well pleased with thee.' And then he smiled again, and said: 'What shall I do for thee? Declare, together with the preceptor of the gods.'

"Then Daksha, frightened, alarmed, and agitated, his eyes suffused with tears, raised his hands reverentially to his brow, and said: 'If, lord, thou art pleased; if I have found favour in thy sight; if I am to be the object of thy benevolence; if thou wilt confer upon me a boon, this is the blessing I solicit, that all these provisions for the solemn sacrifice, which have been collected with much trouble, and during a long time, and which have now been eaten, drunk, devoured, burnt, broken, scattered abroad, may not have been prepared in vain.' 'So let it be,' replied Hara, the subduer of Indra.* And thereupon Daksha knelt down upon the earth, and praised, gratefully, the author of righteousness, the three-eyed god Mahádeva, repeating the eight thousand names of the deity whose emblem is a bull."

* Bhaganetra is here used, in the Sanskrit, for "Indra". See the article सहस्राष in Professor Wilson's Sanskrit Dictionary.
CHAPTER IX.

Legend of Lakshmi. Durvasas gives a garland to Indra: he treats it disrespectfully, and is cursed by the Muni. The power of the gods impaired: they are oppressed by the Danavas, and have recourse to Vishnu. The churning of the ocean. Praises of Sri.

Parasara.—But, with respect to the question thou hast asked me, Maitreya, relating to the history of Sri, hear from me the tale, as it was told to me by Marichi.

Durvasas, a portion of Shankara (Siva), was wandering over the earth; when he beheld, in the hands of a nymph of air, a garland of flowers culled from the trees of heaven, the fragrant odour of which spread throughout the forest, and enraptured all who dwelt beneath its shade. The sage, who was then possessed by religious phrensy, when he beheld that garland, demanded it of the graceful and full-eyed nymph, who,

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1 Durvasas was the son of Atri by Anasuyā, and was an incarnation of a portion of Siva.

2 A Vidyādharī. These beings, male and female, are spirits of an inferior order, tenanting the middle regions of the atmosphere. According to the Vāyu, the garland was given to the nymph by Devī.

3 He observed the Vrata, or vow of insanity, उक्षत्रतपूर्वुक्त्र. Equivalent to the ecstasies of some religious fanatics. 'In this state', says the commentator, 'even saints are devils': योगिनी हि ब्रतोमात्ता: पिशाचा इव वर्तने।

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* The MSS. of the commentary which I have had access to read: योगिनी हि जडोत्पिशाचा इव वर्तने।
bowing to him reverentially, immediately presented it to him. He, as one frantic, placed the chaplet upon his brow, and, thus decorated, resumed his path; when he beheld (Indra) the husband of Śachi, the ruler of the three worlds, approach, seated on his infuriated elephant, Airāvata, and attended by the gods. The phrenсied sage, taking from his head the garland of flowers, amidst which the bees collected ambrosia, threw it to the king of the gods, who caught it, and suspended it on the brow of Airāvata, where it shone like the river Jāhnавí, glittering on the dark summit of the mountain Kailása.* The elephant, whose eyes were dim with inebriety, and attracted by the smell, took hold of the garland with his trunk, and cast it on the earth. That chief of sages, Durvāsas, was highly incensed at this disrespectful treatment of his gift, and thus angrily addressed the sovereign of the immortals: “Inflated with the intoxication of power, Vāsava, vile of spirit, thou art an idiot not to respect the garland I presented to thee, which was the dwelling of Fortune (Śrī). Thou hast not acknowledged it as a largess; thou hast not bowed thyself before me; thou hast not placed the wreath upon thy head, with thy countenance expanding with delight. Now, fool, for that thou hast not infinitely prized the garland that I gave thee, thy sovereignty over the three worlds shall be subverted. Thou confoundest me, Śakra, with other Brahmans; and hence I have suffered disrespect from

* The original is simply:

श्रीमालासङ्गीत समीरावसुध्वगी

ज्ञम् राज श्रीसंगीतिं ज्ञातुवी बत्ता
thy arrogance. But, in like manner as thou hast cast
the garland I gave thee down on the ground, so shall
thy dominion over the universe be whelmed in ruin.
Thou hast offended one whose wrath is dreaded by
all created things, king of the gods, even me, by thine
excessive pride."

Descending hastily from his elephant, Mahendra
endeavoured to appease the sinless Durvásas. But, to
the excuses and prostrations of the thousand-eyed, the
Muni answered: "I am not of a compassionate heart,
nor is forgiveness congenial to my nature. Other Munis
may relent; but know me, Śakra, to be Durvásas. Thou
hast in vain been rendered insolent by Gautama and
others; for know me, Indra, to be Durvásas, whose
nature is a stranger to remorse. Thou hast been flatter-
dered by Vasishtha and other tender-hearted saints,
whose loud praises have made thee so arrogant that
thou hast insulted me." But who is there in the uni-
verse that can behold my countenance, dark with
frowns, and surrounded by my blazing hair, and not
tremble? What need of words? I will not forgive,
whatever semblance of humility thou mayest assume."

Having thus spoken, the Brahman went his way;
and the king of the gods, remounting his elephant,
returned to his capital, Amarávatí. Thenceforward,
Maitreya, the three worlds and Śakra lost their vigour;
and all vegetable products, plants, and herbs were
withered and died; sacrifices were no longer offered;
devout exercises no longer practised; men were no
more addicted to charity, or any moral or religious

* See Original Sanekrit Texts, Part I., p. 95, note.
obligation; all beings became devoid of steadiness; all the faculties of sense were obstructed by cupidity; and men’s desires were excited by frivolous objects. Where there is energy* there is prosperity; and upon prosperity energy depends. How can those abandoned by prosperity be possessed of energy? And without energy where is excellence? Without excellence there can be no vigour or heroism amongst men. He who has neither courage nor strength will be spurned by all; and he who is universally treated with disgrace must suffer abasement of his intellectual faculties.

The three regions being thus wholly divested of prosperity, and deprived of energy, the Dánavas and sons of Diti, the enemies of the gods, who were incapable of steadiness, and agitated by ambition, put forth their strength against the gods. They engaged in war with the feeble and unfortunate divinities; and Indra and the rest, being overcome in fight, fled, for refuge, to Brahmá, preceded by the god of flame (Hutásana). When the great father of the universe had heard all that had come to pass, he said to the deities: “Repair, for protection, to the god of high and low; the tamer of the demons; the causeless cause of creation, preservation, and destruction; the progenitor of the progenitors; the immortal, unconquerable Vishnú; the cause of matter and spirit, of his unengendered products; the remover of the grief of all who humble themselves before him. He will give you aid.” Having

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1 They became (नि:सत्त्व), Nihsattwa; and Sattwa is explained, throughout, by Dhairya (धिर्य), ‘steadiness’, ‘fortitude’.

* Here and below, this represents sattwa.
thus spoken to the deities, Brahmá proceeded, along with them, to the northern shore of the sea of milk, and, with reverential words, thus prayed to the supreme Hari:

"We glorify him who is all things; the lord supreme over all; unborn, imperishable; the protector of the mighty ones of creation; the unperceived, * indivisible Náráyaña; the smallest of the smallest, the largest of the largest, of the elements; in whom are all things; from whom are all things; who was before existence; the god who is all beings; who is the end of ultimate objects; who is beyond final spirit, and is one with supreme soul; who is contemplated, as the cause of final liberation, by sages anxious to be free; in whom are not the qualities of goodness, foulness, or darkness, that belong to undeveloped nature. May that purest of all pure spirits this day be propitious to us. May that Hari be propitious to us, whose inherent might is not an object of the progressive chain of moments, or of days, that make up time. May he who is called the supreme god, who is not in need of assistance, Hari, the soul of all embodied substance, be favourable unto us. May that Hari, who is both cause and effect; who is the cause of cause, the effect of effect; he who is the effect of successive effect; who is the effect of the effect of the effect, himself; the product of the effect of the effect of the effect, (or elemental substance).\(^1\) To him I bow. The cause of the cause; the cause of the cause

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\(^1\) The first effect of primary cause is nature, or Prakṛiti; the effect of the effect, or of Prakṛiti, is Mahat; effect in the third

* Aprakāśa; explained, by the commentator, to mean "self-illuminated".*
of the cause; the cause of them all: to him I bow. To him who is the enjoyer and thing to be enjoyed; the creator and thing to be created; who is the agent and the effect: to that supreme being I bow. The infinite nature of Vishṇu is pure, intelligent, perpetual, unborn, undecayable, inexhaustible, inscrutable, immutable; it is neither gross nor subtile, nor capable of being defined: to that ever holy nature of Vishṇu I bow. To him whose faculty to create the universe abides in but a part of but the ten-millionth part of him; to him who is one with the inexhaustible supreme spirit, I bow: and to the glorious nature of the supreme Vishṇu, which nor gods, nor sages, nor I, nor Śankara apprehend; that nature which the Yogins, after incessant effort, effacing both moral merit and demerit, behold to be contemplated in the mystical monosyllable Om: the supreme glory of Vishṇu, who is the first of all; of whom, one only god, the triple energy is the same with Brahmā, Vishṇu, and Śiva: O lord of all, great soul of all, asylum of all, undecayable, have pity upon thy servants! O Vishṇu, be manifest unto us.”

Parāśāra continued.—The gods, having heard this prayer uttered by Brahmā, bowed down, and cried: “Be favourable to us! Be present to our sight. We

degree is Ahaṁkāra; in the fourth, or the effect of the effect (Ahaṁkāra) of the effect (Mahat) of the effect (Prakṛiti), is elementary substance, or Bhūta. Vishṇu is each and all. So, in the succeeding ascending scale, Brahmā is the cause of mortal life; the cause of Brahmā is the egg, or aggregate elementary matter; its cause is, therefore, elementary matter; the cause of which is subtile or rudimental matter, which originates from Ahaṁkāra; and so on. Vishṇu is, also, each and all of these.
bow down to that glorious nature which the mighty 
Brahmá does not know; that which is thy nature, O 
imperishable, in whom the universe abides." Then, 
the gods having ended, Bṛhaspati and the divine 
Ṛishis thus prayed: "We bow down to the being en-
titled to adoration; who is the first object of sacrifice; 
who was before the first of things; the creator of the 
creator of the world; the undefinable. O lord of all 
that has been or is to be; imperishable type of sacrifice; 
have pity upon thy worshippers! Appear to them pro-
strate before thee. Here is Brahmá; here is Trilochana 
(the three-eyed Śiva), with the Rudras; Pūshan (the 
sun), with the Ādityas; and Fire, with all the mighty 
luminaries.* Here are the sons of Aświní (the two 
Aświní Kumáras), the Vasus and all the winds, the 
Śādhyas, the Viśwadevas, and Indra, the king of the 
gods; all of whom bow lowly before thee. All the 
tribes of the immortals, vanquished by the demon host, 
have fled to thee for succour."

Thus prayed to, the supreme deity, the mighty 
holder of the conch and discus, showed himself to them; 
and, beholding the lord of gods, bearing a shell, a dis-
cus, and a mace, the assemblage of primeval form, and 
radiant with embodied light, Pitámaha and the other 
deities, their eyes moistened with rapture, first paid 
him homage, and then thus addressed him: "Repeate 
salutation to thee, who art indefinable! Thou art Brahmá; 
thou art the wielder of the Pīnáka bow (Śiva); 
thou art Indra; thou art fire, air, the god of waters,†

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* "Fire, with all its forms": पावकी वर्ष सहायिभि:।
† Varuña, in the original.
the sun, the king of death (Yama), the Vasus, the Máruts (the winds), the Sádhyas, and Viśwadevas. This assembly of divinities, that now has come before thee, thou art; for, the creator of the world, thou art everywhere. Thou art the sacrifice, the prayer of oblation, the mystic syllable Om, the sovereign of all creatures. Thou art all that is to be known, or to be unknown. O universal soul, the whole world consists of thee. We, discomfited by the Daityas, have fled to thee, O Vishnú, for refuge. Spirit of all, have compassion upon us! Defend us with thy mighty power. There will be affliction, desire, trouble, and grief, until thy protection is obtained: but thou art the remover of all sins. Do thou, then, O pure of spirit, show favour unto us, who have fled to thee! O lord of all, protect us with thy great power, in union with the goddess who is thy strength.  

Hari, the creator of the universe, being thus prayed to by the prostrate divinities, smiled, and thus spake: "With renovated energy, O gods, I will restore your strength. Do you act as I enjoin. Let all the gods, associated with the Asuras, cast all sorts of medicinal herbs into the sea of milk; and then, taking the mountain Mandara for the churning-stick, the serpent Vásuki for the rope, churn the

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1 With thy Šakti, or the goddess Śrī or Lakshmi.
ocean together for ambrosia; depending upon my aid. To secure the assistance of the Daityas, you must be at peace with them, and engage to give them an equal portion of the fruit of your associated toil; promising them, that, by drinking the Amrita that shall be produced from the agitated ocean, they shall become mighty and immortal. I will take care that the enemies of the gods shall not partake of the precious draught; that they shall share in the labour alone."

Being thus instructed by the god of gods, the divinities entered into alliance with the demons: and they jointly undertook the acquirement of the beverage of immortality. They collected various kinds of medicinal herbs, and cast them into the sea of milk, the waters of which were radiant as the thin and shining clouds of autumn. They then took the mountain Mandara for the staff, the serpent Vasuki for the cord, and commenced to churn the ocean for the Amrita. The assembled gods were stationed, by Krishua, at the tail of the serpent; the Daityas and Danavas, at its head and neck. Scorched by the flames emitted from his inflated hood, the demons were shorn of their glory; whilst the clouds, driven towards his tail by the breath of his mouth, refreshed the gods with revivifying showers. In the midst of the milky sea, Hari himself, in the form of a tortoise, served as a pivot for the mountain, as it was whirled around. The holder of the mace and discus was present, in other forms, amongst the gods and demons, and assisted to drag the monarch of the serpent race; and, in another vast body, he sat upon the summit of the mountain. With one portion of his energy, unseen by gods or demons,
he sustained the serpent-king, and, with another, infused vigour into the gods.

From the ocean, thus churned by the gods and Dánavas, first uprose the cow Surabhi, the fountain of milk and curds, worshipped by the divinities, and beheld by them and their associates with minds disturbed and eyes glistening with delight. Then, as the holy Siddhas in the sky wondered what this could be, appeared the goddess Váruní (the deity of wine), her eyes rolling with intoxication. Next, from the whirlpool of the deep, sprang the celestial Párijáta tree, the delight of the nymphs of heaven; perfuming the world with its blossoms. The troop of Apsarasas (the nymphs of heaven), were then produced, of surprising loveliness, endowed with beauty and with taste. The cool-rayed moon next rose, and was seized by Mahádeva; and then poison was engendered from the sea, of which the snake-gods (Nágas) took possession. Dhanwan-tari, robed in white, and bearing in his hand the cup of Amrīta, next came forth; beholding which, the sons of Diti and of Danu, as well as the Munis, were filled with satisfaction and delight. Then, seated on a full-blown lotus, and holding a water-lily in her hand, the goddess Śrí, radiant with beauty, rose from the waves. The great sages, enraptured, hymned her with the song dedicated to her praise.¹ Viśvávasu and other

¹ Or with the Súkta, or hymn of the Vedas, commencing, “Hirańyavarnám”, &c.

*"The song dedicated to her praise” translates Śrí-súkta. For the hymn so called, with its commentary, edited by me, see Müller’s Rīg-veda, Vol. IV., Varietas Lectoris, pp. 5, et seq."
heavenly quiristers sang, and Ghrītāchī and other celestial nymphs danced before her. Gangā and other holy streams attended for her ablutions; and the elephants of the skies, taking up their pure waters in vases of gold, poured them over the goddess, the queen of the universal world. The sea of milk, in person, presented her with a wreath of never-fading flowers; and the artist of the gods (Viśwakarman) decorated her person with heavenly ornaments. Thus bathed, attired, and adorned, the goddess, in the view of the celestials, cast herself upon the breast of Hari, and, there reclining, turned her eyes upon the deities, who were inspired with rapture by her gaze. Not so the Daityas, who, with Viprachitti at their head, were filled with indignation, as Viśnū turned away from them: and they were abandoned by the goddess of prosperity (Lakṣmī).

The powerful and indignant Daityas then forcibly seized the Amṛta-cup, that was in the hand of Dhanwantari. But Viśnū, assuming a female form, fascinated and deluded them, and, recovering the Amṛta from them, delivered it to the gods. Śakra and the other deities quaffed the ambrosia. The incensed demons, grasping their weapons, fell upon them. But the gods, into whom the ambrosial draught had infused new vigour, defeated and put their host to flight; and they fled through the regions of space, and plunged into the subterranean realms of Pātāla. The gods thereat greatly rejoiced, did homage to the holder of the discus and mace, and resumed their reign in heaven. The sun shone with renovated splendour, and again discharged his appointed task; and the celestial luminaries
again circled, O best of Munis, in their respective orbits. Fire once more blazed aloft, beautiful in splendour; and the minds of all beings were animated by devotion. The three worlds again were rendered happy by prosperity; and Indra, the chief of the gods, was restored to power.¹ Seated upon his throne, and once more in

¹ The churning of the ocean does not occur in several of the Puráñas, and is but cursorily alluded to in the Śiva, Linga, and Kúrma Puráñas. The Váyu and Padma have much the same narrative as that of our text; and so have the Agni and Bhágavata, except that they refer only briefly to the anger of Durvásas, without narrating the circumstances; indicating their being posterior, therefore, to the original tale. The part, however, assigned to Durvásas appears to be an embellishment added to the original; for no mention of him occurs in the Matsya Puráña or even in the Hari Vañśa. Neither does it occur in what may be considered the oldest extant versions of the story, those of the Rámáyaña and Mahábhárata. Both these ascribe the occurrence to the desire of the gods and Daityas to become immortal. The Matsya assigns a similar motive to the gods, instigated by observing that the Daityas slain by them in battle were restored to life, by Śukra, with the Sanjívini or herb of immortality, which he had discovered. The account in the Hari Vañśa is brief and obscure, and is explained, by the commentator, as an allegory, in which the churning of the ocean typifies ascetic penance, and the ambrosia is final liberation. But this is mere mystification. The legend of the Rámáyaña is translated, Vol. I., p. 410, of the Serampore edition, and that of the Mahábhárata, by Sir C. Wilkins, in the notes to his translation of the Bhagavad Gíta. See, also, the original text, Calcutta edition, p. 40. It has been presented to general readers, in a more attractive form, by my friend, H. M. Parker, in his Draught of Immortality, printed, with other poems, London, 1827. The Matsya Puráña has many of the stanzas of the Mahábhárata interspersed with others. There is some variety in the order and number of articles produced from
heaven, exercising sovereignty over the gods, Śakra thus eulogized the goddess who bears a lotos in her hand:

the ocean. As I have observed elsewhere (Hindu Theatre, Vol. I., p. 59, London edition), the popular enumeration is fourteen. But the Rāmāyaṇa specifies but nine; the Mahābhārata, nine; the Bhāgavata, ten; the Padma, nine; the Vāyu, twelve: the Matsya, perhaps, gives the whole number. Those in which most agree are: 1. the Hālahāla or Kālakūṭa poison, swallowed by Śiva; 2. Vāruṇī or Surā, the goddess of wine, who being taken by the gods, and rejected by the Daityas, the former were termed Suras, and the latter, Asuras; 3. the horse Uchchaliśravas, taken by Indra; 4. Kaustubha, the jewel worn by Vishnū; 5. the moon; 6. Dhanwantari, with the Amṛita in his Kamaṇḍalu or vase; and these two articles are, in the Vāyu, considered as distinct products; 7. the goddess Padmā or Śrī; 8. the Apsarasas or nymphs of heaven; 9. Surabhi or the cow of plenty; 10. the Pārijāta tree or tree of heaven; 11. Aṅrāvata, the elephant taken by Indra. The Matsya adds: 12. the umbrella taken by Varuṇa; 13. the ear-rings taken by Indra, and given to Aditi; and, apparently, another horse, the white horse of the sun. Or the number may be completed by counting the Amṛita separately from Dhanwantari. The number is made up, in the popular lists, by adding the bow and the conch of Vishnū. But there does not seem to be any good authority for this; and the addition is a sectarian one. So is that of the Tulasī tree, a plant sacred to Kṛishnā, which is one of the twelve specified by the Vāyu Purāṇa. The Uttara Khaṇḍa of the Padma Purāṇa has a peculiar enumeration, or: Poison; Jyeshṭhā or Alakshmi, the goddess of misfortune, the elder born to fortune; the goddess of wine; Nidrā or sloth; the Apsarasas; the elephant of Indra; Lakshmi; the moon; and the Tulasī plant. The reference to Mohini, the female form assumed by Vishnū, is very brief in our text; and no notice is taken of the story told in the Mahābhārata and some of the Purāṇas, of the Daitya Rāhu’s insinuating himself amongst
"I bow down to Śrī, the mother of all beings, seated on her lotus-throne, with eyes like full-blown lotoses, reclining on the breast of Vishṇu. Thou art Siddhi (superhuman power); thou art Swadhā and Swāhā; thou art ambrosia (Sudhā), the purifier of the universe; thou art evening, night, and dawn; thou art power, intellect, faith;* thou art the goddess of letters (Saraswati). Thou, beautiful goddess, art knowledge of devotion, great knowledge, mystic knowledge, and spiritual knowledge,¹ which confers eternal liberation. Thou art the science of reasoning,† the three Vedas, the arts and sciences;² thou art moral and political

the gods, and obtaining a portion of the Amṛta. Being beheaded, for this, by Vishṇu, the head became immortal, in consequence of the Amṛta having reached the throat, and was transferred, as a constellation, to the skies: and, as the sun and moon detected his presence amongst the gods, Rāhu pursues them, with implacable hatred, and his efforts to seize them are the causes of eclipses; Rāhu typifying the ascending and descending nodes. This seems to be the simplest and oldest form of the legend. The equal immortality of the body, under the name Ketu, and his being the cause of meteorical phenomena, seems to have been an afterthought. In the Padma and Bhāgavata, Rāhu and Ketu are the sons of Śiśukū, the wife of the Dānava Viprachitti.

¹ The four Vidyās or branches of knowledge are said to be: Yajna-vidyā, knowledge or performance of religious rites; Mahā-vidyā, great knowledge, the worship of the female principle, or Tāntrika worship; Guhya-vidyā, knowledge of mantras, mystical prayers, and incantations; and Ātma-vidyā, knowledge of soul, true wisdom.

² Or Vārṭtā, explained to mean the Śilpa-śāstra, mechanics, sculpture, and architecture; Āyur-veda, medicine; &c.

*Bhūti, madhā, and śraddhā.
† Avākṣhiki.
science.† The world is peopled, by thee, with pleasing or displeasing forms. Who else than thou, O goddess, is seated on that person of the god of gods, the wielder of the mace, which is made up of sacrifice, and contemplated by holy ascetics? Abandoned by thee, the three worlds were on the brink of ruin: but they have been reanimated by thee. From thy propitious gaze, O mighty goddess, men obtain wives, children, dwellings, friends, harvests, wealth. Health and strength, power, victory, happiness are easy of attainment to those upon whom thou smilest. Thou art the mother of all beings; as the god of gods, Hari, is their father: and this world, whether animate or inanimate, is pervaded by thee and Vishńu. O thou who purifiest all things, forsake not our treasures, our granaries, our dwellings, our dependants, our persons, our wives. Abandon not our children, our friends, our lineage, our jewels, O thou who abidest on the bosom of the god of gods. They whom thou desertest are forsaken by truth, by purity, and goodness, by every amiable and excellent quality; whilst the base and worthless upon whom thou lookest favourably become immediately endowed with all excellent qualifications, with families, and with power. He on whom thy countenance is turned is honourable, amiable, prosperous, wise, and of exalted birth, a hero of irresistible prowess. But all his merits and his advantages are converted into worthlessness, from whom, beloved of Vishńu, mother of the world, thou avertest thy face. The tongues of T'rahmá are unequal to celebrate thy excellence. Be

† Davidánti.
propitious to me, O goddess, lotos-eyed; and never forsake me more."

Being thus praised, the gratified Śrī, abiding in all creatures, and heard by all beings, replied to the god of a hundred rites (Śatakratu): "I am pleased, monarch of the gods, by thine adoration. Demand from me what thou desirest. I have come to fulfil thy wishes."

"If, goddess", replied Indra, "thou wilt grant my prayers; if I am worthy of thy bounty; be this my first request,—that the three worlds may never again be deprived of thy presence. My second supplication, daughter of Ocean, is, that thou wilt not forsake him who shall celebrate thy praises in the words I have addressed to thee." "I will not abandon", the goddess answered, "the three worlds again. This thy first boon is granted: for I am gratified by thy praises. And, further, I will never turn my face away from that mortal who, morning and evening, shall repeat the hymn with which thou hast addressed me."

Parásara proceeded.—Thus, Maitreya, in former times the goddess Śrī conferred these boons upon the king of the gods, being pleased by his adorations. But her first birth was the daughter of Bṛigu by Khyāti. It was at a subsequent period that she was produced from the sea, at the churning of the ocean, by the demons and the gods, to obtain ambrosia.¹ For, in

¹ The cause of this, however, is left unexplained. The Padma Purāṇa inserts a legend to account for the temporary separation of Lakshmī from Vishṇu, which appears to be peculiar to that work. Bṛigu was lord of Lakshmīpura, a city on the Narmadā, given him by Brahmā. His daughter Lakshmī instigated her husband to request its being conceded to her, which offending
like manner as the lord of the world, the god of gods, Janárdana, descends amongst mankind (in various shapes), so does his coadjutrix Śrí. Thus, when Hari was born as a dwarf, the son of Aditi, Lakshmi appeared from a lotos (as Padmá or Kamalá). When he was born as Ráma, of the race of Bhrigú (or Paraśuráma), she was Dharañí. When he was Rághava (Rámachandra), she was Sítá. And, when he was Kríshña, she became Rukmiñí. In the other descents of Vishńu, she is his associate. If he takes a celestial form, she appears as divine; if a mortal, she becomes a mortal, too; transforming her own person agreeably to whatever character it pleases Vishńu to put on. Whosoever hears this account of the birth of Lakshmi, whosoever reads it, shall never lose the goddess Fortune from his dwelling, for three generations; and misfortune, the fountain of strife, shall never enter into those houses in which the hymns to Śrí are repeated.

Thus, Brahman, have I narrated to thee, in answer to thy question, how Lakshmi, formerly the daughter of Bhrigú, sprang from the sea of milk. And misfortune shall never visit those amongst mankind who daily recite the praises of Lakshmi, uttered by Indra, which are the origin and cause of all prosperity.

Bhrigú, he cursed Vishńu to be born upon earth ten times, to be separated from his wife, and to have no children. The legend is an insipid modern embellishment.
CHAPTER X.

The descendants of the daughters of Daksha married to the Rishis.

Maitreya.—Thou hast narrated to me, great Muni, all that I asked of thee. Now resume the account of the creation subsequently to Bhṛigu.

Parāśara.—Lakshmi, the bride of Vishúu, was the daughter of Bhṛigu by Khyáti. They had also two sons, Dhátrí and Vidhátrí, who married the two daughters of the illustrious Meru, Áyati and Niyati, and had, by them, each, a son, named Práña and Mṛikañḍa.* The son of the latter was Márkañḍeya, from whom Vedaśiras was born.† The son of Práña was named Dyuti-

1 The commentator interprets the text ततो वेदशिरा जने to refer to Práña: भाषक्ष वेदशिरा जने। 'Vedaśiras was born the son of Práña.' So the Bhágavata† has:

मार्कन्दयो नृक्षक्ष्य मार्काविद्धिरा गुनः।
The Linga, the Váyu, and Márkañḍeya, however, confirm our reading of the text; making Vedaśiras the son of Márkañḍeya. Práña, or, as read in the two former, Páńḍu, was married to Puńḍariká, and had, by her, Dyutímat, whose sons were Sríjavaña and Ásruta or Ásrutavráña. Mṛikañḍa (also read Mṛikañḍu) married Manaswiní, and had Márkañḍeya, whose son, by Múrdhanyá, was Vedaśiras. He married Pívári, and had many children, who constituted the family or Brahmanical tribe of the Bhárgavas, sons of Bhṛigu. The most celebrated of these was Uśanas, the preceptor of the Daityas, who, according to the Bhágavata, was the son of Vedaśiras. But the Váyu makes him the son of Bhṛigu by Paulomi, and born at a different period.

* All the MSS. seen by me have Mṛikañḍu.
† IV., 1, 45.
mat; and his son was Rājavat; after whom the race of Bhṛigu became infinitely multiplied.

Sāmbhūti, the wife of Marīchi, gave birth to Paurṇamāsa, whose sons were Virajas and Sarvaga. I shall hereafter notice his other descendants, when I give a more particular account of the race of Marīchi.¹

The wife of Angiras, Śmṛiti, bore daughters named Sinīváli, Kuhú, Ráká, and Anumati (phases of the moon).² Anasúyá, the wife of Atri, was the mother

¹ Alluding especially to Kasyapa, the son of Marīchi, of whose posterity a full detail is subsequently given. The Bhāgavata adds a daughter, Devakulyá; and the Vāyu and Linga, four daughters, Tushí, Pushí, Twishá, and Apachiti. The latter inserts the grandsons of Paurṇamāsa. Virajas, married to Gaurí, has Su dháman, a Lokapála, or ruler of the east quarter; and Parvasa (quasi Sarvaga) has, by Parvasá, Yajnaváma and Kaśyata,* who were, both, founders of Gotras or families.† The names of all these occur in different forms;² in different MSS.

² The Bhāgavata adds, that, in the Śvārochisha Manwantara,.

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* Professor Wilson had “Parvasi”. Instead of his “Kaśyata”, I find, in MSS., Káyapa: and there is a gotra named after the latter. And see my next note.

† The words of the Váyu-purāṇa, in the MSS. within my reach, are:

पर्वेत्: सवर्गशालाम प्रविष्ट: स महायशा:।
पर्वेत्: पर्वशाता तु जन्मात्मा वेच सुती॥
वद्यवामेऽन च धीमनं सूतं काष्ठपमेव च।
तयोर्नव्यक्तिः पुत्री तौ जाती धर्मनिनिभिः॥

The first line of this quotation is, in some MSS. that I have seen, पर्वेत्: सवर्गशालामचियो: &c.; and one MS. has, instead of प्रविष्ट:, प्रविष्ट: All those MSS. have स महायशा:; or स महायशाः. But, without conjectural mending, the line in question yields no sense. Professor Wilson’s “quasi Sarvaga” seems to imply that the MS., or MSS., which he followed had some such lection as सर्वम् रकः.

‡ These names and forms of names—and so throughout the notes to this work—are very numerous; and a fully satisfactory account of them, in the absence of critical editions of the Purāṇas, is impracticable.
of three sinless sons: Soma (the moon), Durvásas, and the ascetic* Dattátreya.¹ Pulastya had, by Priti, a son, called, in a former birth, or in the Swáyanbhuv Manwantara, Dattoli,† who is now known as the sage Agastya.² Kshamá, the wife of the patriarch Pulaha, was the mother of three sons: Karmaśa,‡ Arvarívat,§

the sages Utathya and Bríhaspati were also sons of Angiras; and the Váyu, &c. specify Agní and Kírttimat as the sons of the patriarch, in the first Manwantara. Agní, married to Sadvati, has Parjanya, married to Márichi; and their son is Hírañyaróman, a Lokapála. Kírttimat has, by Dhenuká, two sons, Charishńu and Dhírítimati.

¹ The Bhágavata gives an account of Atri’s penance, by which the three gods, Brahmá, Vishńu, and Śiva, were propitiated, and became, in portions of themselves, severally his sons, Soma, Datta, and Durvásas. The Váyu has a totally different series, or five sons: Satyanetra, Havya, Ápomúrti, Śani, and Soma; and one daughter, Śruti, who became the wife of Kardama.

² The text would seem to imply that he was called Agastya in a former Manwantara: but the commentator explains it as above.|| The Bhágavata calls the wife of Pulastya, Havirbhú, whose sons were the Muni Agastya, called, in a former birth, Dahrágni (or Jatharágni) and Viśravas. The latter had, by Idavidá, the deity of wealth, Kubera, and, by Keśini, the Rákshasas Rávaña, Kumbhakarúa, and Vibhishaña. The Váyu

* Yogín.
† Variants of this name are Dattáli, Dattotí, Dottotri, Dottobhri, Dambobhí, and Dambboli.
‡ Kardama seems to be a more common reading than "Karmaśa".
§ Also written Avarívat, and Arvariyat.
|| The text is as follows:

And the commentator observes: तत्सु: पुष्करेष्वुषु: पुर्वेष्वरणि स्त्रायंत्वमविश्वरी द्विती: स द्वाणीभगस्व: खृष्ट द्वाणव:।
and Sahishñu.¹ The wife of Kratu, Sañmati, brought forth the sixty thousand Válikhilyas, pigmy sages, * no bigger than a joint of the thumb, chaste, pious, resplendent as the rays of the sun.² Vasishtha had seven sons, by his wife Uṛjā: Rajas, Gátra, Ûrdhwa-báhu, Savana, † Anagha, Sutapas, and Śukra, the seven pure sages.³ The Agni named Abhímáni, who is the eldest

specifies three sons of Pulastya,—Dattoli, Vedabáhu, † and Viníta, and one daughter, Sadwati, married (see p. 153, note 2) to Agni.

¹ The Bhágavata reads Karmaśreshtha, Varíyas, and Sahishñu. The Váyu and Linga have Kardama and Ambarisha, in place of the two first, and add Vanakapívat and a daughter, Pivari, married to Vedásirás (see p. 152, note). Kardama married Śruti (p. 154, note 2), and had, by her, Śankhapáda, one of the Lokapálas, and a daughter, Kánya, married to Priyavráta (p. 108, note 1). Vanakapívat (also read Dhanakapívat and Ghanakapívat) had a son, Sahishñu, married to Yásodhará; and they were the parents of Kámadeva.

² The different authorities agree in this place. The Váyu adds two daughters, Punyá and Sumati, married to Yajnaváma (see p. 153, note 1).

³ The Bhágavata has an entirely different set of names, or: Chitraketu, Surochis, Virajas, Mitra, Ulaña, Vasubhrídyaña, and Dyumat. It also specifies Śaktri and others, as the issue of a different marriage. The Váyu and Linga have the same sons as in our text; reading Putra and Hasta, in place of Gátra. They add a daughter, Puñdariká, married to Páñdu (see p. 152, note). The eldest son, according to the Váyu, espoused a daughter of Márkañḍéya, and had, by her, the Lokapála of the west, Ketumána. The seven sons of Vasishtha are termed, in the text, the seven Rishis; appearing, in that character, in the third Manwantara.

* Yati.
† Vasana is another reading.
‡ I find Devabáhu in one MS. of the Váyu-puráña.
born of Brahmá, had, by Swáhá, three sons of surpassing brilliancy: Pávaka, Pavamána, and Śuchi, who drinks up water. They had forty-five sons, who, with the original son of Brahmá, and his three descendants, constitute the forty-nine fires. The progenitors (Pitris), who, as I have mentioned, were created by Brahmá, were the Agnishwáttas and Barishhads; the former being devoid of, and the latter possessed of, fires. By

1 The eldest son of Brahmá, according to the commentator, upon the authority of the Vedas: त्रिसुख्कस्यानयोऽधिनी मुखादिपिरणाय-तत्ततिः:। The Váyu Puráña enters into a very long detail of the names and places of the whole forty-nine fires. According to that, also, Pávaka is electric or Váidyuta fire; Pavamána is that produced by friction, or Nirmathya; and Śuchi is solar (Saura) fire. Pavamána was the parent of Kavyaváhana, the fire of the Pitris; Śuchi, of Havyaváhana, the fire of the gods; and Pavamána, of Saharakshá, the fire of the Asuras. The Bhágavata explains these different fires to be so many appellations of fire employed in the invocations with which different oblations to fire are offered in the ritual of the Vedas:

वैतनिषे कर्मवि यज्ञामिभ्रांश्रवादिमि:।
आपेक्षा द्रष्यो वश्च निश्वथनीः प्रयोगुः।॥

explained, by the commentator; वैतनिषे कर्मवि यज्ञामिभ्रांश्रवादिमि:।

2 According to the commentator, this distinction is derived from the Vedas. The first class, or Agnishwáttas, consists of those householders who, when alive, did not maintain their domestic fires, nor offer burnt-sacrifices; the second, of those who kept up the household flame, and presented oblations with fire. Manu calls these Agnidagdhas and the reverse, which Sir William Jones renders ‘consumable by fire’, &c. Kullúka Bháța gives no explanation of them. The Bhágavata adds other classes of

*Bhágavata-puráña, IV., 1, 61.  
† III., 199.
them Swadhá had two daughters, Mená and Dhárińi, who were, both, acquainted with theological truth, and both addicted to religious meditation, both accomplished in perfect wisdom, and adorned with all estimable qualities.¹ Thus has been explained the progeny of the daughters of Daksha.² He who, with faith, recapitulates the account shall never want offspring.

Pitís; or, the Ájyapas, ‘drinkers of ghee’, and Somapas, ‘drinkers of the acid juice.’¹ The commentator, explaining the meaning of the terms Ságni and Anagni, has: वेषास्मादि कारणमस्ति ते साप्यः। त्रूट्यितिस्वनयः। which might be understood to signify that the Pitís who are ‘without fire’ are those to whom oblations are not offered, and those ‘with fire’ are they to whom oblations are presented.

¹ The Váyu carries this genealogy forward. Dhárińi was married to Meru, and had, by him, Mandara and three daughters, Niyati, Áyati, and Velá. The two first were married to Dhátrí and Vidhátrí (p. 152). Velá was the wife of Samudra, by whom she had Sámudrí, married to Práchinabarhis, and the mother of the ten Prachetasas, the fathers of Daksha, as subsequently narrated. Mená was married to Himavat, and was the mother of Maináka, and of Gangá, and of Párvatí or Umá.

² No notice is here taken of Satí, married to Bhava, as is intimated in c. 8 (pp. 117, 118), when describing the Rudras. Of these genealogies the fullest and, apparently, the oldest account is given in the Váyu Puráña. As far as that of our text extends, the two nearly agree; allowing for differences of appellation, originating in inaccurate transcription; the names frequently varying in different copies of the same work, leaving it doubtful which reading should be preferred. The Bhágavata, as observed above (p. 109 note 3), has created some further perplexity by substituting, as the wives of the patriarchs, the daughters of Kardama, for those of Daksha. Of the general statement it may be observed, that, although, in some respects, allegorical, as in the names of the wives of the Rishis (p. 109), and, in others, astronomical, as
in the denominations of the daughters of Angiras (p. 158), yet it seems probable that it is not altogether fabulous, but that the persons, in some instances, had a real existence; the genealogies originating in imperfectly preserved traditions of the families of the first teachers of the Hindu religion, and of the descent of individuals who took an active share in its propagation.
CHAPTER XI.

Legend of Dhruva, the son of Uttanapāda: he is unkindly treated by his father's second wife: applies to his mother: her advice: he resolves to engage in religious exercises: sees the seven Rishis, who recommend him to propitiate Vishnu.

Parāśara continued.—I mentioned to you that the Manu Swāyaṁbhuva had two heroic and pious sons, Priyavrata and Uttanapāda. Of these two the latter had a son, whom he dearly loved, Uttama, by his favourite wife, Suruchi. By his queen, named Suniti, to whom he was less attached, he also had a son, called Dhruva.¹ Observing his brother Uttama on the lap of his father, as he was seated upon his throne, Dhruva was desirous of ascending to the same place; but, as Suruchi was present, the Raja did not gratify the desire of his son, respectfully wishing to be taken on his father's knee. Beholding the child of her rival thus anxious to be placed on his father's lap, and her own son already seated there, Suruchi thus addressed the boy: "Why, child, do you vainly indulge in such presumptuous hopes? You are born from a different mother, and are no son of mine, that you should aspire inconsiderately to a station fit for the excellent Uttama alone. It is true you are the son of the Raja: but I

¹ The Matsya, Brahma, and Vāyu Purāṇas speak of but one wife of Uttanapāda, and call her Sūṇītā. They say, also, that she had four sons: Apaspati (or Vasu), Áyushman, Kīrttimat, and Dhruva. The Bhāgavata, Padma, and Nārādiya have the same account as that of the text.
have not given you birth. This regal throne, the seat of the king of kings, is suited to my son only. Why should you aspire to its occupation? Why idly cherish such lofty ambition, as if you were my son? Do you forget that you are but the offspring of Sunfri?"

The boy, having heard the speech of his step-mother, quitted his father, and repaired, in a passion, to the apartment of his own mother; who, beholding him vexed, took him upon her lap, and, gently smiling, asked him what was the cause of his anger, who had displeased him, and if any one, forgetting the respect due to his father, had behaved ill to him. Dhruva, in reply, repeated to her all that the arrogant Suruchi had said to him, in the presence of the king. Deeply distressed by the narrative of the boy, the humble Sunfri, her eyes dimmed with tears, sighed, and said: "Suruchi has rightly spoken. Thine, child, is an unhappy fate. Those who are born to fortune are not liable to the insults of their rivals. Yet be not afflicted, my child. For who shall efface what thou hast formerly done, or shall assign to thee what thou hast left undone? The regal throne, the umbrella of royalty, horses, and elephants are his whose virtues have deserved them. Remember this, my son, and be consoled. That the king favours Suruchi is the reward of her merits in a former existence. The name of wife alone belongs to such as I, who have not equal merit. Her son is the progeny of accumulated piety, and is born as Uttama. Mine has been born as Dhruva, of inferior moral worth. Therefore, my son, it is not proper for you to grieve. A wise man will be contented with that degree which appertains to him. But, if you continue to feel hurt
at the words of Suruchi, endeavour to augment that religious merit which bestows all good. Be amiable; be pious; be friendly; be assiduous in benevolence to all living creatures. For prosperity descends upon modest worth, as water flows towards low ground.”

Dhruva answered: “Mother, the words that you have addressed to me, for my consolation, find no place in a heart that contumely has broken. I will exert myself to obtain such elevated rank, that it shall be revered by the whole world. Though I be not born of Suruchi, the beloved of the king, you shall behold my glory, who am your son. Let Uttama, my brother, her child, possess the throne given to him by my father. I wish for no other honours than such as my own actions shall acquire, such as even my father has not enjoyed.”

Having thus spoken, Dhruva went forth from his mother’s dwelling. He quitted the city, and entered an adjoining thicket, where he beheld seven Munis, sitting upon hides of the black antelope, which they had taken from off their persons, and spread over the holy Kuśa grass. Saluting them reverentially, and bowing humbly before them, the prince said: “Behold, in me, venerable men, the son of Uttánapáda, born of Suníti. Dissatisfied with the world, I appear before you.” The Rishis replied: “The son of a king, and but four or five years of age, there can be no reason, child, why you should be dissatisfied with life. You cannot be in want of anything, whilst the king, your father, reigns. We cannot imagine that you suffer the pain of separation from the object of your affections;
nor do we observe, in your person, any sign of disease.
What is the cause of your discontent? Tell us, if it is known to yourself."

Dhruva then repeated to the Rishis what Suruchi had spoken to him; and, when they had heard his story, they said to one another: "How surprising is the vehemence of the Kshatriya nature, that resentment is cherished even by a child, and he cannot efface from his mind the harsh speeches of a step-mother! Son of a Kshatriya, tell us, if it be agreeable to thee, what thou hast proposed, through dissatisfaction with the world, to accomplish. If thou wishest our aid in what thou hast to do, declare it freely: for we perceive that thou art desirous to speak."

Dhruva said: "Excellent sages, I wish not for riches; neither do I want dominion. I aspire to such a station as no one before me has attained. Tell me what I must do, to effect this object; how I may reach an elevation superior to all other dignities." (The Rishis severally thus replied.) Maríchi said: "The best of stations is not within the reach of men who fail to propitiate Govinda. Do thou, prince, worship the undecaying (Achyuta)." Atri said: "He with whom the first of spirits, Janárdana, is pleased, obtains imperishable dignity. I declare unto you the truth." Angiras said: "If you desire an exalted station, worship that Govinda in whom, immutable and undecaying, all that is exists." Pulastya said: "He who adores the divine Hari, the supreme soul, supreme glory, who is the supreme Brahma, obtains what is difficult of attainment, eternal liberation." "When that Janárdana", observed Kratu, "who, in sacrifices, is the soul of sacrifice, and who, in
abstract contemplation, is supreme spirit,* is pleased, there is nothing man may not acquire.” Pulaha said: “Indra, having worshipped the lord of the world, obtained the dignity of king of the celestials. Do thou adore, pious youth, that Vishńu, the lord of sacrifice.” “Anything, child, that the mind covets”, exclaimed Vasishtha, “may be obtained by propitiating Vishńu,—even though it be the station that is the most excellent in the three worlds.”

Dhruva replied to them: “You have told me, humbly bending before you, what deity is to be propitiated. Now inform me what prayer is to be meditated by me, that will offer him gratification. May the great Rishis, looking upon me with favour, instruct me how I am to propitiate the god.” The Rishis answered: “Prince, thou deservest to hear how the adoration of Vishńu has been performed by those who have been devoted to his service. The mind must first be made to forsake all external impressions; and a man must then fix it steadily on that being in whom the world is. By him whose thoughts are thus concentrated on one only object, and wholly filled by it; whose spirit is firmly under control; the prayer that we shall repeat to thee is to be inaudibly recited: ‘Om! Glory to Vásudeva, whose essence is divine wisdom; whose form is in-

* कथुवाच !
यो यज्ञपुश्यो यदै योगि य: परम: पुमानः।
तस्मान्सुदे तु नामायम् किंविदु:सि जगाद्धे

The commentator says: यदै यज्ञप्रतिपार्द्धेशाश्। योगि योगशाश्।

यहा: जेयो च: गीतं एववेधः।

The meaning is, then: “who, in the śāstra of sacrifice, is called the soul of the sacrifice, and, in the Yoga śāstra, the supreme spirit.”
scrumble, or is manifest as Brahmat, Vishnu, and Siva!" This prayer, which was formerly uttered by your grandsire, the Manu Swayambhuva, and propitiated by which, Vishnu conferred upon him the prosperity he desired, and which was unequalled in the three worlds, is to be recited by thee. Do thou constantly repeat this prayer, for the gratification of Govinda."

* The instructions of the Rishis amount to the performance of the Yoga. External impressions are, first, to be obviated by particular positions, modes of breathing, &c. The mind must then be fixed on the object of meditation: this is Dhārāna. Next comes the meditation or Dhyāna; and then the Japa or inaudible repetition of a Mantra or short prayer: as in the text. The subject of the Yoga is more fully detailed in a subsequent book.

* हिरण्यगर्भप्रद्धानायत्तद्यपि ।
नमः बासुदेवाय गुहिमानस्वाभिषेके ॥
एतजनाप भगवानाय स्वाभिषेकाय मम। ॥
पितामहः स्वरुप तथा तद्रस जनार्दने ॥
द्विद्व वधार्कशिष्यतुमयि । वैवेद्यबुद्धिमास्य ।
तथा तः नमः गौमिनि ते स्वाधिष्ठातसदा जयस् ॥

"Om! Glory to Vāsudeva, who has the form of Hiranyagarbha, and of soul, and of pradhāna when not yet evolved, and who possesses the nature of pure intelligence!" Manu, the holy son of the Self-existent Brahmat, muttered this prayer. Janardana, thy grandsire, of yore, propitiated, bestowed on him wealth to his wish, such as is hard to be acquired in the three worlds. Therefore, daily muttering this prayer, do thou, too, propitiate Govinda."

For Hiranyagarbha and pradhāna, see pp. 13, 20, 39, and 40, supra.
CHAPTER XII.

Dhruva commences a course of religious austerities. Unsuccessful attempts of Indra and his ministers to distract Dhruva’s attention: they appeal to Vishńú, who allays their fears, and appears to Dhruva. Dhruva praises Vishńú, and is raised to the skies, as the pole-star.

The prince, having received these instructions, respectfully saluted the sages, and departed from the forest, fully confiding in the accomplishment of his purposes. He repaired to the holy place, on the banks of the Yamuná, called Madhu or Madhuvana, (the grove of Madhu), after the demon of that name, who formerly abided there. Śatrughna (the younger brother of Ráma) having slain the Rákshasa Lavaia, the son of Madhu, founded a city on the spot, which was named Mathurá. At this holy shrine—the purifier from all sin, which enjoyed the presence of the sanctifying god of gods—Dhruva performed penance, as enjoined by Maríchi and the sages. He contemplated Vishńú, the sovereign of all the gods, seated in himself. Whilst his mind was wholly absorbed in meditation, the mighty Hari, identical with all beings and with all natures, (took possession of his heart). Vishńú being thus present in his mind, the earth, the supporter of elemental life, could not sustain the weight of the ascetic. As he stood upon his left foot, one hemisphere bent beneath him; and, when he stood upon his right, the other half of the earth sank down. When he touched the earth with his toes, it shook, with all its mountains; and the
rivers and the seas were troubled; and the gods partook of the universal agitation.

The celestials called Yámas, being excessively alarmed, then took counsel with Indra, how they should interrupt the devout exercises of Dhruva; and the divine beings termed Kushmánás, in company with their king, commenced anxious efforts to distract his meditations. One, assuming the semblance of his mother, Suníti, stood weeping before him, and calling in tender accents: “My son, my son, desist from destroying thy strength by this fearful penance. I have gained thee, my son, after much anxious hope. Thou canst not have the cruelty to quit me, helpless, alone, and unprotected, on account of the unkindness of my rival. Thou art my only refuge. I have no hope but thou. What hast thou, a child but five years old, to do with rigorous penance? Desist from such fearful practices, that yield no beneficial fruit. First comes the season of youthful pastime; and, when that is over, it is the time for study. Then succeeds the period of worldly enjoyment; and, lastly, that of austere devotion. This is thy season of pastime, my child. Hast thou engaged in these practices to put an end to thine existence? Thy chief duty is love for me. Duties are according to time of life. Lose not thyself in bewildering error. Desist from such unrighteous actions. If not, if thou wilt not desist from these austerities, I will terminate my life before thee.”

But Dhruva, being wholly intent on seeing Vishńu, beheld not his mother weeping in his presence, and calling upon him; and the illusion, crying out, “Fly, fly, my child: the hideous spirits of ill are crowding
into this dreadful forest, with uplifted weapons", quickly disappeared. Then advanced frightful Rakshasas, wielding terrible arms, and with countenances emitting fiery flame; and nocturnal fiends thronged around the prince, uttering fearful noises, and whirling and tossing their threatening weapons. Hundreds of jackals, from whose mouths gushed flame,1 as they devoured their prey, were howling aloud, to appal the boy, wholly engrossed by meditation. The goblins called out: "Kill him, kill him; cut him to pieces; eat him, eat him."

And monsters, with the faces of lions and camels and crocodiles, roared and yelled, with horrible cries, to terrify the prince. But all these uncouth spectres, appalling cries, and threatening weapons made no impression upon his senses, whose mind was completely intent on Govinda. The son of the monarch of the earth, engrossed by one only idea, beheld, uninterrupted, Vishnu seated in his soul, and saw no other object.

All their delusive stratagems being thus foiled, the gods were more perplexed than ever. Alarmed at their discomfiture, and afflicted by the devotions of the boy, they assembled, and repaired, for succour, to Hari, the origin of the world, who is without beginning or end, and thus addressed him: "God of gods, sovereign of the world, god supreme, and infinite spirit,*

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1 A marginal note, by a Bengali Pandit, asserts it to be a fact, that, when a jackal carries a piece of meat in his mouth, it shows, in the dark, as if it was on fire.

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* Purushottama, in the original. See my third note in p. 16, supra,
distressed by the austerities of Dhruva, we have come to thee for protection. As the moon increases in his orb day by day, so this youth advances incessantly towards superhuman power, by his devotions. Terrified by the ascetic practices of the son of Uttánapáda, we have come to thee for succour. Do thou allay the fervour of his meditations. We know not to what station he aspires—to the throne of Indra, the regency of the solar or lunar sphere, or to the sovereignty of riches or of the deep. Have compassion on us, lord: remove this affliction from our breasts. Divert the son of Uttánapáda from persevering in his penance.” Vishňu replied to the gods: “The lad desireth neither the rank of Indra, nor the solar orb, nor the sovereignty of wealth or of the ocean. All that he solicits I will grant. Return, therefore, deities, to your mansions, as ye list; and, be no more alarmed. I will put an end to the penance of the boy, whose mind is immersed in deep contemplation.”

The gods, being thus pacified by the supreme, saluted him respectfully, and retired, and, preceded by Indra, returned to their habitations. But Hari, who is all things, assuming a shape with four arms, proceeded to Dhruva, being pleased with his identity of nature, and thus addressed him: “Son of Uttánapáda, be prosperous. Contented with thy devotions, I, the giver of boons, am present. Demand what boon thou desirest. In that thou hast wholly disregarded external objects, and fixed thy thoughts on me, I am well pleased with thee. Ask, therefore, a suitable reward.” The boy, hearing these words of the god of gods, opened his eyes, and, beholding that Hari, whom he had before
seen in his meditations, actually in his presence, bearing, in his hands, the shell, the discus, the mace, the bow, and scimitar, and crowned with a diadem, he bowed his head down to earth: the hair stood erect on his brow, and his heart was depressed with awe. He reflected how best he should offer thanks to the god of gods, what he could say in his adoration, what words were capable of expressing his praise; and, being overwhelmed with perplexity, he had recourse, for consolation, to the deity. "If", he exclaimed, "the lord is contented with my devotions, let this be my reward,—that I may know how to praise him as I wish. How can I, a child, pronounce his praises, whose abode is unknown to Brahmá and to others learned in the Vedas? My heart is overflowing with devotion to thee. O lord, grant me the faculty worthily to lay mine adorations at thy feet."

Whilst lowly bowing, with his hands uplifted to his forehead, Govinda, the lord of the world, touched the son of Uttánapáda with the tip of his conch-shell. And immediately the royal youth, with a countenance sparkling with delight, praised respectfully the imperishable protector of living beings. "I venerate", exclaimed Dhruva, "him whose forms are earth, water, fire, air, ether, mind, intellect, the first element* (Ahamkára), primeval nature, and the pure, subtile, all-pervading soul, that surpasses nature.† Salutation to that spirit that is void of qualities; that is supreme over all the elements and all the objects of sense, over intellect,

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* Bhūtādī. See my first note in p. 33, supra.
† Here, and in the next sentence, "nature" is for pradhána. See my first note in p. 20, supra.
over nature and spirit. I have taken refuge with that pure form of thine, O supreme, which is one with Brahma, which is spirit, which transcends all the world. Salutation to that form which, pervading and supporting all, is designated Brahma, unchangeable, and contemplated by religious sages. Thou art the male with a thousand heads, a thousand eyes, a thousand feet, who traversest the universe, and passest ten inches beyond its contact.¹ Whatever has been, or is to be, that, Purushottama, thou art. From thee sprang Viráj, Swaráj, Samráj, and Adhipurusha.² The lower, and upper, and middle parts of the earth are not independent of thee. From thee is all this universe, all that has been, and that shall be; and all this world is in thee, assuming this universal form.³ From thee is

¹ The commentator understands this passage to imply merely, that the supreme pervades both substance and space; being infinitely vast, and without limit. ‘Having a thousand heads’, &c. denotes only infinite extension; and the ‘ten inches beyond the contact of the universe’ expresses merely non-restriction by its boundaries. द्वारकालिङ्गाधिकृतपरस्। चतुर्दशमयः। सावधेन साध्वशंक सुहातिस्याधिकृतद्विभिरंविढ्याक्षितं दृष्टि।

² Explained, severally, the Brahmana or material universe; Brahma, the creator; Manu, the ruler of the period; and supreme or presiding spirit.

³ So the inscription upon the temple of Sais: Ἐγὼ ἐγὼ πᾶν ἐγὼ γεγονός, καὶ ὁ, καὶ ἐσόμενον. So the Orphic verse, cited by Eusebius, beginning:

Εὖ δὲ ἐγὼ θεαλίην ἐν ὁ τάξι πάντα χυλεῖται, ἄ. ἔ. θ.

‘One regal body in which all things are comprehended (viz., Viráj), fire, and water, and earth, and air, and night, and day, and Intelligence (viz., Mahat), the first generator, and divine love: for all these does Jupiter include in his expansive form.’ It proceeds, also, precisely in the Pauránik strain, to describe the mem-
sacrifice derived, and all oblations, and curds, and ghee, and animals of either class (domestic or wild). From thee the Rig-veda, the Sāman, the metres (of the Vedas), and the Yajur-veda are born. Horses, and cows having teeth in one jaw only, proceed from thee; and from thee come goats, sheep, deer. Brahmans sprang from thy mouth; warriors, from thy arms; Vaiśyas, from thy thighs; and Śúdras, from thy feet. From thine eyes come the sun; from thine ears, the wind; and, from thy mind, the moon; the vital airs, from thy central vein; and fire, from thy mouth; the sky, from thy navel; and heaven, from thy head; the regions, from thine ears; the earth, from thy feet. All this world was derived from thee. As the wide-spreading Nyagrodha (Indian fig) tree is compressed in a small seed; so, at the time of dissolution, the whole universe is comprehended in thee, as its germ. As the Nyagrodha germinates from the seed, and becomes, first, a shoot, and then rises into loftiness, so the created world proceeds from thee, and expands into magnitude. As the bark and leaves of the plantain—tree are to be seen in its stem, so thou art the stem of the universe; and all things are visible in thee. The faculties of the intellect, that are the cause of pleasure and of pain, abide in

bers of this universal form. The heaven is his head; the stars, his hair; the sun and moon, his eyes, &c.

1 A piece of natural history quite correct, as applied to the front teeth, which, in the genus ox, occur in the lower jaw only.

2 This is, also, conformable to the doctrine, that the rudiments of plants exist in their cotyledons.

* Sanīyama.
thee, as one with all existence. But the sources of pleasure and of pain, singly, or blended, do not exist in thee, who art exempt from all qualities.\textsuperscript{1} Salutation to thee, the subtle rudiment, which, being single, becomes manifold. Salutation to thee, soul of existent things, identical with the great elements. Thou, imperishable, art beheld, in spiritual knowledge, as perceptible objects, as nature, as spirit, as the world, as Brahmá, as Manu, by internal contemplation.\textsuperscript{*} But thou art in all, the element of all: thou art all, assuming every form: all is from thee; and thou art from thyself. I salute thee, universal soul. Glory be to thee! Thou art one with all things. O lord of all, thou art present

\textsuperscript{1} In life, or living beings, perception depends not, according to Hindu metaphysics, upon the external senses; but the impressions made upon them are communicated to the mental organ or sense, and by the mind to the understanding—Sanvid (सांविद्) in the text—by which they are distinguished as pleasurable, painful, or mixed. But pleasure depends upon the quality of goodness; pain, on that of darkness; and their mixture, on that of founliness, inherent in the understanding: properties belonging to Jíveśwara, or god as one with life, or to embodied spirit, but not as Paramésvara or supreme spirit.

\textsuperscript{*} अक्षाप्रधानपश्चप्रविराधिख्यातुराद्वा।
विभावते सःकर्षी पुष्चेविचयो भवान।

"Thou art regarded, in mental action, as the evolved, as pradhána, as spirit; as viraj, samraj, and swardaj; as, among souls, the imperishable soul."

For pradhána, the same as prakriti, see my first note in p. 18, and the first in p. 20, supra. It is ahamkára, &c. that is meant by "the evolved", viz., pradhána. Pradhána, unqualified, is here to be taken as unevolved. Viraj, samraj, and swardaj are well-known technicalities of the Vedánta philosophy.

The Supreme, under various aspects, is described in this couplet.
in all things. What can I say unto thee? Thou knowest all that is in the heart, O soul of all, sovereign lord of all creatures, origin of all things. Thou, who art all beings, knowest the desires of all creatures. The desire that I cherished has been gratified, lord, by thee. My devotions have been crowned with success, in that I have seen thee."

Vishṇu said to Dhruva: "The object of thy devotions has, in truth, been attained, in that thou hast seen me: for the sight of me, young prince, is never unproductive. Ask, therefore, of me what boon thou desirest: for men in whose sight I appear obtain all their wishes." To this, Dhruva answered: "Lord god of all creatures, who abidest in the hearts of all, how should the wish that I cherish be unknown to thee? I will confess unto thee the hope that my presumptuous heart has entertained; a hope that it would be difficult to gratify, but that nothing is difficult, when thou, creator of the world, art pleased. Through thy favour, Indra* reigns over the three worlds. The sister-queen of my mother has said to me, loudly and arrogantly: 'The royal throne is not for one who is not born of me': and I now solicit of the support of the universe an exalted station, superior to all others, and one that shall endure for ever." Vishṇu said to him: "The station that thou askest thou shalt obtain: for I was satisfied with thee, of old, in a prior existence. Thou wast, formerly, a Brahman, whose thoughts were ever devoted to me, ever dutiful to thy parents, and observant of thy duties. In course of time, a prince became thy friend, who was

* Maghavat, in the original.
in the period of youth, indulged in all sensual pleasures, and was of handsome appearance and elegant form. Beholding, in consequence of associating with him, his affluence, you formed the desire that you might be subsequently born as the son of a king; and, according to your wish, you obtained a princely birth, in the illustrious mansion of Uttánapáda. But that which would have been thought a great boon by others, birth in the race of Swáyambhuva, you have not so considered, and, therefore, have propitiated me. The man who worships me obtains speedy liberation from life. What is heaven to one whose mind is fixed on me? A station shall be assigned to thee, Dhruva, above the three worlds; one in which thou shalt sustain the stars and the planets; a station above those of the sun, the moon, Mars, the son of Soma (Mercury), Venus, the son of Súrya (Saturn), and all the other constellations; above the regions of the seven Rishis and the divinities

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1 The station or sphere is that of the north pole, or of the polar star. In the former case, the star is considered to be Suniti, the mother of Dhruva. The legend, although, as it is related in our text, it differs, in its circumstances, from the story told, by Ovid, of Callisto and her son Arcas, whom Jove

Imposuit caelo vicinaque sidera fecit,
suggests some suspicion of an original identity. In neither of the authorities have we, perhaps, the primitive fable. It is evident, from the quotation, that presently follows in the text, of a stanza by Uśanas, that the Puráṇa has not the oldest version of the legend; and Ovid's representation of it is after a fashion of his own. All that has been retained of the original is the conformity of the characters and of the main incident, the translation of a mother and her son to the heavens, as constellations, in which the pole-star is the most conspicuous luminary.
who traverse the atmosphere.¹ Some celestial beings endure for four ages; some, for the reign of a Manu. To thee shall be granted the duration of a Kalpa. Thy mother, Sunītī, in the orb of a bright star, shall abide near thee for a similar term; and all those who, with minds attentive, shall glorify thee at dawn, or at eventide, shall acquire exceeding religious merit.

Thus, the sage Dhruva, having received a boon from Janárdana, the god of gods, and lord of the world, resides in an exalted station. Beholding his glory, Usanās, the preceptor of the gods and demons, repeated these verses: "Wonderful is the efficacy of this penance, marvellous is its reward, that the seven Rishis should be preceded by Dhruva. This, too, is the pious Sunītī, his parent, who is called Sūnītī.²" Who can celebrate her greatness, who, having given birth to Dhruva, has become the asylum of the three worlds, enjoying, to all future time, an elevated station, a station eminent above all? He who shall worthily describe the ascent into the sky of Dhruva, for ever shall be freed from all sin, and enjoy the heaven of Indra. Whatever be his dignity, whether upon earth, or in heaven, he shall never fall from it, but shall long enjoy life, possessed of every blessing.³

¹ The Vaimānika devas, the deities who travel in Vimānas, ‘heavenly ears’, or, rather, ‘moving spheres.’
² The text says merely: सूनीतिजनीस सूनृता। The commentator says: ‘Perhaps* formerly so called’; उपवेशन वा। We have already remarked, that some Purāṇas so denominate her.
³ The legend of Dhruva is narrated in the Bhāgavata, Padma

* The बा, here rendered "perhaps", connects two interpretations, and means "or else".
(Swarga Khaṇḍa), Agni, and Nāradīya, much to the same purport, and partly in the same words, as our text. The Brahma, and its double, the Hari Vāṁśa, the Matsya, and Váyu, merely allude to Dhruva’s having been transferred, by Brahmá, to the skies, in reward of his austerities. The story of his religious penance and adoration of Vishńu seems to be an embellishment interpolated by the Vaishńava Puráṇas; Dhruva being adopted, as a saint, by their sect. The allusion to Súńritá, in our text, concurs with the form of the story as it appears elsewhere, to indicate the priority of the more simple legend.
CHAPTER XIII.

Posterity of Dhruva. Legend of Vena: his impiety: he is put to death by the Ṛishis. Anarchy ensues. The production of Nisháda and Púthu: the latter, the first king. The origin of Súta and Mágadha: they enumerate the duties of kings. Púthu compels Earth to acknowledge his authority: he levels it: introduces cultivation: erects cities. Earth called, after him, Púthivi: typified as a cow.

PARÁSARA.—The sons of Dhruva, by his wife Śaṁbhu, were Bhavya and Ślīshű. Suchchháyá, the wife of the latter, was the mother of five virtuous sons; Ripu, Ripunjaya, Vipra, Vríkala, and Vríkatejas. The son of Ripu, by Brīhatī, was the illustrious Chakshusha, who begot the Manu Chákshusha on Pushkariṇí, of the family of Varuṇa, the daughter of the venerable patriarch Anaraṇya. The Manu had, by his wife Naḍvalá,* the daughter of the patriarch Vairāja, ten noble sons: Úru, Puru,† Śatadyumna, Tapaswin, Satyavāch, Kavi, Agnishṭoma, Atirātra, Sudyumna, and Abhimanyu. The wife of Úru, Ágneyi, bore six excellent sons: Anga, Sumanas, Śváti, Kratu, Angiras, and Śiva. Anga had, by his wife Suníthá, only one son, named Vena, whose right arm was rubbed, by the Ṛishis, for the purpose of producing from it progeny. From the arm of Vena, thus rubbed, sprang a celebrated monarch,

* Professor Wilson inadvertently put “Navalá”.
† Púru is the older form of this word, as, for instance, in the Rīgveda, Śākuntala, &c.
named Prithu, by whom, in olden time, the earth was milked for the advantage of mankind.¹

¹ The descent of Prithu from Dhruva is similarly traced in the Matsya Puráña, but with some variety of nomenclature. Thus, the wife of Dhruva is named Dhanyá, and the eldest son of the Manu, Taru. The Váyu introduces another generation; making the eldest son of Śishít,—or, as there termed, Pushtí,—father of Udáradhi, and the latter, the father of Ripu, the father of Chákshusha, the father of the Manu. The Bhágavata* has an almost entirely different set of names, having converted the family of Dhruva into personifications of divisions of time and of day and night. The account there given is: Dhruva had, by his wife Bhrami (revolving), the daughter of Śiśumára (the sphere), Kalpa and Vatsara. The latter married Swarvithi, and had six sons: Pushpáńa, Tigmaketu, Isha, Úrja, Vasu, Jaya. The first married Prabhá and Doshá, and had, by the former, Prástas (dawn), Madhyandina (noon), and Sáya (evening), and, by the latter, Pradosha, Nishitha, and Vyushá, or the beginning, middle, and end, of night. The last has, by Pushkarińi, Chákshus, married to Ákúti, and the father of Chákshusha Manu. He has twelve sons: Puru, Kutsa, Trita, Dyumma, Satyavat, Írita,† Vrata, Agnishtoma, Atirátra, Pradyumna, Šíbi, and Ulmuka. The last is the father of six sons, named as in our text, except the last, who is called Gaya.‡ The eldest, Anga, is the father of Vena, the father of Prithu. These additions are, evidently, the creatures of the author’s imagination. The Brahma Puráña and Hari Vanśa have the same genealogy as the Vishúu; reading, as do the Matsya and Váyu, Pushkarińi or Víráńi, the daughter of Vírańu, instead of Varuńu. They, as well as copies of the text, present several

* IV., 10 and 13.
† Professor Wilson had “Krítśna”, “Íita”, and “Dhítita”, instead of Kutsa, Trita, and Íita.
‡ The Bhágavata-puráña also has Khyáti, instead of Swáti. And see my second note in the next page.
MAITREYA.—Best of Munis, tell me why was the right hand of Vena rubbed by the holy sages, in consequence of which the heroic Prithu was produced.

PARÁŚARA.—Sunithá was, originally,* the daughter of Mrityu, by whom she was given to Anga to wife. She bore him Vena, who inherited the evil propensities of his maternal grandfather. When he was inaugurated, by the Rishis, monarch of the earth, he caused it to be everywhere proclaimed, that no worship should be performed, no oblations offered, no gifts bestowed upon the Brahmans. “I, the king”, said he, “am the lord of sacrifice. For who but I am entitled to the oblations?” The Rishis, respectfully approaching the sovereign, addressed him in melodious accents, and said: “Gracious prince, we salute you. Hear what we have to represent. For the preservation of your kingdom and your life, and for the benefit of all your subjects, permit us to worship Hari, the lord of all sacrifice, the god of gods, with solemn and protracted rites,¹—a por-

other varieties of nomenclature.† The Padma Puráña (Bhúmi Khaáná) says Anga was of the family of Atri; in allusion, perhaps, to the circumstance, mentioned in the Brahma Puráña, of Uttánapáda’s adoption by that Rishi.

¹ With the Dirghasatra, ‘long sacrifice’; a ceremony lasting a thousand years.

* Some MSS. have, instead of मूलो: मशस्तोभवत्; मूलो: मष-

ऱवाभवत् | It seems, therefore, better to substitute: “Sunithá was Mrityu’s eldest daughter.”

† The principal variants of the Visháu-purdáa are as follows: for “Śishít”, Śishit; for “Varuña”, Viriña; for “Anarásyá”, Añáya; for “Kavi”, Śuchi; for “Agnishomán”, Agnishút; for “Sudrýmna”, Prá-

dýmna; for “Swáti”, Khyáti; for “Śiva”, Ushij.
tion of the fruit of which will revert to you. Vishnu, the god of oblations, being propitiated with sacrifice by us, will grant you, O king, all your desires. Those princes have all their wishes gratified, in whose realms Hari, the lord of sacrifice, is adored with sacrificial rites.” “Who”, exclaimed Vena, “is superior to me? Who besides me is entitled to worship? Who is this Hari, whom you style the lord of sacrifice? Brahma, Janardana, Saibhu, Indra, Vayu, Yama, Ravi (the sun), Hutaibu (fire), Varuna, Dhatri, Pushan (the sun), Bhumi (earth), the lord of night (the moon)—all these, and whatever other gods there be who listen to our vows,—all these are present in the person of a king. The essence of a sovereign is all that is divine. Conscious of this, I have issued my commands: and look that you obey them. You are not to sacrifice, not to offer oblations, not to give alms. As the first duty of women is obedience to their lords, so observance of my orders is incumbent, holy men, on you.” “Give command, great king”, replied the Rishis, “that piety may suffer no decrease. All this world is but a trans-

1 That is, the land will be fertile in proportion as the gods are propitiated; and the king will benefit accordingly, as a sixth part of the merit and of the produce will be his. So the commentator explains the word ‘portion’: चार्ष: यषो माघः।

* Yajnapurusha. See my note in p. 163, supra.

† एति साम्वि च च देवा: शापायुगकारिण:।

रूपक्षीं शरीरं खा: सर्वदेवमयो नुप:।

In place of “whatever other gods there be who listen to our vows”, read “whatever other gods bestow curses or blessings.”

The end of the stanza signifies, literally: “A king is made up of all that is divine.”
mutation of oblations; and, if devotion be suppressed, the world is at an end.” But Vena was entreated in vain; and, although this request was repeated by the sages, he refused to give the order they suggested. Then those pious Munis were filled with wrath, and cried out to each other: “Let this wicked wretch be slain. The impious man who has reviled the god of sacrifice,* who is without beginning or end, is not fit to reign over the earth.” And they fell upon the king, and beat him with blades of holy grass, consecrated by prayer, and slew him, who had first been destroyed by his impiety towards god.

Afterwards the Munis beheld a great dust arise; and they said to the people who were nigh: “What is this?” And the people answered and said: “Now that the kingdom is without a king, the dishonest men have begun to seize the property of their neighbours. The great dust that you behold, excellent Munis, is raised by troops of clustering robbers, hastening to fall upon their prey.”† The sages, hearing this, consulted, and together rubbed the thigh of the king, who had left no offspring, to produce a son. From the thigh, thus rubbed, came forth a being of the complexion of a charred stake, with flattened features (like a negro), and of dwarfish stature. “What am I to do?” cried he eagerly to the Munis. “Sit down” (nishída), said they: and thence his name was Nisháda. His descendants, the inhabitants of the Vindhya mountain, great Muni, are still called Nishádas, and are characterized by

* Yajnapurusha.
† There is here considerable compression in the translation.
the exterior tokens of depravity.¹ By this means the wickedness of Vena was expelled; those Nishádas being

¹ The Matsya says there were born outcast or barbarous races, Mlechchhas (मल्यक्षणं), as black as collyrium. The Bhágavata describes an individual of dwarfish stature, with short arms and legs, of a complexion as black as a crow, with projecting chin, broad flat nose, red eyes, and tawny hair; whose descendants were mountaineers and foresters.* The Padma (Bhúmi Kháidá) has a similar description; adding to the dwarfish stature and black complexion, a wide mouth, large ears, and a protuberant belly. It also particularizes his posterity as Nishádas, Kirátas, Bhillas, Bahanakas, Bhrahmaras, Pulindas, and other barbarians or Mlechchhas, living in woods and on mountains. These passages intend; and do not much exaggerate, the uncouth appearance of the Gonds, Koles, Bhils, and other uncivilized tribes, scattered along the forests and mountains of central India, from Behar to

* Bhágavata-puráňa, IV., 14, 43-46:

विनिष्ठितिभंश्वयमा विष्तर्क नगीपति ||
मतत्तुर्बं तरसा तवालीव्राह्को गर ||
कायकाः शिलेन्द्राः प्रस्थात्कर्मप्रसीहु ||
हृदपारसिन्धायो रत्नाधवक्षमुरुषम ||
तु तवेद्वनत द्वैर्ग त्रिके वारोभीत्यातिन ||
विषोदितुरुव्यंक्ततां स निषादस्तोत्त्रभवत ||
तथं वद्यादु वैष्णव गिरिरथावगोचरः ||
वेणाहर्वायमानो वेनक्षुषपुष्पवद ||

Burnouf’s translation is in these words:

“Ayant pris cette résolution, les Kichis secouèrent rapidement la cuisse du roi qu’ils avaient tué, et il en sortit un nain

“Noir comme un corbeau, ayant le corps d’une extrême petitesse, les bras courts, les mâchoires grandes, les pieds pétits, le nez enfoncé, les yeux rouges et les cheveux cuivrés.

“Prosterné devant eux, le pauvre nain s’écria: Que faut-il que je fasse? Et les Bráhmanes lui répondirent: Assieds-toi, ami. De là lui vint le nom de Nicháda.

“C’est de sa race que sont sortis les Náichádas qui habitent les cavernes et les montagnes; car c’est lui dont la naissance effaça la faute terrible de Véna.”
born of his sins, and carrying them away. The Brah-
mans then proceeded to rub the right arm of the king,
from which friction was engendered the illustrious son
of Vena, named Prithu, resplendent in person, as if the
blazing deity of Fire had been manifested.

There then fell from the sky the primitive bow (of
Mahádeva) named Ájagava, and celestial arrows, and
panoply from heaven. At the birth of Prithu, all living
creatures rejoiced; and Vena, delivered, by his being
born, from the hell named Put, ascended to the realms
above.* The seas and rivers, bringing jewels (from
their depths), and water to perform the ablutions of
his installation, appeared. The great parent of all,
Brahmá, with the gods and the descendants of Angiras
(the fires), and with all things animate or inanimate,
assembled, and performed the ceremony of consecrating
the son of Vena. Beholding in his right hand the
(mark of the) discus of Vishnú, Brahmá recognized
a portion of that divinity in Prithu, and was much
pleased. For the mark of Vishnú's discus is visible in
the hand of one who is born to be a universal emperor,¹
one whose power is invincible even by the gods.

Khandesh, and who are, not improbably, the predecessors of the
present occupants of the cultivated portions of the country. They
are always very black, ill-shapen, and dwarfish, and have counte-
nances of a very African character.

¹ A Chakravartin, or, according to the text, one in whom the
Chakra (the discus of Vishnú) abides (vartate); such a figure being
delineated by the lines of the hand. The grammatical etymology
is: 'He who abides in, or rules over, an extensive territory called
a Chakra.'

* See Original Sanskrit Texts, Part I., pp. 60-63.
The mighty Prithu, the son of Vena, being thus invested with universal dominion by those who were skilled in the rite, soon removed the grievances of the people whom his father had oppressed; and, from winning their affections, he derived the title of Rája or king.¹ The waters became solid, when he traversed the ocean: the mountains opened him a path: his banner passed unbroken (through the forests): the earth needed not cultivation; and, at a thought, food was prepared: all kine were like the cow of plenty: honey was stored in every flower. At the sacrifice of the birth of Prithu, which was performed by Brahmá, the intelligent Súta (herald or bard) was produced, in the juice of the moon-plant, on the very birth-day.² At that great sacrifice also was produced the accomplished Mágadhá. And the holy sages said to these two persons: “Praise ye the king Prithu, the illustrious son of Vena. For this is your especial function, and here is a fit subject for your praise.” But they respectfully replied to the Brahmans: “We know not the acts of the new-born king of the earth. His merits are not understood by us: his fame is not spread abroad. Inform us upon what subject we may dilate in his praise.” “Praise the king”, said the Rishis, “for the acts this

¹ From Rága (राग), ‘passion’ or ‘affection.’ But the more obvious etymology is Ráj (राज), ‘to shine’ or ‘be splendid.’

² The birth of Prithu is to be considered as the sacrifice, of which Brahmá, the creator, was the performer. But, in other places, as in the Padma, it is considered that an actual sacrificial rite was celebrated, at which the first encomiasts were produced. The Bhágavata does not account for their appearance.
heroic monarch will perform: praise him for the virtues he will display."

The king, hearing these words, was much pleased, and reflected, that persons acquire commendation by virtuous actions, and that, consequently, his virtuous conduct would be the theme of the eulogium which the bards were about to pronounce. Whatever merits, then, they should panegyrize, in their encomium, he determined that he would endeavour to acquire; and, if they should point out what faults ought to be avoided, he would try to shun them. He, therefore, listened attentively, as the sweet-voiced encomiasts celebrated the future virtues of Prithu, the enlightened son of Vena.

"The king is a speaker of truth, bounteous, an observer of his promises. He is wise, benevolent, patient, valiant, and a terror to the wicked. He knows his duties; he acknowledges services; he is compassionate and kind-spoken. He respects the venerable; he performs sacrifices; he reverences the Brahmans. He cherishes the good, and, in administering justice, is indifferent to friend or foe."

The virtues thus celebrated by the Súta and the Mágadha were cherished in the remembrance of the Raja, and practised, by him, when occasion arose. Protecting this earth, the monarch performed many great sacrificial ceremonies, accompanied by liberal donations. His subjects soon approached him, suffering from the famine by which they were afflicted; as all the edible plants had perished during the season of anarchy. In reply to his question of the cause of their coming, they told him that, in the interval in which the earth was without a king, all vegetable products
had been withheld, and that, consequently, the people had perished. "Thou", said they, "art the bestower of subsistence to us: thou art appointed, by the creator, the protector of the people. Grant us vegetables, the support of the lives of thy subjects, who are perishing with hunger."

On hearing this, Prithu took up his divine bow Ajagava, and his celestial arrows, and, in great wrath, marched forth to assault the Earth. Earth, assuming the figure of a cow, fled hastily from him, and traversed, through fear of the king, the regions of Brahma and the heavenly spheres. But, wherever went the supporter of living things, there she beheld Vainya with uplifted weapons. At last, trembling (with terror), and anxious to escape his arrows, the Earth addressed Prithu, the hero of restless prowess. "Know you not, king of men", said the Earth, "the sin of killing a female, that you thus perseveringly seek to slay me?"

The prince replied: "When the happiness of many is secured by the destruction of one malignant being, the death of that being is an act of virtue." "But", said the Earth, "if, in order to promote the welfare of your subjects, you put an end to me, whence, best of monarchs, will thy people derive their support?" "Disobedient to my rule", rejoined Prithu, "if I destroy thee, I will support my people by the efficacy of my own devotions." Then the Earth, overcome with apprehension, and trembling in every limb, respectfully saluted the king, and thus spake: "All undertakings are successful, if suitable means of effecting them are employed. I will impart to you means of success, which you can make use of, if you please. All vege-
table products are old, and destroyed by me: but, at your command, I will restore them, as developed from my milk. Do you, therefore, for the benefit of mankind, most virtuous of princes, give me that calf by which I may be able to secrete milk. Make, also, all places level, so that I may cause my milk, the seed of all vegetation, to flow everywhere around."

Prithu, accordingly, uprooted the mountains, by hundreds and thousands, for myriads of leagues; and they were, thenceforth, piled upon one another. Before his time there were no defined boundaries of villages or towns, upon the irregular surface of the earth; there was no cultivation, no pasture, no agriculture, no highway for merchants. All these things (or all civilization) originated in the reign of Prithu. Where the ground was made level, the king induced his subjects to take up their abode. Before his time, also, the fruits and roots which constituted the food of the people were procured with great difficulty; all vegetables having been destroyed: and he, therefore, having made Swáyambhuva Manu the calf,¹ milked the Earth, and re-

¹ 'Having willed or determined the Manu Swáyambhuva to be the calf;'

So the Padma Puráña:

* * * * * * * * वस्तं तत्र मनु स्वायम्भुवः प्रभुः |

The Bhágavata* has: वस्तं हि मन्या मम । 'Having made the Manu the calf.' By the 'calf', or Manu in that character, is typified, the commentator observes, the promoter of the multiplication of progeny: प्रकाशकातन प्रवत्तकः।

* IV., 18, 12.
ceived the milk into his own hand, for the benefit of mankind. Thence proceeded all kinds of corn and vegetables upon which people subsist now and perpetually. By granting life to the Earth, Prithu was as her father; and she thence derived the patronymic appellation Prithiví (the daughter of Prithu). Then the gods, the sages, the demons, the Rákshasas, the Gandharvas, Yakshas, Pitris, serpents, mountains, and trees, took a milking vessel suited to their kind, and milked the earth of appropriate milk. And the milker and the calf were both peculiar to their own species.¹

¹ The Matsya, Brahma, Bhágavata, and Padma enter into a greater detail of this milking, specifying, typically, the calf, the milker, the milk, and the vessel. Thus, according to the Matsya, the Rishis milked the earth through Bṛhaśpati; their calf was Soma; the Vedas were the vessel; and the milk was devotion. When the gods milked the earth, the milker was Mitra (the sun); Indra was the calf; superhuman power was the produce. The gods had a gold, the Pitris, a silver, vessel: and, for the latter, the milker was Antaka (death); Yama was the calf; the milk was Swadhá or oblation. The Nágas or snake-gods had a gourd for their pail; their calf was Takshaka; Dhṛitaráshtra (the serpent) was their milker; and their milk was poison. For the Asuras, Māyá was the milk; Virochana, the son of Prahláda, was the calf; the milker was Dwimúrdhan; and the vessel was of iron. The Yakshas made Vaiśravaṇa their calf; their vessel was of unbaked earth; the milk was the power of disappearing. The Rákshasas and others employed Raupyanábha as the milker; their calf was Sumalin; and their milk was blood. Chitraratha was the calf, Vasuruchi, the milker, of the Gandharvas and nymphs, who milked fragrant odours into a cup of lotos-leaves. On behalf of the mountains, Meru was the milker; Himávat, the calf; the pail was of crystal; and the milk was of herbs and gems. The trees extracted sap in a vessel of the Paláśa; the Sál being the
This Earth—the mother, the nurse, the receptacle, and nourisher, of all existent things—was produced from milker, and the Plaksha, the calf. The descriptions that occur in the Bhágavata, * Padma, and Brahma Puráñnas are, occasionally, slightly varied; but they are, for the most part, in the same words as that of the Matsya. These mystifications are, all, probably, subsequent modifications of the original simple allegory, which typified the earth as a cow, who yielded to every class of beings the milk they desired, or the object of their wishes.

* The account given in the Bhágavata-púrāña—IV., 18, 12-27—is in these words:


dhriti śrīṁ hare vākan bhrū śāstra bhūpāt: ||
valūḥ kāla mahūṁ pāyāvabhuḥ tātātiprāpīḥ: ||
tathāyātre śrīvarc sarabhadṛstāṃ kutha: ||
tatōṁścāḥ śrī śāstrākām dudūṛḥ: pūṣṇābhāvitām: ||
śrīvatsō dudūṁśvāminśtāravin śatam: ||
valūḥ bhrūśaṅgāt kāla paryabhānśeṣeṣeṣeṣeṇ gūḍa: ||
kāla valūḥ sūragavya dudūṁ śhomiḥ dudūṛuḥ: ||
hṛṣātyāṃ prāśya śīvāṃśeṣeṇa vaham pahy: ||
āṁsētya dhānakī vālūṁ prahātāḥ śhūṇan bland: ||
vāśāyaḥ dudūṁśvāmaṃśeṇa suśrāvam: ||
ghṛṅgāparśāḥ śhūṇaparyēṣaḥ pahyam pahy: ||
valūṁ vāśāyaḥ kāla gānvyāḥ paryabhāma: ||
valēṣaḥ pitoroṣeṣaṁśa kāvaḥ śīrām śhūṇat: ||
āśāmaṇicē mahāmāṅgaśaḥ śuddhāḥ śrūḍvātā: ||
prakṛtya valūḥ kāpilāḥ śhānaḥ: संकल्पनामयीम् ||
sikhīṇāmīḥ vāśaḥ ca vēcaḥ vāśāpyādāyāḥ: ||
ca bhūṁ ca mahāyāno mahāmahābhikāḥ śuddhāḥ: ||
may prakṛtya vālūṁ dudūhāpaṃśeṣaṃśeṇa: ||
ghṛṅgāmrūṣāḥ śuddhāḥ śāṃśaḥ: pīthāśāmin: ||
śuṅgākṛtyāḥ dudūṛḥ: kāpilāḥ ca vēcāvasm: ||
tathāyātre dudūṛāḥ: śrūṇaḥ gānvaḥ tairāvaḥ: ||
vāśāyaḥ valūṁ dudūṁśvāminśeṇa vēpaḥ: ||
prapṛtyo vālūḥ śīrāḥ valūḥ kālaḥ ca mātuḥ: ||
prāśyaḥ śāṃśaḥ mātuḥ śāṃśaḥ dudūṁśvāminśeṇa: ||
the sole of the foot of Vishnu. And thus was born
the mighty Prithu, the heroic son of Vena, who was

\[
\text{क्रङ्गादा: प्राणिन: क्रङ्ग दुःखः सब्जेरे।}
\text{सुपर्सवतसा विहागायर: चार्यसेव च।}
\text{वदनस्ता वनस्ता: पृष्ठसमर्थं पत्।}
\text{सिरसी हिमस्वतसा नानाधातृसुसागारु।}
\text{वषीं लाप्खावलिनं वे से पाचि पृथक्य।}
\text{सर्वकामनुष्ठां गृहीं दुःखः पृष्टिलावितां।}
\text{वर्ष पृथादयं: पृष्टीमनाराण: स्मरांचन:।}
\text{द्रोहवतारिदेष्टं चीरमेंदुं: कुर्कुड्।}
\]

Burnouf's translation of this passage is as follows:

"Se conformant au conseil amical et utile de la terre, le roi lui donna
pour veau le Manu, et se mettant à la traire de sa main, il en tira
toutes les plantes annuelles.

"C'est ainsi que d'autres sages ont su, comme ce roi, retirer de toutes
chose une substance précieuse; les autres êtres vinrent également traire,
selon leurs désirs, la terre soumise par Prithu.

"Les Richis, ô sage excellent, lui donnant Bṛhaspati pour veau, vinrent
aussi traire la vache divine; leurs organes étaient le lait dans lequel
ils reçurent le pur lait des chants sacrés.

"Les troupes des Suras, lui amenant Indra comme veau, en tirèrent
le Sōma, ce lait qui donne la force, l'énergie, la vigueur, et le reçurent
dans un vase d'or.

"Les Dāityas et les Dānavas, prenant comme veau Prahrāda, chef des
Āsuras, vinrent la traire, et reçurent dans un vase de fer le lait des
liqueurs spiritueuses et des suc fermentées.

"Les Gandharvas et les Apsaras, prenant un lotus pour vase, vinrent
aussi traire la vache; Vījavāse fut le veau; le lait fut la douceur de
la voix et la beauté des Gandharvas.

"Les Pīṭhis, dont Aryaman était le veau, eurent pour lait l'offrande
qu'on présente aux Mānas; les Divinités des funérailles, ô grand sage, la
recueillirent avec foi dans un vase d'argile créue.

"Kapila fut le veau des Siddhas et des Vidyādharas; le ciel fut le
vase dans lequel ils reçurent les charmes et la puissance surnaturelle
qui consiste dans l'acte seul de la volonté.

"D'autres Dieux livrés à la magie, prenant Maya pour veau, reçurent
la Māya, simple acte de la réflexion, que connaissent les êtres merveilleux
qui peuvent disparaitre à leur gré.

"Les Yakhas, les Rākchhasas, les Bhūtas, les Piçātchas et les Démons
qui se nourrissent de chair, prirent pour veau le chef des Bhūtas, et
reçurent dans un crâne le sang dont ils s'élivrent."
the lord of the earth, and who, from conciliating the affections of the people, was the first ruler to whom the title of Rájá was ascribed. Whoever shall recite this story of the birth of Prithu, the son of Vena, shall never suffer any retribution for the evil he may have committed. And such is the virtue of the tale of Prithu’s birth, that those who hear it repeated shall be relieved from affliction.¹

¹ Another reading is, दुःखम्मीपश्यम् ** करोति | ‘It counteracts evil dreams.’ The legend of Prithu is briefly given in the Mahábhárata, Rája Dharma, and occurs in most of the Puráñas, but in greatest detail in our text, in the Bhágavata, and, especially, in the Padma, Bhúmi Khańda, s. 29, 30. All the versions, however, are, essentially, the same.

“Les reptiles, les serpents, les animaux venimeux, les Nágas prirent Takchaka pour veau, et reçurent dans leur bouche le poison qu’ils avaient trait de la vache.

“Prenant pour veau le taureau, et pour vases les forêts, les bestiaux reçurent l’herbe des pâturages. Accompagnées du roi des animaux, les bêtes féroces,

“Qui se nourrissent de chair, prirent la viande chacune dans leur corps; et les volatiles, amenant comme veau Suparna, eurent pour leur part l’insecte qui se meut et le fruit immobile.

“Les arbres, rois des forêts, prenant le figuier pour veau, recueillirent chacun le lait de leur propre sève; les montagnes, amenant l’Himavat, recueillirent chacune sur leurs sommets les métaux variés.

“Toutes les créatures enfin, prenant comme veau le chef de leur espèce, reçurent chacune dans leur vase le lait qu’elles étaient venues prendre de la vache, mère féconde de tous biens, qu’avait domptée Prithu.

“C’est ainsi, ô descendant de Kuru, que Prithu et les autres êtres, avides de nourriture, trouvèrent tous d’excellents aliments dans les diverses espèces de lait qu’ils reçurent, en présentant chacun à la terre son veau et son vase.”
CHAPTER XIV.

Descendants of Pṛithu. Legend of the Prachetasas: they are desired, by their father, to multiply mankind, by worshipping Vishún: they plunge into the sea, and meditate on and praise him: he appears, and grants their wishes.

Pṛithu had two valiant sons, Antardhi and Pālin.¹

The son of Antardhána, by his wife Śikhañdiní, was Havirdhána, to whom Dhishāná, a princess of the race of Agni, bore six sons: Práchinabarhis, Śukra, Gaya,

¹ The text of the Váyu and Brahma (or Hari Vanśa) read, like that of the Vishúu:

पूर्वोः पूर्वी महावीयाँ जम्भतितर्कियालिनी ।

M. Langlois* understands the two last words as a compound epithet: "Et jouirent du pouvoir de se rendre invisibles." The construction would admit of such a sense;† but it seems more probable that they are intended for names. The lineage of Pṛithu is immediately continued through one of them, Antardhána, which is the same as Antardhi; as the commentator states, with regard to that appellation: अन्तरधीरवात्तमानमः। and as the commentator on the Hari Vanśa remarks, of the succeeding name: अन्तरधीना-दृत्यधिकंश्रात्। ‘One of the brothers being called Antardhána or Antardhi’ leaves no other sense for Pālin but that of a proper name. The Bhágavata‡ gives Pṛithu five sons: Vijitáswa, Dhúmrakeśa, Haryaksha, Draviña, and Vrika; and adds,§ that the elder was also named Antardhána, in consequence of having obtained, from Indra, the power of making himself invisible:

चन्द्रधानगति हुर्नाआलानधोगारस्विभत्।

† The alternative sense implies, rather, that they had the disposition to render themselves invisible.
‡ IV., 22, 54.
§ IV., 24, 3.
Kṛishṇa, Vraja, and Ajina. The first of these was a mighty prince and patriarch, by whom mankind was multiplied after the death of Havirdhāna. He was called Prāchīnabarhis, from his placing upon the earth the sacred grass, pointing to the east.² At the termina-

¹ The Bhāgavata, as usual, modifies this genealogy. Antarvṛtta has, by Śikhaṇḍini, three sons, who were the three fires, Pāvaka, Pavamāna, and Śuchi, condemned, by a curse of Vasishtha, to be born again. By another wife, Nabhswati, he has Havirvṛtta, whose sons are the same as those of the text; only giving another name, Barhishad, as well as Prāchīnabarhis, to the first. According to the Mahābhārata (Moksha Dharma), which has been followed by the Padma Purāṇa, Prāchīnabarhis was born in the family of Atri:

चन्द्रवंश समुच्चयः प्रभायोऽनि: समातः।

प्राचीनवहिभेद्वायम्॥

² The text is,

प्राचीनया: कुषास्त्रर प्रृथ्विवाममवंशः।

Kuśa or Barhis is, properly, ‘sacrificial grass’ (Poa); and Prāchīnāgra, literally, ‘having its tips towards the east’; the direction in which it should be placed upon the ground, as a seat for the gods, on occasion of offerings made to them. The name, therefore, intimates either that the practice originated with him, or, as the commentator explains it, that he was exceedingly devout, offering sacrifices, or invoking the gods, everywhere: सर्वेऽच वनस्पतिः। The Hari Vamsa adds a verse to that of our text, reading:

प्राचीनया: कुषास्त्रर पृथिविः वर्णवेय।

प्राचीनवहिभेद्वायमपृथिविवंशारिषः॥

* Bhāgavata-purāṇa, IV., 24, 4. At IV., 1, 59, they are spoken of as sons of Agni by Swāhā. - And see pp. 155 and 156, supra.

† The Bhāgavata-purāṇa, IV., 24, 8, gives their names as follows: Barhishad, Gayā, Sukla, Kṛishṇa, Satya, and Jitavrata.

‡ Stanza 85.
tion of a rigid penance, he married Savarñá, the daughter of the ocean, who had been previously betrothed

which M. Langlois* has rendered: ‘Quand il marchait sur la terre, les pointes de cousa étaient courbées vers l'orient’; which he supposes to mean, ‘que ce prince avait tourné ses pensées et porté sa domination vers l'est:’ a supposition that might have been obviated by a little further consideration of the verse of Manú† to which he refers: “If he have sitten on culms of kusa, with their points toward the east, and be purified by rubbing that holy grass on both his hands, and be further prepared by three suppressions of breath, each equal, in time, to five short vowels, he then may fitly pronounce om.”‡ The commentary explains the passage as above, referring पृथ्वीतलचारिण to बुष्ट, not to तख्ष; as: पृथ्वियां तख्ष प्राचीनाया: बुष्टः पृथ्वीतलचारिणो भुवः सः प्रसरतः: कलभूमिग्रहणयायिण चासन। ततः स प्राचीनवर्हः।‘He was called Prāchinabarhis, because his sacred grass, pointing east, was going upon the very earth, or was spread over the whole earth.’§ The text of the Bhágavata|| also explains clearly what is meant:

चख्षेष्ठे द्विधवनमनुगुण वितजन:।
प्राचीनवर्हे: कुशेरायीदासृत वसुधाततस:॥

‘By whose sacred grass, pointing to the east, as he performed sacrifice after sacrifice, the whole earth, his sacrificial ground, was overspread.’¶

† II., 76:
प्राचीनप्रसन्नाचारी: पवित्रश्रवव पावित:।
प्राचीनमिरिलांभि: पृतसत श्रोतारसमहि:॥

‡ This rendering, which is that of Sir William Jones, is not altogether in keeping with the commentary of Kulluká Bhaffa.
§ Rather: “On his land the sacred grass, pointing towards the east, was forthcoming on the face of the earth, as it were, that is to say, was filling the entire circuit of the earth. Hence he was called Práchinabarhis.”
|| IV., 24, 10.
¶ Burnouf—Vol. II., Preface, p. III., note rendered thus: “C'est lui qui, faisant succéder les sacrifices aux sacrifices, couvrit de tiges de Kṛṣṇa
to him, and who had, by the king, ten sons, who were all styled Prachetasas, and were skilled in military science. They all observed the same duties, practised religious austerities, and remained immersed in the bed of the sea for ten thousand years.

MAITREYA.—You can inform me, great sage, why the magnanimous Prachetasas engaged in penance in the waters of the sea.

PARÁŚARA.—The sons of Práchínabarhis were, originally, informed, by their father, who had been appointed as a patriarch, and whose mind was intent on multiplying mankind, that he had been respectfully enjoined, by Brahmá, the god of gods, to labour to this end, and that he had promised obedience. “Now, therefore”, continued he, “do you, my sons, to oblige me, diligently promote the increase of the people: for the orders of the father of all creatures are entitled to respect.” The sons of the king, having heard their father’s words, replied: “So be it.” But they then inquired of him, as he could best explain it, by what means they might accomplish the augmentation of mankind. He said to them: “Whoever worships Vishńu, the bestower of good, attains, undoubtedly, the object of his desires. There is no other mode. What further can I tell you? Adore, therefore, Govinda, who is Hari, the lord of all beings, in order to effect the increase

dont les extrémités regardaient l'orient, la surface de la terre, dont il faisait ainsi un terrain consacré.”

Also see the Bhágavata-puráña, IV., 29, 49.

Śrídhará Swámin’s comment on IV., 24, 10, is as follows: इत्यदु वणु-धातसं देवयतजं वच्चवार्तं चित्तन्ति चैव वच्च; हरस्तलमिभष एव बक्षानारं कुवर्तं: वतः । चतत्त एव पाणिनास्तेर्हिश्वर्यते।
of the human race, if you wish to succeed. The eternal Purushottama is to be propitiated by him who wishes for virtue, wealth, enjoyment, or liberation. Adore him, the imperishable, by whom, when propitiated, the world was first created; and mankind will assuredly be multiplied."

Thus instructed by their father, the ten Prachetasas plunged into the depths of the ocean, and, with minds wholly devoted to Nárāyaṇa, the sovereign of the universe, who is beyond all worlds, were engrossed by religious austerity for ten thousand years. Remaining there, they, with fixed thoughts, praised Hari, who, when propitiated, confers on those who praise him all that they desire.

Maitreya.—The excellent praises that the Prachetasas addressed to Vishńu, whilst they stood in the deep, you, O best of Munis, are qualified to repeat to me.

Paráśara.—Hear, Maitreya, the hymn which the Prachetasas, as they stood in the waters of the sea, sang, of old, to Govinda, their nature being identified with him:—

"We bow to him whose glory is the perpetual theme of every speech; him first, him last; the supreme lord of the boundless world; who is primeval light; who is without his like; indivisible and infinite; the origin of all existent things, movable or stationary. To that supreme being who is one with time, whose first forms, though he be without form, are day and evening and night, be adoration! Glory to him, the life of all living things, who is the same with the moon, the receptacle of ambrosia, drunk daily by the gods and progenitors;
to him who is one with the sun, the cause of heat and cold and rain, who dissipates the gloom, and illuminates the sky with his radiance; to him who is one with earth, all-pervading, and the asylum of smell and other objects of sense, supporting the whole world by its solidly! We adore that form of the deity Hari which is water, the womb of the world, the seed of all living beings. Glory to the mouth of the gods, the eater of the Havya; to the eater of the Kavya, the mouth of the progenitors; to Vishńu, who is identical with fire; to him who is one with air, the origin of ether, existing as the five vital airs in the body, causing constant vital action; to him who is identical with the atmosphere, pure, illimitable, shapeless, separating all creatures! Glory to Krışhṇa, who is Brahma in the form of sensible objects; who is ever the direction of the faculties of sense! We offer salutation to that supreme Hari who is one with the senses, both subtle and substantial, the recipient of all impressions, the root of all knowledge; to the universal soul, who, as internal intellect, delivers the impressions, received by the senses, to soul; to him who has the properties of Prakṛiti; in whom, without end, rest all things; from whom all things proceed; and who is that into which all things resolve. We worship that Purushottama, the god who is pure spirit, and who, without qualities, is ignorantly considered as endowed with qualities. We adore that supreme Brahma, the ultimate condition of Vishńu, unproductive, unborn, pure, void of qualities, and free from accidents; who is neither high nor low, neither bulky nor minute, has neither shape, nor colour, nor shadow, nor substance, nor affection, nor body; who
is neither ethereal nor susceptible of contact, smell, or
taste; who has neither eyes, nor ears, nor motion, nor
speech, nor breath, nor mind, nor name, nor race, nor
enjoyment, nor splendour; who is without cause, with-
out fear, without error, without fault, undecaying,
immortal, free from passion, without sound, impercep-
tible, inactive, independent of place or time, detached
from all investing properties; but (illusively) exercising
irresistible might, and identified with all beings, de-
pendent upon none. Glory to that nature of Vishńu,
which tongue cannot tell, nor has eye beheld!"

Thus glorifying Vishńu, and intent in meditation on
him, the Prachetasas passed ten thousand years of
austerity in the vast ocean; on which, Hari, being
pleased with them, appeared to them amidst the waters,
of the complexion of the full-blown lotos-leaf. Behold-
ing him mounted on the king of birds, (Garúda), the
Prachetasas bowed down their heads in devout hom-
age; when Vishńu said to them: "Receive the boon
you have desired; for I, the giver of good, am content
with you, and am present." The Prachetasas replied
to him with reverence, and told him that the cause of
their devotions was the command of their father to
effect the multiplication of mankind. The god, having,
accordingly, granted to them the object of their prayers,
disappeared; and they came up from the water.
P. VII., notes, l. 4. So runs the stanza in the Matsya, Kurma, and other Purāṇas. The Markandeya-purāṇa, in its concluding chapter, has the same, with the exception of वंश: for वंश:. The Vaisṇav-purāṇa, III., 6, 17, reads:

सर्ग: प्रतिसगळिः वंशो मनवत्सरायिः च ।
सौवेङ्घिष्ठ: बाध्यते वंशाङ्गुरितं च यत् ॥

For the second line, it gives, at VI., 8, 2:

वंशाङ्गुरितं चैव भवति गद्वयं मया।

P. XXX., ll. 6 and 32. Read Bhūmi Khaṇḍa.
P. XLII., l. 18. Read Vena.
P. XLV., notes, l. 4. Read editor's note in p. LV., infra.
P. LVII., notes, l. 2. Read Venkata.
P. LXIII., l. 11. Read Swayamabhū.
P. LXVI., note, l. 2. For स भवन् (?) read सल्ववन्.
P. LXXXVII., l. 2. “Durrāsasā” is the reading of Professor Wilson’s MS. But it is ungrammatical.
P. XCV., ll. 15 and 29. Read Śatarūpā.
P. CII., notes, l. 4. Read Christa Sangitā.
P. CXXII., l. 2 ab infra. Read Maruta.

P. 6. The Translator’s note is here misnumbered. And the same is the case at pp. 19 and 34.
P. 22, notes, l. 2 ab infra. For p. 15 read p. 18.
P. 25, notes, l. 13. Professor Wilson must have adopted the following reading, that of a few MSS. which I have seen:

होवादिः श्यामानुपलब्धांकोः

Dr. Muir does the same, where he translates the stanza in which this line occurs. See Original Sanskrit Texts, Part IV., p. 3, first foot-note.

P. 25, notes, l. 16. Read पुष्चक.
P. 31, notes, l. 5. Read:

आनाचेतानियः भगवानमानससादिचिद:।

P. 36, note, l. 9. Cudworth’s very words are: “When this world was made, a certain sphere of flame or fire did first arise and encompass the air which surrounds this earth, (as a bark doth a tree)”, &c.

But both the Greek and the English are inadequately quoted.

P. 44, Editor’s note. I ought to have added, that the commentator’s view approaches more nearly that of the translator than my own. His rendering, however, of चचिव्य — which, in the Vedānta, is a stereotype epithet of Brahma — by कुत्त्र:सहिष्ठ: makes it doubtful, to my mind, whether his interpretation is preferable to that which I have proposed. The commentary runs as follows: परिहरति श्रद्ध: हृति सार्वेण्ण:। लोके हि सर्वोष्ण: भावानां ममित्सत्ताराणां श्रद्धो विचित्त्वानुपादाय:। अविचित्त्वलक्ष्यः कृत्त्रीसहिष्ठ: यद्यानां कार्याद्याय:-

गुपपंसिज्ज्ञानं तस्म: गोचर:। सति यथा एवमतो श्रद्ध:ो एषि तत्स्म-
The passage thus annotated will be found translated in Original Sanskrit Texts, Part IV., p. 31, foot-note.

P. 56, l. 5. Read Nárrá.

P. 69, notes, l. 12. Read I-am-ness.

P. 85, notes, l. 6. Referring to this place, Professor Wilson has written: "M. Burnouf renders kāstra, les prêtres [mentales] qui sont comme la glaive; and, in a note in the Vishnu Purāṇa, I have translated the same expression of the Bhāgavata, 'the unuttered incantation'. But it may be doubted if this is quite correct. The difference between kāstra and stoma seems to be, that one is recited, whether audibly or inaudibly; the other, sung." Translation of the Rig-veda, Vol. I., p. 22, note.

P. 86, notes, l. 16. Read यमुन: सामम. L. 27. For वाटी read वापी.

P. 110, notes, l. 2 ab infra. The passage to which I refer is IV., 1, 40 and 42. At III., 24, 23 and 24, as Professor Wilson says, Arundhati is married to Vasishtha, and Śánti, to Atharvan.

P. 111, notes, l. 4. Read Dharma's.

P. 124, notes, l. 6 ab infra. Read द्रव्य.

P. 125, notes, l. 3 ab infra. Read Vāmāchārins.

P. 135, notes, l. 3 ab infra. Read वाटी.

P. 136, l. 4. Read Śātī.

P. 142, l. 2. Read Maruts. Notes, l. 6 ab infra. Read Savitři.

P. 152, notes, l. 6 ab infra. What is really stated is, that Práňa had two sons, Vedaśiras and Kavi; and the latter was father of Uśanas. See Burnouf's Bhāgavata-purāṇa, Vol. II., Preface, pp. VI-IX.

P. 155, notes, l. 13. Read Puňyā.

P. 164, notes, l. 4. Read Dhārana.

P. 170, notes, l. 6. Read -माप्यप्रम.
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