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सम्पादक-मण्डल

डा॰ रामकरण शर्मा उपशिक्षापरामर्शदाता, शिक्षामन्त्रालय तथा निदेशक, केन्द्रीय संस्कृत संस्थान, नयी दिल्ली

डा॰ रामचन्द्र नारायण दाण्डेकर भण्डारकर प्राच्यशोधसंस्थान, पुणे

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पुराणम्—PURĀŅA

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व्यासपूर्णिमाङ्कः

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व्यासस्तोत्रम्

वेदव्यासमहं वन्दे वेदव्यासकरं हरिम्।
पराशरसुतं सत्यवतीपुत्रं महामुनिम्॥ ३८॥
प्राचीनगर्भं प्रवदन्ति यं वै
ज्ञानावतारं प्रथमं मुरारेः।

आचार्यसिंहासनमाश्रितो यो

वेदान्तसूत्राण्यवदच्च मन्त्रान् ॥ ३९ ॥ अपान्तरतमा मुर्निनगमदेशिकश्चादिमो वदन्ति परमर्षयोऽपरविधि च षष्ठं विधेः । चतुर्मुंखमुखोदितं निगदितं च यत् पञ्चमं जगद्धितक्वते × × निजहितस्य वेदं नुमः ॥ ४० ॥ व्यासाम्भोधि (धौ) ज्ञानविज्ञानलीनं तस्मिन् जातं भारताम्भोजपुष्पम् । हंसा हंसा मोदिता यस्य मोदात् त्यक्त्वासारां संस्मृतिं यान्ति पारम् ॥ ४१ ॥

मानं यस्य वचः सुरासुरगणैः सिद्धिर्नरैर्मन्यते ज्ञानं येन च भण्यते श्रमहरं शान्तिप्रदं चामृतम् । यद् वाच्यार्थचतुष्टयं तदृषयः प्राहुर्नृणां तुष्टये यस्मिन् नास्ति न चास्य तत् कचिदिष व्यासं तमेनं भजे ॥ ४२ ॥

भारतस्य मिषतो निगमार्थो भारते प्रकटितः परमार्थः । येन संसृतिविहोनजनानां संस्कृतिभवति चामृतहेतुः ॥ ४३ ॥ भक्तिविरक्त्यनुभूति - प्रधानं

केशवकीर्त्यमृतैकिनिधानम् ।
येन मुदे निखिलस्य पुराणं
व्यासमहं प्रणमामि पुराणम् ॥ ४४ ॥
कृष्णद्वैपायनं वन्दे व्यासं तमरणोपितम् ।
शुको यन्मुखतो जातो यन्मुखात् परमागमम् ॥ ४५ ॥
इत्युग्रश्रवसा गीतं जिनना रोमहर्षणेः।
पठेद् वा श्रृणुयात् स्तोत्रं स प्रसादं गुरोर्भजेत् ॥ ४६ ॥

(शाण्डिल्यसंहिता, भक्तिखण्ड ४।११।३८-४६)

NOTES

As the printed text of the *stotra* contains corrupt readings almost in all the stanzas, they are not fully intelligible and as such we refrain from giving a full translation of the *stotra*. Some of the important expressions of this *stotra* are explained here in brief. The metres used in this *stotra* are Pṛthvi (stanza 40), Śālini (41), Svāgatā (43), Dodhaka (44) and Śārdūlavikridita (42) besides the well-known Anuṣṭubh and Upajāti.

- (38) The traditional view that Vyāsa is the son of Parāśara and Satyavatī is stated here. The word 'veda-vyāsakara' means 'one who arranges or divides the Vedas'. It is clearly stated in the Mbh. and the Purāṇas that the sage Kṛṣṇa-dvaipāyana was called Vyāsa or Vedavyāsa on account of his having arranged or divided the Vedas.
- (39) Vyāsa is regarded as the jñānāvatāra of Viṣṇu. This seems to be an established view, for Vācaspati in his Bhāmatī describes Vyāsa as jñānā-saktyavatāra of Hari (benedictory verse 5).¹ Vyāsa is said to be the author of the Vedāntasūtra (the well-known Brahmasūtra) and the mantras. The precise meaning of the word mantra is not quite clear.
 - 1. ब्रह्मसूत्रकृते तस्मै वेदच्यासाय घीमते। ज्ञानशक्त्यवताराय नमो भगवतो हरें: ।। There is an interesting grammatical discussion on the formation of the word ज्ञानशक्त्यवतार in the Kalpataru and Parimala sub-commentaries. The Gaudiya school does not, however, regard Vyāsa as a ज्ञानप्रकाशक अवतार. According to this school Dattātreya, Matsya, Catuḥsana (Sanaka, Sanandana, Sanātana and Sanatkumāra) and Kapila fall under this class. It regards Vyāsa, Nārada and Buddha as incarnations establishing virtuousness (वर्मप्रकाशक अवतार). In the four-fold division of avatāras Vyāsa falls under the Prābhava division, the other three being Āveśa, Vaibhava and Parāvastha. Usually Vyāsa is regarded as one of the twenty-five līlāvatāras; vide Samkṣepa-bhāgavatāmṛta, section on Avatāra.

As regards the statement that Vyāsa was called by the name Prācīnagarbha, vide Śānti-p. 349.66. (अपान्तरतमार्श्वेव वेदाचार्य: स उच्यते। प्राचीनगर्भं तमृषि प्रवदन्तीह केचन); see below for the Apāntaratamas.²

(40) To keep the metre intact we have read निगमदेशिक: in the place of the printed reading निगमादेशिक:. The sense of अपरविधि च षष्ठ विधे: is not quite clear; the meaning of the third foot is also not fully intelligible. In the fourth foot after जगद्धितकृते two syllables (one laghu and the other guru) are wanting.

About Apāntaratamas, the Mbh. informs us that he came out from the syllable भोस् pronounced by Bhagavat, that he arranged the Vedas in the Svāyambhuva manvantara, that he received from Bhagavat the boon that he would promulgate dharma in all the manvantaras and that he would be born as the son of Parāśara in the family of Vasiṣṭha (Śānti-p. 349.38-59). The traditional view that the ancient sage Apāntaratamas was born as Kṛṣṇadvaipāyana was known to Śankarācārya.

- (41) In verses 41-43 the Mahābhārata is extolled. Here the Mbh. is compared to a lotus floating on the ocean in the form of Vyāsa. The third foot is not quite intelligible. In the fourth foot संस्मृति must be corrected to संस्ति (असारां संस्ति त्यक्त्वा हंसा: पारं यान्ति), so that this foot becomes meaningful.
 - 2. The view propounded in Sānti-p. 349. 64-68 about the propagation of the five śāstras, (namely Trayi, Sāmkhya, etc.) in which Apāntaratamas has been associated with the Vedas is found in Ahirbudhnyasamhitā, Ch. 11 also. According to F.O. Schrader, the sage who is said to have fashioned the three Vedas was called Apāntaratapas (Introduction to the Pancarātra and the Ahirbudhnyasamhitā, pp. 109-110).
 - 3. अपान्तरतमा नाम वेदाचार्यः पुराणिष विष्णुनियोगात् कलिद्वापरयोः सन्धौ कृष्णद्विपायनः संबभूव-इति स्मरन्ति (Śariraka-bhāṣya 3.3.32). The following verses from the Bṛhadyogi-yājñavalkya about the connection of Apāntaratamas with the Vedas are worthy of notice: ''एव एक हि विज्ञेयः प्रणवो योगसाधनम्। गृहोतः सप्तसिद्धान्तै रन्यैश्च ब्रह्मवादिभिः॥ हिरण्यगर्भेः कपिलै रपान्तरतमै-स्तथा। सनत्कुमार् ब्रह्मिडिंग्डे स्तथा पाशुपतरिपि ॥ पाञ्चरात्रैः सदोद्युक्तैः सिद्धान्तैरिप सप्ति। मेदिस्वषष्टिभिभिन्नमेकैकं नवषा पुनः॥'' (2.66-68).

- (42) It is difficult to ascertain what are the four denoted senses (vācyārtha-catuṣṭaya). The fourth foot means the same as यदिहास्ति तदन्यत्र यन्नेहास्ति न तत् नवचित् (Svargārohaṇa-p. 5.50); vide Ādiparvan Ch. 1, for the glorification of the Mahābhārata.
- (43) Samsṛti-vihīna must be corrected to samskṛtivihīna. Samskṛti i. e. samskāra is said to be the means of acquiring amṛta (immortality).
- (44) It is said that the Purāṇa, which chiefly deals with bhakti etc. as well as with the glorious deeds of Kṛṣṇa, was composed by Vyāsa. The verb in the sentence (2nd half), which is in passive voice, is wanting, thus making the sentence elliptical. The word purāṇa in the 4th line qualifies Vyāsa.
- (45) Vyāsa is said to be the husband of Araṇi and the father of Śuka, who achieved divine knowledge from his father. Śuka, being the son of Araṇi, was called Āraṇeya or Araṇisuta in the Mbh. and the Purāṇas. The Śānti-p. (324. 1-11) however gives a mythical account of the birth of Śuka (taking Araṇi or Araṇi as a piece of sacrificial wood i. e. the piece of wood used for kindling the sacred fire by attrition); cp. Harivaṃśa I. 18.50-51 (पराशर-कुलोत्पन्न: शुको नाम महातपा: । व्यासादरण्यां संभूतो विधूमोऽग्निरिव ज्वलन्) and Vāyu-p. 73.28-29.
- (46) Ugraśravas is said to be the jani of Romaharṣaṇa. Since the Purāṇic tradition regards Ugraśravas as the son of Romaharṣaṇa (or Lomaharṣaṇa) we must take Romaharṣaṇi as another name of Romaharṣaṇa. Names of a similar nature are sometimes found in the Purāṇic works, as e. g. Agastya-Agasti (names of the same sage), Pulastya-Pulasti, Uttama-Auttami, Puṣkarasādi-Pauṣkarasādi, Bāṣkala-Bāṣkali, Aruṇa-Āruṇi, Dadhīca-Dadhīci, Cyavana-Cyāvani. Jani, which usually means birth, must be taken here in the sense of 'one who is born' i. e. a son (vtde the comm. on the Uṇādisūtra जनिवसिम्यामिण 4 130).

As this stotra is said to have been sung (gītam) by Ugraśravas, it is quite likely that it occurs in some Purāṇic work hitherto unpublished.

ब्रह्म-शिव-नारायण-स्तोत्रम्

[A eulogy addressed to Brahmā, Siva & Nārāyaṇa separately in three Purāṇic works.]

ैनमो हिरण्यगर्भाय ब्रह्मविष्णुशिवात्मने । अविज्ञातस्वरूपाय कैवल्यायामृताय च ॥ (काशी० २।३०; धर्मारण्य० ३।१४; औश० उप०)

^२यं न देवा विजानन्ति मनो यत्रापि ^३कूण्ठितम् । ४न यत्र वाक् प्रसरित नमस्तस्मै चिदात्मने ॥ (३१;१५) योगिनो यं हृदाकाशे प्रणिधानेन निश्चलाः। ज्योतीरूपं प्रपश्यन्ति तस्मै श्रीब्रह्मणे नमः ॥ (३२;१६) कालात् पराय कालाय स्वेच्छया पुरुषाय च। गुणत्रयस्वरूपाय नमः प्रकृतिरूपिणे ।। (३३;१७) सत्त्वरूपाय रजोरूपाय विष्णवे ^६तमसे रुद्ररूपाय स्थितिसर्गान्तकारिण ॥ (३४;१८) नमो बुद्धिस्वरूपाय °त्रिधाहंकृतये पञ्चतन्मात्ररूपाय पञ्च - कर्मेन्द्रियात्मने ॥ (३५;१९) °नमो मनः-स्वरूपाय पश्चबुद्धीन्द्रियात्मने। क्षित्यादिपञ्चरूपाय नमस्ते विषयात्मने ॥ (३६; २०) नमो ब्रह्माण्डरूपाय तदन्तर्वतिने नमः। अर्वाचीनपराचीनविश्वरूपाय ते नमः ॥ (३७: २१)

१. नमो हिरण्यरूपाय (वैंकट० संस्क०); नमोऽस्त्वनन्तरूपाय नीलकण्ठ नमोऽस्तु ते (धर्मा०); नमो नारायणायेश महद्ब्रह्मस्वरूपिणे (औश०)।

२. नान्तं देवा विजानन्ति यस्य तस्मै नमो नम: (धर्मा०)

३. मनो यत्रापि कुण्ठति (औश०)।

४. यं न वाचः प्रशंसन्ति (धर्मा०); न नि सरति वाग् यत्र (औश०) ।

५. हदःकोशे (धर्मा०)।

६. तमोरूपाय रुद्राय (धर्मा०); नमस्ते रुद्ररूपाय (औश०)।

७. त्रिधाहंकारमूर्तये (धर्मा०)।

८. नमः प्रकृतिरूपिणे (धर्मा०)।

९. नमो नमःस्वरूपाय (काशी ०; धर्मा ०; औश०)।

अनित्यनित्यरूपाय सदसत्पतये नमः।

े "समस्तभक्तकृपया स्वेच्छाविष्कृतविग्रह्॥ (३८; २२)
तव े निःश्वसितं वेदास्तव स्वेदोऽखिलं जगत्।

े विश्वा भूतानि ते पादः शीष्णों द्यौः समवर्तत ॥ (३९; २३)

े नाभ्या आसीदन्तिरक्षं लोमानि च वनस्पितः।
चन्द्रमा मनसो जातश्चक्षोः सूर्यस्तव प्रभो॥ (४०; २४)
त्वमेव सर्वं त्विय देव सर्वं

े स्तोता स्तुतिः स्तव्य इह त्वमेव।
ईश त्वया वास्यमिदं हि सर्वं
नमोऽस्तु भूयोऽपि नमो नमस्ते॥ (४१; २५)

(स्कन्द० वङ्गवासि-वेङ्कटेश्वर संस्करण)

- १०. साधकानां हितार्थाय स्वेच्छाविष्कृतविग्रह (औश०); नमस्ते भक्तकृपया स्वेच्छा (धर्मा० वेंकटसंस्क०)।
- ११. क्लोकोऽयं नास्ति । स्वेच्छाविष्कृतविग्रह इत्यनन्तरम् 'अग्रतस्तु नमस्तुम्यं पृष्ठ-तस्तु नमो नमः । सर्वतो व्याप्तरूपाय भूयो भूयो नमो नमः ॥' इति पठ्यते । (औश॰)।
- १२. विश्वभूतानि ते पादः शिरो (धर्मा०)।
- १३. इलोकोऽयं नास्ति (औरा०)।
- १४. सर्वस्तुतिस्तव्यः (धर्मा०)।

NOTES

Though the eulogy printed above does not have any poetical charm so far as the diction and metre are concerned, yet it has a great importance, for it is found to have been used to eulogize three different deities in three different Purāṇic works, viz. the Kāśikhaṇḍa, the Dharmāraṇyakhaṇḍa and the Auśanasa Upapurāṇa (with slight variations). In the Kāśikhaṇḍa (2.30-41) it is spoken out to Brahmā, in the Dharmāraṇya-khaṇḍa (3.14-25) to Śiva and in the Auśanasa-upapurāṇa to Nārāyaṇa—a fact which shows that originally this stotra must have been composed to eulogize any one of the three deities and afterwards it was applied to the other deities on account of its expounding philosophical views in a lucid manner. It is however impossible to ascertain the deity addressing to which this stotra was at first composed by the Purāṇic author.

It is to be noted in this connection that there are some stotras (in different Purāṇic works) in which a considerable number of stanzas are found more or less identical. A study of such stotras may yield important results so far as the chronology of the relevant Purāṇic sections is concerned.

In the Kāśīkhaṇḍa (ch. 2) this stotra (called Abhīṣṭada in 2.47) was addressed by the Devas to Brahmā, so that he, being pleased, could find some way to lower the highly enlarged peak of the Vindhya hill. It is said that the hill, being envious of mount Meru, increased its height in order to obstruct the path of the sun. As a result of this obstruction, the whole world fell into disaster. Getting afraid the gods requested Brahmā to find out some means so that the height of the Vindhya hill could be lowered. This story with minor variations is found in several Purāṇic works and also in the Mbh. Vana-p. 104. The Rāmāyaṇa also refers to it in 3.11.85.

In the Dharmāraṇyakhaṇḍa (ch. 3) it is said that at the beginning of the Tretā-yuga, Dharmarāja began to practise severe penance. Being afraid of Dharmarāja the devas with Brahmā went to mt. Kailāsa to see Śiva. On seeing Śiva, Brahmā extolled him by uttering this eulogy (verses 14-25).

In the Ausanasa-upapurāṇa the stotra occurs in the section on Vindhya-māhātmya (ch. l). It is said that once Nārada came to the Badarikā āśrama and extolled Nārāyaṇa by uttering this stotra. [The verses of this Upapurāṇa have been taken from the Vaidyakavṛttānta (a highly learned work in Bengali dealing with the history of the Āyurvedic teachers) by Pt. Gurupada Haldar in which the first chapter of this Upapurāṇa has been quoted. Unfortunately the serial number of these verses has not been given by the author]¹

As the Kāsikhanda is well known we take the Kāsikhanda version as original and place the different readings of the Dharmārānyakhanda (a sub-division of the Brahmakhanda of the Skandapurāna) and the Ausanasa-upapurāna in the footnotes.

^{1.} According to Dr. Hazra the Ausanasa-upapurāṇa is one of the lost Upapurāṇas (St.Up. II, p. 501-502). There is another lost Upapurāṇa called Bṛhad-Ausanasa-upapurāṇa (ibid, p. 504-505). Dr. Hazra informs us that 'there are MSS. of a Vindhya-māhātmya which claim to be a part of this Upapurāṇa.

In this stotra it is not the personality of the deity but the omnipresence and immanance of the deity which is predominant. That is why it hardly contains any description which is peculiar to any one of the three deities. The stotra speaks of all the important categories (prameyas) of adhyātma-vidyā and identifies them with the deity. The repeated use of the word namas (which shows obeisance) has undoubtedly rendered the stotra sublime and effective. Some of the important words in this stotra are explained here in brief.

In the Rg-veda (10.121) Hiranyagarbha is the only lord of the existent and is the one god above the gods. He is not only the creator but also the preserver and destroyer of the phenomenal world. He is often called Prajāpati in the Vedic works. In the Purāṇas the name Hiranyagarbha is almost exclusively applied to the god associated with the act of creation (usually called Brahmā) (Mark.·p. 46.20-21a) and not to the god associated with the act of preservation or destruction. It seems that on account of the prominence of the act of creation (cp. सर्विवताराणां जिनम्लद्वात्, Śaṅkara on Muṇḍaka 2.1.2) the name Hiraṇyagarbha came to be applied to the creator Brahmā to whom the word Prajāpati is frequently applied by the authors of the Purāṇas. The Purāṇas regarded Brahmā as the first teacher of the Vedas (in each creation) and from the Upaniṣads we learn that the line of teachers does not extend beyond Hiraṇyagarbha (vide Br.-up. 2.6.3 with the bhāṣya).

नमो हिरण्यगर्भाय....अमृताय च—The name Hiranyagarbha has been explained as 'one whose essence (garbha) consists in divine knowledge (hiranya)'; or 'one in whom hiranya (brahmānḍa, cosmic egg) exists'.¹ Hiranyagarbha is regarded here as identical

1. हितं रमणीयम् अत्युज्जवलं ज्ञानं गर्भः अन्तःसारो यस्य (Śańkara on Śvetāśvatara-up. 3.4). हिरण्यं गर्भे अस्य, हिरण्यस्य गर्भो वा ब्रह्माण्डप्रभवत्वात् (Ksīrasvāmin on Amara 1.1.76). हिरण्यं ब्रह्माण्डस्पं यस्येश्वरस्य प्रजापतेर्गभें वर्तते सोऽयं हिरण्यगर्भः; यद्वा हिरण्यस्य ब्रह्माण्डस्य मध्ये सत्यलोके गर्भस्र्वेणा-वस्थितः चतुर्मुं खो हिरण्यगर्भः (Sāyaṇa on Tai. Sam.); हिरण्ययस्य अण्डस्य गर्भभूतः प्रजापतिहिरण्यगर्भः । यद्वा हिरण्यगेऽण्डो गर्भवद् यस्योदरे वर्तते सोऽसौ स्त्रात्मा हिरण्यगर्भ इत्युच्यते (Sāyaṇa on RV. 10.121.1). The Ven. ed. reads हिरण्यस्थाय. Prajāpati Hiraṇyagarbha may rightly be described as hiraṇyarūpa; see the etymology of hiraṇya in connection with Prajāpati in Śatapatha-br. 7.4.1.16.

with kaivalya (emancipation, mokṣa) and amṛta (immortality). Since Hiraṇyagarbha is not the immutable ultimate principle, nor is he really bereft of activity (he is called saguṇa brahman or kārya brahman by the philosophers), the above description cannot be taken as philosophically valid; it must be taken as figurative. Since Hiraṇyagarbha possesses an extremely purified limiting adjunct the epithets applicable to the absolute brahman are also applied to him (vide Śańkara on Bṛ.-up. 1.4.6). Such figurative descriptions are often found in eulogies.

यं न देवा....चिदात्मने—Deva may be taken either in the sense of 'the wise' or in the sense of 'the organs' (vide bhāṣya on Īśa-up. 4). For the idea expressed in मनो....प्रस्ति vide Tai.-up. 2. 4. 1 (यतो वाचो निवर्तन्ते अप्राप्य मनसा सह) and Kaṭha-up. 6. 12. Cidātman—one whose essential nature consists in cit (divine consciousness). If cit is taken in the sense of 'absolute awareness', then the description must be taken as figurative.

योगिनो यं....नमः—The heart, according to yogins, is the most suitable place for practising meditation. Pranidhāna is either 'the acute form of one-pointedness' or 'a particular kind of devotion'. Since hṛdaya (one of the dhāraṇādeśas) is not elemental (bhautika) but spiritual (ādhyātmika) the jyotis perceived in the heart is not of the nature of external light; the word jyotis is used in the sense of 'illuminating entity' (avabhāsaka); vide Śārīrakabhāṣya 1.1.24. In Śrī-brahman, Śrī may rightly be taken in the sense of aparā vidyā (cp. ऋचो यजूषि सामानि सा हि श्रोरमृता सताम्—Tai. Br. I. 2. 26. 2). As the tradition of sages holds that the line of teachers does not extend beyond Hiraṇyagarbha, it is reasonable to regard Hiraṇyagarbha as the repository of Vedic lore (Śrī). Śrī may however mean the supersensuous powers also, which, according to the Purāṇas, are innate in the creator Prajāpati.

কালান্....বুহ্বায় ভা — Strictly speaking it is the absolute brahman (and not the creator Brahmā or any other deity) that transcends time. To Brahmā the act of transcending time is applied figuratively. ইবছয়া বুহ্বায় ভা—'He has willingly assumed the forms of sentient beings (puruṣa i. e. jīva)'—it may refer to the doctrine that the embodied beings are the conditioned forms of the absolute brahman (vide Bṛ-up.1.4.7; Chāndogya-up.6.3.2). The commentator

Rāmānanda however takes it to express the same sense as Viṣṇu-p. 1.2.29 (प्रधानपुरुषं चापि प्रविश्यात्मेच्छ्या हरि: । क्षोभयामास संप्राप्ते सर्गकाले). गुणत्रयस्वरूपाय नमः प्रकृतिरूपिणे—Guṇas, namely sattva (the sentient principle), rajas (the mutative principle) and tamas (the static principle) are identified with Brahmā. A distinction is made here between the guṇas and the prakṛti which is usually regarded as a name for the three guṇas. It appears that here 'guṇa' means 'the guṇas in the quiescent state' and prakṛti means 'the guṇas in the state of evolution'. The followers of the Śaivādvaita system regard prakṛti and guṇa as two distinct tattvas and state that the guṇas arise from the agitated prakṛti (Tantrasāra, VIII).

विष्णवे...कारिणे—Here Brahmā is considered to be identical with Viṣṇu and Rudra (Siva). That Brahmā, Viṣṇu and Rudrā are respectively connected with the rajas, sattva and tamas guṇas as well as with the act of creation, preservation and destruction respectively is an established doctrine of the Purāṇas (Matsya·p. 3. 14-16; Mārkaṇḍeya-p. 46. 14-18).

नमो बुद्धि....कर्मेन्द्रियात्मने—In the following stanzas Brahmā is regarded as identcal with buddhi etc. This identity is based on his superintendency (adhiṣṭhātṛtva). Buddhi is the cognitive principle, known also as the mahattattva. Ahamkṛti i. e. ahamkāra (ahamkṛti seems to have been used to keep the metre intact) has, according to the Sāmkhya philosophy and the Purāṇas, three aspects, namely vaikṛtika or vaikṛta, taijasa and bhūtadi, which are respectively predominated by the sattva, rajas and tamas guṇas. The chapters on sarga in the Purāṇas contain valuable information regarding the nature and genesis of the five tanmātras, namely śabdatanmātra etc. The five karmendriyas (motor organs or the powers of voluntary movement) are well known. The physical organs are to be known as the seats (adhiṣṭāna) of the organs.

नमो मनःस्वरूपाय ... विषयात्मने—Though all the three Purāṇic texts read नमो नमःस्वरूपाय yet there is not the slightest doubt that it is a corrupt reading, for the manas principle remains unexpressed if it is not read here. Moreover, it is improper to regard the deity as 'the same as namas'. A very precise definition of manas has been given by Śańkarācārya as सर्वार्थविषयं त्रैकाल्यवृत्ति मन एकमनेकवृत्तिकम् (Bhāṣya on Bṛ-up. 2.4.6). Five buddhīndriyas are often called jnāne-

ndriyas. For the reason for using the words jñānendriya and karmen. driya, vide Śārīrakabhāsya 2.4.6. The nature of these two kinds of organs are to be known according to the sastric tradition. The five bhūtas, namely kṣiti (earth), ap (water), tejas (light), vāyu (air) and ākāśa (the substance whose attribute is sound only) are not to be confounded with earth etc. Visaya is used here in the sense of 'bhautikas' i. e. 'the objects made up of the five bhūtas'—'the gross or complex objects'.

नमो ब्रह्माण्ड ... ते नम: Brahmānda is the cosmic egg, which, according to the Puranas, consists of the seven lokas. Tadantarvartinthat which exists in the brahmanda. 'You are both arvācīna and parācīna viśvarūpas' (the manifold world). Arvācīna—'belonging to the proximate time' or 'of recent origin'; parācīna-'belonging to ancient times' or 'falling beyond the field of experience'. The commentator takes arvācīna and parācīna in the sense of 'aparakālika' and 'pūrvakālika' respectively.

अनित्यनित्य...नम: Both the absolute brahman and the qualified brahman are sometimes described in the Upanişads etc. as possessing opposite attributes.1 Commentators show that there is no real contradiction in such descriptions. It is needless to say that the words nitya and sat as well as their opposites are taken in more than one sense. समस्तभक्त...विग्रह—'He assumes various vigrahas out of compassion to his devotees'; cp. उपासकानां कार्यार्थं ब्रह्मणो रूपकल्पना (Rāmatāpani-up. 1.1.7). Vigrahas are the mūrtis to be worshipped; it may mean the incarnations also. The Vaisnava view about the assuming of vigrahas by the lord finds its excellent expression in the following couplet: "मणियंथा विभागेन नीलपीतादिभिः र्युतः । रूपभेदमवाप्नोति ध्यानभेदातु तथाच्यतः ॥"

तव नि:श्वसितं "तव प्रभो—This view about the Vedas is based on the Br-up. passage 'अस्य महतो भूतस्य नि:श्वसितमेतद् यद्ग्वेदो'''' (2.4.10). The purpose of using the word 'breath' is to show that the Vedas came out of the infinite reality without the slighest

^{1.} न सत तन्नासद्च्यते (Gitā 13.12); सदसच्चाहमर्जुन (Gitā 9.19); सदसत्तत्परं यत् (Gita 11.37); उभयमेतत् प्रजापति निरुक्तश्चानिरुक्तश्च परिमित-आपरिमित्रश्च (Satapatha-br. 6.5.3.7); द्वे वाव ब्रह्मणो रूपे मूर्त चामूर्त च-. (Bṛ-up. 2.3.1); सच्च त्यच्च अभवत (Tai-Up. 2.6; त्यत meaning अमर्त).

effort. The view expressed in तब स्वेदोऽखिलं जगत् is conspicuous for its absence in the Vedic works. If 'sveda (sweat) is taken in the sense of 'seed i. e. energy placed in water' (अप्सु विसृष्ट वीय शक्ति विशेष:) then the sentence may be taken as expressing the same idea as is found in Manu 1.9 (vide the comm.); cp. Chān. Up. 6.2-4 which says that water was created by Being and that this in turn, willed to become many and to grow forth. विश्वा भूतानि "अभे—These lines are evidently based on the Puruṣasūkta (RV. 10.90.3,13,14). It is noteworthy that the sentence लोमानि च वनस्पत्ति: is not found in the RV. The view is, however, found in the Viṣṇupurāṇa: "ओषघ्य: फलमूलानि रोमम्यस्तस्य जित्ररे" (1.5.50); cp. Tai-Br. 3.10.8.7 (ओषघि-वनस्पत्यो में लोमस् श्विता:). Vanaspati may be taken here in a general sense, and not in the restricted sense of 'those which bear fruits but not flowers'.

त्वमेव....नमो नमस्ते—The third foot reminds one of the first foot of the first mantra of the Isavasya-upanisad (ईशा वास्यमिदं सर्वम्). An echo of the fourth foot is found in Gita.11.39 (पुनश्च भूयोऽपि नमो नमस्ते; cp. भूयिष्ठां ते नम उक्ति विधेम (Isavasya-up. 18).

The variant readings in the Dharmāranyakhanḍa do not show any important difference in meaning. Since Śiva is eulogized, the words Nilakaṇṭha (in vocative case) and anantarūpāya (14) have been used. As to why Śiva came to be called by the name Nilakaṇṭha, see Mbh. Ādi-p.18.41-43. The word anantarūpā is significant as in the Vedas, the Rudras are regarded as many (असंख्याताः सहस्राणि ये छ्द्रा अधि भूम्याम् YV.16.54). The reading नमः प्रकृतिरूपिणे (19) is corrupt, as it is already read in verse 17. The reading तव वेदोऽखिल जगत् (23) (your Veda is the whole world) is better than the reading in the Kāśīkhaṇḍa, for there are authoritative statements to support this view (cp. छन्दोम्य एव प्रयममेतद विश्वं व्यवर्तत, Vākyapadīya 1.120).

The only variant reading in the Ausanasa-upapurāṇa that deserves consideration is साधकानां हितायीय in the place of समस्तभककृपया (Kāsikhanda 38) or नमस्ते भक्तकृपया (Dharmāranyo 22, Ven. ed.). As the expression मक्तकृपया is grammatically objectionable, the reading in the Upapurāṇa seems preferable.

THE DIVINE PRESENCE IN THE MŪRTI ACCORDING TO THE PURĀŅA-S

By

PINUCCIA CARACCHI

The cult of the mūrti, which has such a great importance in Hindu religious practices has been equated with idolatry in Western countries for a long time. For example, E. O. Martin at the beginning of the century wrote: "The most stricking characteristic of Hinduism is idolatry. Idols, idols in every where, they are found all over the lands in millions."1 The statements of Rev. Sherring in a book published in 1864 are even worse: "Idolatry has, for many centuries, drunk the life-blood of the Hindu with insatiate thirst, has covered with its pollutions the fair and fertile soil of India, has drenched the land with its poisoned waters, and has rendered its inhabitants as godless as it was possible for them to become."2 Fortunately nowadays this wrong view has largely disappeared, especially thanks to the enlightening studies of Coomaraswamy, Avalon, Danielou³ and others. From the indologist to those who have touched the subject only superficially, no one would now affirm that the cult of sacred images in India is idolatrous. In fact, the mūrti is not worshipped as a material object,

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^{1.} Cf. The Gods of India, Delhi, 1972 (rep.), p. 8.

^{2.} Cf. M. A. SHERRING, Benares, the Sacred City of the Hindus, Delhi, 1975 (rep. of 1868), p. 46.

^{3.} Among the many works and articles of Coomaraswamy dealing with this subject the most relevant two are The Transformation of Nature in Art, New York, 1934 (Indian Edition, Delhi, 1974) and The Dance of Shiva, Delhi, 1968. Of A. DANIELOU, The Hindu Polytheism, London, 1963 is worthy of special mention. See also of A. AVALON, Sakti and Sakta, Madras, 1975 (VII ed.), especially chap. VIII.

rather the Divinity is worshipped through the *mūrti*. Strictly speaking, one should not say cult "of" the *mūrti* but cult "in" the *mūrti*, that is the cult of that Divinity which is invoked in the image through the rite of $\bar{a}v\bar{a}hana$ and is removed from it through *visarjana*. 4

Therefore, āvāhana and visarjana are thought to effect a mystic change in the murti. This change, however, has been interpreted by some scholars just as a device to help devotion during worship. A. K. Coomaraswamy, for example, when speaking of avahana and visarjana rites, says: 'It should not be supposed that the deity, by invocation and dismissal, is made to come or go, for omnipresence does not move; these ceremonies are really projections of the worshipper's own mental attitude toward the image. By invocation he announces to himself his intention of using the image as a means of communion with the Angel; by dismissal he announces that his service has been completed, and that he no longer regards the image as a link between himself and the deity.'5 Avalon speaks in very similar terms. According to him the meaning of the $\bar{a}v\bar{a}hana$, the $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ and the visarjana is that the mind of the faithful recognizes, worships and then leaves the presence of the Divinity in the mūrti, which is a consequence of the divine omnipresence. So these rituals would not produce any objective change in the marti, but only a change in the mental attitude of the faithful towards the murti. 6 The problem now is to see whether this interpretation can be supported by the Scriptures and whether it can lead to a satisfactory and definite solution of the problem of the relation between the Divinity and the mūrti. Looking through the Purana-s, Agama-s and Tantra-s, we can find many starting points for reflecting on this matter. In the puranic texts, especially, there is often a section devoted to the construction, consecration and worship of sacred images. These sections chiefly give practical rules and technical details, but here and there it is possible to find some theoretical passages and some reflections on the meaning of the Divinity's images. In the puranic texts, on which this rese-

^{4.} Cf. S. I. VARMĀ, Bhārat mē pratīk-pūjā kā āraṃbh aur vikās, Patna, 1974, p. 14: हम वस्तुत: पत्थर नहीं पूजते, लेकिन पत्थर में मन्त्र द्वारा ईश्वर की सत्ता लाकर ईश्वर को पूजते हैं।

^{5.} The Transformation, p. 169

^{6.} See A. AVALON, op. cit., pp. 303-304

arch is mainly based, there are certainly some passages supporting the interpretations of Coomaraswamy and Avalon.

Viṣṇudharmottara-purāṇa, 3.108, for example, is completely devoted to the solution of this problem: how can the Omnipresent Absolute, who pervades being and non-being, be touched by the āvāhana? The answer is given very clearly: āvāhana and pūjā do not touch the Supreme who is present always and everywhere in the universe. Therefore, $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ is only "a means for the satisfaction of the mind' (केवलं कारणं तत्र मनसस्तुष्टिकारणम्). For this reason alone the Supreme is called even though He is already present. Worship cannot have any effect on Him who is by his very nature always blissful, but He accepts it to fulfil the bhakti of his devotees. For this reason, indeed, He Himself gives the impulse for the worship of sacred images, but the worshipper should always be aware of the divine omnipresence, by virtue of which not only the marti but also the place and the objects used in pūjā as well as all the other things are pervaded by the Divinity.8 The following statement of the Parama-samhita is even clearer: "God is neither established nor protected by anyone. He only receives the $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ of the bhakta-s."9

From this assertion is it necessary to infer that the āvāhana and the other rites do not touch the sacred image at all, but only touch the worshipper's mind? First, we may note that in the quoted passages, and generally wherever the problem of the mārti is considered from this point of view, the intention is to stress the idea that the Omnipresent Absolute can never be contained in the narrow limits of a man-made form, and that His Blissfulness cannot be increased by any act of worship¹⁰. Here the

ब्रह्मार्पणं ब्रह्महविव्रं ह्माग्नी ब्रह्मणा हुतम्। ब्रह्मव तेन गन्तव्यं ब्रह्मकमर्मसमाधिना॥

^{7.} Cf. Viṣṇudharmottara-Purāṇa, Third Khaṇḍa, edit. by P. Shah, Baroda, 1958, 3. 108. 3cd-5.

^{8.} Ibidem, 3. 108. 14-22. This idea, in a strictly non-dualistic perspective, is beautifully expressed also in a śloka of Mahānirvāṇa-tantra (ed. by J. Vidyāsāgara, Calcutta, 1884, 3. 56), which repeats Bhagavadgītā 4.24:

^{9.} Cf. Paramasamhitā, edit. by S. K. Aiyangar, Baroda, 1940, 18. 12.

^{10.} Cf. Svetāsvatara-upaniṣad, 4. 19cd : न तस्य प्रतिमा अस्ति यस्य नाम महद्यशः।

reality of the mūrti is, therefore, not taken primarily into consideration, but rather the whole attention is directed to making clear this idea in the mind of the sādhaka. For example, the passage quoted above from the Viṣṇudharmottara-purāṇa goes on to say:

प्रादुर्भावगतो विष्णुर्यथा देवगणास्तथा। आवाहितः सन्निहितो भवतीति विनिश्चयः ॥¹¹

In Praśna-samhitā, Viṣṇu promises to be present with his own śākti in that image which is consecrated and worshipped by a knower of Veda and Vedānga, that is to say by a man who has the adhikāra for it. Morever, many passages speak of God's being "invoked" (āvāhitaḥ) or "established" (sthāpitaḥ) in the mārti or pratimā. According to Hayaśīrṣapāncarātra, there are even external signs that reveal Kṛṣṇa's presence in an image: the image becomes light and bright and shows an expression of joy. 15

11. Viṣṇudharmottara-p., 3. 108. 9. Also in śloka-s 7, 13, 22, 24 of the same adhyāya the presence of God in a form is clearly asserted. Cf. also Agni-purāṇa, edit. by B. Upādhyāya, Vārāṇasī, 1966, 60. 29ab:

यात्रावर्षादिकं दृष्ट्वा ज्ञेयः सन्निहितो हरिः।

12. पूजयेद्यदि मद्बिम्बं वेदवेदाङ्गपारगः।
गृहे वापि प्रतिष्ठाप्य नित्यं पूजयते यदि॥
अहं तद्बिम्बमाविश्य भक्तानामिष्टसाधकः।
त्वया सह भविस्यामि नात्र संदेह अस्तु ते॥

Śrī Praśnasamhitā, edit. by S. Padmanabham, Tirupati, 1969, 4. 10-11. Cf. also Varāha-purāņa (Venkateśvara, Bombay, 1923):

आगमिज्याम्यहं देवि मन्त्रपाठो मम प्रियः। (182, 16ab) and एवं कृते विधाने भवामि सन्तिहतः स्वयम्। (182, 20ab)

- 13. For example in Bhāgavata-purāņa, 11. 27. 19 (Gorakhpur, 1968).
- 14. For example in Parama-samhita, 4. 61 and 19. 1.
- 15. See R. V. JOSHI, Le rituel de la devotion kṛṣṇaite, Pondichery, 1959, p. 83. Also J. N. BANER JEA, in Development of Hindu Iconography, Delhi, 1974 (III ed.), p. 69 quotes a passage of Ṣaḍviṃśa Brāhmaṇa in which it is said that gods' images laugh, cry, dance etc. Cf. also Rāmacaritamānasa (Gorakhpur, n. d.), 1. 235ff. where the statue of Gaurī smiles and speaks with Sītā,

There may seem to be a contradiction between the texts cited in the last paragraph and those cited earlier. On the one hand the divine presence in the murti is clearly affirmed, and on the other this presence is described only as a means of satisfying the bhakti of the devotees, a device used by God to attract them and facilitate their meditation. 16 But under this apparent contradiction, we can discover two different points of view: one is that of the devotee, who uses the mūrti because he needs this means of reaching the One who is Amarta; the other is that of the yogin who sees the Supreme Brahman in everything, and for whom the āvāhana and visarjana have no significance because they cannot modify the Supreme Omnipresence he has realized in his own heart. He "sees Siva in the Atman and not in the pratimā-s."17 These two points of view are not incompatible, and it is possible to find them in close proximity as we have seen in Visnudharmottara-purana. In fact, the second point of view represents the ultimate goal, while the first one is only a means, an intermediate stage, as the worship of the mūrti has a value only "until one has realized in his own heart the Lord present in all beings":

अर्चादावर्चयेत् तावदीश्वरं मां स्वकर्मकृत्। यावन्न वेद स्वहृदि सर्वभूतेष्ववस्थितम्॥ ॥

Worshipping the $m\bar{u}rti$ can be compared with learning the alphabet, which must precede the overall comprehension of a text: in the same way, a man starts worshipping God in his different images, following his own faith and bhakti and according to his stage

^{16.} Cf. Siva-purāṇa (Veṅkateśvara, Bombay, 1965), Koṭiru-drasamhitā, 42. 9ab : ध्यानार्थं चैव सर्वेषामरूपो रूपवानभूत्। Cf. also Bhāgavata-p., 5. 25. 10 and Mahānirvāṇa-tantra, 4. 16-17 and 13. 4, 13.

^{17.} शिवमात्मिन पश्यन्ति प्रतिमासु न योगिन: । Jabaladarsana-upaniṣad, 4. 59 ab (in: Upaniṣatsamgrahaḥ, Patna, 1970). Cf. also Linga-purāṇa (ed. by J. Vidyāsāgara, Calcutta, 1885), 1. 74. 30 and 1. 75. 18-22; Śiva-p., Rudrasamhitā, 1.12.50-54; Kūrma-purāṇa (ed. by A. S. Gupta, Vārāṇasī, 1971), 11.98.20.

^{18.} Bhāgavata-p., 3. 29. 25. Cf. also Siva-p., Rudrasamhitā, 1. 12. 63-67; Agni-p., 379. 31-32; Linga-p., 1. 75. 20. The same idea is clearly expressed also in Maitry-upanisad, 4.6,

of spiritual evolution, in order to reach the highest stage in which he sees Him as the Atman present in all beings. 19

This fact, however, does not justify a merely symbolic interpretation of those scriptural passages which speak of the divine presence, called in the mūrti through āvāhana. Even if the yogin's point of view is superior to the devotee's, it does not remove the validity of the latter. It is certainly a relative validity, but only as devotion to a personal God is relative in comparison to the realization of Brahman. In the vedantic terminology we can say that the yogin's perspective is pāramārthika, while the devotee's is vyāvahārika.²⁰

In the devotional perspective, worship of the $m\bar{u}rti$ has an important but rather limited place on the stairway of spiritual evolution that leads to mok sa. Nevertheless this does not preclude the possibility that the limited horizons of this worship may suddenly open up, permitting the devotee to grasp the vision of the All-pervading Absolute. This experience is often represented in the $Pur\bar{a}nas$. It is the moment when the devotee becomes aware of the fact that the Divinity which he invokes and adores in the image is only the manifestation of that Absolute. Thus in the $\bar{a}v\bar{a}hana$ formula itself we sometimes find the mixed and harmonious devotion to the Lord present in a particular way in the $m\bar{u}rti$, and the aware-

19. अर्चादिषु यदा यत्र श्रद्धा मां तत्र चार्चयेत्।
सर्वभूतेष्वात्मिन च सर्वात्माहमवस्थितः।।
(Bhāgavata-p., 11. 27. 48)

यत्र तत्र यथा भक्तिः कर्त्व्यं पूजनादिकम्। (Śiva-p., Rudrasamhitā, 1. 12. 69ab).

Notice that in Garudapurāna (edit. by R. Bhattacharya, Vārāṇasī, 1964), 44. 12-13, one is lead to the meditation on Atman-Brahman just during the contemplation of a Viṣnu's image.

20. It may be interesting to see what Śańkarācārya says in connection with the problem we are dealing with. Commenting the scriptural statements speaking of God's presence in a particular place (such as in the heart or in the śālagrāma), he compared Him with the space that, although omnipresent, is said to abide in the eye of a needle, from the point of view of its association with the needle. But from the pāramārthika point of view a limited dwelling cannot be attributed to the Brahman (who has no relation with the unreal world). Cf. Brahmasūtrabhāṣya, 1. 2. 7.

ness of the divine Omnipresence: "I will invoke that Spirit who pervades the twenty-five tattva-s, the Consciousness, the Supreme Beatitude who is situated in the heart, beginning from Brahmā to the blade of grass. From the heart, O Supreme Lord, remain steady in the image which is pratimā." 21

It is important to stress that generally it is not the Supreme Brahman who is invoked to become present in the sacred image. 22 The Object of the avahana, the "call", if not one of the many gods who, according to Visnudharmottara-purāņa (3.108.2-3), enter the statue by their own siddhi-s, is Isvara or Isa, that is the Supreme Lord who can be identified alternately with Siva, Visnu, the Devi-the Ista-devatā to whom the bhakta's devotion is turned. The fact that it is not the Brahman but Isvara who "descends" into the marti is comprehensible in the light of two considerations. The first one concerns the sādhaka and consists in the fact, as already mentioned, that he who has realized the Brahman does not need murti worship anymore. The second one is, so to speak, of a "theological" character, and concerns the Brahman who is unmanifested (avyakta) and nirguna by his own nature. What manifests itself is Isvara, who gives rise to the world, supports it, destroys it and manifests Himself in the avatāra-s. Of course, in reading the Purana-s, it is necessary to bear in mind that, from

21. जीवमावाहयिष्यामि पञ्चविशतितत्त्वगम् ॥ चैतन्यं परमानन्दं ः ः ब्रह्मादिस्तम्बपर्य्यन्तं हृदयेषु व्यवस्थितम् । हृदयात् प्रतिमाबिम्बे स्थिरो भव परेश्वर ॥

(Agni-p., 60. 19cd-21)

Also in Viṣṇudharmottara-p., 3. 102, we find an āvāhana's formula very similar to this one: आवाह्याम्यहं जीवं बीजं सर्वगतं प्रभुम्।....Cf. also Varāha-p., 182. 9 and 186. 11.

22. There are surely a few passages from which we can infer just the opposite. For example in the passage of Agni-p. following the above quotation, it is written:

ज्योतिर्ज्ञानं परं ब्रह्म एकमेवाद्वितीयकम्।

सजीवीकरणं कृत्वा प्रणवेन निवोधयेत् ॥ (60.23) But this fact is explained by the identification of Viṣṇu, invoked in the statue, with the *Brahman* (see below). their dovotional perspective, the *Iṣṭa-devatā* has very often been so exalted as to be identified with the *Brahman* itself, ²³ therefore in the *Iṣṭa-devatā* the characteristics of *Iśvara* and Brahman are coexisting.

In order to fully understand the problem of the murti we are dealing with, it is important to examine how the idea of divine manifestation in a definite form has been developed in the puranic literature In the Supreme One two forms are distinguished: para and apara, amurta and murta24: the first one is unmanifested and can be neither seen nor known by the common man, nor even by gods, and all the more it cannot be used as a support for meditation nor be the object of religious practices25; the second one is the 'form of Bhagavat having a murti" (मृत भगवतो रूपम्, Viṣṇu-p., 6.7.78a), the same mūrti that "abides in the avatāra-s" (अवतारेषु या मृतिविहरेत, Garuda-p., 1.226.32 cd) and hence can be contemplated, worshipped, "invoked" by men. In this connection also the Parama-samhitā (3.5-7) very clearly affirms that only he who is endowed with a mūrti (mūrtimān) can be taken as an object of pūjā by a devotee but he who is Nirākāra can be reached neither through acts of worship nor with praising hymns, nor even by

आश्रयश्चेतसो ब्रह्म द्विघा तच्च स्वभावतः । भूष मूर्त्तममूर्त्तं च परं चापरमेव च ॥ ibidem, 6. 7. 47.

A clear definition of para and apara is found in Bṛḥa-nnāradīya purāṇa (edit. by H. Shastri, Vārāṇasī, 1975 (IIed.)), 31. 57-59.

^{23.} Cf, for example, Śiva-p., Rudrasamhitā, 41. 42: Garuḍa-p., 1. 1. 12; Bhāgavata-p., 11. 16. 1; Linga-p., 1. 95. 22 where Śiva, Viṣṇu, Kṛṣṇa and Nṛsimha are identified with the Brahman. Cf. also above n. 22.

^{24.} मूर्तामूर्त परम्ब्रह्म। (Agni-p., 347. 9c; हे रूपे ब्रह्मणस्तस्य मूर्त चामूर्तमेव च। Viṣṇu-purāṇa (Gorakh-pur, 1969), 1. 22. 55ab;

Cf. Devī Bhāgavata (edit. by R. T. Pandey, Kāśī, 1969),
 8. 19-20; Bhaviṣya-purāṇa (Veṅkateśvara, Bombay, 1959),
 1. 149. 19; Garuda-p.,
 1. 226. 33.

dhyāna.²⁶ The Viṣṇu-purāṇa says that yogin-s also, in the beginning of their yogic practice, concentrate on the "Mūrta" One.²⁷

In such a context, of course, the term "mārti" is not used in the narrow sense of a sacred image or pratimā, but with its wider etymologic meaning, i.e. something that has assumed a form or a consistency, a "concretion", "personification", "manifestation".28 Here we really find the key to understanding the doctrinal basis from which faith in God's presence in the sacred image finds its justification. In fact, when the term mārti is connected with avatāra, as in the above quoted passage,29 it is just to convey something very similar to what happens in the avatāra: in both cases the Amārta One takes a mārti, that is to say, He becomes concrete, manifests Himself, assumes a form, "descending" into a body or, in our case, into a pratimā. How God can become present in the image surely remains mysterious, but this is not a greater and more inexplicable mystery than the avatāra: here and there

पूजाध्यानादिकं कर्तुं साकारस्यैव शक्यते।। स्वतस्तु देवः साकारः पूजनीयो यथाविधि। अध्यक्ता हि गतिर्दुःखं देहभृद्भिरवाप्यते।। अतो भगवतानेन स्वेच्छ्या यत्प्रदिश्तिम्। प्रादुभविष्वथाकारं तदर्चन्ति दिवौकसः।। एतस्मात् कारणात् पूजा आकारस्य विघीयते। cf. also Viṣṇu-p., 6. 7. 55.

- 27. मूर्तं यद्योगिभिः पूर्वं योगारम्भेषु चिन्त्यते । (1.22.61cd)
- 28. In this general meaning, the term mārti is often used simply to signify the different aspects of God, as Śiva's Aṣṭamārti (cf. Linga-p., 2. 13. 1ff.; Śiva-p., Śatarudra-samhitā, 2 and Vāyavīyasamhitā, 2. 3. 18ff.) or a particular form in which He manifests Himself or is worshipped by his devotees (for example in Agni-p., 379. 6b; Bhaviṣya-p., 1. 4. 195 and 1.154. 15-20). Also remark that mārta and amārta are often synonymous of saguņa and nirguņa, as in Agni-p, 274. 9c; Viṣṇu-p, 1. 22. 55b and 6. 7. 47c.

^{26.} The same idea is also expressed in Viṣṇudharmattara-p., 3. 46. 3cd-6ab:

^{29.} Garuda-p., 226. 32.

the infinite bends itself towards the finite to meet the man. 30 The question of how this manifestation or "descent" can take place is very often posed in the Purāṇa-s, and the answer is always the same: the Absolute manifests Himself for the sake of the world, to meet the needs of his devotees, to attract them to Himself. 31 The Bhāgavata-purāṇa even says that He "puts on a mūrti for our sake, impelled by his great compassion". 32 The problem then remains unsolved because it is constantly shifted from the "how" to the "why". Therefore, we have to accept the fact that it is impossible to pry into the impenetrable depths of this divine mystery in order to understand how the presence of the Without-Form can exist in the limited form of the image. By examining the Scriptures, however, we can find out in which ways this divine presence becomes actual and which are the terms that can define it.

First of all, let us observe that such a Presence depends on a series of definite and objective conditions, in the absence of which the Divinity does not descend into the mūrti. The first of these conditions concerns the mūrti itself while the second one concerns the celebration of its consecratory rites.

As is well known, the *mārti* must conform to some defined iconographic models which establish its posture, the

^{30.} It is interesting to notice that the verb "ava-tr", in its causative form, is also used to mean the Divinity's descent in the mūrti during the āvāhana, for example in Kālikā-purāṇa (edit. by V. N. Shastri, Vārāṇasī, 1972), 58. 135 ab. The idea of the connection between mūrti and avatāra has been doctrinally developed by the Pāñcarātra-s. They call the sacred image "arcāvatāra", term explained by O. Schrader as "incarnation for the purpose of ordinary worship". God, descending with his \$akti in the arcāvatāra, becomes present there with a subtle body, just as in the physical bodies of the avatāra-s. See O. SCHRADER, Introduction to the Pāñcarātra and the Ahirbudhnya Samhitā, Madras, 1916, pp. 48-49.

^{31.} Cf. for examble Siva-p., Koţirudrasamhitā, 1. 15-17 and Mahānirvāṇa-tantra, 4. 16-17 and 13. 2-13.

^{32.} मूर्त नः पुरुक्तपया बभार सत्त्वं संशुद्धं सदसदिदं विभाति यत्र । यल्लीलां मृगपितराददेऽनवद्यामादातुं स्वजनमनांस्युदारवीर्यः ॥ (5.25.10)

number and the position of its limbs, the emblems etc., because every peculiar aspect of the image has to be in accordance with a determinate aspect of the Divinity. Besides that, iconometric canons are also given which fix the proportions of the image up to the smallest detail. The Purāṇa-s exhort the observance of all the rules prescribed in the śāstra-s on this subject and threaten whoever makes or owns an image which is not in accordance with the prescribed canons with every kind of evil and mishap. And the threat goes even further: according to the Viṣṇudharmottara-purāṇa, "the gods, even if called by the best of the Brahmans, do not inhabit the pratimā that is lacking in pramāṇa-s and lakṣaṇa-s", i.e. that has not the required iconographic characteristics, "on the contrary Piśāca-s, Daitya-s, Dānava-s enter it?". There-

यथोक्तावयवैः पूर्णा पुण्यदा सुमनोहरा॥ अन्यथाऽऽपूर्धनहरा नित्यं दुःखिविविद्धिनी। (edit. by B. Miśra, Vārāṇasī, 1968, 4. 4. 76cd-77ab

35. प्रमाणहीनां प्रतिमां तथा लक्षणवर्णिताम् ॥ आवाहितापि विप्रेन्द्रैनीविशन्ति दिवौकसः । आविशन्ति तु तां नित्यं पिशाचा दैत्यदानवाः ॥ (3.38.22cd-23)

Cf. also Parama-samhitā, 19.9. Notice that the same bad consequences that have been mentioned before, as well as the Divinity's departure from the mūrti can take place if the mūrti breaks, burns or comes into contact with impure things, in which case the mūrti must be replaced by a new one through specific rites, or, according to the cases, the consecratory rites must be repeated. See Agni-p., 67; Parama-samhitā, 22.74; Pratimāmānalakṣana, 2.131-134. Also see J. N. BANERJEA, op. cit, pp. 568-571 and P. V. KANE, History of Dharmasāstra, Poona, 1968-1977 (II ed.), vol. II, pt. II, pp. 904-906,

^{33.} The best and the most complete study on this subject is perhaps the already quoted book of J. N. BANERJEA, The Development of Hindu Iconography, especially chs. VII to XII.

^{34.} Cf. for example Matsya-purāņa (edit. by J. Vidyāsāgara, Calcutta, 1876), 258. 15-21 and 261. 19. Of course these ideas appear more often in the technical literature. See Bṛhat-saṃhitā, 57. 49-55 and Pratimāmānalakṣaṇa, 2. 78-84 (both the texts are edited and translated by J. N. BANER JEA, op. cit., pp. 579-617). The Śukranīti clearly states.

fore, pramāṇa-s and lakṣaṇa-s are so important that, if they are absent, even the consecratory rites are ineffective. In fact, the gods refuse to enter that mūrti, leaving free passage to demoniacal presence. By the way, it is necessary to note that the texts do not always take such a rigid position; according to some texts, for example, the exactitude of the proportions is required only for the immovable mūrti-s and for the mūrti-s of the temples. Furthermore, according to those texts and those passages in which the devotional view assumes more importance than the ritualist one, the devotee's bhakti can make up for any deficiency in the form of the mūrti and of the rites. 36

Nevertheless, one is led to ask oneself about the significance of a conception according to which the good result of worship and even the divine presence in the mūrti are conditioned by the conformity of the mūrti to iconographic rules. This fact requires a closer examination and it could be by itself an object of separate study. For the moment, let us limit ourselves to a single remark: the mūrti, as Danielou has observed 7, is the concretization of certain divine aspects and cosmic forces, just like a mandala or a yantra, but in a less abstract form which is, therefore, more approachable by the common man. This idea in itself is sufficient for us to understand that it is not possible to leave the Divinity's representation to individual inspiration or imagination, because every single part of the mūrti has precise cosmic references that

^{36.} The wonderful story, related in the Bhaktamāla, of sant Dhana is significant. Dhana, by the power of his simple devotion, invoked in a stone the presence of God who manifested Himself and even ate the offerings of food presented to Him. Cf. Bhaktamāla, Lucknow, 1977 (XVI ed), pp. 522-524.

^{37.} See A. DANIELOU, op. cit., p. 332. See also G. RAO, Elements of Hindu Iconography, Vārāṇasī, 1971 (II ed.), pp. 27-28; G. TUCCI, Teoria e pratica del mandala, Roma, 1969, p. 89; S. N. DASGUPTA, Fundamentals of Indian Art, Bombay, 1960 (II ed.), p. 25.

cannot be confused or left out.38 Besides this, even if the absolute precision necessary in the mandala is not required for the murti, the sacred image is neverthless a ritual support, and its importance is particularly great because it is destined to become the dwelling of the Divinity; that's why in a murti. as in a rite, even the smallest detail has a great importance. When the Divinity is called upon to come and dwell in the mūrti, that mūrti must be as suitable as possible for its reception; that is, it must be in the greatest possible conformity with the form (svarūpa) of that particular Divinity, as described in the Scriptures. 89 Then the marti can truly be considered a "concretization", a visible manifestation of the invisible Divinity dwelling in it.

As regards the performance of consecratory frites, all the external conditions of time and place should be carefully taken into consideration. According to Parama-samhita, 19.2, for example, the good result of the sthapana of a murti depends on the good or bad conditions of the place (desa), of the time $(k\bar{a}la)^{40}$, of the people (purusa) and of the temple (prāsāda). Among the required conditions, the celebrant's adhikara has a special im-

The Purana-s are rich in passages concerning the 38. interpretation of these symbols. Special attention must be given to the III khanda of Visnudharmottara p. in which there is much relevant material on this subject, especially from adhyāya 44 to 85. Here we can find not only the description of pratima laksana-s, but also their symbolical meaning for which the technical term hetu is used.

Cf. Hayasirsa Pāñcarātra, quoted by J. N. BANER JEA, 39. op. cit., p. 82: ābhirūpyācca bimbānām devah sānnidhyam rcchati, where "ābhirūpyāt" has to be understood as the"fit, suitable form". The same passage also appears in the Tithyāditattvam, quoted by Śabdakalpadruma, sub voce "sānnidhyam", where not only the adaptability of the image, but also the worshipper's tapas and the 'perfection of the act of worship are stressed.

In the texts there are many prescriptions about the 40. choice of the proper time, the muhūrta, which is very important for the celebration of the consecratory rites (and for many other rites as well). A selection of śloka-s on this subject is found in VEŅĪRĀMA SARMĀ GAUDA, Yajña-mimāmsā, Vārānasi, 1970, pt. I. pp. 503 ff.

portance too⁴¹. The ceremony through which the Divinity becomes present in the sacred image ($s\bar{a}nnidhyakarana$) is the centre of a series of rites called " $pr\bar{a}na$ - $pratisth\bar{a}$ ", culminating in the $\bar{a}v\bar{a}hana$ which is the essential part of it. These rites can continue for many days and they are sometimes performed with great pomp and solemnity. However, they can also be reduced to a few gestures or even to the $\bar{a}v\bar{a}hana$ alone, as is the case of a little domestic $m\bar{u}rti$, whose $pr\bar{a}na$ - $pratisth\bar{a}$ can be repeated every day before the daily $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ or during every act of worship. Generally the Scriptures distinguish between two kinds of $m\bar{u}rti$: the cala and the acala. In the first case, the worshipper can repeat at will the $\bar{a}v\bar{a}hana$ and the visarjana before and after every $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$, but $\bar{a}v\bar{a}hana$ and visarjana are compulsory if the statue has been moved. In the second case, the $m\bar{u}rti$ in a temple or in its fixed seat. 44

Moreover, there are two fundamental kinds of prāṇa-pratiṣṭhā: the vedic and tantric. In the Tantra-s, we can find many descriptions of prāṇa-pratiṣṭhā, but still a great part of tantric ritual remains secret, especially as far as formulas and mantra-s are concerned. The reason is, in fact, that the tantric ritual, just as the magic ritual, sets forces in motion which only the initiates are able to control. Thus even a small mistake in gesture or in the pronunciation of a syllabe can be fatal for whoever performs the rite. Different local traditions are rich in anecdotes regarding this subject: thus disciples are said to have been stricken by great misfor-

^{41.} Cf. Matsya-p., 254.264 and 264. lcd ff.

^{42.} Such were the rites for the consecration of a new statue of Annapūrņā in Vārāṇasī in January 1977. The prāṇa-pratiṣṭhā was patronized by the Śriṅgerī's Śaṅkarācārya, His Holiness Śrī Abhinava Vidyātīrtha Svāmin, who for the occasion had the Caṇḍī-yajña and the Rudra-yajña celebrated. They continued for about one week, with the participation of 212 paṇḍita-s.

^{43.} Cf. for example Agni-p., 74.55 and Parama-samhitā, 27.22. Note that āvāhana and visarjana must be performed also in the mental pūjā-s, like in the pūjā described in Parama-samhitā, 4. 24-26.

^{44.} Cf. Bhāgavata-p., 11.27.13-14. According to Paramasamhitā, 23. 26ab in the case of a movable statue, āvāhana and visarjana must be compulsorily repeated every time; जङ्गमं वाऽर्चयेन्नित्यमावाह्य च विस्तृष्य च।

tune or by death for having uttered secret mantra-s, which they have extorted from the Guru before being able to use them, and for suddenly finding themselves in face-to-face dangerous contact with the presence of the Divinity which they have invoked.

The second kind of prana-pratistha is widely described in the Purana-s and Agama-s and is called "vedic". This does not mean that it dates back to vedic times-whether or not the murti cult existed in vedic times is still a topic of debate45—but it means that in this kind of prana pratistha mostly vedic mantra-s and vedic rituals are used. Nevertheless the distinction between vedic and tantric prāna-pratisthā is not completely rigid: it is well known that in the Purana-s there are plenty of tantric ideas 46 and the vedic ritual of prana-pratistha that we are going to examine is also full of tantric elements. The vedic and tantric rituals are often mixed especially in Bengal, where the famous Durgā-būjā is full of tantric elements. On the other hand, the sanction for this mixing is provided by the Purana-s. In fact the Bhagavataburāna enumerates three kinds of rituals: vedic, tantric and mixed rituals47. In South India, however, vedic and tantric rituals remain almost completely distinct.

As we said, the prāṇa-pratiṣṭhā includes a great number of ritual acts: the bath of the statue which must be performed under an apposite maṇḍapa, its unction with perfumes and sandal paste, the consecration of kalaśa, the homa, the offerings of food, water and flowers and also other rites that, with few variants, appear in all the Purāṇa-s dealing with this subject⁴⁸. Among these rites, the most relevant to our study are those

^{45.} J. N. Banerjea has given a wide outline of this debate: op. cit., pp. 41 ff. See also S. L. Varmā, op. cit., pp, 5 ff. and G. Rao, op. cit., pp. 4-5.

^{46.} See C. Chakravarti, Tantras—Studies on their Religion and Literature, Calcutta, 1972 (rep.), p. 80 and B. Upādhyāya, Purāņa Vimarša, Vārāṇasī, 1965, pp. 448 ff.

^{47.} See Bkāgavata-p., 11. 27. 7ab:
वैदिकस्तान्त्रिको मिश्र इति मे त्रिविधो मख:।

^{48.} The two more classic Purāṇa-s in this matter are the Agni-p. (adhyāya-s 59, 60, 62, 63, 66) and the Matsya-p. (adhyāya 263-265), but also see Garuḍa-p., 48; Bhāgavata-p., 11. 27; Śiva-p., Vāyavīyasamhitā, Üttarabhāga, 36. The āgamic and tantric literatures are also very rich in ritual

performed on the $m\bar{u}rti$, especially the $\bar{u}v\bar{u}hana$ because by examining them we can understand the relation between the Divinity and the $m\bar{u}rti$, and consequently, the way in which the Divinity is present in it.

First of all, it should be noted that many of those prana-pratistha rites which aim at preparing the image for the God's descent may be regarded as normal acts of purification and worship. Such acts are usually performed with all the sacred or sacred-related objects⁴⁹, but of course in the case of prana-pratistha they take on a greater importance and solemnity. Some other rites have a more specific character and, between these, nyasa is particularly important. During the prana-pratistha, the officiant performs nyasa upon himself, then repeats it upon the marti. The reason for this lies in the fact that the celebrant cannot consecrate the marti and invoke in it the Divinity (and not even do a paja) unless he has performed the same rituals upon himself, thus identifying himself with that Divinity (atmaprana-pratistha), so that he simply communicates to the image that particular divine presence which he has first evoked in himself. For In the atmaprana-pratistha

prescriptions for the consecration of the mūrti-s (see for example Parama-samhitā, 18-19 and Mahānirvāya-tantra, 12) The technical work of Nilakantha Bhatta, Pratisthāmayūkha (edited by Daulatarām Gauda, Vārāṇasi, 1971) should be noticed together with a few pages of Nirṇaya-sindhu (Bombay, 1949) in which we can find some of the prāṇa-pratisthā formulas very commonly used till now.

^{49.} In the same way, for instance, all the vessels must be purified and worshipped with flowers or anointed with sandal paste before being used in a $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$. Even the hand with which one brings flowers in the temple for offering must be purified with water.

^{50.} Cf. Agni-p., 59.1 ff.; Matsya-p, 265. 34-35; Garuḍa-p., 31, 10-12; 48.49; Bhāgavata-p., 11.27.19; Parama-samhitā, 19.59. C. Chakravarti (op. cit., p. 80) rightly sees in this fact a tantric influence. However there is certainly an influence from that traditional idea so well expressed by the saying नाइंबो देवमर्चयेत् "No one can worship God, if he is not God". This purely advaitic idea is supported by the authority of Upaniṣad-s. (see Bṛhadāraṇyaka-up., 1.4.10: योऽन्या देवतामुपास्तेऽन्योऽसाबन्योऽहमस्मीति न स वेद) and also appears in many Purāṇa--s. Cf., for example, Śiva-p., Vāyavīyasamhitā, Uttarabhāga, 22.42 cd-43 ab:

different kinds of nyāsa are mentioned: Divinities, abstract symbols, the sun, the Indian rivers, etc can be "placed" on the different parts of the murti. All these concrete or abstract entities are generally symbolized by means of sacred syllabes which the priest visualizes as being put on the eyes, on the limbs, on the heart, on the navel, etc. of the pratima. The more meaningful and commonly used of these nyāsa-s is certainly the one in which the priest mentally places the various tattva's on different parts of the statue, such as prāna, buddhi, ahamkāra, manas, tanmātra-s, mahābhūta-s and all the tattva-s which, according to Sāmkhya, constitue the manifested universe.⁵¹ For this reason it is spontaneous to compare the nyāsa and the act of the sṛṣṭi, all the more so because, according to Agni-purana, 67.2, these tattva-s must be reabsorbed with the samhara rite at the moment of visarjana, just as the tattva-s of the universe will be reabsorbed in the moment of pralaya.

The mūrti is cosmicizied with the nyāsa, before receiving in itself the divine presence, and thus it is mystically transformed into a microcosm; this microcosm is considered as a living organism and, therefore, is similar to the man who is himself a microcosm. ⁵² In fact, also the sensory faculties of the mūrti have to be

नाशिवः शिवमभ्यस्येन्नाशिवः शिवमर्चयेत्। नाशिवस्तु शिवं ध्यायेन्नाशिवः प्राप्नुयाच्छिवम् ॥ and 26. 13 ab:

येऽर्चयन्ति महादेवं विज्ञेयास्ते महेश्वराः।

In this connection, these words of $K\bar{a}lik\bar{a}$ -p. are particularly strong:

देवाघारो ह्यहं देवो देवं देवाय योजयेत्। (57.107)

- 51. Cf., for example, Agni-p., 59.17 ff. Particularly clear is the nyāsa's formula given in Nirnayasindhu, 3.1, p. 250 and in Pratisṭhāmayūkha, pp. 150-151.
- 52. See for example the following passage of Agni-p. (59.15-16 ab) which gets strength from the context:

आकाशवायुतेजांसि सिललं पृथिवी तथा। स्थूलमेभिः शरीरन्तु सर्वाधारं प्रजायते।। एतेषां वाचका मन्त्रा न्यासायोच्यन्त उत्तमाः।

As regards the "cosmicization" of the mūrti, it is worthy of note that one of the vedic mantra-s uttered during the prāṇa-pratisṭhā is the Puruṣasūkta (see Agni-p, 59.48 and Nirṇayasindhu, 3.1.p. 250).

"roused": the Brhatsamhitā⁵³ speaks of "rousing" the statue from sleep with songs and dances and one of the most popular hymns sung in Bengal during $Durg\bar{a}-p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$, "Jāgo $Durg\bar{a}$ ", is an invitation to the Devī to "rouse". Here the rite with which the eyes of the mūrti are opened is particularly beautiful and meaningful. The officiant, pronouncing a mantra, touches the eyes of the statue with a stick to the top of which a tuft of kuśa grass or some flowers are tied and in this way he gives light to the Divinity's eyes. Both to touch the cheeks of the statue and to touch its heart are other meaningful gestures and all have the same basic symbolism: infusing life into the pratimā, which is directly connected with the significance of $pr\bar{a}na-pratisth\bar{a}$ (the "establishing the life" in the $m\bar{u}rti$).

देवस्य प्राणा इह प्राणाः....देवस्य जीव इह स्थितः....

Through such words the officiant invokes in the statue the prāṇa and jīva of the Divinity, and he also invokes the indriya s one by one. 55 Of course, here a symbolic language is used because the Divinity has not the sense organs, but it well expresses the idea of the "vivification of the image" (sajīvakaraṇa). This vivification cannot be considered accomplished until the Divinity invoked by the celebrant descends into the mūrti whose senses have been roused and in which life has been infused:

(Agni-p., 62.3 cd)

मन्त्रोऽयं सर्वदेवानां नेत्रज्योतिष्वपि स्मृतः। एवमामन्त्र्य देवेशं काञ्चनेन विलेखयेत्।।

(Matsya-p., 263.33)

Notice here that a golden stick is said to be used for opening the Divinity's eyes, like in Garuḍa-p., 48.35-36.

55. Cf. Nirnayasindhu, 3.1, p. 250. This formula, as well as the others, are susceptible of variations in the common use. This fact is testified by the modern karmakānḍa manuals. See for example, Karmakānḍa Paddhatiḥ, edit. by G. Datta Śāstri, Mathurā, s. d., p. 166:

^{53.} Quoted by J. N. BANER JEA, op. cit., pp. 566-567.

^{54.} हिरण्यवर्णां हरिणीं नेत्रे चोन्मीलयेच्छियाः॥

....प्रतिमाबिम्बे स्थिरो भव परेश्वर। सजीवं कुरु बिम्बं........ ^{5 6}

The avahana is certainly the most solemn moment of all the brāna-bratisthā ceremony, because through āvāhana the mystical change in the marti is fulfilled. In the Purana-s many formulas of āvāhana are given and some of them are wonderful prayers by which the celebrant invokes God with devotion, asking him to become present in the pratima and identifying Him with the Paramatman, with the Supreme Lord, Omnipresent and All-pervading, Creator and Sustainer of all things. 57 But usually, the avahana is performed by uttering a short mantra which varies depending on whether the mūrti is cala or acala. If the mūrti is acala, the Divinity is invoked to remain in the pratimā for ever, "till the sun and the moon"68 exist. If the marti is cala, the Divinity is requested to stay in it for the whole time of the $b\bar{u}i\bar{a}$. Among the stereotyped formulas used for āvāhana of different Divinities, the formula quoted by the Nirnayasindhu is one of the most often used, appearing with few variants in many manuals of karmakānda60:

अस्यै प्राणाः प्रतिष्ठन्तु अस्यै प्राणाः क्षरन्तु च । अस्यै देवत्वमचियै मामहेति च कच्चन ॥ 61

- 56. Agni-p., 40.21-cd 22a. Cf. also Samskārapaddhatih by BHĀSKARA, Poona, 1924, p. 29: इति मन्त्रमुक्तवा प्रतिमां सजीवां ध्यायेत ।
- 57. Cf. for example Viṣṇudharmottara-p., 3.102; Varāha-p., 185. 10-17; Agni-p., 60.19-23.
- 58. So it is said in the wellknown formula:

 सूर्याचन्द्रमसौ यावद्यावत्तिष्ठति मेदिनी ।

 तावत्त्वयाऽत्र देवेश स्थातब्यं स्वेच्छया प्रभो ।।

(Pratisthāmayūkha, p. 157)

- 59. For example, this is the formula used in the avahana of a cala linga: स्वामिन् सर्वजगन्नाथ यावत् पूजावसानकम्। तात्रत् त्वं लिङगरूपेण अत्रैव सन्निधी भव।।
- 60. See for example in V. ŚARMĀ GAUDA, Durgāpājanapaddhatiḥ, Vārāṇasī, 1977, p. 8 and in V. N. MIŚRA, Grahaprayogaḥ arthāt grahasāntiḥ, Kāsī, 1945, p. 9
- 61. Nirṇayasindhu, p. 250. In the Pratiṣṭhāmayūkha (p. 152), this formula is given with the following variant: अस्य देवत्वमचीये स्वाहेति यजुरीरयेतु ॥ And in Samskārapaddhati

After welcoming God who has settled in the marti, one has to invoke Him again: "O Bhagavat, with that form with which You pervades all the mobile and immobile things, remain present in the sacred images, o Lord of gods!"

येन रूपेण भगवंस्त्वया व्याप्तं चराचरम्। तेन रूपेण देवेश स्वार्चायां सन्निधौ भव॥⁶²

Anyway, it must be pointed out that, although the technical literature and the Purāņa-s themselves are rich in ritual prescriptions and formulas for the prana-pratistha, all these texts have to be considered incomplete in many cases, and most probably purposely incomplete. We have already mentioned the fact that in tantric rituals many parts remain secret: also in the cases of many other common rites of consecration, the Divinity's name or a particular mantra which will henceforth be pronounced during every pūjā remain secret. This happens especially in the case of family Divinities (kula-devatā) whose secret mantra is handed on from father to son and is jealously kept in the narrow family circle, but this mantra (or name) remains often secret also in the prana-pratistha of the marti-s which are under the care of a matha or of a religious association and, in this case, it is known only by the pujāri of that matha or of that association. This is because the Divinity's name or the mantra has a determinant power in the avahana and just through it the Divinity is called 63. Here is the heart of the matter: what happens during the avahana? How can a mantra evoke the divine presence? Figuratively, we could say that when the celebrant invokes God in one of his aspects and asks Him to become present in the murti, he attunes himself on the wavelength of the Divinity, catches its vibrations and infuses them in the mūrti. The instrument which enables him to catch the vibrations of one certain Divinity among many other divine vibrations is its name or its particular mantra, which, as its essence, is indivisible from the Divinity itself. In this connection there is all the theology of the

⁽p. 29) : अस्य जीवत्वमचिष्य स्वाहा ।। This formula is also present in the Kālikā-p., according to V. Śarmā Gauḍa, but he specifies neither the adhyāya nor the śloka (Yajña-mīmāmsā, p. 513).

^{62.} Nirnayasindhu, 3. 1, p. 250 and Pratisthāmayūkha, p. 156.

^{63.} मन्त्रैराकृष्यते देवो मन्त्रैरेव विसृज्यते ॥ (Parama-samhitā, 6. 3cd).

Name, especially developed by vaiṣṇava movements, according to which in God "nāma-nāminor abhedah". 64 Morever, the mantra is the essential and enigmatic expression of the same symbolism found in the iconographical form which simply expresses it in a more concrete and explicit way. Therefore, there is a perfect correspondence between the mantra and the iconographical form of a certain Divinity because both of them are manifestations of the same divine essence 65. For this reason in the prāṇa-pratiṣṭhā (but also in

65. See A. DANIELOU, op. cit., p. 332. As is well known, the importance of mantra has been stressed especially in the tantrism (see A. AVALON, op. cit., pp. 312 ff.), but also in the Purāṇa-s we can find a lot of material about mantra-s in their connection with different Divinities especially in Agni-p. which dedicates several adhyāya-s to this subject (302, 304, 308, 317 etc.).

^{64.} This doctrine is based on the idea of the eternity of sound and, carried to its extreme consequences, has led to the consideration of God's Name as something greater than God himself, somehow. See S. K. DE, The Early History of the Vaisnava Faith and Movement in Bengal. Calcutta, 1961, pp. 486-487 and T. K. VENKATE-SVARAN, Radha-Krishna Bhajanas of South India: A Phenomenological, Theological, and Philosophical Study, in: Krishna: Myths, Rites and Attitudes, edit. by M. Singer, Chicago, 1966, p. 169. Also in the Purāņa-s a supreme power is attributed to the Name of God, as the great number of sahasranāmastotra s present in the puranic literature can show. For example let us mention the Śivasahasranāma, in Linga-p., 1. 98. 27-158, Śiva-p., Kotirudra Samhitā 35, the Visnusahasranāmu, in Garuda-p., 1, 15 and Padma-p. (Poona, 1894), Uttarakhanda, 72. 113-297, and the Durgāsahasranāma, in Kūrma-p., 1.2. 76-216. The importance of the repetition of God's Name is always much stressed and this repetition is said to grant fulfillment of all desires, purification from all sins, the merits one can get from the pilgrimage to all tirtha-s and even mukti! Cf. for example Padma p., Uttarakhanda, 72. 1-110; Agni-p., 305.16; Linga-p., 1.44, 48-49; Śiva-p., Umāsamhitā, 20. 50-52; Bhāgavata-p., 1. 1. 14; 1. 5. 11; 11. 5. 36-37.

every pūjā) a great importance is given to mūla-mantra, which can be translated as "fundamental" or "specific" mantra and which is the mantra characteristic of a particular Divinity. In this connection the Agni-purāṇa (49.37cd-38ab) clearly states that the vivification of that Divinity, whose sthapana has to be made, must be performed through mūla-mantra:

> अथवा यस्य देवस्य प्रारब्धं स्थापनं भवेत्।। तस्यैव मुलमन्त्रेण सजीवकरणं भवेत्।

When the prāṇa-pratisthā has been accomplished, the mūrti can be worshipped or in the case of a temple's murti, it can be exposed to public veneration. It is very important to stress the fact that before performing the prana-pratistha, the murti is only an object like many others; at most it can function as a symbolical reminder as do sacred images in Christianity, but it cannot be an object of worship. All the sacred value of the murti as the seat of divine presence depends in fact on the prana-pratistha; thus it is said that if one makes a mistake in pronouncing mantra-s or in performing the prāna-pratisthā rites, one runs the risk of worshipping a mere stone as Divinity. 66 This is obviously a far cry from idolatry! Furthermore, the Purāṇa-s explicitly warn the faithful against the pūjā of a mūrti whose consecration has not yet been performed⁶⁷, because, as we insisted from the very beginning, not the image in itself is worshipped but the Divinity present in it.

There is one more problem regarding this "divine presence", namely, what is the relationship between the murti and the Divinity present in it? Recalling what happens during the prana-pratistha, we can say that "inhabitation" is perhaps the most suitable term for the definition of this relationship. This term is also suggested when it is constantly affirmed that God becomes present (sannihita) in the murti. Moreover, "adhivāsana", that is "inhabitation", is the term which is used to describe a part of the prana-pratistha

पूजा विना प्रतिष्ठां नास्ति न मन्त्रं विना प्रतिष्ठा च । तदुभयविप्रतिपन्नः पश्यत् गीव्वाणपाषाणम् ॥

^{66.} Cf. Āryāsaptasatī, 386 (quoted in Śabdakalpadruma, sub voce "pratistha"):

^{67.} See the śloka quoted by V. S. GAUŅA in Yajña-mīmāmā, p. 513.

rites, which also includes the avahana.68 The term "inhabitation" is, however, imprecise, because the relation between Divinity and mūrti cannot be compared to the one between a house and its inhabitants merely. We have seen that the murti is mystically tranformed through prana-pratistha into a living organism, that the marti is vivified by the prana, the jīva, the indrivas of the Divinity and that somehow it is regarded as the Divinity's body. A proof is the fact that the pratima is often called by names such as vapu, tanu, vera etc. in the Scriptures. This way of "feeling" the sacred image as the Divinity's body is peculiar especially to the Pañcarātra Samhitā-s, which consider the arca, the sacred image object of worship, as one of the five God's manifestations (vibhava). 69 Also the yantra which, as we have seen, is somehow an equivalent of the murti, is often spoken of as a Divinity's body, especially in the Tantra-s. 70 Yet we cannot speak of a perfect union between the Divinity and this "body". In fact, just as God enters the mūrti through āvāhana, in the same way He leaves it through visarjana. Also if any accident befalls the murti—a fall, a breakage and, according to some sources, even the impure contact with an out-cast-it may results in the God's removal from the mūrti as from a habitation that has become unpleasant.71

Actually, the relationship between Divinity and mūrti escapes precise definition; again and again the tradition has stressed the mūrti aspects as the Divinity's body or habitation, but this second aspect seems to be more consistent from a doctrinal point of view and on the basis of puranic texts. Perhaps the term that best of all expresses the mūrti reality, including both the ideas of habitation and of living organism, is the term "jīvamandira" which

^{68.} हरे: सान्निध्यकरणमधिवासनमुच्यते । (Agni-p., 59, 1 ab) Cf. also Mahānirvāṇa-tantra, 13. 285 where the pratimā is called "devatāvasa" "Divinity's habitation".

^{69.} On the idea of arcā in the Pāñcarātra's doctrine, see S. R. BHATT, The Philosophy of Pancharatra, Madras, 1968, p. 41 and the articles of M. YAMUNACHARYA, V. VARADACHARI and S. VASUDEVACHARIAR, in Visishtadvaita Philosophy and Religion, Madras, 1974, pp. 206-211, p. 240 and p. 258. See also above n. 30.

^{70.} See J. WOODROFFE, Introduction to Tantra Śāstra, Madras, 1973 (VI ed.), pp. 92-95 and P. V. KANE, op. cit., vol. V, pt. II, p. 1135.

^{71.} See above n. 35.

appears in Bhāgavata-purāṇa, 11.27.13b, and which means "living habitation" or "living temple" of the Divinity.⁷²

We now have many elements for answering the initial problem at least from a puranic point of view. We have seen that the murti worship has certainly the value of offering psychological aid to the devotee, because the marti represents a concrete divine form to which he can direct his devotion and meditation. At the same time, mūrti-pūjā is only a step towards a higher realization and towards the transcendence of any forms and rites. But to consider the mūrti only as a symbol or as a support for meditation is an incomplete view, a disregard of its deepest reality, that is the divine presence, which should not be understood merely as a practical means for the devotee. The divine presence in the murti is something effective at a mystical level. If we have to use Christian terminology, we could say that it is somehow a "sacramental" presence. God is everywhere, but through the power of the āvāhana's mantra He enters the mūrti with his sakti and gives to his bhakta-s in a very specific way the grace of his presence. Thus we cannot consider avahana and visarjana merely as a "psychological drama" which is played for the purpose of worship in the mind of the sādhaka-s: they truly result in a mystical transformation of the murti, as clearly comes out by examining the ritual and the

एवमेष हरि: साक्षात्प्रसादत्वेन संस्थित: II (Agni-p., 61. 26 cd).

In this connection is remarkable the similarity between 72. the murti and the temple which are both inhabited by God and both considered His body, although in a different way. In the ceremony of temple dedication, as described in Agni-p., 101-102, there are analogies with some prāṇa-pratisthā rites. Moreover the Agni-p. clearly states that the temple is a kind of marti : प्रासादं वास्देवस्य मृतिभेदम (61, 19 cd.) and considers it to be a microcosm and a living organism, just like the mūrti. The various characteristics of the temple are linked with the mahābhūta-s and its parts with the parts of the human body, while the pratima has the place of the jiva (प्रतिमा जीव उच्यते) 61, 20-26). The temple, as the mūrti, is the instrument through which God is present in the world in a concrete and approachable way:

Scriptures. The prāṇa-pratiṣṭhā marks the mūrti with a particular seal which elevates the mūrti above all other things and makes it an important point of contact between man and God.

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THE ROLE OF FOUR VARNAS DURING THE TIME OF NĪLĀDRI-MAHODAYAM

By Vidyut Lata Ray

The Sthala-Purāṇa Nīlādri-Mahodayam is a big work covering 91 Adhyāyas. This Purāṇā was compiled on the model of the Puruṣottama-Māhātmya of the Skanda-purāṇa. The internal and external evidence indicate that this purāṇa was composed sometime in the latter part of the 14th century A. D. This Purāṇa, though primarily a Purāṇa of Jagannātha tattva and Jagannātha cult, presents a fairly comprehensive picture of the society of its time. There is no doubt that the institution of Jagannātha influences the social life of the people of Orissa. A deep and careful study of the Nīlādri-Mahodayam opens out many striking features of the then society, in its social, political, economic and cultural aspects. A society, being dynamic in nature, is a mirror-image of civilization. The contemporary civilization is clearly reflected in the Nīlādri-Mahodayam with sufficient references to the duties of the varņas.

The society figuring in the Nīlādri-Mahodayam mainly comprised two categories of people—the kings and the subjects. Both the classes were helpful to each other. The people were generally pious and courteous. They were dutiful and obedient. The life in the society was diversified with such activities as "Śrauta, Smārta, Prāyaścitta and Tīrtha". In his relation to the rest of society, each individual laid stress upon his duties, his dharma. The society was practically based on realistic idealism. The people, however, had various skills and accordingly they were known as administrators, agriculturists, physicians, blacksmiths, goldsmiths, carpenters, businessmen, dancers, musicians, educationists, fore-tellers, magicians etc. There also flourished some people having bad qualities. Our purāņa refers to one kind of such people and calls the 'canḍā-las'.¹ These people formed the lowest stratum of the society.

^{1.} N. M. 10.115a: "Cāṇḍālādi-jalaspṛṣṭam....."

Varna

In the early Rg-vedic period, the Aryas and the Anaryas, Dāsas or Dasyus were the two distinct classes in the society. They were sharply distinguished from each other by their language, religion and several other aspects. There were ethnical and physiognomical differences; the Dasyus were dark-skinned whereas the Arvas were fair. Thus, the concept of varna originated in the very remote period of Veda. Due to the complexity of life, various classes were gradually springing up in the Aryan society. The Avesta shows that in the Indo-Iranian period, the Aryan society was divided into four classes-priests, warriors, farmers and artisans.2 But the Indo-Aryans were divided into three classes among themselves-Brāhmaņa, Rājanya and Vis in the earlier age; and Brāhmana, Ksatriya and Vaisya in later times. The Anaryas, who were by this time almost completely subjugated, were also included in the Varna-scheme and formed the fourth class, the Sūdra.3 The names of the four varnas, Brāhmana, Ksatriya, Vaisya and Śūdra are expressly mentioned with their special characteristics in the famous Rg-vedic Purusa-Sūkta.4 In the age of the later Samhitas, Brāhmanas, Upanisads and Purānas, the classes continued to be fluid. The four-fold division of the society into the Brāhmaņas, Kşatriyas, Vaisyas and the Sūdras has become fully established by the time of the Niladri-Mahodayam,5 though the principle in determining a varna became different from that of the Vedic period. Originally, these varnas were formulated on the basis of karma (action) and not by janma (birth). But the principle of heredity received greater and greater recognition in the age of the later Samhitās, Brāhmanas, Upanisads and Purānas, Our Purāna6 mentions heredity as the main principle in determining the varna of an

2. The Cultural Heritage of India, Vol. I, p. 224.

^{3.} P. V. Kane, History of Dharma-Śāstra, Vol. 11, Part I, pp. 25-36.

^{4.} Rg-veda, X. 90.12.

^{5.} N. M. 11.79-80a:

Deve kṣatriya-samspṛṣṭe mahāsnānadvayam bhavet,
Vaśyairvāratrayam śūdraiścaturvāram tadācaret.
Pūjāyām jalapātram vai Brāhmaņamca vinā nṛpa.

^{6.} N. M. 9.62: Māsadvayādhike saptavarse jāte nṛpottama. tadopanayanam kuryājjyesṭhaputrasya dhīmate 9.73: Tasya gotre yadā putro jyeṣṭho na syācca daivataḥ. dvitīyatanayam kuryād agniśarmāṇa mādarāt.

individual. The rights and privileges of the different varnas in the society had by that time been distinctly laid down and the people of a particular varna followed the sva-dharma as their duty.

Among the four varṇas, the Brāhmaṇas, the Kṣatriyas, the Vaisyas and the Śūdras, the gradation of each preceding one was considered higher than that of the one following. Except the Brāhmaṇas, the Nīlādri-Mahodayam forbids the other three varṇas from touching the deity or its Naivedya and prescribes 'Mahāsnānas' of the deity if touched by Kṣatriya, Vaisya and Śudra. The Purāṇa prescribes twice, thrice and four-times 'Mahāsnānas' for Kṣatriya, Vaisya and Śūdra-touch respectively. Thus, the Brāhmaṇas were considered worthy of the highest respect in society and the Śūdras were the people of the lowest class. It is a remarkable fact worth noting here that the Nīlādri-Mahodayam finds no difference among the animals, the birds and the people of the society while taking Mahāprasāda (Bhoga) of Lord Jagannātha. This process promotes brotherliness in the people without considerations of their caste and creed.

Varna-samkara:

The term varna-samkara means the various mixed-castes that emerged in the society due to the 'Anuloma' and 'Pratiloma' kinds of marriage. To the best of our knowledge, there is no occurrence of varna-samkara in the Vedic literature, though many instances of inter-caste marriage 11 can be cited from it. This is because varna was determined by the duty discharged by an individual. In the Dharmasāstra works, there is frequent occurrence of the term "varna-samkara" in connection with castes and sub-castes. Manu¹³

- 7. N. M. 11.78:

 Kṣatriyaśca yadā vaiśyah śūdraśca daivatah spṛśet.

 tadācarenmahāsnānam dvigunam kramašo hareh.
- 8. N.M. 11/79: Deve ksatriyasamsprste mahāsnānadvaym bhavet, Vaisyairvāratrayam sūdraiscaturvāram tadācaret.
- 9. N. M. 11.115: Cāṇḍālādi-jalaspṛṣṭaṁ tadannaṁ ca nṛpottama, Bhotkavyaṁ sahasā vipraih pāvanaṁ suradurlabhaṁ.
- 10. Sukra Nīti, p. 223, Manu, 1.2; S. D. Gyani, Agni-purāņa— A study, p. 240.
- 11. P. V. Kane, History of Dharma-Śāstra, Vol. II, p. 447.
- 12. D. R. Patil, Cultural History from the Vāyu Purāņa, p. 123 and fn 23.
- 13. Manu, X. 1 ff.

illustrates the various samkara-jātis that originated in the 'anuloma' kind of marriage. The Dharmasātras generally relate the term 'varṇa-samkara' to the promotion of social relations among the four varṇas. However, the Nilādri-Mahodayam does not refer directly to the idea of varṇa-samkara but includes the Mlecchas 14 along with the other people of the society. In some works, the Mlecchas are also considered as products of varṇa-samkara. 15

The Brahmanas and their role;

The Brāhmaņas in the Nīlādri-Mahodayam stood at the head of the varna scheme. Being the first class in the society, they were to conserve the ancient ideals, to maintain and develop the ancient rituals, to probe the mysteries of the universe, to investigate the relation between the Supreme spirit and the individual Soul and above all to preach the realization of the truths. The Bhagavad-Gita characterizes the conduct of a Brāhmana by tranquility, self-restraint, penance, purity, forgiveness, straightforwardness, knowledge, wisdom, realization of truth, and faith 18-in fact, the Brāhmaņas dedicated themselves to everything that was good and righteous. The study of the Veda was their primary concern. While introducing a Brāhmaṇa17 in general, the Nīlādri-Mahodayam speaks of him as "proficient in the Veda and its auxiliaries, in the Smrtis, Agamas, Pañcaratras and the Puranas."18 The zealous devotion with which the Brāhmaņas applied themselves to the study of the Veda qualify them alone to undertake and discharge with efficiency the duty of a priest. Learning the Vedas, officiating at sacrifices, receiving the gifts and advising the king in various matters were the main duties of the Brāhmaņas during the time of the Nīlādri-Mahodayam.

The Brāhmaņa as an officiating priest at sacrifices figures from the Rg veda onwards. The instances of the performances of sacri-

- 14. N. M. 37.135a: "Mlecchaśca yatra...."
- 15. D. R. Patil, Cultural History from the Vāyu Purāņa, p. 124 and Vāyu-Purāņa, 49.55.
- 16. Bhagavad-Gītā, XVIII, 42.
- 17. N. M. 9.3: Śṛṇu rājan mahāprājna jagadīśasya māpateḥ. Ācāryapramukhānām ca lakṣaṇam kathayāmyaham.
- 18. N. M. 9.4-5a : Sarvesām sevakānām ca śreṣṭhaḥ sa pūjako matah

Vedavedāngavicchuddhah pañcarātravišāradah Smrtyāgamapurānajñah šāntašca satkulodbhavah. Vaidikāmstāntrikān mantrān jānmācārāravān ghṛnī fices by the Brāhmaņas are abundant in our Purāņa. The Purāņa has provided for us a state of facts about yajña. The great Aśvamedha-sacrifice arranged by the king Indradyumna was successfully performed by the Brāhmaņas. The king being pleased with them offered immense gifts, which included clothes, gold, rice, precious ornaments and also cows. 19 The Brāhmanas were considered the worthiest recipients of danas and daksinas. The acceptance of gifts remained their principal means of livelihood. Rich and profuse gifts were granted to them by the kings on various occasions such as sacrifices, coronations, installations of temples, deities and Rathas. King Indradyumna gave a lot of danas to the Brahmanas and fed them well after the installation of the Rathas of Lord Jagannatha, Bālabhadra and Subhadrā.20 In some cases, land was also one among the gifts offered to the Brāhmaņas. 21 Satisfying the Brāhmaṇas with daksinās was one of the sacred duties of the people.22 Our Puraņa also frequently refers to half or a part of dakṣiṇā in want of its full amount. It is necessary to add here that in return for their services the Brāhmaņas did not expect much. But the pūjā goes in vain without some kind of daksinā.23 The topic of dāna, however, finds a very elaborate treatment in the Niladri-Mahodayam which contains principles and regulations regarding the proper dāna, its kinds and religious efficacies.

In the Nilādri-Mahodayam, the *Brāhmaṇas* are seen invariably present in all social and religious functions. The kings and princes cherished their friendship and took pride in doing them service. Perhaps in every kingdom there was a *Brāhmaṇa purohita*, who was

^{19.} N. M. 3.94-96 : Yajñānte vahudānāni tena dattāni koṭiśaḥ Annaiśca.....

^{20.} N. M. 5.65-66:
Suvarnam rajatam ratnam vastram dhānyam ca gām punah datvā santosayedvipram karma kartāra muttamam bhojayet brāhmanān divyam pāyasam madhusarpisā annam pūpādikam tāvat pratisthānte tato dvijāh

^{21.} N. M. 16.131:
Pūrņāhutim tatah krtvā hema-bhūmyādi dakṣiṇām
datvā vahuvidhām divai ratnair viprāmsca toṣayet

^{22.} N. M. 13.37b: "Suvarņaisca tadācāryam tosayed daksinārpaņāt"

^{23.} N. M. 23.336: "Dakṣiṇāyā abhāvena tatsarvam niṣphalam bhavet"

also the king's chief counsellor. The purchita figures in our Purāṇa as an important person in matters of state, as an adviser whose advice was heeded with respect and as one who could represent the king in his absence. The purchita of Indradyumna wielded considerable influence in matters of state. He advised the king to send his (purchita's) younger brother, Vidyāpati, to locate the god Nīlamādhava in Oḍra-deśa and the king did accordingly. Thus, he was the co-adjutor and the alter ego of the king.

The Brāhmaṇas commanded very high respect in society. They were universally regarded as Bhūsura, 27 Mahīsura 28 or Dharaṇīsura 29 (divinities on the earth). The superiority of a Brāhmaṇa is recognized from the time of the Rg-veda onwards. According to our Purāṇa, God becomes satisfied with the satisfaction of the Brāhmaṇa 30 The Satapatha-Brāhmaṇa states that "oblations go to the gods and the fee to the learned Brāhmaṇas who are the human gods." Some of the Dharmasāstras assign to them a status superior to that of the gods. According to Manu, a Brāhmaṇa, learned or not, is a deity. Similar expressions also occur in the Mahābhārata. But, such a theoretical claim that a Brāhmaṇa is superior even to gods is not found in the Nīlādri-Mahodayam. This Purāṇa affirms that a Brāhmaṇa is just like Viṣṇu himself. 4

- 24. N. M. 2.42-43.
- 25. N. M. 9.66: "......So'yam pratinidhi stava utsaveşu ca sarveşu...."
- 26. N. M. 2,44-48.
- 27. N. M. 2.97: "Mitratām tena vai sārddham sampādya sa ca bhūsura" 42.44a: "Vaṭum dhārayate yastu vinā mantrena Bhūsurah."
- 28. N. M. 2.96C: "Tamālingitavān gadļam viṣṇuvuddhyā mahīsurah"
- 29. N. M. 2.96b : "Iti viśvavasorvāņīm śrutvā sa dharaņīsurah," 22.10a : "Brahmāņam tvāmaham tāvad vṛṇe sa dharaṇīsurah"
- 30. N. M. 9/24: Ācāryasya ca santose santoso jagatām paleķ tasmimstuste haristusto jagadetaccarācaram.
- 31. Macdonell and Keith, Vedic Index, 1.336 cf. also Kane, 2.837 ff.
- 32. Kane, 2.135.
- 33. Ibid, 136.
- 34. N.M. 2.52b: "Sākṣādviṣṇusvarūpastvam brāhmaņodya nirīkṣitaḥ

This Purana refers to the various divisions prevailing among the Brāhmanas. The words, dvija35 and vipra36 are of very frequent occurrence. Besides, we find the categories, Ācārya, caruhotā, pātrahotā, Brahmā and Agnisarmā included in the hierarchy of the Brāhmaņas.37 The Nīlādri-Mahodayam, in its chapter nine (navama adhyāya), vividly explains the lakṣaṇas of ācārya and Agniśarmā. The following laksanas were attributed to an ācārya Brāhmana. He should not be a limbless person, a widower, or a diseased man. He should be polite and should have 'vratas' of a 'Tapasvi'. He should have no sexual anxieties and his conduct should always be based upon good manners.38 An Agnisarma Brahmana had the following qualities. "He should observe brahmacarya and should study Vedas He should not take his meal in the house of others. He should not talk with women and sūdras. He should have upanayana. samskāra. He should be polite and his manners should be always good."39 In all festivals and sacrifices, the Agnisarma represented the king.40 The pūjaka Brāhmaņas used tilaka on the forehead and on their chests. Our Purana mentions special shapes for the tilaka on the forehead and on the chest. The tilaka on the forehead was stick-shaped, that on the chest had the shape of a lotus-leaf.41

Brahma hatyā (killing a Brāhmaṇa) was one of the most grievous sins. According to Nilādri-Mahodayam, one can be free from such sins only if one visits 'Kalpa-pādapa', 'Kapālamocana' and takes 'Nirmālya' of Lord Jagannātha.⁴² Prostrating length-wise in the shade of Ratha frees one from all the sins, including Brahma-hatyā.⁴³

35. N. M. 2.112a; 5.33b; 5.66b; 5.54.

36. N. M. 16.131b; 2.90a; 2.101b; 4.21a; 5.65b.

37. N. M. 7.112a; 9.61a.

38. N. M. 9.6-7: Angahīnah patnīhīno na bhaved rogasamyutah. Vinayena yutah śrīmān tapasvī sa ca suvratah Kāmādidosarahitah sadācārapratisthitah. ācāryastādṛśah śrīmān bhavettasya pārātmanah.

39. N. M. 9.62-65.

- 40. N.M. 9.66: Vastrācchāditašīrsušca so'yam pratinidhi stava Utsaveşu ca sarveşu sirapanim suresvaram.
- 41. N. M. 38.46-47a.
- 42. N.M.1.31a: "Brahmahatyādipāpaghno varttate kalpapādapah"
 N.M. 1.38b: Paśyatām jagatām vāpi brahmahatyādi pāpahā."
 N. M. 10.113a: "Brahmahatyādi-pāpaghnam nirmālyam jagatām pateh"
 - 43. N.M. 16.119 : Rathacchāyām samālambya bhaktisraddhānvitā yadā, Brahmahatyādipāpebhyo muktāh syur bhavabandhanāt."

The Ksatrivas and their role

In some verses of the Rg-veda, the word Ksatriya means 'a king or a noble-man'. The word rajanya is found in the Rg-Veda only once in the Purusa-sūkta, but in the later Vedic literature it is often used for a man of the royal family.44 During the time of Nīlādri-Mahodayam, the Ksatriyas were the martial section of the community. The status of a Ksatriya in society was next to that of a Brāhmaņa. Indradyumna, though a king, paid respect to the Brāhmana Vidyāpati.45 As rulers, the Ksatriyas were sometimes commanding over the Brāhmaṇas—the king Indradyumna allowed the Brahmana Vidyapati to go to Odradesa in search of the deity 'Nilamadhaya'.46 Our Purana hints at the Sūryavamsa origin of the Ksatriyas by mentioning that the king Indradyumna was born in Sūryavamsa.47 The Ksatriyas were mainly instructed in the art of war and in state politics.

The Ksatriya-Brāhmana relationship was very close. The Ksatrivas handled the administrative powers of the state whereas the Brahmanas were the chief counsellors to them. Only Ksatriyas were considered competent to become rulers and in that capacity they had to ensure a free and due observance of dharma by everyone in society. Arrangement of sacrifices was the duty of Ksatriyas, mainly of Ksatriya-kings. The performance of sacrifices, on the one hand, brought merit to the arranger and, on the other hand, it offered subsistence to the Brāhmaņas who depended mainly on the charities given to them by the other varnas. Thus, the Ksatriyas and the Brāhmanas were intimately related to each other.

The duties of the Vaisyas

In the Niladri-Mahodayam, the vaisyas are often mentioned just to complete the list of the varnas. From the information scattered loosely in the Purana, it appears that the vaisyas were a community engaged in trade and commerce. The vais yas focussed

^{44.} D. R. Patil, Cultural History from the Vayu Purana, p. 139.

^{45,} N. M. 2.112 : Ayatam tam dvijašrestham Indradyumno mahipatih Asanāt sahasotthāya namaskrt ya ca tam punah.

N. M. 2.47b 46. "Gaccha gaccha dvijašrestha tallaksyam kuru vegatah"

N.M. 2.8b: "Jātah kṛtayuge viprāh sūryavams asamudbhavah" 47.

their attention mainly on wealth and profit. They formed the basis upon which the other two classes of society, the Brāhmaṇa and the Kṣatriya, rested.

The duties of the Sūdras

The Nilādri-Mahodayam describes the fūdras as a varņa of the lowest rank in society. Their principal duty was to serve the higher three varṇas. The fūdras were considered as the degraded ones. They were forbidden to touch the materials ready for the worship of Lord Jagannātha.⁴⁸ They were not allowed to enter the kitchen of Lord Jagannātha.⁴⁹ Such references as the fūdras studying the Vedas, worshiping the deities and performing the sacrifices are not included in our Purāṇa. In the Dharmasāstras we find many disabilities imposed on sūdras and the Mahābhārata says that they cannot own property.⁵⁰ According to our Purāṇa, their presence at the sacrifical altar was considered contaminating.

The Sabaras and their activities

In addition to the varṇas discussed above, the Nilādri-Mahodayam mentions the Śabaras and the Yavanas as the other races of the society. There were Śabara-dwellings situated to the west of the Puruṣottama Kṣetra.⁵¹ The text of our Purāṇa reveals that the Śabaras lived in the forests. They were hospitable to their guests. They lived on fruits and roots collected from the forest. The Nilādri-Mahodayam describes that the Brāhmaṇa Vidyāpati, while searching for the deity Nilamādhava, met with the great Śabara Viśvāvasu in the forest of Śabara-dvīṇa. Viśvāvasu paid respect to Vidyāpati and warmly welcomed him with fruits and roots.⁵² The deity Nilamādhava was worshiped by the Śabara Viśvāvasu in a cave in the forest.⁵³ This evidence shows that,

^{48.} N. M. 42.41a : "Śūdrādīnām spṛśyamānam...."

^{49.} N. M. 7.50b; "Na viseyur yathā śūdrā...."

^{50.} D. R. Patil, Cultural History from the Vāyu Purāņa, p. 150.

^{51.} N. M. 1.63b: "Ksetrasya paścime deśe varttate śabarālayah

^{52.} N. M. 2.50b-51: Śanaih Śanairviveśātha śabaradvīpakānane tam drstvā śabaraśreśtho viśvāvasu ranuttamah.
namaskrtyārc ayedvipram phalamūlādibhir dvijā,h

^{53.} N. M. 2.53a: ".....vanametacca gahvaram"
2.71b-c Vidyāpate nīlatanum mādhavam devadurlabham
draksisyasi param devam.....

the Sabaras were the real Vaisnavas. They were not untouchables though they lived far away from the towns and villages. They worshiped their own deity with all sincerity and devotion but worshipping the gods or goddesses was not their profession. They did not hold any office in the king's court. They led their independent lives amidst the wild animals in the dense and fearsome forests, 54

The Yavanas in the society

The Yavanas were a sect of people living in the contemporary society. They were not allowed to enter temples or to be present at the sacrificial altar. Even talks relating to them near Naivedya were considered contaminating. 55 Our Purana describes in detail the mishappenings to be occurred to the deity, to the king and to the country by the entrance of a Yavana into the temple of Lord Jagannātha.56 The author of the Nīlādri-Mahodaya warns the king to be alert about this and prescribes Mahāsnāna of the deity if at any time a Yavana enters a temple.

Ascetics and their role

The Nīlādri-Mahodayam in its first adhyāya mentions the sages of the Naimişa forest. 57 The sages had their disciples. They had the knowledge of all the tirthas of the world.58 The kings and their people paid respect to the ascetics. The sages on their part were the guardians and promoters of culture and as such they were deeply interested in the pace and progress of the state. The rules of conduct and the ideals of morality of the Rsis inspired the king and the clown alike in their behaviour. It is noteworthy that they always considered the visit of a sage to the royal court a matter of great pleasure and honour for himself. The Rsi Jatila

N. M. 2.61a-b: "....mārgo' sti bhayasamkulah Simhavyaghradibhirnunam devanamapyagocarah.

N.M. 7.108b-109a: "Yavaniyakathā jātā naivedyanikate tadā. 55. tannaivedyam vahiskrtya dīrghakhāte nipātayet

N. M. 13.36: Prākāradehalīm nīco yavano yadi langhayet 56. tadābhaven' mahādosah ksīnāyur nṛpatir bhavet cittabhramo pi nrpater des abhango bhavettadā

N. M. 1.36 : "Tādṛśe' pi vane ramye Śaunakādyā munīśvarāh 57.

N. M. 1.46 : "Samastatīrtha tattvānām jāānāya jagatītale" 58.

narrated the story of Mādhava to king Indradyumna, ⁵⁹ who then made arrangements for a journey to *Puruṣottama-kṣetra*. ⁶⁰ The sages had the knowledge of different yogas. Indradyumna asked the *Maharṣi* Nārada to know about the *jñāna-yoga*, *vairāgya yoga* and *bhakti-yoga* ⁶¹ etc. Our *Purāṇa* mentions that the Rṣis asked Sūta to narrate the *tīrtha-tattva* for the benefit of all. ⁶²

Thus the four varṇas helped one another to survive in the society. They were devotees of their respective duties which they rendered with all sincerity. The scheme of works, which they have taken up in the Jagannātha temple, finds an elaborate description in the Nilādri-Mahodayam. According to the same rule, they are now also discharging their duties in the temple. To whichever varṇa they may belong, they perform today their own duties in the temple in accordance with their hereditary customs.

⁵⁹ N. M. 2.20-25; 2.28-36.

^{60.} N. M. 2.39: "Tatah purodhasam prāha tannimittam sa satvarah."

^{61.} N. M. 2.128: Jñānavairāgyayoryogam bhaktiyogasaya kāraṇam caturvidhasam yogam pṛṣṭavānavanīsvaraḥ.

^{62.} N. M. 1.9b: "Ūcuh prān jalyah sarve sarvalokahitāya vai"

THE SYAMANTAKA GEM STORY: A STRUCTURAL ANALYSIS

By

IVAN STRENSKI

Since no previous work, to our knowledge, has been done on the Syamantaka Gem story other than the passing comments of purāṇic scholars such as H. H. Wilson, F. E. Pargiter, K. P. Jayaswal³ and D. R. Patil, we thought that a fresh approach to the story might bring rewards of its own, but also, perhaps, give us some hints as to why our story has caused these scholars to pause over it.

Before we do so, we would like to fill in some necessary background notes on the Purāṇas and on those Purāṇas with which we will be associated most closely—the Vāyu, Matsya and especially the Bhāgavata Purāṇa. The Purāṇas—literally meaning "ancient lore", or "that which come from ancient times", constitute a class of Indian religious literature (Smṛti) which is divided into two main sub-classes: the Mahāpurāṇas, of which there number 18 and the Upapurāṇas, of which over 100 are counted. This division separates roughly the recognized, authentic or chief purāṇas from minor works which associate themselves to the primary 18. Lists of the 18 as found in all 18 Mahāpurāṇās (which we shall now refer to simply as Purāṇas) are in almost complete agreement with one another on the make up of this list. The popular religious

- 1. Wilson, H. H, Essays Analitical and Critical, Trubner, London, 1864, p. 133.
- 2. Pargiter, F. E., Ancient Indian Historical Tradition, Oxford University Press, London, 1922.
- 3. Jayaswal, K. P., Hindu Polity, Butterworth, London, 1924 Vol. 1. p. 42.
- 4. Patil, D. R., Cultural History from the Vāyu Purāna, Deccan College, Poona, 1946, pp. 24, 101, 120, 172f, 318.
- 5. Pusalker, A. D., Studies in the Epics and Puranas, Bharati-Vidya Bhavan, Bombay, 1963. pp. 22.
- 6. Winternitz, M., A History of Indian Literature. Calcutta University Press, Calcutta, 1933, 1, pp. 531ff.

significance of the Puranas to Hinduism is (and has been) considerable-despite the censure of the Hindu reformers 1 and the continued disapproval of them among Hindu intellectuals like Dr. S. Radhakrishnan. I quote:

The Puranas with their wild chronology and wierd stories are mainly imaginative literature, but were treated as a part of the sacred tradition for the simple reason that some people took interest in them.2

There is much irremedial confusion as to the contents and chronology of the Puranas since they form a literature not only partly oral and popular in origin but one which has suffered considerable emendations at the hands of successive generations of compilers and redactors. We may however settle on some very rough dates of origin (or codification) and agree upon a common general set of contents. Thus, the Vayu and Matsya Puranas have a recognized antiquity and may be dated as not earlier than 400 BC nor later than 500 AD.3 The Visnu, according to recent estimates, spans the period between 100 AD and 350 AD4, while the Bhāgavata Purāņa must not be dated earlier than 500 AD nor later than 950 AD.5 Contentwise, the Puranas are closely connected with the Epics. Winternitz states that the Mahābhārata and the Harivamsa are "nothing other than Puranas and sections of the Ramayana partake of the character of Purāṇas".6 They are like "new wine in old bottles", says Winternitz and often draw independently from similar sources, such as the Epics. The Puranas however agree among themselves that the "characteristics" requisite of the "genuine" Purāṇa are five. Known as the five "Pañcalakṣaṇa",

Walker, B., Hindu World. George Allen and Unwin, 1. London, 1968, 1, p. 270.

Radhakrishnan, S., The Hindu View of Life, Unwin Books, London, 1965, p. 17.

Patil, D. R., p. 4. 3.

Hazra, R. C., "The Date of the Visnu Purana", Annals 4. of the Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute, XVIII, p 269.

Hopkins, T. J., "The Social Teaching of the Bhagavata 5. Purana" in M. Singer (ed) Krishna Myth. Rites and Attitudes, East-West Center Press, Honolulu, 1900, p. 4.

^{6,7.} Winternitz, M., pp. 517f, 518.

these marks refer to kinds of accounts each Purāṇa must relate. They are:

- (1) primary creation,
- (2) secondary periodic re-creations and periodic cosmic dissolutions,
- (3) genealogies of the gods, rsis and heroes,
- (4) activities of the Ages of Manu,
- (5) history of the solar and lunar dynasties1.

With Pargiter's work on the dynastic lists of the Purāṇas² and the more recent work of Patil on Indian cultural history from the Vāyu³ some case has been made for the historical value of the Purāṇas, though considerable caution and discrimination must be exercised in any claims for the historicity of any puranic reference.⁴ The Purāṇas are especially valuable to the historian of religion because they provide sources and accounts of myths, rituals, religious beliefs, ethical prohibitions and social conditions—whether or not these are real or imagined. Ancient theories of Indian geography, cosmography and cosmology have been reconstructed from the Purāṇas along with the cultural and political systems mentioned earlier.⁵

The Viṣṇu Purāṇa is evidently a product of the Vaiṣṇavas and though it concentrates on the exaltation and glorification of Viṣṇu, there is some debate as to the propriety of Wilson's calling it sectarian. Viṣṇu's primacy is a more positive thing: Siva and Brahmā are mentioned in the Viṣṇu Purāṇa, but assimilated to Viṣṇu. The great antiquity of the Viṣṇu Purāṇa is suggested because of the absence of references to special feasts, temples, sacri-

^{1.} Ibid., p. 522.

^{2.} Pargiter, F. E., Ancient Indian. Historical Tradition.

^{3.} Patil, D. R., Cultural History from the Vayu Purana.

^{4.} Winternitz, M., p. 529.

^{5.} Ali, S. M., The Geography of the Puranas, People's Publishing House, New Delhi, 1966.

^{6.} Wilson, H. H., "Preface" to The Vishnu Purana; Pusalker; Roy, S. N., "The Date of the Viṣṇu-Purāṇa's Chapters on Māyāmoha Legend", Purāṇa, VII, 1965, pp. 276-287.

^{7.} Viṣṇu Purāṇa: Brahma, pp. 2, 18, 396; Śiva, p. 18.

fices, rituals dedicated to Visnu. Perhaps more so than any other Purana, it bears the five characteristics of a genuine Purana. Though the dating of any purana is a risky matter, R. C. Hazra has recently suggested that it could not have been later than 500 AD.1

After the accounts of creation and the nature of the universe and mythological narratives of past kings and sages of Book I, cosmography and geography of Book II and the account of the Manu ages of book III, the Syamantaka Gem story in the Visnu Purāņa is found among the genealogical lists of the solar and lunar dynasties in Book IV. Book V is Practically identical to the Harivainsa and recounts the much beloved adventures of Kṛṣṇa as divine cow-herd. The Viṣṇu Purāṇa ends characteristically with an account of the world end and with a brief recapitulation of previous ages and the contents of the Purana.

The second source of the Syamantaka Gem story with which we shall chiefly compare the Viṣṇu Purāṇa version is taken from the famous Bhāgavata Purāna. One of the most recent purānic compositions, which according to T. J. Hopkins² may be said to have existed not earlier than 500 A. D. and not later than 950 A.D., the Bhagavata Purana seems to be the work of a consistent viewpoint concerned with the propagation of loving devotion (bhakti) to Vișnu-especially in his incarnation as Kṛṣṇa. The close resemblance in content between the Bhagavata Purana and the Visnu Purāņa suggests that the latter served as its model. Significantly, it sometimes serves as its anti-model—since the Bhagavata Purana seems to react against various pro-Vedic tendencies in the Visnu Purāna (as we will argue in our following analysis). Unlike the Visnu Purāna (most probably) it is more clearly the product of a sect presenting a divine Kṛṣṇa whose amorous adventures with the Gopis occupy even more space than in the Visnu Purāna. It damns Vedic religion "with faint praise when it is not openly

Hazra, R. C., pp. 265-275; Winternitz, M., p. 545; Pargiter, F. E., p. 80.

Hopkins, T. J., p. 4; Renou, L., Religions of Ancient India, London University Press, London, 1953, p. 103; Winter-2. nitz, M., p. 556.

criticized" and criticizes the *Mahābhārata* and other Purāṇas for a lack of sufficient zeal for Viṣṇu. "*Bhakti*" as an independent means of salvation is proclaimed.²

The Matsya purāṇa—one of those puṣāṇas which have preserved the most ancient text, only contains a fragment of the Symantaka Gem story. This purāṇa celebrates the incarnation of Viṣṇu as a fish who saves Manu alone during the great flood which destroys mankind at one of the world-dissolutions. It recounts the creation, genealogies, geographical, astronomical and cosmological matters and lists the dynasties of kings. Both Viṣṇu and Śiva legends are related in the Matsya purāṇa.

Ancient text is preserved by the $V\bar{a}yu$, which is often considered the oldest of purāṇas. Śiva seems the main object of veneretion in the $V\bar{a}yu$ although Viṣṇu is also honoured. It has been used as a source of cultural history by D. R. Patil who has distinguished three periods reflected in the compilation of the $V\bar{a}yu$ ranging from the archaic (500 BC and earlier) to the ancient (500 BC to 0) to the age of accretions (0-500 AD). The Syamantaka Gem story agrees broadly with the Viṣṇu purāṇa version though significant differences are to be noticed in which the $V\bar{a}yu$ tends to agree with the $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata$ tradition against the Viṣṇu Purāṇa. Since the $V\bar{a}yu$ is not available in English translation, we have had to rely on citations and reference from Patil's study which, all the same, have proved interesting.

The method of story-analysis which follows is chiefly a loose adaptation of the insights of Claude Levi-Strauss which first appeared in his "Structural Study of Myth" (1955), "The Myth of Asdiwal" (1967 of French 1958) and finally in a full way in his Mythologiques: le Cru et le cuit (1964), Du Miel aux cendres (1966) and l'Origine des manieres do table (1968). Our analysis also draws from I. Moore's attempts to do a task similar to Levi-Strauss's, but in an even more rigorous way by the construction of a syntax and semantics of stories. The groundwork for Moore's science of

^{1.} Hopkins, T. J., p. 12.

^{2.} Ibid., p. 13.

^{3.} Patil, D. R., p. 14.

^{4.} Ibid., p. 172.

stories and its relation to Levi-Strauss's work can be found in his Levi-Strauss and the Cultural Sciences (1968) and in a soon-to-bepublished essay covering much the same ground as Levi-Strauss and the Cultural Sciences. We would also refer the reader to E. R. Leach's structural analyses of two stories from Genesis: Levi-Strauss in the Garden of Eden" (1961) and "Genesis as Myth" (1962) as well as M. S. Robinson's attempt to derive some useful implications of a Sinhalese myth by structural means. "The House the Mighty Hero" or 'The House of Enough Paddy'? (1968). Although we believe our analysis achieves the rigor necessary for a useful demonstration of structural methods, it falls short of the high degree of formality Moore's semantic and syntactical approach calls for. Nonetheless we would hold that even on the level of rigor at which our analysis operates, useful implications can be drawn from our story sufficient to commend a structural approach to the analysis of stories.

A. Structural Analysis of the Syamantaka Gem Story.

Following Levi-Strauss's instructions, the structural analysis of a myth begins by isolating the gross constituent units of which a myth is composed. These constituent units themselves are composed of relations and are abstracted from the myth by "breaking down its story into the shortest possible sentences and writing each such sentence on an index card bearing a number corresponding to the unfolding of the story."

It may also be noticed that these "sentences" correspond roughly to "incidents" of the story. Now, "incidents" occur at a level of generality, one step below that of the "episode". Thus, most generally, a story is composed of "episodes", which are further composed of "incidents", which may be broken down further into "transformations", which in turn are composed of "states", which finally are composed of "elements". In our story the first episode might be called the 'episode of the giving of the gem'. In it we distinguish two incidents, the first of which is "Sūrya gives the Syamantaka Gem to Satrājit". This gives way to the "transformations" which we may abstract depending upon

^{1.} Levi-Strauss, C, "The Structural Study of Myth", Ch. XI, . Structural Anthropology, Allen Lane, London 1968. p. 211.

how far we want to push the rigor of the analysis. (1) Satrājit without the gem; Satrājit with the gem; (2) Sūrya has the gem; Sūrya has no gem. The "transformations" in turn reduce to a "layout" of "states" (1) Satrājit with the gem; (2) Satrājit without the gem. And the "state" is a "layout" of "elements".

(1) Satrājit (2) with (3) Gem.1

In our analysis of the Syamantaka Gem story, however, we will not attempt to articulate a structure beyond the level of the "incident" - although we will analyze the structure of several elements of our story in a digression. At the level of "incidents" we feel that an adequate case can be made for a certain structure which illuminate and ground certain themes of the myth. Though we carry out our analysis on the incident-level it should be understood that, along with Levi-Strauss, we believe that the true constituent units of a myth are not the individual incidents (relations) but "bundles of such relations and it is only as bundles that these relations can be put to use and combined so as produce a meaning".2 Though these relations pertaining to the same "bundle" appear in the story at various intervals we grasp them in such a way that by reading horizontally from left to right (as in Table 1) one follows the diachronic flow of the story as one would tell it. Reading vertically, however, one notice six columns which organize the variously occurring relations into "bundles" having a common element, whether it be "giving", as in column one, or "destroying" as in column five. (See Table I)

A List of Abbreviations.

A=Akrūra; D=Dvārakā; J=Jāmbavat; Ja=Jāmbavatī; K=Kṛṣṇa; L=a Lion; P=Prasena; B=Balarāma; S=Satrājit; Sa=Satyabhāmā; Sh=Satadhanvan; SG=the Syamantaka Gem; Su=Sūrya; Suk=Sukumāra; Ys=the Yādavas.

Legend: Numbers before the decimal refer to episode-numbers in Viṣṇu. Numbers after the decimal refer to incident-number in the Viṣṇu.

- 1. Moore, Tim, Claude Levi-Strauss and the Cultural Sciences. Occasional Papers, No. 4, Centre for Contemporary Cultural Studies, Birmingham University, Birmingham, 1968, for details of such an analysis.
- 2. Levi-Strauss, C., p. 211.

We hope to show that our adaptation of Levi-Strauss's method for the analysis of stories is fruitful for the understanding of our myth, in which case we should concentrate upon considering each column in Table 1 as a unity—as a "bundle" of similar relations. To understand the myth, then, on the premisses employed, is to understand how these bundles of relations stand with respect to one another, and how the relations between and among these bundles of relations illuminate the meanings our myth might have. This is to penetrate to a structural understanding of our myth in order to substantiate various claims regarding a myth's having a particular meaning.

Given this brief introduction we should now lay the Syamantaka Gem story before the reader as it occurs in the Visnu, Bhāgavata and Matsya Purānas. Dowson's precis of what seems the Visnu Purāņa version of the story is given with episode divisions corresponding to those we have provided for the full version of the Visnu Purāņa of our story. The reader will notice that the story is broken down into episodes which are numbered as they occur in each separate Purana. So that the reader may compare versions by episode, a code has been provided. After each episode number for each version of the story the reader will find three numbers within parenthesis. These numbers correspond to the numbers of the episode for all versions in the order Vișnu, Bhāgavata, Matsya. A. dash (-) means that this episode is absent from the particular puranic version. Thus, after Episode 2 of the Visnu the following figures within parenthesis will be found: (2, 2, 1), meaning that the second episode for the Vișnu and Bhāgavata purānas is the first for the Matsya.

Dowson's Precis of the Syamantaka Gem Story

'(1) A celebrated gem given by the sun to Satrājit. "It yielded daily eight loads of gold and dispelled all fear of portents, wild beasts, fire, robbers, and famine." But though it was an inexhaustible source of good for the virtuous wearer, it was deadly to a wicked one. (2) Satrājit being afraid that Kṛṣṇa would take it from him, gave it to his own brother, Prasena, but he, being a bad man, was killed by a lion. Jāmbavat, king of the bears, killed the lion and carried off the gem; (3) but Kṛṣṇa, after a long conflict, (4) took it

I : Giving	II: Taking	III : Accusing	IV: Exonerating	V : Destroying	VI: Preserving
1.1 Su gives SG to S			_	-	1.2 SG preserves D from calamities
	2.3 K wants to take SG from S, but does not	-			
2.4 S gives SG to P				2.5 L kills P	
- SG 10 F	2.6 L takes SG	_		2.7 J kills L	
	from P				
-	2.8 J takes SG from L	_	_		
2.9 J gives SG to Suk		2.10 Ys explicitly accuse K of taking SG & killing P. S.	3.11 All Ys acquit K of said crimes. (2.10)		
		implicitly accuses			
		K of taking SG and	to energy printer		
	3.12 K attempts	killing P		3-4.13 K	4.14 K heals J's
	to take SG from J			fights with J	
4.15 J gives Ja and SG to K	_			_	
					4.16 K's return to brings benefi
SG to S			5.18 Ys exonerate K of said	-	
5.19 S gives Sa to K			crimes (2.10) 5.20 S implicitly acquits K of said crimes	-	
	_		(2.10)	8.21 Sh kills	
_	8 22 Sh takes	Witness .		s —	-
9.23 Sh gives SG to A	SG from S	<u> </u>		9.24 K kills Sh	-
- SG 10 A	9.25 K. tries to	9.26 R	9.27 R and Ys	511	10.28 A's presence
	take SG	explicitly	implicitly		in D with So
	from Sh but fails	accuses K of taking	acquit K of said		brings benefits
	14115	SG and	crimes		
		murdering Sh. Ys	(9.26)		
		implicitly			
		accuse K			
		of taking SG and			
		murdering			
	-	_		10.29 Various calamities befall	
	-		11.30 Ys forgive A's political misdeed	D —	11.31 A's return to with SG brin benefits
		11.32 K "honors		11.32 K "lets A be"	Deficition
		11.33 K is "honored"		—	
	s" SG	nonored			

from him, (5) and restored it to Satrājit. (6, 7 omitted by Dowson) (8) Afterwards Satrājita was killed in his sleep by Śata-dhanwan, (9) who carried off the gem. Being pursued by Kṛṣṇa and Bala-rāma, he gave the gem to Akrūra and continued his flight, but he was overtaken and killed by Kṛṣṇa alone. As Kṛṣṇa did not bring back the jewel, Bala-rāma suspected that he had secreted it, and consequently he upbraided and parted from him, declaring that he would not be imposed upon by perjuries. (10 omitted by Dowson), (11) Akrūra subsequently produced the gem, and it was claimed by Kṛṣṇa, Bala-rāma and Satyabhāmā. After some contention it was decided that Akrūra should keep it, and so "he moved about like the sun wearing a garland of light."

A List of Alternative Names

Kṛṣṇa: "Acyuta" = "the never falling"; "Dāmodara" = "the self-restrained"; "descendant of Yadu (Jadu)"; "eternal male"; "Foe of Madhu"; "Govinda" = "Rescuer of the Earth"; "he whose emblem is Garuḍa"; "holder of the conch, discus, and mace"; "Hṛṣīkeśa" = "Lord of the Senses"; "Keśava" = "the long-haired one"; "Lord of the Universe"; "Lotus-cyed deity"; "Nārāyaṇa" = "the universal abode"; "Puruṣottama" = "the best of men"; "Vāsudeva" = "the Indweller".

Rāma: "Balabhadra" = "he who is strong and fortunate"; "Baladeva" = "divinity of strength"; "Balarāma" = "Rāma the strong".

Sūrya: Āditya.

The Syamantaka Gem Story : Viṣṇu Purāṇa (Book IV, Chapter 13)

Ep. 1. (1, 1,-)

"On one occasion Satrājit, whilst walking along the sea shore, addressed his mind to Sūrya, and hymned his praises; on which the divinity appeared and stood before him. Beholding him in an indistinct shape, Satrājit said to the sun, "I have beheld thee, lord, in the heavens as a globe of fire: now

^{1.} Dowson, J., A Classical Dictionary of Hindu Mythology, Routledge, Kegan Paul, French and Trubner, London, 1928, pp. 315f.

do thou show favour unto me, that I may see thee in thy proper form." On this the sun taking the jewel called Syamantaka from off his neck, placed it apart, and Satrājit beheld him of a dwarfish stature, with a body like burnished copper, and with slightly reddish eyes. Having offered his adorations, the sun desired him to demand a boon, and he requested that the jewel might become his. The sun presented it to him, and then resumed his place in the sky. Having obtained the spotless gem of gems, Satrājit wore it on his neck, and becoming as brilliant thereby as the sun himself, irradiating all the region with his splendour, he returned to Dvārakā. The inhabitants of that city, beholding him approach, repaired to the eternal male, Purusottama, who, to sustain the burden of the earth, had assumed a mortal form (as Kṛṣṇa), and said to him, "Lord, assuredly the divine sun is coming to visit you." But Kṛṣṇa smiled, and said, "It is not the divine sun, but Satrājit, to whom Āditya has presented the Syamantaka gem, and he now wears it : go and behold him without apprehension." Accordingly they departed. Satrājit having gone to his house, there deposited the jewel, which yielded daily eight loads of gold, and through its mavellous virtue dispelled all fear of portens, wild beasts, fire, robbers, and famine."

Ep. 2. (2, 2, 1)

"Acyuta was of opinion that this wonderful gem should be in the possession of Ugrasena; but although he had the power of taking it from Satrājit, he did not deprive him of it, that he might not occasion any disagreement amongst the family. Satrājit, on the other hand, fearing that Kṛṣṇa would ask him for the jewel, transferred it to his brother Prasena. Now it was the peculiar property of this jewel, that although it was an inexhaustible source of good to a virtuous person, yet when worn by a man of bad character it was the cause of his death. Prasena having taken the gem, and hung it round his neck, mounted his horse, and went to the woods to hunt. In the chase he was killed by a lion. The lion, taking the jewel in his mouth, was about to depart, when he was observed and killed by Jambavat, the king of the bears, who carrying off the gem retired into his cave, and gave it to his son Sukumāra to play with."

Ep. 3. (3, 3, 2)

"When these calumnious rumours came to the knowledge of Kṛṣṇa, he collected a number of the Yādavas, and accompanied by them pursued the course of Prasena by the impressions of his horse's hoofs. Desirous of recovering the gem, he thence followed the steps of the lion, and at no great distance came to the place where the lion had been killed by the bear. Following the footmarks of the latter, he arrived at the foot of a mountain, where he desired the Yadavas to await him, whilst he continued the track. Still guided by the marks of the feet, he discovered a cavern, and had scarcely entered it when he heard the nurse of Sukumāra saying to him, "The lion killed Prasena; the lion has been killed by Jāmbavat: weep not, Sukumāra, the Syamantaka is your own." Thus assured of his object, Krsna advanced into the cavern, and saw the brilliant jewel in the hands of the nurse, who was giving it as a plaything to Sukumāra. The nurse soon descried his approach, and marking his eyes fixed upon the gem with eager desire, called loudly for help. Hearing her cries, Jambavat, full of anger, came to the cave, and a conflict ensued between him and Acyuta, which lasted twenty-one days. The Yadavas who had accompanied the latter waited seven or eight days in expectation of his return, but as the foe of Madhu still came not forth, they concluded that he must have met his death in the cavern. "It could not have required so many days," they thought "to overcome an enemy;" and accordingly they departed, and returned to Dvārakā, and announced that Krsna had been killed."

Ep. 4. (4, 4, 2)

"When the relations of Acyuta heard this intelligence, they performed all the obsequial rites suited to the occasion. The food and water thus offered to Kṛṣṇa in the celebration of his Śrāddha served to support his life, and invigorate his strength in the combat in which he was engaged; whilst his adversary, wearied by daily conflict with a powerful foe, bruised and battered in every limb by heavy blows, and enfeebled by want of food, became unable longer to resist him. Overcome by his mighty antagonist, Jāmbavat cast himself before him and said, "Thou, mighty being, art surely

invincible by all the demons, and by the spirits of heaven, earth, or hell; much less art thou to be vanquished by mean and powerless creatures in a human shape; and still less by such as we are, who are born of brute origin. Undoubtedly thou art a portion of my sovereign lord Nārāyaṇa, the defender of the universe." Thus addressed by Jambavat, Kṛṣṇa explained to him fully that he had descended to take upon himself the burden of the earth, and kindly alleviated the bodily pain which the bear suffered from the fight, by touching him with his hand. Jambavat again prostrated himself before Kṛṣṇa, and presented to him his daughter Jāmbavatī, as an offering suitable to a guest. He also delivered to his visitor the Syamantaka jewel. Although a gift from such an individual was not fit for his acceptance, yet Kṛṣṇa took the gem for the purpose of clearing his reputation. He then returned along with his bride Jambavati to Dvārakā.

When the people of Dvārakā beheld Kṛṣṇa alive and returned, they were filled with delight, so that those who were bowed down with years recovered youthful vigour; and all the Yādavas, men and women, assembled round Ānakadundubhi, the father of the hero, and congratulated him.

Ep. 5. (5, 5, 3)

"Kṛṣṇa related to the whole assembly of the the Yādavas all that had happened, exactly as it had befallen, and restoring the Syamantaka jewel to Satrājit was exonerated from the crime of which he had been falsely accused. He then led Jāmbavatī into the inner apartments.

When Satrājit reflected that he had been the cause of the aspersions upon Kṛṣṇa's character, he felt alarmed, and to conciliate the prince he gave him to wife his daughter Satyabhāmā."

Ep. 6, (6, 7,-)

"The maiden had been previously sought in marriage by several of the most distinguished Yādavas, as Akrūra, Kṛtavarman and Śatadhanvan, who were highly incensed at her being wedded to another, and leagued in enmity against

Satrājit. The chief amongst them, with Akrūra and Kṛtavarman, said to Śatadhanvan, 'This caitiff Satrājit has offered a gross insult to you, as well as to us who solicited his daughter, by giving her to Kṛṣṇa: let him not live: why do you not kill him, and take the jewel? Should Acyuta therefore enter into feud with you, we will take your part.'' Upon this promise Śatadhanvan undertook to slay Satrājit.

Ep. 7. (7, 6,-)

"When news arrived that the sons of Pāṇḍu had been burned in the house of wax¹⁰, Kṛṣṇa, who knew the real truth, set off for Bāraṇāvata to allay the animosity of Duryodhana, and to perform the duties his relationship required.

Ep. 8. (8, 7,-)

"Satadhanvan taking advantage of his absence, killed Satrājit in his sleep, and took possession of the gem. Upon this coming to the knowledge of Satyabhāmā, she immediately mounted her chariot, and, filled with fury at her father's murder, repaired to Baranavata, and told her husband how Satrājit had been killed by Sātadhanvan in resentment of her having been married to another, and how he had carried off the jewel; and she implored him to take prompt measures to avange such heinous wrong. Kṛṣṇa, who is ever internally placid being informed of these transactions, said to Satyabhāmā, as his eyes flashed with indignation, "Those are indeed audacious injuries, but I will not submit to them from so vile a wrath. They must assail the trac, who would kill the birds that there have built their nests. Dismiss excessive sorrow; it needs not your lamentations to excite any wrath." Returning forthwith to Dvārakā, Kṛṣṇa took Baladeva apart, and said to him, "A lion slew Prasena, hunting in the forests; and now Satrājit has been murdered by Satadhanvan. As both these are removed, the jewel which belonged to them is our common right. Up then, ascend your car and put Satadhanvan to death."

Being thus excited by his brother, Balarāma engaged resolutely in the enterprise.

Ep. 9. (9, 8,-)

"But Satadhanvan, being aware of their hostile designs, repaired to Kṛtavarman, and required his assistance. Kṛta-

varman, however, declined to assist him, pleading his inability to engage in a conflict with both Baladeva and Krsna. Satadhanvan thus disappointed, applied to Akrūra; but he said, "You must have recourse to some other protector. How should I be able to defend you? There is no one even amongst the immortals, whose praises are celebrated throughout the universe, who is capable of contending with the wielder of the discus, at the stamp of whose feet the three worlds tremble; whose hand makes the wives of the Asuras widows, whose weapons no host, however mighty, can resist; no one is capable of encountering the wielder of the ploughshave, who annihilates the prowess of his enemies by the glances of his eyes, that roll with the joys of wine; and whose vast ploughshare manifests his might, by seizing and exterminating the most formidable foes." "Since this is the case," replied Satadhanvan, "and you are unable to assist me, at least accept and take care of this jewel." "I will do so, answered Akrūra, "If you promise that even in the last extremity you will not divulge its being in my possession." To this Satadhanvan agreed, and Akrūra took the jewel; and the former mounting a very swift mare, one that could travel a hundred leagues a day, fled from Dvārakā.

When Krsna heard of Satadhanvan's flight, he harnessed his four horses, Śaivya, Sugrīva, Meghapuspa, and Balāhaka, to his car, and accompanied by Balarama, set off in pursuit. The mare held her speed, and accomplished her hundred leagues; but when she reached the country of Mithila, her strength was exhausted, and she dropped down and died. Śatadhanvan¹¹ dismounting, continued his flight on foot. When his pursuers came to the place where the mare had perished, Kṛṣṇa said to Balarāma, "Do you remain in the car, whilst I follow the villain on foot, and put him to death; the ground here is bad; and the horses will not be able to drag the chariot across it." Balarama accordingly stayed with the car, and Kṛṣṇa followed Satadhanvan on foot; when he had chased him for two krośas, he discharged his discus, and, although Satadhanvan was at a considerable distance, the weapon struck off his head. Krsna then coming up, searched his body and his dress for the Syamantaka jewel, but found

it not. He then returned to Balabhadra, and told him that they had effected the death of Satadhanvan to no purpose, for the precious gem, the quintessence of all worlds, was not upon his person. When Balabhadra heard this, he flew into a violent rage, and said to Vāsudeva, "Shame light upon you, to be thus greedy of wealth! I acknowledge no brotherhood with you. Here lies my path. Go whither you please; I have done with Dvārakā, with you, with all our house. It is of no use to seek to impose upon me with thy perjuries." Thus reviling his brother, who fruitlessly endeavoured to appease him, Balabhadra went to the city of Videha, where Janaka received him hospitably, and there he remained. Vāsudeva returned to Dvārakā. It was during his stay in the dwelling of Janaka that Duryodhana, the son of Dhrtarāstra, learned from Balabhadra the art of fighting with the mace. At the expiration of three years, Ugrasena and other chiefs of the Yadavas, being satisfied that Kṛṣṇa had not the jewel, went to Videha, and removed Balabhadra's suspicions, and brought him home.

Ep. 10. (10, 9, 4)

"Akrūra, carefully considering the treasures which the precious jewel secured to him, constantly celebrated religious rites, and, purified with holy prayers lived in affluence for fifty-two years; and through the virtue of that gem there was no dearth nor pestilence in the whole country. At the end of that period, Satrughna, the great grandson of Sātvata, was killed by the Bhojas, and as they were in bonds of alliance with Akrūra, he accompanied them in their flight from Dvārakā. From the moment of his departure various calamities, portents, snakes, dearth, plague, and the like, began to prevail; so that he whose emblem is Garuda called together the Yadavas, with Balabhadra and Ugrasena, and recommended them to consider how it was that so many prodigies should have occurred at the same time. On this Andhaka, one of the elders of the Yadu race, thus spoke: "Wherever Śvaphalka, the father of Akrūra, dwelt, there famine, plague, dearth, and other visitations were unknown. Once when there was want of rain in the kingdom of Kāśirāja, Śvaphalka was brought there, and immediately there fell rain from the

heavens. It happened also that the queen of Kāśirāja conceived, and was quick with a daughter; but when the time of delivery arrived, the child issued not from the womb. Twelve years passed away, and still the girl was unborn. Then Kāśirāja spoke to the child, and said, 'Daughter, why is your birth thus delayed? Come forth; I desire to behold you, why do you inflict this protracted suffering upon your mother? Thus addressed, the infant answered, 'If, father, you will present a cow every day to the Brahmanas, I shall of the end of three years more be born.' The king accordingly presented daily a cow to the Brāhmana, and at the end of three years the damsel came into the world. Her father called her Gandini, and he subsequently gave her to Śvaphalka, when he came to his palace for his benefit. Gāndinī, as long as she lived, gave a cow to the Brāhmaņas every day. Akrūra was her son by Śvaphalka, and his birth therefore proceeds from a combination of uncommon excellence. When a person such as he is, absent from us, is it likely that famine, pestilence, and prodigies should fail to occur? Let him then be invited to return; the faults of men of exalted worth must not be too severely scrutinized."

Agreeabtly to the advice of Andhaka, the older, the Yādavas sent a mission headed by Keśava, Ugrasena, and Balabhadra, to assure Akrūra that no notice would be taken of any irregularity committed by him; and having satisfied him that he was in no danger, they brought him back to Dvārakā.

Ep. 11. (11,9[107],-)

"Immediately on his arrival, in consequence of the properties of the jewel, the plague, dearth, famine, and every other calamity and portent, ceased. Kṛṣṇa, observing this, riflected that the descen of Akrūra from Gāndinī and Śvaphalka was a cause wholly disproportionate to such an effect, and that some powerful influence must be exerted to arrest pestilence and famine. "Of a surety," said he to himself, "the great Syamantaka jewel is in his keeping, for such I have heard are amongst its properties. This Akrūra too has been lately celebrating sacrifice after sacrifice; his own means are insufficient for such expenses; it is beyond a doubt that he

has the jewel." Having come to this conclusion, he called a meeting of all the Yadavas at his house, under the pretext of some festive celebration. When they were all seated, and the purport of their assembling had been explained, and the business accomplished, Kṛṣṇa entered into conversation with Akrūra, and after laughing and joking, said to him, "Kinsman, you are a very prince in your liberality; but we know very well that the precious jewel which was stolen by Sudhanvan was delivered by him to you, and is now in your possession, to the great benefit of this kingdom. So let it remain; we all derive advantage from its virtues. But Balabhadra suspects that I have it, and therefore, out of kindness to me, show it to the assembly." When Akrūra, who had the jewel with him, was thus taxed, he hesitated what he should do. "If I deny that I have the jewel," thought he, "they will search my person, and find the gem hidden amongst my clothes. I cannot submit to a search." So reflecting, Akrūra said to Nārāyana, the cause of the whole world, "It is true that the Syamantaka jewel was entrusted to me by Satadhanvan, when he went from here. I expected every day that you would ask me for it, and with much inconvenience therefore I have kept it, until now. The charge of it has subjected me to so much anxiety, that I have been incapable of enjoying any pleasure, and have never known a moment's ease. Afraid that you would think me unfit to retain possession of a jewel so essential to the welfare of the kingdom, I forbore to mention to you its being in my hands; but now take it yourself, and give the care of it to whom you please." Having thus spoken, Akrūra drew forth from his garments a small gold box, and took from it the jewel. On displaying it to the assembly of the Yādavas, the whole chamber where they sat was illuminated by its radiance. "This", said Akrūra, "is the Syamantaka gem, which was consigned to me by Satadhanvan: let him to whom it belongs now take it."

When the Yādavas beheld the jewel, they were filled with astonishment, and loudly expressed their delight. Balabhadra immediately claimed the jewel as his property jointly with Acyuta, as formerly agreed upon; whilst Satyabhāmā demanded it as her right, as it had originally belonged to her

father. Between these two Kṛṣṇa considered himself as an ox between the two wheels of a cart, and thus spoke to Akrūra in the presence of all the Yadavas: "This jewel has been exhibited to the assembly in order to clear my reputation; it is the joint right of Balabhadra and myself, and is the patrimonial inheritance of Satyabhāmā. But this jewel, to be of advantage to the whole kingdom, should be taken charge of by a person who leads a life of perpetual continence: If worn by an impure individual, it will be the cause of his death. Now as I have sixteen thousand wives, I am not qualified to have the care of it. It is not likely that Satyabhama will agree the condition that would entitle her to the possession of the jewel; and as to Balabhadra, he is too much addicted to wine and the pleasures of sense to lead a life of self-denial. We are therefore out of the question, and all the Yadavas, Balabhadra, Satyabhāmā, and myself, request you, most bountiful Akrūra, to retain the care of the jewel, as you have done hitherto, for the general good; for you are qualified to have the keeping of it, and in your hands it has been productive of benefit to the country. You must not decline compliance with our request." Akrūra, thus urged, accepted the jewel, and thence-forth wore it publicly round his neck, where it shone with dazzling brightness; and Akrūra moved about like the sun, wearing a garland of light.

Moral:

He who calls to mind the vindication of the character of Kṛṣṇa from false aspersions, shall never become the subject of unfounded accusation in the least degree, and living in the full exercise of his senses shall be cleansed from every sin.

B. Analysis:

Giving-Taking.

Let us examine the constituent units of our story as they occur in Table 1 beginning with the "giving" column. The story opens by Sūrya giving the Syamantaka Gem to Satrājit (1.1); Satrājit, in turn, gives the Syamantaka Gem to Prasena (2.4) and so on down the list. We might notice that two kinds of gifts are given—the Syamantaka Gem which, we have mentioned in inci-

dents 1.1, 2.4, 2.9, 5.17, 9.23, 4.15, 5.19, and women as wives, Jāmbavatī and Satyabhāmā both to Kṛṣṇa from their respective fathers Jāmbavat and Satrājit. (The Matsya Purāņa records that Satrājit's grand-daughter rather than his Satyabhāmā was daughter). Likewise in column II, headed "taking", we listed such incidents as a Lion's taking the Syamantaka Gem from Prasena (2.6) and so on as well as attempts (though failures) at taking in varying degrees of attempt-Kṛṣṇa takes no Syamantaka Gem from Satadhanvan (9.25). (He tried and failed) as well as Kṛṣṇa's thinking that Ugrasena should have the Syamantaka Gem where Krsna knows that he could take it if he had really wanted to (2.3). In 9.25 Kṛṣṇa fails to take the Syamantaka Gem from Śatadhanvan though he tries, while in 2.3 Kṛṣṇa fails to take the Syamantaka Gem though he contemplates trying. All the "takings" involve the Syamantaka Gem it will be noted. We might also note that the entries 4.15 with 3.12 and 11.34 in the "giving and taking" columns seem to mediate between both columns. We might raname the first column "Offering Possession" while the second would be named "Seizing Possession". Thus 4.15 with 3.12 and 11.34 consist in incidents in which both offering and seizing possession coincide though not in the same ways. In 4.15, Jāmbavat gives Kṛṣṇa the Syamantaka Gem after Kṛṣṇa has fought Jāmbavat and has attempted to seize possession of the Syamantaka Gem (3.12). In 11.34 Akrūra simultaneously attempts to give the Syamantaka Gem to Krsna after Krsna has cajoled and accused Akrūra of possessing it but keeps it instead. Akrūra would have had the Syamantaka Gem taken from him had anyone proved worthy-eg. Kṛṣṇa or Satvabhāmā, but no one took the gem from Akrūra. 4.15 and 3.12 combine both giving and taking columns because they are both a separated giving and taking while 11.34 straddles the columns because Akrūra's "keeping" of the gem is midway between giving and taking or because "possession" is midway between "offering possession" and "seizing possession". It is properly neither giving nor taking, and in the story is seen as a keeping which was preceded by an attempted but failed giving on Akrūra's part and a desired but failed taking on the parts of Kṛṣṇa, Balārāma and Satyabhāmā.

From a structural point of view, the travels of the Syamantaka Gem cease once it rests with an individual in a situation which lies "halfway between" giving and taking in a certain sense which

we have specified. The pendulum swings from giving to taking only to come to rest at the midpoint between them. If one poses the problem of the myth as "When will the Syamantaka Gem find a stable resting place?" one seems to find the myth giving the answer—"in a situation which is neither a giving nor a taking: a keeping", because in the myth it is only when Akrūra can fail to give the Syamantaka and when others fail to take it that the Syamantaka Gem is insured an end to its wanderings. In a sense the model for this successful conclusion to the Giving-Taking dichotomy (11.34) is found in 4.15 and 3.12 as its "inverse". The "inverse" of 4.14 and 3.12, both giving and taking is (11.34): neither giving nor taking.

We might bring out the mediating quality of 11.34 by contrasting it to two other taking-situations in which Kṛṣṇa is the principal actor. It is also noteworthy that these incidents—2.3 and 9.25, stand opposed to one another as if they were to be understood as two extreme alternatives of the same operation taking. Let us think about these opposed taking-situations in order to bring out the fitting quality of their "solution" in 11.34.

These "takings" involve Kṛṣṇa in two curiously similar, yet importantly different acts. In 2.3, Kṛṣṇa is seen to have the conviction that Ugrasena should have the Syamantaka Gem rather than Satrājit. Kṛṣṇa is depicted as having not only the power to take the Syamantaka Gem but also having entertained the desire. Satrajit, on the other hand, does not wish Kṛṣṇa to have the Syamantaka Gem and gives it to Prasena (2.4) in order to avoid having to surrender the Syamantaka Gem to Kṛṣṇa. We might therefore call 2.3 an "undertaking" because Kṛṣṇa's inaction results in his withdrawal from seizure of the Syamantaka Gem. It is a kind of failed seizure—a taking which fails because of a kind of prophylaxis of action, On the other hand, the failure to seize the Syamantaka Gem from Satadhanvan in 9,25 is an example of a taking which fails because Satadhanvan does not have the Syamantaka Gem, though Kṛṣṇa kills and searches him for it. He attempts as much as possible to seize the Syamantaka Gem, but fails not only though he tries (too) hard ("over-taking") but because Satadhanvan does not possess the Syamantka Gem. Viewing

these cases 2.3 and 9.25, where failure to seize and possess the Syamantaka Gem seems to be common features, though the reasons for failure in each case are different, 3.12 (in association with 4.15) seems to offer a model of a successful taking (as does 11.34 in its own way). By linking 3.12 with 4.15 our story seems to say that possession of the Syamantaka Gem is possible and successful when the taking of the Gem is associated with its being given. Where desire is too weak (2.3) or too strong (9.25) failure ensues. This, of course, is to simplify, for the association of 3.12 and 4.15 is only a partial success—the Gem is stolen again and Kṛṣṇa's reputation slurred. For this reason 11,34 (neither giving nor taking) "Having" is nedeed to halt the wanderings of the Gem-both its givings and its takings and the subsequent social and theological instability which result. We would do well to keep in mind this preference for the mediaton between extremes as we move on to our next pair of bundled relations.

If our general conclusion about the myth's attempt to neutralize or mediate the Giving-Taking dichotomy be correct, perhaps an inspection of the objects of exchange will reinforce our conclusions. The principal object of exchange—the Syamantaka Gem is itself an ambivalent article par excellence. It brings welfare if possessed by a good man and ill-fare if possessed by an evil man. As a mediating object—an interloper between giver and object of giving, taker and object of taking, the Syamantaka Gem manifests the dual character of the mediator. Less obvious are the ambiguous and contradictory qualities of the other objects of exchange: Jāmbavatī and Satyabhāmā. Not only are both wives figures of internal contradiction but each one is an "inversion" of the other. Thus Jāmbavatī and Satyabhāmā, both media between Kṛṣṇa and the outside world, are characters whose constitution reveals the myth's tendency to resolve dichotomous oppositions as 11.34 has thus far done with respect to the Giving-Taking dichotomy as a whole.

Let us consider then the "inversions" between Jāmbavatī and Satyabhāmā and the mediations they effect. The situations in which they are given to Kṛṣṇa, first of all, are strikingly different. In Jāmbavatī's case she is given to Kṛṣṇa along with the Syamantaka Gem; it is a private affair (in Jāmbavat's cave), which is located inside Mount Ŗkṣa, the source of five rivers. In Satyabhāmā's

^{1.} Patil, D. R., p. 85.

case, she is given to Kṛṣṇa after (and somehow in exchange for the Syamantaka Gem) the Syamantaka Gem is given to Satrājit by Kṛṣṇa; it is a public affair (occurring, as it were, openly in Dvārakā) which is located by the sea, the goal of rivers

More striking perhaps are the differences between Jāmbavatī and Satyabhāmā themselves. Jāmbavatī though a bear, a being of nature, is passive and docile throughout, therefore upsetting expectations normally associated with nature. She is given to Kṛṣṇa, is led into his apartments (Ep. 5) by him, and is not heard of thereafter. Satyabhāmā on the other hand though human and a being of culture is active and passionate throughout, also upsetting expectations normally associated with culture. She fetches Kṛṣṇa in Bāraṇāvata and attempts to excite his wrath against Śatadhanvan, the murderer of her father Satrājit. She is quick to demand the Syamantaka Gem as her patrimonial inheritance when the possession of it is put into question in 11.34. It is not insignificant, we would suggest, that in the Mahābhārata Satyabhāmā is also cast in an active role with respect to the revenging of Satrājit's death. We quote:

Then Sātyaki informed the slayer of Madhu as to how Kṛtavarman had behaved towards Satrājit for taking away from him the celebrated gem Syamantaka. Hearing the narrative, Satyabhāmā, giving way to wrath and tears, approached Keśava and sitting on his lap enhanced his anger (for Kṛtavarman).

In short, Satyabhāmā is seen as an active instigator to Kṛṣṇa's actions while Jāmbavatī is passive with respect to Kṛṣṇa throughout.

Paradoxically, but understandably, both Jāmbavatī and Satyabhāmā terminate their lives after Kṛṣṇa's death, in ways which are not only "inversions" of one another (in keeping with what we have said above) but also as "inversions" of their previous behaviors.² Thus Jāmbavatī, a passive being of nature (itself an

^{1.} The Mahābhārata: Mausalaparvan, p. 7. (XVI, 3, 79).

^{2.} Sorenson, S, An Index to the Names in the Mahābhārata, Williams and Norgate, London, 1925, Jambavati: p. 348; Satyabhama: p. 625.

inner "inversion") ends her days "inversely" as they were lived by ascending Kṛṣṇa's funeral pyre—by doing "satī": an active, cultural deed having connexions with sacrifice. Satyabhāmā, an active being of culture (another inner "inversion") becomes a forest ascetic (contemplation: the "inverse" of sacrifice): a passive deed, having connections with nature—the forest. The "inverse" termini: "satī" and forest asceticism, can be further analyzed in terms of the constituent inversions implicit in them: "satī" requires the use of wood which has been acted upon by men (culture)—made into firewood, logs which are destroyed by flames—burnt. Forest asceticism involves wood as well—but trees not acted upon by men (nature) which are living—growing in a forest.

Therefore, Jāmbavatī and Satyabhāmā stand as "inverses" of one another not only in their presented modes of behavior and in their "natures" as well but with respect to the contradictions letween their "natures" and their subsequent behaviors. They not only originate "inverse" kinds of being but end "inversely" to one another and to their previous modes of behavior. Thus we can schematize the transformations as follows:

	U	S	u	al	
B	eh	a	V	io	r

End State "Sati"

appearance: (passive)

(active) culture

Jāmbavatī:

reality: nature

nature

Usual Behaviour End State Forest Asceticism

appearance: (active)

(passive) nature

nature

Satyabhāmā:

reality: culture

culture

Let us recapitulate the results of this first stage of our analysis. We have noticed how major oppositions under the "Giving-Taking" rubric have achieved resolution. In general, 11.34 ("Having") mediates and neutralizes the opposition between "giving and taking" the Syamantaka Gem. This is an ambivalent condition neither properly describable as "giving" or "taking" but

^{1.} Renou, L., The Civilization of Ancient India, second edition, Susil Gupta, Calcutta, 1959, pp. 67 f.

as "having." We also noticed that the success of the mediating states—whether the tantative 4.15—3.12 or the final 11.34, was highlighted by the failure of two opposite and less ambiguous attempts at taking the gem in 2.3 and 9.25. In observing that states of mediation are ambiguous ones (11.34) we noticed that objects of mediation also shared this ambiguity. The Syamantaka Gem and the two wives Kṛṣṇa wins in the story—Jāmbavatī and Satyabhāmā, are prime examples of this insight.

Accusing-Exonerating

The second pair of constituent unit oppositions that we detect in our story involve the bundles of relations "accusing" and "exonerating." We might recall that it was the accusation by the Yādavas that Kṛṣṇa stole the Gem and murdered Prasena (2.10) which set into motion Kṛṣṇa's attempts to secure the Gem from Jāmbavat and the struggles, givings and takings that followed on in pursuit of the vindication of his reputation, his acquittal. It would not be unreasonable of us to see in Kṛṣṇa's quest for moral acquittal (or in the problem of Kṛṣṇa's acquittal) a major theme of our myth. Indeed this was the view of the Visnu Purana's ancient commentator, who sees the point of the Syamantaka Gem story to be a working out of Kṛṣṇa's vindication of character. In illuminatin the structure of this second pair of bundled relations, we can link its successful resolution—(11.33) Kṛṣṇa's full exoneration by one and all, and its means (11.32) with the pattern of resolution we found in the first pair of bundled relations-1 1.34, thus coming closer to a unified interpretation of all the bundled relations in the Syamantaka Gem story.

To proceed then with our analysis, we notice that on two distinct occasions (2.10 and 9.26) Kṛṣṇa is accused of having taken the Gem and of being guilty of the murder of its possessor. Structurally, these accusation-situations display a kind of symmetry. In 2.10, the community, (the Yādavas) explicitly and directly accuse

^{1.} The commentator—editor of the Viṣṇu Purāṇa states the theme of the Syamantaka Gem Story as:

He, who calls to mind the vindication of the character of Kṛṣṇa from false aspersions, shall never become the subject of unfounded accusation in the least degree, and living in the full exercise of his senses shall be cleansed from every sin.

Kṛṣṇa while an individual, Satrājit, implicitly and directly accuses him of the same offences. In 9.26, an individual, Balarāma, explicitly and directly levels accusations against Kṛṣṇa while the community (the Yādavas) do so implicitly and indirectly. In both cases the tone of the accesations is inhospitable and entails moral condemnation of Kṛṣṇa's behavior.

The structures of the exonoration-situations differ similarly with 3.11 and 5.18 reflecting 2.10's primarily communal accusation with an acquittal equally communal and public. In 5.20 Satrājit implicitly exonerates Kṛṣṇa of any relevant crimes-implicitly admitting his own error in accusing Kṛṣṇa by giving his daughter Satyabhāmā in marriage to Kṛṣṇa (5.19) over those with prior claims. 9.27's a aquittal of Kṛṣṇa reflects the personal nature of the 9.26 accusation but on the whole is far from a complete acquittal of Krsna. In episode 11 Krsna maintains that Balarama still harbors doubts as to his innocence in the matter of the secreting of the Syamantaka Gem and that therefore Akrūra should produce the Gem before the Yadava assembly and Balarama. We must therefore regard the acquittal in 9.27 as a tentative one-awaiting fuller confirmation at a later date. It may be seen as an acquittal in deed but not of heart-Balarama is convinced sufficiently to return to Dvārakā, the Yādavas do have commerce with Kṛṣṇa but until the Gem is produced, a cloud of doubt hangs over Kṛṣṇa's reputation. If the Gem can be produced and its absence from Satadhanyan's possession can be explained, them Krsna's reputation can be vindicated.

Exoneration, though again toned down does come for Kṛṣṇa (11.33) and it is worth noticing what this amounts to and how this is achieved, in terms of the dialectic of accusation and exoneration. We will see subsequently that this successful acquittal is also related to our final pair of bundled relations, "Destroying" and "Preserving", but first we want to consider how Kṛṣṇa's exoneration is worked out in its own terms. In a sense, the myth has presented us with situations in which aspersion is cast upon Kṛṣṇa's reputation from both community and individual in different variations of stress: 2.10 stressing community accusation; 9.26 stressing individual accusation. Poor Kṛṣṇa, the subject of public rumour and individual abuse, must suffer two acquittals: first the combination 3.11, 5.18 and 5.20, and later 9.27—neither of which prevent further

slurs on his character from arising! The first acquittal, which may be seen as a lumping of 3.11, 5.18 and 5.20, evidently means little to Kṛṣṇa's fellows, for Balarāma outlandishly accuses him again in 9.26 and the Yādavas concur with Balarāma against Kṛṣṇa in this attack on his character. The acquittal in 9.27, as we have noted, is incomplete—it merely amounts to a suspended sentence and barely an acquittal at all. How, our myth seems to ask, is Kṛṣṇa to gain full exoneration?

Structurally, the beginning of the answer to this problem is given in 11.32, in the same way that the association of 3.12 and 4.15 offered an answer to the problem of how to possess the Syamantaka Gem. As 4.15 and 3.12 were both a giving and a taking, so also is 11.32 both an accusation and an acquittal (as well as being neither an accusing nor an acquitting as we will see). Kṛṣṇa accuses Akrūra of having the Gem and of having received it from Satadhanvan, yet by his hospitality implicitly holds out an acquittal for the part Akrūra had in conspiring over Satadhanvan's death and the circumstances of his possessing the Gem. By this partial similarity between thh solutions in 3.12-4.15 and 11.32 the myth weaves together structurally the first two pairs of bundled relations of which it is composed. Giving-Taking is structurally related to Accusing-Exonerating because the solutions to both are associations or mediations of their respective dichotomies.

What remains to be explained however is the relationship between 11.34, neither giving nor taking, and 11.32, both accusing and acquitting. One explanation might rely on the following insight into the relationships between 4.15-3.12 and 11.34 and 9.26-9.27 and 11.32—between the temporary solution to Giving-Taking (4.15-3.12) and its final solution (11.34) and between the tentative solution to accusing-exonerating (9.27) and its correlative accusation (9.26) and the final solution here (11.32). Thus, the following relations may be set up as follows.

4.15+3.12 = 9.26+9.27
11.34 = 11.32

one gives to Kṛṣṇa
+Kṛṣṇa takes from one
one gives NO Γ to Kṛṣṇa
+Kṛṣṇa takes NOT from one

one accuses Kṛṣṇa
+one acquits Kṛṣṇa
Kṛṣṇa accuses one
+Kṛṣṇa acquits one

11.34 is the compound negation of 4.15 and 3.12 while 11.32 is the compound converse of 9.26 and 9.27. Though negation and conversion are different logical operations—one being a change in the kind of predication and the other being a transposition of terms, one might still accept that 11.34 and 11.32 are similar in that they both attempt reversals of the previous incidents: 4.15-3.12 and 9.26-9.27—though, we admit, in different ways.

11.34 and 11.32 bear stronger resemblances if we notice that 11.32 is more like 11.34 than we have hitherto allowed, Krsna's accusing one and Kṛṣṇa's acquitting one are both of the weak variety like Akrūra's not giving the Syamantaka Gem to Kṛṣṇa and Kṛṣṇa's not taking the Gem from Akrūra. If "Having" or "Keeping" was advanced as the means between the poles of 11.34: "Offering Possession" and "Seizing Possession", then perhaps we can see in Kṛṣṇa's charge that Akrūra has the Syamantaka Gem and the acquittal implicit in his cajoling behavior here as describing another mediating state which is harder to name. Between, say, the poles of "Impugning Honor" and "Restoring Honor" there is simply the state—"Honoring"—which may properly characterize the overall effect of Kṛṣṇa's treatment of Akrūra in 11.32 : Kṛṣṇa states that Akrūra has the Gem etc., though Akrūra is not charged with moral transgressions; Kṛṣṇa implies that Akrūra's transgressions are forgotten without openly exonerating Akrūra. In a way, Kṛṣṇa neither accuses nor does not accuse Akrūra; nor does Kṛṣṇa acquit or not acquit Akrūra—yet does all at the same time in different senses. More precisely Kṛṣṇa "honors" Akrūra—establishes a mean between these various alternatives which succeeds in bringing Kṛṣṇa exoneration.

Similarly we may notice an analogous formal resemblance with respect to the final state of Kṛṣṇa in 11.33. This state (11.33) might arguably merit a position "between" the "Accusing" and "Exonorating" columns as 11.34 has done with respect to the "Giving" and "Taking" columns. Kṛṣṇa's final state might then quite plausibly be interpreted as we have interpreted Akrūra's : as the neutral "honoring" rather than simple "exonerating" ("restoring honor"). It might be noticed that episode 11 as well as making no accusation of Kṛṣṇa makes Kṛṣṇa's exoneration implicit. In a sense, 11.33 for Kṛṣṇa is more like neither being accused nor

exonerated but merely being "honored" since his innocence is not proclaimed and is left for the commentator to state as a moral.

In summary of our analysis of the "Accusing-Exonerating" pair of bundled relations we have noted three major oppositions: 1.—Accusing—Exonerating opposition 2.—Primarily communal accusation and exoneration in 2.10 and 3.11, 5.18 opposed to primarily individual accusation and exoneration in 9.26, 9.27, though we saw that an individual dimension was respectively involved secondarily in 2.10,3.11,5.18, as well as a communal dimension to 9.26 and 9.27. 3.—11.32's opposition to 9.26 and 9.27 was noted as consisting in the former's synthetic combination of elements distinguished in 9.26 and 9.27, with a conversion of Kṛṣṇa's role from accused to accuser and acquitted to acquitter-leading directly to Kṛṣṇa's final and full acquittal.

Along with oppositions we noticed the formal similarity between 4.15-3.12 and 11.32 while also considering 11.32's similarity to 11.34 in their creating new categories of stability.

Thus, we have noticed how the "Accusing"-"Exonerating" oppositions have gained a certain resolution in the final situations of Akrūra and Kṛṣṇa. Both achieve happy end-states by, as it were, mediating the poles of the oppositions involved. In being "honored" both Akrūra and Kṛṣṇa stand in situations midway between having their honors impugned and restored. In this way the end-states of Akrūra and Kṛṣṇa with respect to the "Accusing" -"Exonerating" relationships (11.32, 11.33) resemble the resolution of the "Giving"-"Taking" colums (11.34) in that as mediations of the given extremes they are similar.

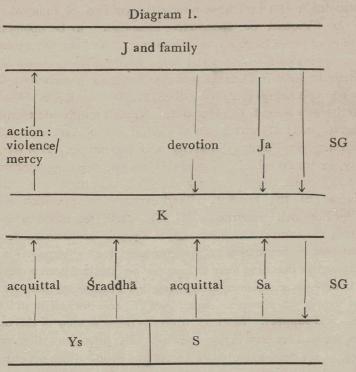
Destroying-Preserving

Finally we would analyze the last opposed pair of bundled relations: "Destroying-Preserving". This opposition takes in on the Destroying side not only literal killing—the Lion kills Prasena (2.5), Jāmbavat kills the Lion (2.7) etc. but (a) physical strugglepossible though not actual killings-Kṛṣṇa struggles and subdues Jambavat (3-4.13) and (b) mental struggle or aggression—Kṛṣṇa's prodding of Akrūra, causing Akrūra, causing Akrūra to admit his possession of the Syamantaka Gem. One might also count the befalling upon Dvārakā of the various calamities which ensue upon the Syamantaka Gem's removal from Dvārakā as an example of "Destroying". One might also term this column of bundled relations as "Violent or Destructive Behaviour" to be opposed by "Sustaining or Constructive Behaviour". In the "Preserving" class we count such constructive events as (a) the presence of the Syamantaka Gem in Dvārakā and the resulting preservation from harm which it brings (1.2, 4.16, 10.28, 11.3.), (b) Kṛṣṇa's healing of Jambavat's wounds (4.14) and (c) Kṛṣṇa's hospitable reception of Akrūra (in 11.32) which acts as a sustaining of Akrūra's honouran affirmation of Akrūra's integrity and reputation. It is Kṛṣṇa's ability, we would submit, to straddle these two opposing approaches (in 11.32) which, together with and indeed simultaneously with his resolution of the accusation and exoneration opposition, which wins for him final exoneration (11.33). 11.32 represents a grand synthetic moment in which not only is Kṛṣṇa's exoneration achieved (the goal of the story from the commentator's viewpoint) but it is achieved at the same time as he resolves the tensions within his own being-those between Destroying and Preserving, between the use of power to threaten, fight, and kill and the ability to foster, sustain and support. In 11.32, from the point of view of this opposition, we will see how Kṛṣṇa resolves this precarious dilemma of having to act destructively-to accuse and prod, while nevertheless needing to sustain and support him whom Kṛṣṇa is pitted against. This dilemma is resolved by Kṛṣṇa and, as we will go on to argue, has important ramifications and confirmations in the theological and political contexts in which this story is set.

We would best go about understanding this "Destroying-Preserving" opposition by considering three mediations which Kṛṣṇa performs with varying degrees of destructive power and success between the community (Yādavas) and the three illicit possessors of the Syamantaka Gem; Jāmbavat, Śatadhanvan and Akrūra.

Mediation A [See the Diagram 1] is for Kṛṣṇa—a relatively successful one: he obtains exoneration, two wives, the devotion of Jāmbavat and recovers the Gem for the community (and Satrājit). It also marks a mediation in which Kṛṣṇa's means of obtaining the Gem, though violent, are nonetheless moderate and merciful: though he struggles with Jāmbavat, he does show restraint (in the

Mediation A

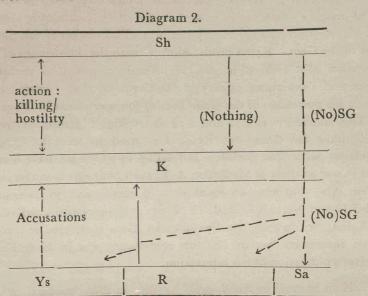


Matsya Purāņa, Kṛṣṇa kills Jāmbavat!) and heals Jāmbavat's wounds-3-4.13-4.14 mark a combination of Destruction and Preservation which harmonizes with the combination of Giving and Taking in 4.15 and 3.12.

On no view, however, does Mediation B [See the Diagram 2] prove successful for Kṛṣṇa, although he has increased the destructive element of his action to a superior degree in killing Satadhanvan. Krsna finds no Syamantaka Gem, nor do any good or blessings accrue to him (hence the broken lines in Diagram 2). His decidedly violent action in killing Satadhanvan (8.21) brings, instead, the fraternal curse and accusation of Balarama as well as disfavour with the community (9.26). If mediators are characterized by their ambivalent behaviour, as Levi-Strauss says1, then Kṛṣṇa's one-sidedly violent behavior, lacking mercy (sustaining power to Satadhanvan) may explain Kṛṣṇa's failure to succeed in mediating between Satadhanvan and the community (the Yadavas).

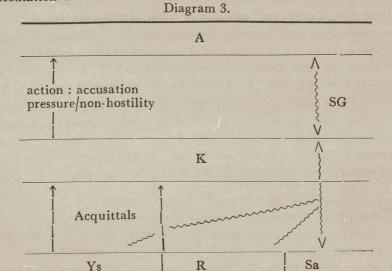
^{1.} Levi-Strauss, C., pp. 224 ff.

Mediation B



Not until Mediation C—the mediation between Akrūra and the Yādava community, does Kṛṣṇa become fully exonerated of his crimes and the Syamantaka Gem's wanderings cease—now to remain a source of welfare to the community.

Mediation C



Significantly, Kṛṣṇa's tack is one characterized by judicious use of pressure (destructive power) and flattery (sustaining power) (11. 32). Kṛṣṇa verily cajoles Akrūra into an admission of his possession of the Gem. Kṛṣṇa prods Akrūra with the knowledge of his possession of it (which implies for Akrūra a potential threat to search and consequent seizure of the Gem) so that Akrūra freely reveals his possession of the Gem (hence the wavy lines in Diagram 3). The similarity to 4.15 and 3.12 is striking: Jāmbavat freely relinquishes the Gemafter Kṛṣṇa has tried to seize it. Closely associated with this incident is 3-4.13-4.14 which we have mentioned in our analysis of Mediation A. Kṛṣṇa's behavior is moderate violent, yes, but with an equal dose of mercy and forebearance. 4.15-3.12 and 3-4.13-4.14 and 11.32 are all successful mediations for Krsna, for in each the Syamantaka Gem is restored to a place which insures its benefit for the community and in both Krsna receives vindication of his reputation.

If an immediate trend is to be seen in these mediations it is that, for Kṛṣṇa, increasing destructiveness in the pursuit of his aims spells a decreasing success in the attainment of these aims; the more violence is employed to vindicate his reputation and gain the Syamantaka Gem for communal benefit, the less these are achieved.

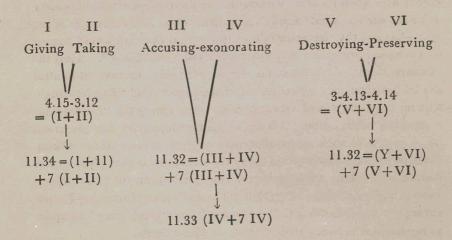
We might take the opportunity to link this solution of the "Destroying-Preserving" columns of bundled relations (11.32) with the solutions of the "Accusing-Exonerating" and "Giving-Taking" columns (11.32, 11.34 respectively) in order to compare their similarities. We have already observed how 4.15-3.12 (Giving-Taking) is linked to 3-4.13-4.14. As we have analyzed them, 11.32 for both pairs of columns bear the marks of moderation—of skilful use of means—not passive but active in a way which allows the accused or attacked freely to admit what he has been accused of or to surrender what he is being pressed for. In both cases, exoneration and preservation are offered implicitly in the same act.

We may look upon the end-states of Akrūra and Kṛṣṇa under all three pairs of relations as similar because each of these end-states marks a negation of the dichotomy within which it is defined. 11.34 finds Akrūra and Kṛṣṇa in a state of neutrality vis-a-vis "Giving" and "Taking". Despite Akrūra's willingness to give up

the Gem and despite the fact that it could have been taken from him, he neither gives up the Syamantaka Gem nor has it taken from him. Akrūra simply "has" or "keeps" it. Correspondingly Kṛṣṇa neither gives the Gem to Akrūra nor does he take it from him. Kṛṣṇa lets Akrūra keep it-he sanctions Akrūra's possession of the Gem. 11.32 and 11.33 under "Accusing" and "Exonerating" have similar structures. In 11.32 Akrūra is neither accused nor not accused, neither exonerated nor not exonerated. He is "honoured", as we noted earlier. Kṛṣṇa also analogously accuses and does not accuse Akrūra in 11.32 as well as exonerating and not exonerating him. Kṛṣṇa "honours" Akrūra. In so doing however Kṛṣṇa's exoneration (11.33) is cast in a different light-for in "honouring" Akrūra Kṛṣṇa himself is "honored"—in accepting the status quo he enjoys his rightful status without an explicit acquittal being made, as in the earlier cases. Kṛṣṇa's acquittal—toned down as it is in the text-has less the character of an extraordinary restoration of honour as a simple resumption of former habits of "honouring". Thus the "exonerations" of Akrūra and Kṛṣṇa both seem to take on neutral shades between the extremes of "Accusing" and "Exonerating". The unity of these mediations persists even across the "Destroying. Preserving" dichotomy. Akrūra is neither destroyed nor preserved by Krsna's simultaneous destruction and preservation of him. Perhaps the best description of this situation is that Kṛṣṇa "lets Akrūra be". This view matches the mediations of "Destroying-Preserving" with those of "Giving-Taking" and "Accusing-Exonerating" since "Letting Be", "Having" and "Honouring" compare as mediations between their respective dichotomies.

Now we feel that our story can be seen to have a discernible structure which we have made explicit in its pairs of opposed relationships and their resolutions. The "Giving-Taking" dichotomy is resolved by the mediating incidents 4.15-3.12 and 11.34:4.15-3.12; mark Jāmbavat's giving the Gem to Kṛṣṇa after he has attempted to seize it from Jāmbavat and therefore achieves a resolution of the first dichotomy. 11.34 mediates the same dichotomy differently, though nonetheless effectively, by combining Akrūra's desired giving with the desired taking by Kṛṣṇa, Rāma and Satyabhāmā. It also is the occasion of Akrūra's failure to give the Syamantaka Gem as well as the failure of any one to take it. In 11.32 Kṛṣṇa's simultaneous accusation and acquittal of Akrūra

mediates the "Accusing-Exonerating" opposition by also being characterizable as being neither of these two actions. The intermediate act of "honouring" successfully resolves the tension between accusing and exonerating not only for Akrūra but by participation for Kṛṣṇa in 11.33. As for "Destroying-Preserving" we again witness two mediations as was the case for "Giving-Taking." 3-4.13-4.14 finds Kṛṣṇa first "destroying" Jāmbavat, then "preserving" him. 11.32 finds Kṛṣṇa simultaneously "destroying" and "preserving" as well as neither destroying nor preserving Akrūra so that the mediating term "letting be" perhaps better describes the situation. We then might schematize the structure of our story's oppositions and resolutions as follows:



C. Meanings:

Now that we have laid out our story's structure we might speculate about what important meanings it might have (have had) in its more typical settings. More properly, however, we might say that our search is one for "themes" which are themes of the story. That a certain theme is a theme of the story is an historical property. Thus, our task is one which strives to suggest what themes historically might have been themes of the Syamantaka Gem story. History is indispensable for confirming the suggestions we would want to make. Fully testable, our suggestions are open to falsification as well as verification in theory—though

the practical possibility of both may be small. It is hoped, in spite of these limitations, that our "educated guesses" will prove somewhat useful in understanding the Syamantaka Gem Story and the possible meanings it might have had in its Viṣṇu Purāṇa setting.

Having said this, we would begin by considering two plausible themes for which there are some historical supports: the political and the religious. The political question which the myth attempts to answer can be briefly stated as follows: What are the proper means by which the ends of a member of an assembly of peers are to be achieved within that assembly? The political problem so posed is thus one of right behavior given a certain constitution of political life. That the Satvatas of the Vișnu Purāna were an "oligarchic or republican clan", known to Pāṇini as the Andhaka-Vṛṣṇis is the claim of Jayaswal in his Hindu Polity.1 Whether or not an exact sense can be attached to the kind of political body our Sātvatas (Yādavas) might have been,2 we can at least appreciate the importance of the assembly for their political life. It was a council of elders and leaders, apparently a forum for the discussion of major political issues and formation of policies; it was even a kind of jury and court of law. It would not therefore be unreasonable to expect that certain codes of conduct should be prescribed—especially to limit the influence a physically powerful individual (such as Kṛṣṇa) might want to exert. Councils are, after all, kinds of substitutes for brute struggle and exclude the use of physical force in the pursuit of their affairs. A threatening speech or psychological pressure may not be tolerated in a "parliament" of peers; physical interference would be ruled out strictly. That is what "parliaments" at least are for-avoiding violent overthrow of government, even though they may be crude ones quite unlike our present-day assemblies. One might compare the character of the "parliament" in Magna Carta days to the present House of Commons to get an idea of the differences in mind.

If an assembly is an institution for encouraging certain kinds of behaviours (non-violent) and values of its members for the solu-

^{1.} Patil, D. R., pp. 172ff.

^{2.} Thapar, R., "Interpretations of Ancient Indian History", History and Theory, VII, 3, 1968, pp. 328f.

tions o its member's problems imagine what a stricture such norms would be upon a person of such violent and rash nature as the Kṛṣṇa depicted in our story and in the early tradition: In incident 2.3, the Viṣṇu Purāṇa barely conceals Kṛṣṇa's ability to seize the Syamantaka Gem from Satrājit. "...he had the power of taking it from Satrājit....' [VP, ep. 2] while the older Matsya Purāņa is less timid in admitting the violent means Kṛṣṇa would have used to seize the Gem. "Kṛṣṇa was powerful to take it by force.... [MP XLV, 5]. In both cases one feels that it is Kṛṣṇa's physical prowess which makes him at once an asset to the Yadava community as well as an unpredictable force beyond their control. Indeed, this is borne out in the sequel to the accounts of Kṛṣṇa and the Yādavas, [VP V, 37, p. 479] for he succeeds in instigating the self-destruction of the Yādavas as well as taking a personal hand in their extermination. This tradition, which is rooted in the Mahābhārata1 is described only in a general manner in our text and in the Bhagavata Purana-both of which undoubtedly find such nasty accounts of Kṛṣṇa's behavior an embarrassment.

Viewed against an historical backdrop where Kṛṣṇa's violent power is a firm reality, one can understand his behavior against Satadhanvan as in line with the character of brutal warrior-prince, what is less understandable is his behaviour in our text against Jāmbavat and Akrūra. In both of these cases restraint is exercised, though of different degrees. It is noteworthy that the older Matsya Purāṇa presents Kṛṣṇa as slaying Jāmbavat while the Viṣṇu Purāṇa alludes to Kṛṣṇa's slaying of Madhu during his battle with Jāmbavat. In the older tradition represented by the Vāyu Purāṇa and Mahābhārata, Kṛṣṇa is also barely restrained from physical violence against Akrūra during the final episode of our story, though the reasons implied in the Viṣṇu Purāṇa and in the older tradition of the Vāyu Purāṇa and the Mahābhārata differ again.

It is our contention that, even though there are other factors which may inform the reasons for Kṛṣṇa's restraint against Akrūra in 11 32, what still emerges is the tradition of the Vāyu Purāṇa and

^{1.} The Mahābhārata gives vivid details of this internecine slaughter amid which an account of the Syamantaka Gem Story is repeated. See the above reference to Satyabhāmā-Jāmbavatī dichotomy.

^{2.} Patil, D. R., pp. 172f.

the Mahābhārata: Kṛṣṇa's restraint is seemingly dictated by the exigencies imposed upon him by his compliance with the norms of an assembly of peers! It is this need for the restraint of physical force, this need to comply with the rules implied in accepting membership in an assembly of peers which is an important theme in our story. Without canalizing our conclusion, we might state this politico-social theme in the following words: One does not attain one's politico-social aims in our society by using violent physical coercion. It is through diplomatic action-neither flaccid nor timid, which holds out acceptance and respect, that will win the day. It is such a meaning which agrees with our structural conclusions: Kṛṣṇa achieves his "exoneration" (and the story's goal in the eyes of the ancient commentator) by comporting himself to Akrūra over the matter of his possession of the Syamantaka Gem in a way which combines accusation, exoneration, destruction and preservation in one act. [11.22]. Kṛṣṇa begins by flattering Akrūra (preservation): "Kinsman, you are a very prince in your liberality', counters with a bold statement of fact (accusation) "But we kno v that the Syamantaka Gem is in your possession" etc., follows this up with an exoneration, "So let it remain....", all of which Akrūra understands as a being "taxed" (destruction), a being prodded. Yet all this takes place in a way which balances all the factors involved, thus making it possible for Akrūra to admit his complicity in the death of Satrājit and his possession of the Syamantaka Gem-and allows Kṛṣṇa to achieve "exoneration". Thus, in its own way—by an opposition and then resolution of the myth's constituent bundled relations, by showing that some permutations of these relations fail and other succeed, the myth suggests the solution to its set problem.

Having made and supported the claim for a distinct political (social) theme in our story we should like to explore a religious theme of special interest, not unrelated to the political issues raised above. It is our conviction that the Syamantaka Gem Story marks an interesting phase in the historical and logical development of the apotheosis of Kṛṣṇa, who, as we have suggested and as experts in the field have stated, was not considered divine in the early tradition but was rather depicted as, no doubt, an heroic and mighty,

^{1.} Pusalker, A. D., ; Hopkins, E. W., Epic Mythology. The Encyclopaedia of Indo-Aryan Research, III, 18 Stras-

though somewhat rash, greedy and even ruthless figure: Kṛṣṇa the diplomat and healer of our story is a far cry from Kṛṣṇa whose "heart was roasted by terrific speeches" against Akrūra in the Vāyu Purāņa or the Kṛṣṇa who instigated and joined in the slaughter of the Yadavas later in the Visnu Purana and in the Mahabharata. There are also other curious lapses of divinity in our text-Krsna is sometimes omniscient (he knows that what appears to be Sūrya coming to visit him at our story's beginning is really Satrājit wearing the Syamantaka Gem); at other times he relies upon shrewd powers of deduction (Kṛṣṇa deduces that Akrūra possesses the Syamantaka Gem because the good that prevails in Dvārakā during Akrūra's presence is an effect wholly disproportionate to the cause claimed for it -Akrūra's virtue, therefore Akrūra must possess the Syamantaka Gem); and at other times Kṛṣṇa remains as ignorant of the causes of events as any of the Yadavas (Kṛṣṇa must be told by Satyabhāmā of her father's murder by Śatadhanvan; he does not infer to Akrura's possession of the Syamantaka Gem until three years after it has been in Akrūra's possession etc.). The phase in the development of Kṛṣṇa as divine, which we encounter in the Visnu Purana Syamantatka Gem Story, is one which may very well still recall the early tradition (or at least another tradition similar to the early one) while attempting a reconciliation between that earlier tradition and the later divinization of Kṛṣṇa which we get most completely in the Bhāgavata Purāṇa. The contradiction to which this gives rise in the mind of the devotee is, we would suggest, grappled with in our text.2 The

bourg, 1915, pp. 212, 215; Edgerton, F., (trans. ed.), The Bhagavad Gita, Harper Torthbooks, NYC, 1964, pp. 132-5.

^{1.} Patil, D. R., pp. 172f.

Purāņa p. 345 to Kṛṣṇa's "reflecting" that Akrūra's virtue is a cause wholly disproportionate to the effects it is supposed to yield, which we mentioned above as an instance of "shrewd in ference", reveals the embarrassment caused by the inconsistency of Kṛṣṇa's dual natures. The latter's inept attempt to obviate this open contradiction (perhaps a trivial one at that) amounts to his saying that this reflecting of Kṛṣṇa's "is to be understood of him only as consistent with the account here given of him as if he were a mere man; for as he was omniscient there was no reason for him to reflect or reason". Yet the story gives

problem of how Kṛṣṇa can be both man and god, of how this early tradition can be reconciled with a newer tradition and the paradox which consequently arises is tackled and solved in the Viṣṇu Purāṇa Syamantaka Gem Story in a way which relates to the conservative political theme just discussed.

It is our contention however that the religious solution which the Viṣṇu Purāṇa version of our story offers is that this paradox is too treacherous to attempt a positive solution—indeed the paradox is unfathomable or scandalous. Far better is it to stand by the tried and true reliance upon the efficacy of brahminic-style sacrifice than risk attachment to the fickle Kṛṣṇa. The story allows that Kṛṣṇa should be absolved of heinious crimes, yet he is not deemed worthy of possessing the Syamantaka Gem! Rather, Akrūra, though he conspired in Satrājit's death, allied himself with enemies of the Yādavas, and concealed the whereabouts of the Syamantaka Gem is granted possession of the Gem—apparently because of his continence and diligence in offering brahminic-style sacrifices! (and perhaps also because of his ancestors' patronage of the brahmins!)

It is significant that the attitude of the Bhāgavata Purāṇa is so markedly different from that of the Viṣṇu Purāṇa's regarding Kṛṣṇa, Akrūra and the place of brahminic sacrifice. Kṛṣṇa is a full-blown deity even to a melodramatic extent—his honour is never seriously impugned; he is never directly accused of crimes by the people, nor does he have lapses of knowledge. Akrūra yields up the Syamantaka Gem to Kṛṣṇa at the story's end and little is made of the efficacy of Brahminic sacrificies on his behalf. This latter is pushed into second place behind love and devotion to Kṛṣṇa. The Bhāgavata Purāṇa prefers to ignore any serious threat to Kṛṣṇa's divinity and breaks with the reserve of our Viṣṇu Purāṇa text.

By this exercise in a structural analysis of the Syamantaka Gem Story we have attempted to follow a method similar to that

us several examples where Kṛṣṇa not only needs to reflect and reason but occasions in which Kṛṣṇa is completely ignorant.

^{1.} The Matsya and Vāyu Purāṇas likewise support the Viṣṇu Puraṇa's contention that Akrūra is a patron of Brahminic style of the sacrifice. Matsya Purāṇa "Ep" 4, Above p. 407, and Patil, D. R., p. 24.

laid down by Levi-Strauss in several places in an attempt to connect this story to some relevant political and theological themes which were also political and theological beliefs for some sector of the society from which the Viṣṇu Purāṇa Syamantaka Gem Story partly originated. It would be important to stress, however, how our analysis has been less ambitious than those which Levi-Strauss has undertaken in two broad respects: We have not tried to make our results cross-culturally comparative, though our analysis, we think, would provide a useful beginning for such a task. We might well have compared the Kṛṣṇa of the Viṣṇu Purāṇa Syamantaka Gem Story to the Jesus of the New Testament. Is there not a certain similar tension within Jesus between the "pacific", "Preserving" Christ-the Jesus of non-resistance to evil, the suffering servant of Isaiah and the Christ of violence and destruction-the Jesus who drove the moneylenders from the temple, the Apocalyptic Jesus of the Book of Revelation, the Jesus of possible Zealot connections? 1 Are there not further analogies between Jesus' compliant attitude towards the state and Kṛṣṇa's acceptance of Yādavan political norms? If Jesus' case is understandable as a kind of spiritual irony—by his resurrection Jesus conquers and succeeds in spite of the power of the state, Kṛṣṇa's case seems slightly different. His victory is not total in the Vișnu Purana as it is in the Bhagavata Purana-where Krsna wins both an explicit exoneration and the Syamantaka Gem. It was not our purpose however to undertake such an extensive comparative project but to go some distance in pointing the way to a possible cross-culturally comparative analysis.

Moreover, althought we made frequent use of other variants of the Syamantaka Gem Story within roughly the "same culture", it was not even our intention to undertake a structural analysis of the relation that story may have had to the general make-up of Indian mythology, though again it would be a minute, though useful beginning for such a project. There are reasons why the "violence versus non-violence" opposition may be a common one in Indian stories and its resolution in the same stories important for Indian societies, and moral, political or religious beliefs, etc. Important

^{1.} Brandon, S. G. F., Jesus and the Zealots, Manchester Univ. Press, Manchester, 1968.

^{2.} Robinson, M. S., "Some Reflections,".

as this kind of investigation would be, it was not the problem our analysis set itself—though again, what we have attempted to do should be of use to those scholars seeking to pursue that distant and ambitious task of constructing a structural inventory of Indian mythology—and of those, who along with Levi-Strauss, hope to relate such structures to other structures in that society and to other societies.

[A knowledge of the following facts regarding the life of Kṛṣṇa may be useful in appreciating the article by Mr. Strenski: (1) Kṛṣṇa was 19 at the time of the performance of the Rājasūya sacrifice by Yudhiṣṭhira. (2) Kṛṣṇa married Jāmbavatī and then Satyabhāmā within the next 3 years. Rukmiṇī was his first wife. (3) The incident of the S. gem occurred 2 years after Yudhiṣṭhira's becoming heir-apparent at the age of 21. (4) Yudhiṣṭhira was older than Arjuna by 2 years who in turn was younger than Kṛṣṇa by 3 months. For a detailed discussion on these and other relevant matters, vide the article 'In which of the four Dvārakās ' by V. P. Athavale in Poona Orientalist, XIX. 1-4. The story has been alluded to in Nirukta 2. 4.

The tithi on which Prasena refused to give the S. Gem to Kṛṣṇa is said to be the भाद्रपदशुक्च चतुर्थी, on which day Hindus do not look at the moon since Kṛṣṇa was charged with theft on this day. In some parts of India a vow called कृष्णकलिङ्कानी is observed on this day by the Vaiṣṇavas. Vide Hist. of Dharmaśāstra (V. p. 147) for some important information on the verse सिंहः प्रसनेमवधीत्....—Editor]

THE VÄYUPURÄŅA AND THE MĀRKAŅDEYAPURĀŅA: A COMPARATIVE STUDY

By

LALLANJI GOPAL

The Purāṇas seem to have grown beyond the narrow description of five characteristics at an early stage of their evolution. The process of the growth and development of the Purāṇas was helped by a desire to encompass within their fold different types of knowledge and various sciences. The accretions include, among other things, the rites, tenets and mythologies of different sects and also the ideas and principles of the different systems of philosophy. The principles of Sāṅkhya and the practices of Yoga were accommodated in some Purāṇas. One interesting piece of information in these sections concerns premonitory signs or aristas. The aristas are described in the Vāyu, Mārkandeya and Linga Purāṇas. The Skanda Purāṇa also lists indications foretelling impending death, though without employing the name arista. The aristas are also enumerated in the Viṣṇudharmottarapurāṇa. Here we propose to confine our observations to the Vāyu and Mārkandeya Purāṇas.

A comparison of the relevant chapters in the $M\bar{a}rkandeya-pur\bar{a}na$ (=MP) and the $V\bar{a}yupur\bar{a}na$ (=VP) is revealing. In the MP there are forty verses on aristas, whereas the VP has only thirty-three verses. Verses 35, 36 and 39 of the MP, which deal with the behaviour of a person who has known his impending death through

^{1.} Ch. 19

^{2.} Ch. 43

^{3.} I. 91

^{4.} IV. 41

^{5.} III. 238. 1-33.

^{6.} The Skandapurāṇa is a late composition. The Linga-purāṇa evidently borrows its narrative on ariṣṭas from the Vāyu-purāṇa—R.C. Hazra, Studies in the Puranic Records on Hindu Rites and Customs, p 96. Our article on 'Ariṣṭas in the Viṣṇudharmottara Purāṇa' appeared in Purāṇam, Vol. (XXIV. 1 Jan. 1982).

aristas, do not occur in the VP. Verse 33 of the VP is without a correspondig verse in the MP. Similar provisions in the MP are found in verses 37, 38 and 40, particularly the last one.

Verses 5, 6, 13 and 34 in MP, dealing respectively with indications of death after nine months, eight months, ten days and impending death, do not have any thing parallel in the VP. Likewise, verses 24, 25, 20 (first line) and 27 (first line) of the VP mention indications of immediate death which are not to be found in the MP.

For the remaining verses we can trace paralles in the other text. The extent of correspondance is of varying nature. In the case of parallel verses, we have instances of identical lines, the difference in the form of one word can be expected to have been caused by the copyists involved. The identical lines are MP. 2 (second line) = VP. 2 (second line); MP. 9 (first line) = VP. 7 (first line); MP. 10 (first line) = VP. 8 (first line); MP. 14 (first line) = VP. 11 (first line); MP. 18 (first line) = VP. 15 (first line); MP. 29 (second line) = VP. 28 (second line) and MP. 30 (first three pādas) = VP. 29 (first three pādas).

In other cases we find the same words but their positions in the verses are changed. Sometimes we find synonyms being used. In many cases the same idea is conveyed by paraphrasing the lines. We compare below corresponding verses from the two *Purāṇas* to indicate the nature and extent of parallelism.

- (1) VP 2-MP 2 changes the order of the indications, paraphrases mahāpatham as devamārgam and adds śukram.
- (2) VP 3—It has Arasmivantamādityam rasmivantanca pāvakam which is peraphrased in MP 3 as Arasmibimbam sūryasya vahnim caivāmsumālinam.
- (3) VP 4—For its dasamāsān sa jīvati we have in MP 4 jīvet sa dasamāsikam.

^{7.} In the nibandha-granthas the subject comes under the general heading of utkrānti.

^{8.} VP, 33—Aristasūcite dehe tasmin kāla upāgate. Tyaktvā bhayavisādanca udgacchedbuddhimānnarah. MP.40-Jnatvā kālanca tam samyagabhayasthānamāśritah. Yunita yogi kālo' sau yathā nāsyā phalo bhavet.

- (4) VP 5 is paraphrased in MP 7, which substitutes parsnyam for prsthato.
- (5) VP 6-The order of indications is changed in MP 8 which has vāyaso for kākah and adds kākolo. In VP the first line has the expression niliyed yasya mūrddhani. MP drops niliyed and instead transforms khagah kascit in the second line into khagah nīlah revealing its soures in the process, For sanmāsān nātivarttate MP has sanmāsāyuhpradarsakah.
- (6) VP 7-Vadhyed is replaced by hanyate, and pasyet by drstvā in MP 9. Chāyām vā vikṛtām in VP is happier than svām chāyāmanyathā of MP.
- (7) VP 8-For pas yed MP 10 has drstvā. Udakendradhanurvāpi is replaced by rātrāvindradhanuscāpi in MP. Trayo dvau vā sa jīvati is paraphrased as jīvitam dvitrimāsikam. The premonitory sign of seeing a rainbow at night is mentioned more appropriately later in VP 21 (rātrau cendrāyudham pasyed) and MP 24 (śakrāyudhañcardharatre), hence the reference in MP 10 is an unnecessary repetition. It occurs possibly because the compiler of the MP considered udaka in udakendradhanur to be redundant and substituted rātrau for udaka-.
- (8) VP 9-MP 11 substitutes toye for apsu and adds ghrte taile. For atmanam in VP we find atmanastanum in MP. Atmanam is repeated in the second line of VP.
- (9) VP 10-The first line is paraphrased in MP 12 with the significant replacement of vasāgandhi by vastamaso gandho. In the second line MP drops mrtyurhyupasthitas and adds yogino nrpa jīvitam, making consequential changes in paraphrasing the remaining words.
- (10) VP 11—The only change is in respect of the first half of the second line. It reads adbhih spisto na his yet in VP and hrs yate nāmbusamsparšāt in MP.
- (11) VP 12-For yuktena rasena and vidyanmrtyurupasthitah MP 15 has yānastho and na mṛtyuh kalamṛcchati. Likewise, āśām and vrajet are replaced by disam and prayāti.
- (12) VP 13—MP 16 changes kṛṣṇāmbaradharā śyāmā into raktakrsnāmbaradharā, which is not appropriate. It further adds hasatī after gāyantī.

- (13) VP 14—It has two indications. The first, chidram vāsasca kṛṣṇasca svapne yo vidhṛyānnaraḥ, is dropped by MP 17. The second, bhagnam vā śravaṇam, can easily be expected to be a mistake of the copyist, the original reading having been nagnam vā śramaṇam. This seems to have been elaborated in MP verse as Nagnam kṣapaṇakam svapne hasamānam mahābalam. Ekam samvīkṣyan valgantam
- (14) VP 15 is clearly paraphrased in MP 18. Nimajjet is replaced by nimagnam, drstvā tu tādršam svapnam by svapne pasyatyathātmānam and sadya eva na jīvati by sa sadyo mriyate narah.
- (15) VP 16 has bhasmāngārāmsca kesāmsca which is better than Kesāngārāmstathā bhasma in MP 19. Suṣkā is replaced by nirjalām. The second line, pasyedyo dasarātrāntu na sa jiveta tādṛsaḥ is expressed differently as dṛṣṭvā svapne dasāhāttu mṛṭyurekādase dine.
- (16) VP 17-MP 20 adds karālair, changes the order of kṛṣṇaiḥ and vikaṭaiḥ and uses tāḍitaḥ in place of tāḍyate. For sadyo na sa jīvati MP writes sadyo mṛtyum labhennaraḥ.
- (17) VP 18-MP 21 drops pratyusasi but adds viparītam parītam vā. The fourth pāda, sa gatāyurbhavennarah, appears as sadyo mṛtyumṛcchati.
- (18) VP 19-The similarity with MP 22 in expression is obvious, but, because of a few changes, the first indication has been completely changed. VP has yasya vai snātamātrasya hṛdayam pīdyate bhṛśam, whereas MP reads yasya vai bhuktamātrasya hṛdayam bādhate kṣudhā. VP has dantaharṣaḥ, which refers to a morbid sensitiveness of the teeth as when they are set on edge. The compiler of MP possibly did not appreciate its meaning and substituted the commoner expression dantagharṣaḥ meaning chattering or grinding of teeth which, however, is not such an abnormal feature as to indicate immediate definite death. The fourth pāda reads tam gatāyuṣamādiśet in VP and is worded as sa gatāyurna samšayaḥ.
 - (19) VP 20-21 The indication in the first line of VP 20, Bhūyo bhūyaḥ śvasedyastu rātrau vā yadi vā divā is replaced in MP 23 by another indication, trasyatyahni tathā niśi, which is not so expressive. Further, MP 23 compresses the two indications of VP 20 into one line and adopts the second line of VP 21 as its second line. The first line of MP 24 is the same as the first line of VP

- 21. But MP does not mention any new indication in the spare second line which it gets. MP paraphrases indrayudham as sakrayudham and naksatramandalam as grahaganam. In place of rātrau MP has ardharātre, which, in view of the contrast with divā, is overdone. Paranetresu cātmānam na pasyet is paraphrased by MP as Natmanam paranetrastham viksate.
- (20) VP 12.—The fourth pada, sa jñeyo gatajivitah, is paraphrased by MP 25 as tasyayurudgatam. The position of the first and third indications is mutually changed in MP. The change of netramekam into netrañca vāmam is without any justification. Likewise, karņavornamanonnati, in place of karnau sthanacca bhrasyatah, is not happier,
- (21) VP 23-Of the three indications, MP 26 drops the third one, gande cipitake rakte, even though it is an important symptom noted in medicinal texts as well. In the case of the first, kṛṣṇa is replaced by syāma and the significant adjective kharā is omitted. Pankabhāsanca vai mukham has been simplified in MP as Āraktatāmeti mukham.
- (22) VP 26-It has been paraphrased in MP 27. As in the case of VP 12, yuktāh ... rathe is replaced by ... yānena.
- (23) VP 27-MP 28 omits the introductory first line referring to the two indications as foremost aristas. It expands the first indication (ghosam na śrnuyāt karne) to make it clear (Pidhāya karnau nirghosam na śrnotyatmasambhavam). The second indication, jyotirnetre na paśyati, is merely paraphrased as naśyate caksusorjyotiryasya.
- (24) VP 28-Its corresponding verse is MP 29 which uses garte for svabhre and refers to its door being closed (dvāram pidhīyate), whereas VP says that it does not have any door (dvārañcās ya na vidyate).
- (25) VP 29—The fourth pāda is changed in MP 30 as samsanti bumsāmaparam śarīram. VP mentions two more significant sindica. tions in this part (atyusnamūtro visamastha eva). The forms sukhasya and susiram for mukhasya and susira of VP are due to the scribe's mistake.
- (26) VP 30-31—The order of the two verses is changed in MP 31-32. VP 30 is not properly worded, whereas MP 32 has a

better expression. VP refers to the person seeing his assaulter (tam paś yedatha hantāram). MP mentions them as duṣṭairbhūtaiḥ. MP remarks that this indication unfailingly leads to the person meeting death after seven nights. We can see that the signs indicating death are listed earlier in the chapters in a descending order of the time after which death is to occur. The context in which the present verse occurs suits more the VP reference to the assaulted person not surviving (sa hatastu na jīvati). VP 31 mentions the person entering fire at the end of a dream. MP 31 refers to his entering fire in a dream and not coming out of it (na niṣkramate punaḥ). VP mentions the person not regaining memory (smṛtim nopalabheccāpi), but MP instead adds that it applies as well to his entering water (jalapraveśādapi).

- (27) VP 32 is paraphrased in MP 33 but the order of the adjectives is changed. For prāvaraņam in VP, we have vastram in MP, which adds amalam and replaces kṛṣṇam by asitam. In place of tasya mṛṭyurupasthitaḥ MP uses the clause mṛṭyumāsannam tasyāpi hi vinirddifet. The word svapne in VP, which shows that the indication relates to visions in dreams, suits the context, but is dropped by MP.
- (28) VP 33—The same idea is expressed in MP 40, but the wording shows many variations.

We, thus, see that the information about the aristas in the two purāṇas is similar and in some respects identical. But, it cannot be inferred that one borrowed from the other. In that case we shall have to postulate that the author of the borrowing Purāṇa indulged in a labourious exercise to camouflage the borrowing by paraphrasing expressions, changing the order of lines and replacing words by their synonyms. Generally, the authors of the Purāṇas do not make such an effort to conceal borrowing. It would be happier to conclude that the two Purāṇas drew from the same common source and the differences occur genuinely when the same information is communicated by two authors in their own way. At present we do not have any text, earlier than these two Purāṇas, from which they could have derived information on ariṣṭas.

Chapter 43 of the Mārkandeya purāna, which deals with aristas, occurs in its second part containing chapters 10 to 44. In this part he four wise birds answer the questions of Jaimini through the

story of Jada Sumati and his father, Mahāmati. Chapters 16 to 44 embox in this broader narrative the dialogue between Dattātreya and Alarka and the stories about them; they deal with the different points relating to Yoga. After narrating the stories about Dattātreya and Alarka, the text presents the practical (pravṛtti) side of dharma through the dialogue between Madalasa and Alarka (Chapters 27 to 36). The nivṛtti side of dharma is propounded in chapters 37 to 44 wherein the threads of Yoga are resumed by Dattātreva.

The Markandeya purana is recognised to be one of the oldest Purāņas. Pargiter regards the original parts of this Purāņa to have been in existence in the third century A. D. and the latest part to have been completed in the fifth or sixth century A. D. He places Chapters 10 to 44 between these two dates.9 R. C. Hazra is in general agreement with Pargiter about the date of the chapters. According to him, the story of Sumati was inserted into the Mārkandeya purāna, possibly not earlier than A. D. 200. Out of the chapters connected with the story of Sumati, Hazra places chapters 12, 14, 15 and 28 to 35 sometime about the third or fourth century, and chapter 33 (verse 8 to the end) even later than these chapters, but before the beginning of the fifth century.10 But the question, whether the portions containing the account on Yoga in the form of a dialogue between Dattatreya and Alarka, particularly chapter 43, formed part of the the story of Sumati from the beginning or it was inserted along with the first or second set of Smrti chapters, has not been considered.

V. S. Agrawal, who regards the Markandeya-purana to be permeated by the typical culture of the golden age of the Guptas 11, is of the opinion that the chapter 43 on aristas is a clear interpolation in the section on Yoga. 12 Thus, if the portions on Yoga are taken to have formed part of the story of the Sumati from the beginning, they are to be placed sometime after A. D. 200. If they were coeval with the Smrti chapters, they are to be dated in the

Mārkandeya-Purāna (English translation), Introduction 9. p. xx,

^{10.} Op. cit., pp. 8-13.

^{11.} Mārkandeya Purāņa, eka sāmskrtika adhyayana, p. 1.

^{12.} Ibid., p. 111.

third century The chapter 43 on aristas, which is a distinct interpolation in the portions on Yoga, is evidently to be placed after the third century. There is nothing to indicate the date when this chapter was interpolated. But, if we regard it to be of the same date as interpolated chapter 33 (verses 8 to the end), then, following Hazra, we may place the chapter on aristas some time in the fourth century.

R. C. Hazra¹³ holds that chapters 10 to 20 (in which chapter 19 on aristas appears) in the Vāyupurāņa cannot be dated earlier than A. D. 200 and were interpolated after A. D. 400. His argument is that these chapters in the Vāyupurāņa were influenced by chapters 39 to 43 of the Markandeya, 14 'the Vayu has not only a good number of verses in common with the Markandeya but has also improved upon the latter with fresh additions of chapters and verses.' As the Markandeya chapters 39-43 are not to be dated earlier than A. D. 200, the Vāyupurāna chapter 19 is to be dated later still. Hazra further argues that as these chapters on Pāśupata Yoga are not found in the Brahmandapurana, they did not occur in the Vāyupurāna earlier, but were interpolated after the Vāyupurāna and Brahmāndapurāna were separated about A. D. 400. Thus, following Hazra, the addition of Chapter 19 (along with other chapters on Pāśupata Yoga) to the Vāyupurāņa is to be placed after A. D. 400.

The date and arguments suggested by Hazra have generally been adopted by subsequent scholars. S.N. Roy¹⁵ supports his conclusion by an internal scrutiny of the chapters, the Buddhist influence on them, their sectarian nature and incongruous and inconsistent plan.¹⁶

But, the main premise of Hazra's thesis, that the $V\bar{a}yupur\bar{a}na$ chapters show influence of and improvement over the $M\bar{a}rkandeya-purana$, cannot be substantiated. We have shown that though there are similarities, there are differences as well in expressions and details, besides verses which appear only in one of the two texts. In the present situation it is difficult to decide as to which of the

^{13.} Op. cit., p. 15.

^{14.} Vāyu 19 = Mārkandeya 43.

^{15.} Historical and Cultural Studies in the Puranas, pp. 198-200.

^{16.} Ibid., pp. 178-79, 192, 207-8.

two texts is the borrower. It is only an a priori assumption, that the Markandeyapurana is earlier, which has led Hazra to infer that the Markandeyapurana chapter is original and has been followed by the Vāyupurāna. If we analyse the corresponding chapters in the two Puranas with an open mind, we shall be inclined to support the claim of the Vāyupurāņa to be regarded as the earlier of the two. The improvement, to which Hazra refers, is not of a nature to imply a revising hand. Actually in many cases the expression in the Vāyupurāņa is brief and seems to have been paraphrased and elaborated in the Mārkandeyapurāņa to make it clearer. In some cases the premonitory signs as recorded in the Vayupurana are nearer to the correct description of the arista in other early sources, such as the Devaladharmasūtra. This cannot be interpreted as an improvement upon the Mārkandeyapurāna. On the contrary, it would indicate that the compiler of the Markandeyapurana, later in date, could not understand the nature of some aristas, and substituted words and expressions, thus exposing his mistake.

We are inclined to believe that the similarities in the arista chapters of the two Puranas do not necessarily imply that the one borrowed from the other. The differences cannot be explained as resulting from a deliberate desire of copyist to introduce changes or as occurring unconsciously in the process of copying. We would suggest that both the texts drew upon a common source and in the process reveal similarities and introduce elements of change and difference. These are honest differences which can be expected to occur in such a case. We cannot, in the present state of knowledge, identify any particular text as the original from which the two Purāņas borrowed. Early accounts of aristas are found in the Devaladharmasūtra17 and the Mahābhārata18 also. It is to be noted that all these early accounts of aristas in the Devaladharmasūtra, Mahābhārata, Vāyupurāņa and Mārkandeyapurāņa occur in the context of philosophy and practice of Yoga. It is not unlikely that the two Purāņas borrowed the narrative of aristas from the Mahābhārata, or more likely from the Devaladharmasūtra, and reshaped, sometimes by elaborating it, in their own way. Here again we cannot brush aside the possibility of a common tradition of aristas in the Yogic

^{17.} Quoted in Krtyakalpataru, Moksakānda, pp. 248-50.

^{18.} XII. 305,

circle from which the four texts alike drew their accounts. If the Mahābhārata or the Devaladharmasūtra is not taken to represent the original or earliest recorded version, we would suggest that the earlier Yogic tradition about aristas was handed down orally, which may explain the variations in the accounts in the different texts. Here we will not go back still further to discuss the possible origin of the Yogic tradition of aristas. 19

In view of its nearness to the *Devaladharmasūtra* in its structure and the details of the premonitory signs and the references to Yoga in its passages,²⁰ the chapter on *ariṣṭas* in the *Vāyupurāṇa* is to be regarded as representing a stage earlier than that found in the corresponding chapter in the *Mārkaṇḍeyapurāṇa*.

Another argument of Hazra for placing the arista chapter of the $V\bar{a}yupur\bar{a}na$ later than the corresponding chapter in the $M\bar{a}rkandeyapur\bar{a}na$ is based on the fact that the Brahmāndapurāna does not have a chapter on aristas. This is taken to indicate that the chapter in the $V\bar{a}yupur\bar{a}na$ was inserted after the $V\bar{a}yupur\bar{a}na$ and Brahmāndapurāna separated from one common text. The thesis, that the two $Pur\bar{a}na$ were originally one and became separate later, was put forth by Pargiter. Hazra, supporting it, attributed it to sectarian causes and placed it after A. D. 400.22 We agree with

^{19.} Our article on 'Aristas in Yoga' is to appear elsewhere.

^{20.} We discuss it separately in our article on 'Aristas in the Devaladharmasūtra'.

^{21.} Ancient Indian Historical Tradition, pp. 23, 77.

^{22.} Op. cit., p. 18. S.N. Roy, op. cit., though referring to Hazra's views with approval (p. 21), suggests improvements. We may agree with his conclusion that the 'process of the compilation extended over a number of centuries and Brahmāṇḍa Purāṇa assumed its extant shape after incorporating the portion depicting Jāmadagnya-Rāma's legend sometime about 1000 A.D.' (p. 192. We find it difficult to agree with his view that 'possibly the text was one even till the 7 th Century A.D., because the author of Harsacarita does not give any specific name to the Purāṇa proclaimed by Pavamāna whose reading he attended in his village.' (208). In the writings of Bāṇa we have actually two passages which are relevant to our present discussion. In the Kādambarī (Pūrvabhāga, para 37-purāṇe vāyupralapitam) it is stated through a fleṣa that there was no babbling in the hermitage of sage Jābāli;

the general contention that the two puranas started with a common nucleus or drew upon a common source for much of their material. But, the inference, that, whatever occurs in only one of the two Puranas, must necessarily belong to a date after the separation of the two, is not a valid corollary. The criterion is not to be applied mechanically in all the cases. The Puranic texts present a queer phenomenon. The compilation of the text and the subsequent history of its elaboration or change are not governed by set and fixed rules. At many places we find passages and chapters being interpolated in the text. But we also find parallel cases of passages being changed, or sometimes, completely dropped.²³ We cannot determine the reasons operating behind all these changes and deve-

there was proclaiming by Vāyu in the Purāṇa. The other reference to which S. N. Roy alludes occurs in the Harsacarita (III, para 4-5 : Pustakavācakah Sudrstih. gītyā pavamānaproktam papātha. Tadapi Munigītamatiprthu tadapi jagadvyāpi pāvanam tadapi Harsacaritādabhinnam pratibhāti hi me Puranamidam). It says that 'the book-reader Sudrsti treated Bana and his relatives and friends to a musical recitatlion of the Purana promulgated by Vayu, that was sung by the sage (Vyāsa, that is very extensive, that is world-wide (i. e. known everywhere), that is holy and that is not different from the career of Harsa' The literary usage of Sanskrit language and the style of Bana leave no doubt about the passages employing the words vāyupralapitam, pavamānaproktam and pāvanam actually referring to the Vāyupurāņa. See also Kane, History of Dharmas āstra, V, p. 822. The further remark of S. N. Roy that 'it is hardly conceivable that an author of Bāna's calibre should write on irrelevant and ambigu ous line' (p. 210) goes against his conclusion. If we follow Roy's line of argument, we shall have to assume that, though there was one Vayupurana, Bana knew that in future there will be two Puranas issuing out of it, both claiming to have been proclaimed by Vāyu. If it is suggested that Bāṇa wanted to cover both Vāyu and Brahmanda Puranas by his description, then we reach the conclusion that the two Puranas had come to acquire separate forms. It is to be noted that after the compilation of the two Puranas as separate texts the references in Bāna's writings will imply the Vāyupurāna and not the Brahmandapurana.

23. This is abundantly clear from the large number of passages and chapters which are quoted in the medieval commentaries and digests but appear in the available texts in vastly altered form or do not occur at all.

lopments. They could have been caused by the mistake of the copyist or else deliberately o nitted or altered by subsequent compilers on sectarian grounds or on account of an honest inability to see the justification for their presence in the text. S. N. Roy, ²⁴ in referring to the absence of chapters 11 to 20 of the Vāyupurāṇa in the Brahmāṇḍapurāṇa, remarks that it 'does not necessarily meant that they were absent also in the original and ancestral source of these two Purāṇas. For, loss of original passages in the extant Purāṇas are as common as addition of later passages and alteration of early ones.' But this remains a casual observation and S. N. Roy has not cared to work out its implications Following this remark it can be suggested that the chapters in question possibly occured in the original or common Vāyupurāṇa, but, whereas the compiler of the Brahmāṇḍapurāṇa chose to drop them, they were retained in the Vāyupurāṇa.

With due hesitation, 1 must submit that I am not much enamoured of the idea of the two Puranas separating from one common Purana. In ancient times there was a definite tradition, recorded even in some of the early Puranas,25 listing the names of the eighteen Puranas. The svargarohanaparva of the Mahābhārata26 and the Harivamsa27 refer to the eighteen Purāņas without naming them. R. C. Hazra, who has argued to show that all these passages in the Purāṇas, Mahābhārata and Harivamsa were either revised or interpolated in later times, dates the canon of the eighteen Mahāpurāņas not earlier than the third but not later than the first quarter of the seventh century AD.28 We must adequately emphasise the point that a considerable gap is to be postulated between the formulation and general acceptance of the list of the Purāņas and the composition, circulation and due recognition of these Puranas individually. The composition of all the Puranas does not belong to the same period; the earliest among them possibly

^{24.} Op. cit., p. 198.

^{25.} Viṣṇu III. 6.21-23; Mārkaṇḍeya 134.7-11; Vāyu 104.2-10; Matsya 53.11-19; Varāha 112.69-72.

^{26. 5.45-46; 6.97.}

^{27.} III. 135.3.

^{28.} Op. cit., pp. 2-4, Kane, Op. cit., V, p. 831 is more cautious in his remark that 'the list of 18 principal Purāṇas had been completed long before 1000 A. D. and was introduced in the Viṣṇupurāṇa many years before that.'

went back to very early times. As has been rightly pointed out by P. V. Kane, 29 the reference to Puranas in the plural number in the Taittiriya Āraņyaka30 implies the circulation of at least three Purāņas in those times. The Apastamba-dharmasūtra clearly implies the existence of individual Purāna texts. It twice quotes two verses each from a Purāṇa,31 gives the summary of a passage from a Purāņa32 and names a Purāna as Bhavisyatpurāna,33 It can be surmised that the Vāyupurāna and Brahmāndapurāna possibly existed as separate texts quite sometime before the formulation of the list of eighteen Puranas. The suggestion that the same text by the addition of two different types of material came to be designated as two separate texts does not seem to be very plausible. It is more likely that before distinct texts came into being there was a mass of floating literature circulating under the general name of Purāņas, but without being labelled or identified by the name of any particular Purāņa.34 It seems that in the initial stage the compilers of individual Purāṇas freely drew upon this fund. This is the reason why we find common passages and chapters not only in Vāyu and Brahmāndu Purānas but also among some other Purānas. 35 Thus, it cannot be said, merely on the basis of the absence of the chapter on aristas in the Brahmandapurana that the Vayupurana borrowed its chapter from the Markandeyapurana.

There are reasons to believe that the $V\bar{a}yupur\bar{a}na$ contains much that is of a very early period. Scholars generally agree in describing the $V\bar{a}yupur\bar{a}na$ as the oldest of the extant Purāṇas. ³⁶

^{29.} Op. cit., V, p. 853.

^{30.} II. 10.

^{31.} I. 6.19.13; II. 9.23.3-6

^{32.} I. 10.29.7

^{33.} II. 9.24.6.

^{34.} Some Purāṇas record a tradition that originally there was only one Purāṇa from which all the Purāṇas have evolved. See B. Upadhyaya, Purāṇa-vimarsa, p. 70. The Purāṇa as a separate branch of literature is attested to by the Atharvaveda XI. 7.24; XV. 6.10-11 and the Satapatha Brāhamaṇa XI. 5.6.8. See Kane, op. cit., pp. 816-18; S. N. Roy, op. cit., pp. 15-17, 31-33, 46-49.

^{35.} Kane, op. cit., V, p. 841, f.n. 1372.

^{36.} R. C. Hazra, op. cit., p. 13; R. G. Bhandarkar, Vaisnavism, Saivism and Minor Religious Systems; P. V. Kane, op. cit., V, p. 106.

R. G. Bhandarkar placed it earlier than the Matsyapurana 37 and Pargiter regarded it to be older than the Visnupurāna.38 Scholars date the latest portions of this Purana not later than A.D. 500,89 but generally agree that there was an ancient Purana under the name of Vayu and that the present text preserves much of the ancient work.40 V.R.R. Dikshitar takes the earliest portion of the Purāņa to the fifth century B.C.41 D.R. Patil assigns the material in the Vāyupurāņa to three broad categories:42 the archaic survivals of which 500 B.C. is the lowest time-limit, the ancient material with the beginning of the Christian era as its lowest chronological terminus, and the accretions which do not generally go beyond A.D. 500.

The Vāyupurāņa is the only Purāņa which has actually been named in some early texts. The Vanaparva of the Mahābhārata mentions the Purāņa proclaimed by Vāyu (Vāyuproktam) and refers to its two features which may be correlated with two of the five characteristics of a Purāṇa.43 The clear admission on the part of the compiler of the Mahābhārata to have drawn upon the Vāyupurāņa is an undoubted proof of the existence of a Vāyupurāna before the Mahābhārata tooklits present form. V.S. Sukthankar refers to the verbal similarity between a few stanzas in the Vāyu and some stanzas of the Vana-But 'nothing corresponding to the general contents of the

Early History of the Dekkan, p. 162. 37.

Purana Text of the Dynasties of the Kali Age, p. 14, f. n. 4. 38.

V. R. R. Dikshitar, Some Aspects of the Vayu Purana, 39, pp. 46ff; D. R. Patil, Cultural History from the Vayu Purana, p. 16. See also Winternitz, History of Indian Literature, Vol. I, p. 554. C. V. Vaidya, IBRAS, 1925, pp. 155ff dates it in the eighth century but does not receive approval for his arguments. Chapter 104 mentioning Rādhā, the Tantras and the Śākta philosophy and chapters 105-112 on Gayāmāhatmya seem to be later additions-R. C. Hazra, op. cit., pp. 13, 17, f. n. 9.

Winternitz, loc. cit. 40.

^{42.} Loc. cit.

^{43.} (Critical edition) III. 189.14-

Etat te sarvamākhyātamatītānāgātam tathā Vāyuproktamanusmṛtya purāṇamṛsisamstutam|

passage where it occurs is to be found in the extant $V\bar{a}yu$ $Pur\bar{a}na$.⁴⁴ Thus evidence for equating the extant $V\bar{a}yu$ $Pur\bar{a}na$ with the $V\bar{a}yu$ quoted in the $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata$ is lacking. But, as correctly pointed out by DR. Patil,⁴⁵ the extant $V\bar{a}yu$ 'shows at places a material definitely older than that of the Mbh' and seems to have preserved some material which originally belonged to the $V\bar{a}yupur\bar{a}na$ known to the $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata$.

Thus, we may conclude that the Vāyupurāṇa is not to be dated on the assumption that its chapter on ariṣṭas is influenced by the one chapter in the Mārkaṇḍeya-purāṇa. Possibly both drew on an earlier common source. The date of the two Purāṇas is to be determined independently. There is evidence to indicate that the extant Vāyupurāṇa contains much early material which need not be dated after the corresponding chapter in the Mārkaṇḍeyapurāṇa. It was possibly written a little earlier. We may best summarize the position by saying that the chapters on ariṣṭas in the two Purāṇas roughly belong to the same period and the difference in their dates is not a wide one.

^{44.} Sukthankar Memorial Edition (1944), Introduction to the Āranyaka parvan, I. 156. See also Hopkins, The Great Epic of India, pp. 48ff.

^{45.} Op. cit., p. 4

THE COLOPHONS IN THE CRITICALLY EDITED PURĀŅA-S*

By GIORGIO BONAZZOLI

Colophon—or 'finishing touch' as conveyed by the etymon of the word—is to be understood, for the purpose of this article, as that part of an $adhy\bar{a}ya$ after the last floka and distinct from it, used mostly to specify the content of an $adhy\bar{a}ya$ and its position in the regular succession of topics of a purāṇa. A puranic colophon starts usually with the word 'iti' and is formed of several parts as described in the following example taken from Varāha purāṇa (Venk.), 29:

1 2 क्वित/श्रीवराहपुराणे/आदिकृतवृत्तान्ते महातप उपाख्याने/दिगुत्पत्तिर्नाम/ 5 एकोनित्रिशोध्यायः ॥२९॥

After the introduction (No 1), the colophon presents the purāna, sometimes with praising words, (No 2), and then the section, or general topic pertaining to a few adhyāya-s (No 3). The name of the adhyāya (No 4) and its number, both in letters and in figures or either of the two (No 5) are also given at the end.

* The purāṇa-s studied here are the following three: Kūrma Purāṇa, critically edited by A. S. Gupta, All-India Kashiraj Trust, Vārāṇasī, 1971; Varāha Purāṇa, critically edited by A. S. Gupta, All-India Kashiraj Trust, Vārāṇasī, 1981; Vāmana Purāṇa, critically edited by A. S, Gupta, All-India Kashiraj Trust, Vārāṇasī, 1967.

The manuscripts quoted in this article are those used in the above quoted editions and presented in the introduction to the single purana-s.

Abbreviations: adh. (s) = $adhy\bar{a}ya$ (s)

Crit. = Critical Edition
MS (MSS) = manuscript(s)
SMā = Saromāhātmya of Vāmana Purāṇa
N. = Not given in the colophons
— the colophon is not reproduced by
the Critical Edition
Venk, = Venkateśvara edition

Note: The names of the Sanskrit sections or stories are usually put in the stem-form because in the colophons sometimes they appear in the locative and sometimes in the nominative.

The critical edition of the purana-s and of the epics as well published upto now, give no critical text of colophons. Their editors, rather, are satisfied with 'new' colophons, i. e., not critically derived from the MSS evidence but directly composed by the editor himself on the basis of MSS material. It is true, the critical apparatus usually gives the situation of the colophons in the MSS but that also at times rather incompletely as is the case with Adiparvan where at the end of adhyaya 14 it is remarked 'hereafter to the end of the Adip., only significant constituent elements of the colophons will be noted'. This position is apparently logical considering the fact that no critical colophons can be reasonably constituted on the basis of MSS evidence. The difference between one MS and the other is such that no serious and scientific conclusion can be deduced from them. The numbers, in some cases, seem to have been rendered quite haphazardly. A few examples will suffice to illustrate this point.

MS \mathfrak{A}_3 of Kūrma has the succession 35,28, 37 (=Crit. II. 36-38)

MS ₹8 of Varāha has 105, 96, 97, 96, 99 (= Crit. 104-108)
MS ₹1 of Vāmana has 64, 30 (= Crit. 38-39)
MS ₹171 of Vāmana has 75,87 (= Crit. 44-45)

It is also evident that in a few instances the copyists committed mistakes:

MSS ম2, ম1, ব1 of Kūrma have 28, 19, 30 (=Crit. II. 28-30) where 19 is एकोनविंश instead of एकोनिंश

MS $\frac{1}{68}$ of Varāha has 125, 226,—, 128, 29 (= Crit. 124-128) MS $\frac{1}{61}$ of Varāha has 205, 106, 207 (= Crit. 187-189)

MS ≥ 1 of Vāmana has 24, 52, 26 (=Crit. SMā 3-5), where 52 stands surely for 25.

Such a process is so common that it has removed redibility from the colophons. However, if we consider that part of the colophons which describes the contents of the adhyāya we get a better pict ure. It seems that for this part the copyists were more attentive. In fact, although here also the difference between one MS and the other is very often so great that

any critical edition is impossible, we can get at least an idea as to whether the topic dealt with in the adhyāya-s was the same or different. So in this regard at least, the colophons can offer bits of information.

In preparing the critical edition of a purāṇa the MSS are grouped according to their similarity of readings. The colophons, however, cannot be classified in the same way as their respective adhyāya-s. That does not mean that colophons cannot be grouped following similarities of variants, they have also their own alliances. But the grouping of MSS based on similarity of colophons does not match with the groupings based on the variants of text.

What has been said explains why colophons are not normally taken into consideration by scholars. However, a little patience and attention will reveal a few strange and unexpected facts which deserve deeper study. The research is possible only for the critically edited purāṇa-s because it is through the collation of several MSS that a few facts can be noticed and some conclusions drawn. A general conclusion is that in several cases the only possible way to explain a few facts in colophons is to suppose that they are older than the text to which they are attached. In more than one instance they testify to a stage of puranic development different from the present, and so they may help considerably in reconstructing a history of the puranic text.

The following study will consider separately the problem of numbers in colophons and the problem of words. The two series of problems have to be taken separately because they are rather different even if, as we shall see, they reveal basically the same facts.

1. THE PROBLEM OF NUMBERS IN COLOPHONS

Colophons certainly contain many mistakes in their numbering and such mistakes are mostly due to carelessness of copyists. In some cases the only explanation possible, when it does not appear to be a copying mistake, is that the numbers are rendered haphazardly. We have already seen a few examples above. We could

multiply them to a very large extent. But we cannot dismiss all the evidence with these explanations only. Below we shall consider examples available from the Kūrma, Varāha and Vāmaṇa purāṇa-s which are not satisfactorily explained by the above arguments. The reason for chosing these purāṇa-s to which we alluded above and not others is that these are the only examples of which we have a critical edition based on a sufficient number of MSS from which we may draw some conclusions.

a. The new numbering

The phrase 'new numbering' is here understood to be the process through which a previous series of numbers is interrupted and a new one is started afresh beginning from one.

The Kūrma purāṇa, being divided into two parts — $P\bar{u}rvabh\bar{a}ga$ and $Uparivibh\bar{a}ga$ —has, naturally, a new numbering from the beginning of the second part. Such a new numbering is given in all the MSS except π_1 and is combined with another numbering in π_2 . The latter MS has a double numbering, one continuing from the first part, the other starting afresh form $adhy\bar{a}ya$ one of $Uparivibh\bar{a}ga$. This double numbering continues for only nine $adhy\bar{a}ya$ -s (= Crit. II. 1-10). Later the old numbering is dropped, but it is unexpectedly resumed just in the last $adhy\bar{a}ya$ (= Crit. II.44), where the MS has No 93, instead of 44, as it would if it had continued the numbering from the beginning of the purāṇa. How such a number could be attached to this $adhy\bar{a}ya$, without any logical correlation to the adjacent numbers, will become clear below.

So much for the Kūrma purāṇa. The Varāha and Vāmana purāṇa-s present a more complex situation and deserve greater attention. Both the purāṇa-s have in one or another of the MSS new numberings at the beginning of any important topic. The clearest example is the Mathurā māhātmya of Varāha purāṇa. Such a $m\bar{a}h\bar{a}tmya$ extends in the Critical Edition from adh. 150 to adh. 178 and has a new numbering in \bar{a}_3 and \bar{a}_9 . This new numbering is almost complete in \bar{a}_3 where it goes from 1 to 28 with only some irregularities and is only partial in \bar{a}_9 where it has only adh-s 11-26 (=Crit. 160-174), here also with some irregularities. Although this new numbering does not appear in other MSS yet it seems that its influence was rather widespread. MS \bar{a}_1 , for instance,

has a few numbers which belong to the new numbering, namely No 11 (= Crit. 161), No 16 (= Crit. 166), No 20 (= Crit. 169), No 27 (= Crit. 177). The peculiarities of these numbers in all is that they appear exactly where the MS 3 does not have numbers because of the irregularities mentioned above. Besides at six more MSS were partially influenced by the new numbering, namely दे1-4.10, ते1. All these MSS have only adh. 2 (= Crit. 151) belonging to the new numbering. Five of them do not have any other numbers at all in the other colophons. One, instead, i. e., ता has remnants of another numbering, namely No 167 (= Crit. 150), No 183 (=Crit. 164), No 189-194 (=Crit. 169-176). So, it seems that the new numbering of the Mathurā māhātmya, which is now present only in ब3, and partially in दे9, was so much spread as to include MSS of different groups. What we have now in our MSS evidence are only fragments. ते1 reveals the existence of a particular kind of influence where the old and the new numbering mix together. This problem of double numbering will be discussed in greater detail as we proceed.

Another example of new numbering is in Varāha 191 ff (Crit.). The topic of these adhyāya-s is described in the colophons either as संसारचक्र or as नाचिकेतोपाख्यान, and it extends from Crit. 191 to Crit. 210 at least. It has new numbering in दे7 counting from 3 to 17 (Crit. 193-207), while in other MSS (दे1-6.8-11, जा) it appears only in one, two or three adhyāya-s. Here, then, the same situation as in the previous example is repeated; hence the influence of this new numbering appears to have been rather widely spread, and what we see today is only a remnant. This case, however, presents two peculiarities which deserve attention. The first is represented by दे8 which has the following sequence:

97, 3, 4,-,101, 102 (=Crit. 192-197).

Nos 3-4 belong to the new numbering but their insertion in the counting does not alter the old numbering which is resumed from No 101 as if the preceding Nos were 98, 9, 100 and not Nos 3, 4,—, as in fact they are. This is neither carelessness nor haphazardly random. It may mean, rather, that the MS from which $\vec{\varsigma}$ 8 was copied already had the new numbering but in the process of copying either the exemplar MS was substituted with another or

the copyist thought it better to resume the MS's (₹8) proper numbering. This change can hardly be attributed to the whim of the copyist. The reasonable supposition is an external influence, perhaps due to another MS, and this appears more convincing when we collate the change of numbers in these adhyāya·s with the other MSS which also have the new numbering in exactly this place. The parallelism with the other MSS is significant because they do not have a numbering of their own, old or new, in any of the other adhyāya·s except in three or four. The numbers of these three or four adhyāya-s must have been taken from other MSS. Hence both for these three or four adhyāya-s and for the above mentioned MS we are considering here, we have to suppose an external influence.

The second peculiarity of this new numbering is represented by \$1 which has accepted only No 2 (= Crit. 192) of the new numbering. In fact, we do not know whether it had accepted also other numbers because the other colophons do not have any numbers. But the strange fact is that in this MS, as in the other two Bengali, ब्2-3, the purana ends a few adhyaya-s later (= Crit. 200). These Bengali MSS conclude the purana with the word वराहतमासम्. So it appears illogical that at accepted in its numbering figures belonging to a topic which continues for many more adhyāya-s and then it suddenly interrupted it. The logical explanation is that the topic either was shortened by \$1 or lenghtened by \$7 and the others. In both cases it appears strange that all accepted the new numbering without accepting the full text. No 2, and perhaps also Nos 3, 4 and 5 of the MSS, make us suspect that most probably a separate unit was formed by and of themselves and as a separate unit they entered also al. We have to suppose that this adhyaya had already entered in the body of the puranic text before it was accepted in the recension represented by 41, i.e., that it was antecedent to it. In this case, then, the colophon would reveal the situation of this MS prior to the present copy of it.

We may also look at the problem from another point of view. Let us suppose for a moment that our adhyāya No. 2 of \$\vec{a}\$1 (=Crit, 192) had another number, supposedly the serial one in the purāṇa. Let us also suppose that in another MS some adhyāya-s dealing with

Nāciketa were combined with other adhyāya-s to form a new booklet which now extended upto Crit. 210, and was given a new numbering independently of the general ones belonging to the purana, and that not improbably such a new booklet began to have an independent life. All these suppositions are not completely imaginary if we consider that all the MSS, except ते। and ब अ were affected by this new numbering and that the Bengali MSS end the purana just at the middle of such a new context. In our hypothesis ৰ1 as well as ৰ2-3 would be faithful to the original purana and end their text at Crit. 200 and would not insert the new booklet. Even in this case, however, which supposedly puts the new booklet संसारचक्र after the Varāha purāna as a later development, we have to suppose that the actual adhyāya No 2 of बा was copied from a MS which had the new numbering but not the whole 'new booklet'. In this case also, then, this adhyāya was perhaps present somewhere in the purāna before its final placement in the text of 41.

Another instance of new numbering in the Varāha purāṇa is again in \overline{a}_{1-2} where a new counting begins in Crit. 112, exactly where both the text itself, and the observations of scholars, make us think that a new section of the purāṇa was started. As this has been discussed by other scholars we leave it.¹

Other examples of new numbering at the beginning of new sections are available also in the Vāmana purāna, for instance, at the beginning of the Saromāhātmya (see 34.7), or immediately after it (see 3, 31-3) and in other cases which will be mentioned below. The Vāmana purāņa presents some curious cases of new numbering where no one would expect them, as they are in adhyāya-s which at present do not start any new topic at all: So बा-3 and दे4 begin with No 1 in Crit. 9, which is apparently not the beginning of any new topic. & has No.1 in SMa 23, Crit., i. e., in the middle of a quite compact group of adhyāya-s dealing with Saromāhātmya. 41-2, 31 have a new beginning in Crit. 47, and \$7 has No 2 etc., starting from Crit. 35. In all these cases there are no apparent reasons for a new numbering to begin. Are, then, all these new numberings completely illogical, i. e., fruit of the whim of absent-minded or careless copyists or do they respond to any logic? I do not have access to the original MSS

^{1.} See R. C. Hazra, Puranic Records on Hindu Rites and Customs, Dacca, 1940, pp. 98-99; etc.

and the history of the MSS is also not well known, so the research ends up somewhat aborted; so much so if we think we are dealing with only a few MSS, out of the many dozens still available; here, we can give only a few suggestions that are hopefully reasonable and convincing.

For the first instance, i. e., the new numbering starting from Crit. 9 in \mathfrak{q}_{1-3} and \mathfrak{q}_4 , we notice surely that the topic is rather new as it deals with Andhaka who had not appeared until that adhyāya. But it seems rather improbable that this is really a new topic significant enough to deserve a new numbering, especially when we consider that a new numbering might even indicate an indepedent existence of that group of adhyāya-s. One would rather expect a new numbering a few adhyāya-s before, after Crit. 5 which concludes the topic of Haralalita. But Crit. 9 does not have any of those words which are available usually at the beginning of a new matter and the previous adhyaya does not contain any hint either that the previous topic is over. The colophons, however, can help us to find a division in the purana which at first appears irrelevant but which must have had more significance in another stage in the development of the text. Winternitz² states that the Vāmana 'begins with an account of the incarnation of Vișnu as a dwarf (Vāmana), whence it takes its name. However, this is not true for any of the MSS collated for the critical edition. The only clue that'the account of the Visnu incarnation as dwarf' might have been in the purana are the colophons which, irregularly, have वामनपादभीव from adhyāya 1 to 8 of the Critical Edition. Now, these same colophons start a new topic called मैर्वप्राद्भिव from adhyāya 9 of the Critical. As the first 8 adhyāya-s do not contain any longer the account of Vāmana avatāra, so also the next ones do not contain the new topic supposed to start from adh. 9 (Crit.). Yet the colophons are faithful, and report what must have been present in these adhyāya-s in previous times. They refer to a stage of the purana different from, or previous to, the present one. For our purpose it is enough to show that a few colophons, both with their description and with their numbers, remained linked to that previous stage, although the text of the adhyāya had, at least partially, changed or had been

^{2.} M. Winternitz, A History of Indian Literature, Vol. I, Part II, University of Calcutta, 1963 (II ed.), p. 502.

put into new context. So, in this case also, the colophons appear to be more conservative than the text itself. The topics of the actual Vāmana purāṇa follow the sequence given in Nārada I. 103, so the present structure of Vāmana's colophons goes back to a period previous to that of Nārada I.92-109. If the mentioned colophons refer to a previous stage of Vāmana as we have suggested, then we have here a new glimpse into the history of a puranic text.

We could also visualize the problem from another point of view and suppose that the adhyāya-s were already present in the previous stage of the purana and that the numbering is later and was added when these adhyāya-s were used, say, for a specific purpose and became a unit unto themselves. In this supposition the new numbering would indicate new use only. Hence it would be extremely difficult to understand why the new numbering took place just from this very adhyāya as the present text does not offer any real support for the beginning of a new topic at this point. We should suppose that the reason is the one given in the colophons themselves, namely that from this point the भैरवप्राद्भिव started. As at present there is no भैरवप्राद्भिव available in the text, nor does the Nārada purāna's summary of Vāmana refer to it, we must again suppose that these colophons refer to some matter that was once present in the purana but has now disappeared. There seems to be no other reasonable conclusion, except to suppose that the colophons refer to a previous topic, i. e., from a previous time, or to a different topic other than the one contained in the present text.

Another case of such a numbering starting where apparently there is no beginning of a new topic is represented by π_{1-2} and $\hat{\pi}_{1}$ in Vāmana 47 (Crit). Crit. 46 concludes the previous topic, although Crit. 45-46 seem to be an addition to Crit. 44 which is the real conclusion of the previous topic. In Crit. 44 in fact, even the colophons conclude by saying भैरवप्रादुर्भावं समान्त्रम्. On the other hand almost all the colophons of Crit. 47 have वामनप्रादुर्भावं which can be really considered the general topic of this section. This section might have also been used separately, and so some MSS, namely π_{1-2} and $\hat{\pi}_1$, used a new numbering. In this case we need not suppose that the colophons are older than the text. But just in this group of $adhy\bar{a}ya$ -s starting from Crit. 47 and bearing a new numbering in π_{1-2} and $\hat{\pi}_1$, there is an $adhy\bar{a}ya$, Crit. 53, the col-

ophons of which in 6 MSS have the word समान्तम्, although it is not clear as to what topic such a word refers. Now this word is available both in ना-३ which have the new numbering, and in जा।, का-2 which continue with the previous numbering. So this word, completely outside predictable logic, on the one hand equates the new numbering to the old numbering by this evidence proving that the new numbering does not really refer to a new text. On the other hand it must refer to something different from the actual text. So the topic to which the word समान्तम् refers, not being the one available in the present text, cannot be anything else than a topic which was available in this text previously but that has now disappeared. So once again some colophons prove to be more conservative than the text itself of the $adhy\bar{a}ya$.

The other two cases of new numbering in odd places can be dismissed in few words by saying that no specific reason could be found for it. Possibly for Vāmana, SMā 23 (Crit.), which has No 1 in $\stackrel{>}{\stackrel{>}{\stackrel{}}{\stackrel{}}}_7$, we can see that a new dialogue between Sanatkumāra and the Brāhmaṇa-s begin in just this $adhy\bar{a}ya$. But the clues are indeed rather scarce.

From the discussion so far, it does not seem hazardous to affirm that not infrequently some colophons take us back to a stage of puranic development that preceeds the present one. And that should be sufficient evidence to induce more scholarly attention to the colophons.

b. Double Numbering

For 'double numbering' it is understood here to be the instance in which one adhyāya has two different numbers in the same colophon. Double numbering is rare. We have seen one case already in Kūrma II. 1-10, where at the beginning the Uparivibhāga \$\pi_8\$ has both the numbers 1, 2 etc. and 51, 52 etc., continuing the numbering of the Pārvabhāga. Another case in the Kūrma is available in Crit. I.43-45 where \$\frac{1}{1}\$ has both 43,44,45 and 46,47,48. The MS continues then with No 49 following the second numbering. The numbers 43, 44, 45 represent the regular sequence of numbers in this MS from the previous counting, while 46, 47, 48 are superimposed, but they are also continued in the subsequent counting. The two series of numbers behave as if the latter had 'slipped' over the former. The first series appears like the tail of a previous num-

bering and the second like the head of the new numbering. former appears once again in one adhyāya (see Crit. 48) and then disappears again. So for all intrinsic purposes the second numbering has superseded the first one.

Kūrma II. 16-17 (Crit.) is represented in का। with 5/16 and 16/17. If we consider 5 as a mistake in place of 15, then we have the 14, 15/16, 16/17, 17 (= Crit. 15-18.) succession:

A double numbering is again visible in Kūrma II. 29 and 31 (Crit.). Crit. 28-32 is represented in all in the following way:

27, 28/29, 29, 30/31, 31

This case is quite similar to the previous one.

Kūrma II. 36-44 (Crit.) are represented in ₹1 in the following manner.

37, 39/44, 40, 41, 42/37, 43/37, 44/38, 45/36, 46 In this series there are two other MSS which also give a double number, namely दे3 which has 40/44 (=Crit. II. 38) and का। which has 42/43 (= Crit. II. 43).

In the Varāha purāṇa there is only one instance of double numbering in Crit. 128-129. The succession in a1 starting from Crit. 127 upto Crit. 130 is the following:

16, 17/123, 18/124, 125

The MS at had started a new numbering from Crit. 112 along with MSS q2 and q3. In all three MSS this new series seems to end with No 18 and the comparison with \$10 (cf. Crit. 125-129) seems to confirm it, although some random numbers both in 42 (cf. Crit. 139, 141) and in 43 (cf. Crit. 137) would support the opposite. It is exactly at the point of ending this new numbering that the second series is inserted and then continued in the following adhyāya-s. We have here the same 'slipping' process as in the case stated above regarding Kürma I. 43-45 (Crit.).

Finally in the Vamana purana we have two cases of double numbering in Crit. 39 and Crit. 56. In the first instance, Crit. 37-40 are presented in \mathfrak{F}_{11} by the following sequence;

59, N, 30/61, 61

No 30, which is here completely out of place, is available also at this point in MSS &1.3-4. No 30 is in its regular succession only in \$4, while it is out of series in the other two. From the MSS evidence, then, this colophon was copied from &4 where the number is in its logic sequence and hence inserted into the other MSS. In ₹1 and ₹3 it produced a change in the numbering, so that Crit. 37-40 represent them in the following way:

₹, 63, 64, 30, 31 3, N, 63, 30, 31

In \$11 on the contrary a double number appears in one adhyāya.

The second case of a double numbering in the Vāmana is in Crit. 56 Here त1 has No 10 and No 42. The colophon situation of त1 at this point is rather chaotic. Crit. 54-57 is represented in ते thus:

6, N., 10/42, 73

Nos 6 and 10 belong to the numbering this MS has in common with बा and बा: No 73 at this point is available also in का। while No 42 deviates completely. This case, as well all the others seen above, except Crit. 39 of the Vāmana purāņa, indicate that our MSS are not numerous enough to enable us to follow the evolution of our text. On the other hand what we have seen, while commenting on Vāmana 39 (Crit.), is enough to show that attention to the double numbering would be useful in reconstructing a little of the history of the text and the alliances of the MSS. In this case, moreover, even more than in some others, access to original MSS is essential in order to know whether the two numberings belong to the same hand or to two different hands; or if one looks perhaps like a correction of the other etc. These problems remain unsolved for our three purana-s. But this discussion shows, at least, that the colophons can offer rich sources of new information.

c. Interruption in Counting

The counting of the adhyāya-s is also often interrupted in our three purana-s, either because the entire colophon, or the number of the adhyaya is missing. Any minor reason perhaps could be sufficient to make the copyist copy the number improperly or forget to write any number at all. A single interruption in counting, therefore, or a mistake in the right succession of numbers should not bother us, as it is not productive to this discussion. Yet we may deduce in some cases bits of information regarding the history of the text and providing help in grouping the MSS.

It is not infrequent that from the regular or irregular counting we gain insights as to whether a missing adhyāya in a MS was missing also in the whole recension represented by that MS, or it is just missing in this copy of the MS.

In the Kūrma purāṇa (Critical Edition) the $P\bar{u}rvabh\bar{a}ga$ has 51 $adhy\bar{a}ya$, MS $\hat{\epsilon}_4$, although its last $adhy\bar{a}ya$ bears No 53, has in fact only 45 $adhy\bar{a}ya$ -s, because Crit. 28-33 are missing from it. As the numbers can sometimes be altered by different factors, as we mentioned above, the fact that the MS ends with No 53 is not enough proof to affirm that it must have actually had 53 $adhy\bar{a}ya$ -s. So our problem is to know whether those six $adhy\bar{a}ya$ -s which appear missing, when compared to the Critical Edition, were present in this recension or not. The counting of $adhy\bar{a}ya$ -s can help us answer this question. Although the six $adhy\bar{a}ya$ -s are missing, in fact, the counting is resumed later as if they were there. So we have No 29, then the six missing $adhy\bar{a}ya$ -s and lastly No 36 exactly as if the $adhy\bar{a}ya$ -s were present. So the counting reveals that the six missing $adhy\bar{a}ya$ -s were available at the time of the writing of the numbers.

The same thing can be said of the three missing numbers in $\exists 1$ (=Crit. I. 26-28), and in $\exists 1$ (=Crit. II. 42). In other cases as well, we can discover whether the missing $adhy\bar{a}ya$ -s of a MS were actually missing at the time of the copying of the present MS or not. For example, Varāha 72-79 (Crit.) is represented in $\exists 2$ in the following way:

Supposing that the two Ns represent, in fact, 71, 72, which is easily conjecturable, No 73 after the three missing $adhy\bar{a}ya$ -s follows regularly after No 72. So at the time this MS was copied these three $adhy\bar{a}ya$ -s were missing. We can also go one step further. MS ∓ 1 follows closely ± 2 but has no numbers in its colophons. By this closeness we can deduce that the three missing $adhy\bar{a}ya$ -s of ± 1

parallel the ones missing in \$\frac{2}{2}\$, and were most probably not present even when the MS was copied. One is tempted to apply the same reasoning also to the group of MSS \$\frac{2}{1-4}\$, which also lack these three adhyāya-s although the absence of numbers in the colophons makes the conclusion more uncertain as they belong to a group different from \$\frac{2}{2}\$ and \$\frac{1}{1}\$ The same thing can be said for the group of Kashmiri MSS \$\frac{11}{1}\$, \$\frac{11-2}{1}\$, \$\frac{11}{1}\$ of the Vāmana purāṇa, which do not have the first nine adhyāya-s of the Saromāhātmya. The counting shows that they were missing even at the time they were copied. So also, since \$\frac{2}{2}\$ and \$\frac{1}{1}\$ of the Vāmana purāṇa had no Saromāhātmya at the time they were copied, this theory gains further support by the fact that the counting of their adhyāya-s continues as if they were not there.

So the interruption or the lack of interruption of counting in a MS can result in discovering a bit of the history of a MS and not improbably of the text itself.

The disruption in counting is not always in connection with missing $adhy\bar{a}ya$ -s. In most cases the number is simply not given for one or more $adhy\bar{a}ya$ -s and is resumed later.

All the cases appearing in our three purāṇa-s can be classified under two main groups: the first is the case when although one or more adhyāya-s do not bear any number, the counting is resumed later as if it had never been discontinued. For instance, Kūrma 19-23 (Crit.) are represented in \$\frac{1}{4}\$ so:18, N., N., N., 22; Varāha 64-66 (Crit.) have the correspondent in \$\frac{1}{4}\$ so:20, N., N., N., 24. Such cases can be multiplied; they show simply that the number was forgotten but that it was available in the MS from which the present one was copied.

The second group is represented by those instances where the resumed number is not the one we would expect and the adhyāya-s without number are either more than they should be or less if we look at their serial number only.

Kūrma 19-23 (Crit) is represented in ₹1 so: 19, N.,N.,N., 22. Instead of 22 there should be 23.

Varāha 1(-13 (Crit.) is represented in दे9 so : 9, N., N., 11. Varāha 39-42 (Crit.) is in \$\frac{2}{45}\$: 35, N., N., 37 and 94-100 (Crit.) is in \$2; 89, N., N., N., -, N., 90 Vāmana SMā 10-12 (Crit.) is in दे7: 10, N., 11

These instances can be multiplied to a great extent, and should be studied individually to discover whether such irregularities are due to carelessness of copyists, to addition of new adhyāya-s or to other possible reasons.

Examples in which the adhyāya-s are less than they should be are: Kūrma II. 13-15 (Crit) in 71:62,-,65

Varāha 79-82 (Crit.) represented in बा as: 81, N., N., 87 87-89 (Crit.) represented in बा as : 92, -, 95 92-94 (Crit.) is in \$2:84, N., 89 112-114 (Crit.) is in दे2: 102, N., 115

These cases are less numerous than the previous ones but as the previous ones cannot be grouped together as a whole, they should be studied attentively and individually and with the help of other sources as well. Interruption and resuming of counting in MSS especially when they spread over many adhyāya-s show that the MSS were copied or dictated from other earlier MSS. The hypothesis of dictation, actually, is the best to explain certain factors which otherwise would not have taken place, had the numbers been copied directly by sight. The clearest example seems to be in MS दे10 of Varāha (=Crit. 50). दे10 has the same numbers as the Critical Edition, but abruptly it has the following sequence: 49, 15, 51. Here adh. 15, which sounds like पञ्चदशोध्याय: in Sanskrit, stands surely for adh. 50, which sounds like पञ्चाशोध्याय: The two words sound quite similar and could be easily confused especially by a less educated scribe who could misinterpret them and understand पञ्चाशोध्यायः for पञ्चदशोध्यायः and vice-versa. Such a mistake would not occur by careless copying as \$10 does not write the words for the numbers but only the figures. On the other hand the mistake was due to 'mishearing', or 'misunderstanding' most probably of the Sanskrit word. Hence we conclude that the number was dictated. We do not know, however, whether the copy from which the dictation was given contained only figures or

words. The number, however, was pronounced and surely not shown. Less clear is the process through which in the same MS, two adhyāya-s earlier, 18 is given in place of 48 (= Crit. 48).

है। and हे। in Kūrma II. 20-22 (= Crit.) have the following sequence: 20,19,22. No 19 in place of No 21 cannot be a mistake of copying as the two figures are so different, but rather of interpreting what was heard, unless, of course, the dictation was wrong, i. e., in place of एक्निव्य it was dictated, heard or interpreted as एकोनविय. The fact, then, that the next adhyāya-s have their proper number seems to imply that these latter were present in the MS which served for dictation. A few other cases can be found: see Varāha 73 (Crit.) in है, 75 (Crit.) in π_1 .

Other mistakes, however, are the results of mistakes of copying. ই10, which writes figures, not words here, in place of Varāha 64-67 (Crit.) has the following sequence: 60, N., 32, 63.ই has been read as ২. All the cases where "বিহা" or its compounds have been interpreted as "বিহা" or the opposite, are again based on wrong reading and not on dictation

The colophons, then, at least in some case, also help us understand the way a MS, or at least a part of it, was transmitted.

d. Repetition of Numbers

The same number of an adhyāya is often repeated in two or even three adjacent chapters. The apparent reason for such a repetition seems to be the copyists' mistake, either done in the very act of writing the number, or as a kind of readjusting a previous mistake which had made the numbering discordant from the examplar MS. Often the repetition takes place when either the numbers of both the adhyāya-s or at least one of them, is given in figures. Mistakes, as is known, are easier in writing figures than words. These repetitions of the same number, however, are difficult to reconcile with copying from a text where the numbers are already written, or from dictation. They fit better the case of a numbering given independently, i. e., after the text had already been fully written, either by the same copyist or by another hand.

To check this last assertion we should see the MS itself. This also, however, would not solve all the problems because such a process might have taken place before the actual MS was copied and the mistakes repeated, i. e., the MS was copied as it was. So, if such 'later additions' cannot be proved for the present MS, we have then through it, evidence of a previous stage of the MS copy.

e. Influence from Other MSS

There are a few instances where the strangeness of counting seems to be due to the influence of another MS either of the same group or of another.

MS $\frac{1}{61}$ of Kūrma purāṇa is rather accurate in the numbers which generally correspond to those of the Critical Edition. From I. 43 (Crit.), however, the MS has for three successive $adhy\bar{a}ya$ -s a double number, as we have already seen, one continues the previous numbering and the other starts from No 46. This new counting continues till the end of the $P\bar{u}rvabh\bar{a}ga$, even when the double numbers stop, except for No 48 (Crit.). Here is the comparison:

Crit. 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49, 50, 51
$$\frac{1}{61}$$
 43/46, 44/47, 45/48, 49, 50, 48, 52, 53, 54

Both in the $adhy\bar{a}ya$ -s with double numbers and in \bar{a}_1 48 (= Crit. 48) we may suppose the presence of an external influence and not a mere mistake as seen in Vāmana 39 (Crit.). But looking at the collated MSS used in preparing this critical edition we do not find any other MS having the second counting nor a parallel MS with No 48 where \bar{a}_1 has it. So we are left with doubt about influences from other MSS.

The case of MS $\stackrel{?}{}_2$ in Kūrma I. 49-51 (Crit.) is clearer. This MS has the following succession: 48-52-50. In the counting, $\stackrel{?}{}_2$ follows the MSS $\stackrel{?}{}_{3-5}$, upt 348, while for the adhyāya 52 the MS has the same number as $\stackrel{?}{}_{1.8-10}$. It is not improbable, then, that No 52 is due to the influence of another MS which had such a number at this point. And clearly the MS was not the one from which $\stackrel{?}{}_2$ was being copied, because later the counting continues with No 50, as if

^{3.} See p. 363.

instead of 52 there was 49. If we suppose that the exemplar MS already had such a distortion, we have simply to shift the problem to some earlier stage of transmission. The insertion of No 52 in this point, whenever it took place, is thus due to the influence of another MS with different numbering.

Another example is in \$1 of the Vamana purana, Saromahatmya. The Critical 21, 22, 23, 24 are represented in ₹1 so: 40, 43. N., 45. Here the counting jumps from No 40 to 43 and then it proceeds regularly. Now, two other MSS, namely दे3 and दे10 belonging to the same group, according to A. S. Gupta in his introduction to the Critical Edition, have in these adhyāya-s the regular succession: 42, 43, 44, 45. It is not improbable, then, that the new counting was established through the influence of MSS other than the exemplar used for copying \$\frac{1}{41}\$. The numbers of this MS \$\frac{1}{41}\$, however, are not always accurate or quite regular and so this new counting starting with No 43 and corresponding to the other MSS \(\frac{1}{3}\) and \(\frac{1}{10}\) could be interpreted as a re-establishment of a numbering which had become irregular through the carelessness of copyists. But this No 43, present in three MSS, and at this point, has surely influenced MS 25. This later MS gives numbers in the whole purana only four times, namely in Crit. 17, where it has No 16 as do several other MSS; in Crit. SMā 12 and 20, where it has No 8 and No 6 respectively, not shared by any other MS and in our adhyāya, i. e., in Crit. SMā 22 where it has No 43. It seems natural to think that these four numbers of MS \are are due to the influence of different MSS, even if it is not possible to know when such an influence took place and which MSS influenced it.

Another case, apparently easy, is in Vāmana purāņa 39 (Crit.). At this point we have this situation:

Crit. 38, 39, 40 दे। 64, 30, 31 दे3 63, 30, 31 हे4 29, 30, 29+ N.,30/61, 61

+A mistake for 31 possibly.

The only regular succession is \$4, where No 30 is in its right place. Such a number seems to have influenced the other three MSS, although in different ways. \$\frac{1}{41}\$ and \$\frac{1}{43}\$, from this adhyāya onward, change their numbering shifting it from 63 or 64 to 30 etc., while दे11 has a double number but then continues its old counting. It seems, however, rather evident that in all cases दे4 (or another MS with such numbering) influenced their numbering.

₹7 of Vāmana purāṇa, finally, represents again another case, similar to ₹5 seen above for Saromāhātmya 22 (Crit.). Here also, like there, the MS does not give the number for several adhyāya-s but then in Crit. 61, suddenly it gives No 88, which is completely isolated and does not fit at all in the numbering this MS was following previously, and which was stopped with No 18 at Crit. 52, i. e., only nine adhyāya-s before. This isolated number 88, then, has no logic at all in this MSS, but it is equal to the number 88 of MS ₹10, where it has its right place. It is not improbable then that ₹7 was influenced by \$\frac{1}{2}10\$ or a similar MS. Such an influence, as said before, did not necessarily occur in the copy of the MS we are considering now; it may have happened earlier and then been faithfully reproduced in the present copy. This influence, at any rate, took place at some point of time in the transmission and evolution

f. Miscellanea

It is almost impossible to refer to all the 'events' described by the colophons of the three purana-s we are considering in the short space of this article. The more one looks at the colophons the more one discovers new things and is puzzled by new problems. Here a few more examples will be presented.

The last colophon of every purana almost always gives details regarding the time, the writing, the copyist of the MS, the sūci of contents, and other data which help in the study of the text and which have thus been used in the introduction to the Critical Edition: Such pieces of information need not be repeated here. There are, however, other quite interesting facts apparent in the colophons for which an answer is still wanting.

MS दे9 of Varāha in Crit. 17, MS दा in Crit. 75, MS दे8 in Crit. 77, MS दे2 and दे10 in Crit. 129 and दे10 in Crit. 139, MS दे11 in Crit. 140ff, MS दा in Crit. 179, MS दा in Crit. 181, MS दा in Crit. 192; Vāmana Saromāhātmya: MS दे5 in Crit. 12 and 20, MS कारा in Crit. 44, all have a number not at all connected with either their own previous or subsequent counting, or with any of the other collated MSS. If such strange insertions are not due to the whim of the copyists, we have some evidence of the existence of other MSS having such a numbering.

We have a case in the Varāha where the interplay between the carelessness or whim of the copyist and the strength of the MS tradition is quite evident. Crit. 104-121 is represented in ₹8 in the following way:

105,96,97,96,99,100, 101, N., 103, 104, N., 106, N., 106, 109, 110, 111, 122

No 122 comes exactly in its right place as if No 105 of the beginning had been followed by Nos 106, 107 etc., and the counting then continues regularly. So the whole chaotic counting between 105 and 122 was the result of the whim of the copyist, but the copy from which the text was taken must have had a complete and orderly succession to allow the copyist to resume the counting in the right way. Naturally such a corruption of the text may have taken place at different times of the text's transmission.

Similar cases seem rather frequent and so the interplay between the old numbering and the new numbering due to purposeful change, influence of other MSS and the whim of copyists is not unlikely. MS \$\frac{1}{1}\$ in Varāha 150-169 (Crit.) seems also to have had such a kind of multiple interplay. The same for \$\pi_3\$ in Varāha 178-189 (Crit.), where the counting is resumed in the right way after a long interruption and apparently not by mere chance. No 4, in fact, which is inserted in between (cf. Crit. 181) without any connection at all with other MSS is not considered in the count, as it is proper. The same thing is repeated, with due variants, in Kūrma I. 31-34 (Crit.) by \$\frac{1}{4}\$ and most probably also in Kūrma 32-40 (Crit.) by \$\frac{1}{4}\$ and in Vāmana 42-46 (Crit.) by \$\frac{1}{4}\$1.

There are two cases, one in Kūrma and the other in Vāmana, which seem to suggest that the mistake presented in their numbering at this point, was the result of prior copying and that the present copies of the MSS reproduce faithfully what was written in the exemplar.

MSS म2, म1, उ1 दे3-4, 8-10 in Kūrma II. 28-30 (Crit.) have the succession 28, 19, 30. No 19 is clearly a mistake for 29. Now it is highly improbable that eight MSS might have committed the same mistake simultaneously. It is, therefore, sensible to suppose that the mistake was already present in the MSS and was copied faithfully. How such a mistake crept in is a matter of conjecture: we may think that it started with one MS and then it spread. We may also think that not all these mistakes are interdependent; it is possible that also individual casual mistakes may have occurred, but it is difficult to imagine that all the eight copyists made the same mistake in just the very copies we happen to possess at present.

The other case is in Vāmana 43-46 (Crit.). The MSS with mistakes in this point are \$1-2, \$\frac{1}{6}\$1 and \$\frac{2}{6}\$4. They have :

बा 34, 25, 36, 27

ब₂ N., 35, 36, 27

दे1 34, 35, 26, N.

₹434, 35, 26, N.

No 25 of all is an isolated mistake and could have been committed either by the copyist of this MS or it could have been there already and just re-copied. Regarding the other two mistakes of द1.4, i. e., No 26 instead of 36, and of द1-2, No 27 instead of 37, it is more difficult to accept the theory that the present copyists are responsible. The case is similar to the previous one, but since the mistakes are present only in two MSS the hypothesis is far less secure.

The last two examples given here, however, suggest the possibility of also discovering the origin of mistakes in a MS by considering its colophons.

THE PROBLEM OF THE NAME OF PURANA AND ADHYĀYA

We have so fare considered only or mainly the numbers given in the colophons. Now we must give attention to their words.

The Critical Apparatus of the three purana-s we are studying divides the words of the colophons under two headings: the name of purāņa and the name of adhyāya. The distinction is not always rigid, the usual separation-mark between the two being more an external than an internal criterion. If the description is put in the locative, it should be considered to refer to the purana or to some broader unit than the single adhyāya, if it is in the nominative then it should be considered to refer to the adhyāya. A perusal of colophons, however, shows that such a division could not be applied in all cases in the Critical Edition.

The Critical Apparatus of Kūrma I. 16 puts under the name adhyaya वामनप्राद्भवि of ब2, दे3.5.6 and त्रिविक्रमचरिते of दे1-2.8-10 and मुए as well as वामनप्रादुर्भावो नाम of दे।, प्रा-2 and त्रिविक्रमचरितवर्णनं नाम of मवें.

The Critical Apparatus of Varāha 74 considers रुद्रगीतासु भुवनकोशे of \$\frac{1}{45}\$ as the name of the purana, while the same expression is considered name of the adhyaya by the Critical Apparatus of adhyāya 75. This shows that the division between the two headings is somewhat artificial, although it is normally rather useful, especially if it is not accepted with rigidity.

The first and last adhyāyas of the purāṇa, or of a bhāga, or even of a sub-topic, are particularly accurate in almost all the MSS. The other adhyaya-s instead have usually very short colophons. The beginning and the end of the purana, hence, may be considered to have the exact name of the purana, sometimes the date, the place of copying and the scribe's name. These details are usually studied by scholars and the pertinent conclusions have already been ascertained. But we can use this tendency of being more accurate in the first, and especially the last adhyaya of a bhaga, or of a subdivision, to confirm that the part we are considering has really reached an end. It can even be a hint that the adhyaya-s had a life independent of the rest of the purana in which they are now inserted. Although this is only a hint, it has to be taken under serious consideration though it should also be confirmed by other facts as well. The section, described as वामनप्राद्रभीव in the Vāmana purana, is called by this name:

in adh	1	by 2 MSS
	2	2
	3	on back tree
	4	
	5	
	6	8
	7	storie Lilings
	0	1000

The tendency mentioned above would suggest that the वामनप्राद्भांव ended with adhyāya 6 or at least that this colophon was the last of this section. In fact, however, the adhyāya deals with कामदाह which appears also in the name of adhyāya given in this same colophon. The topic is Śaiva not Vaiṣṇava and it can hardly refer to वामनप्रादुर्भाव. So we have to suppose, as implied above, that this part of the colophon describing a sub-division of the purāṇa is older that the text itself, and that it was left unchanged even though it no longer matches the section to which it is allied. MS बा, which has वामनप्राद्धभाव also in adh. 8, i e., after the conclusion of the section, might have used it because that adhyāya,8, deals with Vaiṣṇava material. In this case, than, the word would not be a remnant of an older stage of the purāṇa as in the previous cases, but an innovation of the particular scribe of this MS.

The topic 'vamsa' is dealt with in Kūrma I.13-26. The colophons use the expression वंशानुकीर्ताने or a similar one in the following rate:

```
adh. 13 in 11 MSS
n market det el4
             1
        15
        16
        17
             10
             14
        18
        19
             13
             15
        20
             12
        21
             8
        22
        23
        24
        25
```

Although the sequence of this rate presents the highest numbers in the middle, the rule of having also accurate description in most of MSS at the end is kept; and the unit of this topic is well defined both at its beginning and at its end.

A tendency which may sometimes interfere with the example just given occurs very often and requires further consideration. Not infrequently we find MSS which, although usually having inaccurate colophons, all of a sudden have one or more adhyāya-s with very accurate and detailed colophons. This process is even more evident when it happens simultaneously in many MSS of the same adhyāya. Such is the case of Vāmana 11 (Crit.) where unexpectedly all the collated MSS present पष्करद्वीपवर्णनं नाम, with the exception of MS कारा. The fact is more evident for the group of MSS a1-3, \$4.7.11 and \$\frac{1}{12}\$ which are rather irregular about giving the names of adhyāya-s in this part of the text, but all of a sudden have this adhyaya, and a few others, uniformly described in their colophons. A rather reasonable suggestion to understand this phenomenon is to suppose that these adhyāya-s are fresh insertions, i. e., added to the purāna in a more recent time from that of the other adhyāya-s. Even the clearly defined booklets, like Iśvaragitā of Kūrma, Vārānasimāhātmya or Prayagamahatmya of Vamana have more accurate colophons in almost all the MSS and we know that these parts are later imports. This, then, seems to confirm that an accurate colophon in all the MSS indicates a more recent date for that specific adhyāya. In the same perspective we can think that a colophon may be used by some author with the intention of establishing a new trend in the purana.

Name of Purāņa

The three purana-s studied here have rather uniform descriptions of the name of the purana in the colophons. There are a few things which, however, deserve additional attention.

While Vāmana purāṇa is not qualified as आदि, both Kūrma and Varāha bear the title of आदि but in two different ways. Kūrma is usually called श्री आदिमहापुराणे कुर्मे (or कौर्मे), with rare exceptions —see Crit. I. 11 in MS बा which has इत्यादि कौर्मे. So, although the

word आदि in the latter purāṇa may have the same general meaning of 'important', 'great', as it has in the former, its very position makes the statement of the Introduction to the Varāha (English translation) that आदि may refer also to आदिवराह completely justified. Not improbably there is a kind of pun, आदि keeping both in meanings. The word आदि could be attached directly to वराह because in literature there is in fact an 'Ādivarāha', but it was not attached to क्म because there is no Ādikūrma in literature.

Kūrma purāņa has two bhāga-s which are described also in Nārada I. 106 as पूर्वभाग and उत्तरभाग. The colophons, although keeping the two bhaga-s, present a different situation. The पूर्वभाग is there so called only in the last adhyāya, while उत्तरभाग has different names in the MSS: उत्तरखण्ड, उत्तरार्घ, उपरिभाग and उपरिविभाग, which was accepted by the Critical Edition as the 'official name'. So the two bhaga-s have a completely different treatments in the MSS. From what has been said so far about the momentum of the colophons, it seems that this very situation of MSS on this topic should lead us to think that the two present bhaga-s did not have the same origin but that they are two parts juxtaposed. It may not even be completely out of logic to think that the adhyāya-s having the same type of description may belong to the same 'group': so we would have adhyāya-s of the उत्तरार्घ, adhyāya-s of the उत्तरभाग and so on. Whether these adhyāya-s of different groups had also a separate life needs further research.

The Varāha purāṇa is described in almost all its colophons as মান্তভাকে. Such a word is not mentioned in Nārada I. 103, nor is it available in the group of adhyāya-s 39-47, and a few others not noted here. Is there any reason why this section has no such a word, or is it only mere chance? Further research is needed surely. It should be noted, however, that the adhyāya-s 39-50 form a sort of booklet called ঘ্যার্থ and that no MS of this booklet has the definition মান্তভাকে upto adh. 47. As for the other next adhyāya-s: in 48 such a description appears only in MSS दे3.4 but the two MSS have no text of the adhyāya, they have only the colophon; in adh. 49 it is present only in MS दे4. In adhyāya 50 it is

available in several MSS. So the only difficulty comes from this latter adhyāya, which is the conclusion of the booklet. It is not improbable, then, that this 'booklet' was 'built up' with additional adhyāya-s (those without भगवच्छास्त्र) from a previous few adhyāya-s (those with भगवच्छास्त्र) of the same topic.

There are a few fascinating descriptions in the three purāṇa-s we are considering which, if they were more numerous, would lead us to a better understanding of the structure of the purāṇa-s. Unfortunately their irregularity is such that not even the least conclusion or hypothesis can be drawn.

In Kūrma there are 12 adhyāya-s claiming to belong to a षट् साह- सिकायां संहितायाम् and 3 adhyāya-s to a वैयासिक्यां संहितायाम्. In Varāha one adhyāya says it belongs to a चतुर्विश्वतिसाहिक्रकायां संहितायाम्. 4 adhyāya-s describe themselves as belonging to वैयासिक्याम् and one is called वैशंपायनीय. Vāmana purāṇa, at last, has one adhyāya, the 28th, where MS बा says पारमहंस्यां संहितायां वैयासिक्याम्. At this we can add the long section, adh. 35-96, of the Varāha-purāṇa and some 14 adhyāya-s at random, where almost all the colophons have the description प्राणितिहास. All these are at present only words, very suggestive indeed, but not more than that; they are enough to make us understand, however, that the colophons are persistently offering suggestions toward the discovery of a time when the purāṇa-s had a shape other than the present one.

b. Name of Adhyāya

Each adhyāya has its name, which presents one of the topics dealt with in the adhyāya itself, most probably the one considered somewhat more important for any reason whatsoever. Not infrequently one topic extends over more than one adhyāya, so the few adhyāya-s dealing with that topic may bear the same name or may be given two names, one referring to the larger theme and the other describing more closely the specific topic of the adhyāya. So we may have kinds of units or small sections formed of a few or several adhyāya-s. Often such sections are concluded in the colophon with the word समासम्. Such sections may have belonged to the more ancient form of the purāṇa or have been added later, but by the very fact of being easily definable and even with a beginning and

an end clearly recognizable make their 'mobility' easier. So, even if they were originally composed for the purāṇa itself they may have had, later, an independent life more easily than other parts not so clearly defined. Their very independence may have transformed them more or less. Small sections, of course, are easily recognizable and if they are compact they can be easily assigned to recent additions or old sections. We have many examples of such small sections in our three purāṇa-s; here are the clearest and most important.

In Kūrma purāņa we can see:

—युगधर्मकीर्त्तनम्	5-0	2 adhyāya-s		(1.27-28)
—वाराणसीमाहात्म्यम्	-	5	-do-	(I.29-33)
—प्रयागमाहात्म्यम्		4	-do-	(I.34-37)
—ईश्वरगीता	_	11	·do-	(II.1-11)
—तीर्थप्रशंसा	_	5	-do-	(II.33-37)

In Varāha purāņa:

```
--रैभ्यचरितम
                      4 adhyāya-s (5-8)
—दूर्जयचरितम्
                      - 3 -do- (10-12)
                     - 12 ·do· (39-50)
—धरणीव्रतम
                      - at least 19 adhyāya-s (52-71)
-अगस्त्यगीता
                         at least 7 -do-
—भुवनकोश
                         19 adhyāya-s (70-88)
--- रुद्रगीता
 —मथरामाहातम्यम
                         29
                               -do- (150-178)
 —गोकर्णेश्वरमाहात्म्यम्
                         5 -do-
```

etc.

In Vāmana purāņa:

etc.

When the adhyāya-s are many, or the topic is rather vast, like the Vāmana's वामनप्रादुर्भाव, भैरवप्रादुर्भाव, the section can become very extensive and be a kind of 'collection' of many topics loosely related among themselves. Such sections may recall to mind the samhitā-s

of which the purāṇa-s are sometimes said to be composed.⁴ Such samhitā-s, of course, can grow endlessly and contain also other sub-sections. The Vāmana purāṇa is a good example of such a development. Its scheme given below, prepared only on the basis of the colophons evidence, shows exactly this situation:

- वामनप्रादुर्भाव adhs. 1-8
- भैरवप्रादुर्भाव adhs. 9-21
- 1. हरललित adhs. 1-5
- भुवनकोश
 (or सुकेशिचरित)
 adhs. 11-16
- 3. देवीमाहात्म्य adhs. 18.38-21

— उमासंभव — उमा (गौरी) विवाह
upto adhs. 30
— कौमारसंभव
adhs. 31-32
— दण्डोपाख्यान
adhs. 37-45

- 3. भैरवप्रादुर्वाव adhs. 28-44
- 4. वामनप्रादुर्भाव adhs. 44-68
- 4. प्रह्लादतीर्थयात्रा adhs. 52-61
- त्रिविक्रमचरित upto adhs. 68

It appears, then, that the topics are gathered in sections which can be arranged, as in the above scheme, into two or three streams: the first is represented by the general sections which are वामनप्रादुर्भाव, भैरवप्रादुर्भाव, and again वामनप्रादुर्भाव; the second is represented by several themes which run parallel to the first: हरलित, भुवनकोश, प्रह्लादतीर्थयात्रा, त्रिविक्रमचरित. The देवीमाहात्म्य is parallel to the more general theme भैरवप्रादुर्भाव but has, on its turn, topics which are subordinate to it, although its name does not appear. So at this point there are in fact three contemporaneous streams.

The Saromāhātmya, not put in the above scheme, is a kind of samhitā by itself inserted into the body of the Vāmana

Brahmānda II. 34.21; Devi Bhāgavata I. 1.6; I. 2.37; I. 3.24 ff; Linga I. 1.11 ab; Nārada I. 1.16; II. 82.35 cd; Padma II 125.38; Skanda VII. 1.1.4,30....; Viṣṇu III 6.15; cf. also Purāṇa XXII No. 1 (Jan., 1980) pp. 48-52.

purāṇa; the reason for its acceptance in the Critical Edition has been explained in the Introduction to the Vāmana by A. S. Gupta. Such a māhātmya contains at least a वामनवरित as a distinguishable unit. Problematic remains the new counting started by MS दे7 in SMā 23 (Crit.). Whether another section began from this point or not cannot be determined. From what was said both for Saromāhātmya and for the rest of the Vāmana purāṇa there is no doubt that at least some purāṇa-s contain co-existent sections, which apparently interfered reciprocaly and had possibly also an independent life of their own.

Such sections or sub-sections are marked by the colophons in some cases with words like समाप्तम् or other special words. So दे1.3-4 of Varāha has प्रथमोहेश: (see Crit. 111), Varāha 97 (Crit.) in all the MSS, except दे1.7, म1 gives पर्वाध्यायः. Both words suppose an end of a part; the first supposes the existence of other उद्देश-s, which no longer exist, not even in the MS having that word, and the second suggests the existence of a sūci or summary in that adhyāya, but such a summary is not available even in the MS containing that very expression. So both the words take us back to a stage of the purāṇa previous to the present one.

Other words hint possibly at divisions of the text no longer apparent in the present one. The Varāha purāṇa has several adhyāya-s called sarga-s. The reason of such a denomination is not clear. Did such adhyāya-s, which now alternate the two words सर्ग and अध्याय, form group by themselves? Sections could be determined by words like आदिसर्ग, आदिवृत्तान्त available in Varāha purāṇa or by special description of the adhyāya-s applied only to a specific group of adhyāya-s as in the case of the 'Îśvaragītā' of the Kūrma purāṇa where the adhyāya-s are said to belong, in the colophons, to ईश्वरगीतासु उपनिषद्मु ब्रह्मविद्यायां योगशास्त्रे.

Not infrequently long sections are formed under a general description of a dialogue between two persons, for instance ईश्वरनारायण महिष्सिंवाद of Kūrma II. 1-11.

A note of warning should be put here not to be misunderstood. In the previous paragraphs there has been constant reference to sections, units, topics and the like. That presentation may

convey the impression that the adhyaya-s forming the topics etc. were existing separately from the purana and inserted in it by way of accretion. Such a process cannot be excluded, but cannot even be affirmed a priori. Such sections could be intrinsic parts of the purana from its very original composition. Each case has to be studied separately. The fact of calling them 'sections' or the like, however, implies surely that they had more mobility because they were more definite and could be easily shifted from one place to another. The research done on the colophons till now shows the interesting fact that some of these sections changed in themselves without shifting. Some colophons continue to refer to them as if they continued to exist but the contents of their adhyaya-s are now different. It is just this discrepancy that allows us to have a peep into a previous stage of the purana-s.

3. THE CHALLENGE OF COLOPHONS

The colophons offer, no doubt, many pieces of information about the contents and structure of the purana-s. We have to consider, of course, only those colophons which really have something serious to say because, in fact, most of them are so carelessly transmitted that they have nothing to offer but confusion or nonsenses. To work on colophons is to work on difficult and slippery material.

Almost every time I got some result or conclusion by examining the colophons, such as a particular division of the text, or the information that a colophon was hinting at an older stage of the purana etc., and I tried to check by looking into the text or by reading the conclusions to which R.C. Hazra and other scholars had arrived through other ways, I was disappoined. There has been hardly a case in which the result found by studying the colophons and the conclusions reached in other ways matched. The only slight success was that through the examination of the colophons I could sustain the opinion of Winternitz that the Vāmana purāna began with the account of the Vāmana avatāra, although at present no MS used in the Critical Edition mentions it. A meagre consolation indeed. For all practical purposes the colophons appear, at first, completely useless. To study them seems to be a mere academical exercise.

Yet we have seen that some colophons or some indications imposed by the colophons are quite important. We have seen how many times we were taken back to a previous stage of the puranic text. Indeed, it seems that the lack of counterproofs of what is implied by the colophons in the actual puranic text is exactly the real positive contribution of some colophons, i.e., the reliable ones! They were surely written carelessly and just for that they were not always changed according to the new modifications inserted in the text. Or, to see the problem from another perspective, those who introduced new material in the puranic text did not care to change also the colophons accordingly. However, if we reconstruct the scheme and the contents of the purana-s by using only the colophons we get, in some points, a picture of the purana totally different from the present one. The tendency to be more conservative, which we have noted on several occasions in the colophons, makes us postulate that the difference between the two contents of the purana-s, the one described by the colophons and the present one, is of great importance and one which should be attentively considered. It appeared already, in fact, that in some cases such a difference shows us topics of a previous stage of the purana. And that stage, we have seen in one instance at least, can be antecedent to the scheme in Nārada purāna I.92-109. If the study of the single adhyāya-s may lead us to find older and more recent passages or adhyāya-s, the study of the colophons may lead us to discover the structure of a part or of the whole purana. The colophons, therefore, remain as a persistent challenge to go further in our research and penetrate deeper in the process of the evolution of the puranic text.

BUDDHA AS DEPICTED IN THE PURAŅAS

By

RAM SHANKAR BHATTACHARYA

It is well known that the authors of the current Purāṇas (which include here the Upapurāṇas and the Epics) were aware of Buddha or the Buddha (on account of his attaining bodhi, supreme wisdom)—the founder of a particular system of thought. Almost all the Purāṇas are found to refer to this great thinker. In the following pages an attempt is made to depict the life and activities of Buddha on the basis of the Purāṇas. Only in some important places we have thought it useful to quote from the Tantras and other non-Purāṇic works. Views of Buddhist tradition have also been shown whenever necessary.

A careful study of the statements about Buddha (as quoted here) reveals that all of them are not referring to one and the same person. We want to draw the attention of our readers to this remarkable point.

In the absence of the critical editions of all the Purāṇas we have thought it better to refrain from holding any discussion on textual criticism or on spuriousness of any of the Purāṇic statements quoted here.

The word buddha

In the Purāṇas the word buddha is found to have been used either as an adjective² (from the root budh, to know with the suffix

- That passages on Buddha were present in the Purāṇas before the time of Kumārila is undoubtedly proved from his statement in the Tantravārttika on Mimāmsā-sūtra 1.3.7 (समर्थते च पुराणेषु धर्मविष्लुतिहेतवः। कलौ शाक्यादयस्तेषां को वाक्यं श्रोतुमर्हति ॥; it is quoted in the Tantrādhikārinirṇaya pp. 9-10 (with the reading तेषां को वा संश्रोतुमर्हति).
- 2. एतद् बुद्ध्वा भवेद् बुद्धः किमन्यद् बुद्धलक्षणम् (Śānti-p. 285. 32; cp. Brahma p. 237.11) अतीतानागतं ज्ञानं दर्शनं सांप्रतस्य च । बुद्धस्य समतां याति दीप्तिः स्यात् तप उच्यते ॥ (Vāyu-p. 119). व्यपेततन्द्रिर्धर्मात्मा शक्त्या सत्पथमाश्रितः । चारित्रपरमो बुद्धो ब्रह्मभूयाय कल्पते ॥ (Anuśāsana-p. 142.33; the verse describes a per-

kta denoting the sense of an agent: कर्तिर कः) or as a noun referring to a particular person who was regarded as an incarnation of Viṣṇu by the authors of the Purāṇas. A few Purāṇic verses are found to refer to Buddha though they do not contain the word Buddha or its synonyms. As for example Nāradīya 1.2.44 extols Buddha though it does not mention the name even indirectly.3

Buddha has been referred to in the Purāṇas by the following three names also: Buddhadeva (Padma-p. 6.31.15), Buddharūpa (Brahma-p. 122.69) and Siddhārtha (Matsya-p. 271.12).

Mention of Buddha in the Purāņas

Buddha has been mentioned in the Purāṇic passages that either (1) show eulogy or glory of Viṣṇu (especially in those passages that enumerate the ten incarnations of Viṣṇu)⁴ or (2) contain

son in the Vānaprastha state); The adjective buddha has been used in connection with various deities, namely Siva, Viṣṇu, etc. (Linga-p. 1.21.10, 40; Kūrma p. 1.6.15, 1.10 48, Harivamśa-p. 3.3.25, Padma p. Bhūmi 31.43). Similarly the word sugata (frequently used by the Buddhist teachers for Buddha) has been used in Linga-p. 1.98.98 in the sense of one whose gata i.e. jñāna is perfect. Buddha as an adjective may also be derived from the word बुद्ध with the secondary suffix अब according to Pāṇini 5.2.127.

- 3. भूम्यादिलोकत्रित यं सन्तृप्तात्मानमात्मिन । पश्यन्ति निर्मलं शुद्धं तमीशानं भजाम्यहम् ॥ (Nāradīya-p. 1.2.24; the reading seems to be slightly corrupt); the stanza occurs in the Bṛ-Nāradīya-p. 2.39 also (संह्त्यात्मानमात्मना । पश्यन्ति योगिनः सर्वे तमीशानं). That these verses refer to Buddha is beyond doubt, for they eulogize Viṣṇu and they are read after the verses extolling Paraśurāma, Rāma and Balarāma.
- 4. Brahma-p. 122.69; Padma-p. Bhūmi 18.66; 73.92; Padma-p. Uttara 31.15, 257.41, Padma-p. Kriyāyog asāra-p. 6.188, 11.94; Bhāgavata-p. 1.3.24, 2.7.37, 6.8.19, 10.40.22, 11.4.22; Nāradīya-p. 1.2.44, 1.62.54, 2.29.42, 2.32.36; Agni-p. 16.1-2; Bhavisya-p. 4.12 23-29, 4 63.23, 6.83. 190.6 7; Brahmavaivarta p. 4 9.12; Linga-p. 2.48. 31b-32a; Varāha-p. 4.2, 55.37, 113.42, 211.69; Skanda-p. Avanti 42.14; Skanda-p. Revā 151.21-2; Skanda-p. Kumārikā 40.255-256; Skanda-p. Vāsudeva Māhātmya 18.41; Skanda-p. Sūtasamhitā 3.21; Matsya p. 47.247, 54.19, 285.7; Garuḍa-p. 1.1.32, 1.86.10-11; 1.145.40, 2.20.31-32; Šiva p. II. 2.16.11; II. 4.9.15; Devībhāga-vata-p. 10.5.14; Viṣṇudharmottara-p. 3.351.54; Devī p.

accounts of incarnations or forms of Viṣṇu. In a few Purāṇas Buddha is mentioned in the genealogical lists of (future) kings (vide Matsya-p. 271.12, etc.) or in the descriptions of Kaliyuga.⁵

A few Purāṇic passages (not found in the printed editions) on Buddha are found to have been quoted in the works on Dharma-sāstra etc. A considerable number of such passages have also been quoted in the present paper.

The Rāmāyaṇa passage यथा हि चौरः स तथा हि बुद्धस् तथागतं नास्तिक-मत्र विद्धि (Ayodhyā 109.34) which is taken as referring to Buddha (it is however regarded by many as an interpolation) does not, according to us, really refer to Buddha. The word buddha in this passage simply means 'a person possessing the buddhi(opinion, conviction) that has been described in the preceding verse (109.33). It may be easily observed that in spite of the use of the words yathā and tathā, there arises no logical difficulty in taking the word buddho in the aforesaid sense. 7

^{6.5;} Saura-p. 15.25; Br. dharma-p. 2.11.72; Narasimha-p. 36.9; Br. Nāradīya-p. 2.39; Kallhi-p. 2.3; Purāṇa-samhitā 8.81; Viṣṇudharma-p. ch. 66, (MS); Mbh. Sānti-p. 348.2; 348. 41-42 (Kum. ed.).

^{5.} Brahmānda-p. 2.31.60; Brahma-p. 230.13; Āgneya-p. (MS) 29.41 (vide St. Up. I, p. 145).

^{6.} निन्दाम्यहं कर्म कृतं पितुस्तद् यस्त्वामगृहणाद् विषमस्थबुद्धिम् । बुद्ध्यान-यैवंविधया चरन्तं सुनास्तिकं धर्मपथादपेतम् (Rāmāyaṇa 2.109.33).

^{7.} It is remarkable to note that even the later Upaniṣads do not mention Buddha. Maddhva, the teacher of the Dvaita school, has however quoted an Upaniṣad passage (on avatāra) which mentions Buddha (वासुदेव: संकर्षण: प्रद्युम्नोऽनि-रुद्धोऽहं मत्स्य: राम: कुष्णो बुद्ध: किल्करहं....). There is ample reason to doubt about the genuineness of this statement, for Jiva-gosvāmin in his Śrīkṛṣṇa-sandarbha expressly declared that the aforesaid passage was to be taken as a Śruti statement on the authority of Madhva (मध्यमाध्य-प्रमाणिता श्रुति:, p. 156, ed. Bhaktivicāra Yāyāvara). About the genuineness of many of the Śruti passages quoted by Madhva in his works modern scholars have expressed their doubt; vide the article by Venkata Subbiya in Indian Antiquary of 1933 (p. 189).

Points to be observed in the aforesaid Puranic passages

Following points are to be observed in connection with the Puranic references to Buddha:

- (i) Leaving only a few, almost all the Puranas refer to Buddha.
- (ii) Non-mention is found in the older Purāṇas (like the Mār-kandeya-p.) as well as in the later Purāṇas (like the Vāmana-p.).8
- (iii) If Buddha is not mentioned in the list of the ten incarnations, then Kṛṣṇa, or some other incarnation is mentioned in order to complete the number.
- (iv) Those Purāṇas that do not refer to Buddha sometimes mention the Bauddhas though disdainfully; vide Kūrma-p. 1.30-13; 2.21.32.
- (v) While Buddha is invariably followed by Kalki (or Kalkin) in the lists of the ten incarnations of Viṣṇu, he is preceded by Balarāma or by Kṛṣṇa or by Vyāsa in different Purāṇas.
- (vi) Some Purāṇas do not invariably mention Buddha in all of its passages that enumerate or deal with the incarnations of Viṣṇu. As for example, the Brahma-p. which mentions Buddha in 122.69 (in a eulogy to Viṣṇu) describes the incarnations of Viṣṇu without describing Buddha in ch. 213; The Śāati-p. 348.2 (Kum. ed.) refers to Buddha, but is silent (in a different recention) on Buddha in 339. 103-104 (which mention Hamsa and Sātvata i. e. Kṛṣṇa); the Bhāgavata-p. in more then one place mentions Buddha, but is silent on him in 10.2.40; the Bhaviṣya-p. mentions Buddha in 4.63.23 and 4.190.6-7 but is silent on him in 4.85.10 and 4.76.44.9
 - 8. It is remarkable to note that the Prapañcasāra-tantra (ascribed to Śańkarācārya) does not mention Buddha while enumerating the ten incarnations of Viṣṇu (मत्स्यः कूर्मवराहौ नृ सिंहकुङ्जित्ररामकृण्णाश्च । किल्कः सानन्तात्मा 1959); cp. the Lalitāsahasranāma-bhāsya by Bhāskara: ''क्रमेण मत्स्य-कूर्म-वराह-नरसिंह-वामन-भार्गव-दाशरथि-हलधर-कृष्ण-किल्क-रूपदशावतारान् उत्पाद्य ते निष्टिताः, p. 49).
 - 9. About the non-mention of Buddha as an incarnation in the Agneya-purāṇa (i. e. Vahni-purāṇa which is older than and different from the current Agni-purāṇa) the observations of Dr. Hazra are worth noticing: "The

The place of reading Buddha's name in the list of incarnations.

In the Purāṇic enumerations of the ten incarnations of Viṣṇu, Buddha is mentioned usually in the ninth place; sometimes the word navama or navamaka has been used in connection with Buddha in these enumerations; vide Matsya-p. 47.247, Linga-p. 2.48. 30-32, Garuḍa-p. 1.86. 1011; 2.20. 31-32, Śiva-p. 2.4.9.25; Skanda-Revā. 151.21. Only in a few places Buddha's name is read in places other than nine.

In the accounts of Viṣṇu's forms or incarnations numbering much more than ten, no fixed place is given to Buddha though he is described in the 21st place in more than one Purāṇic chapter. It is to be noted that the order of names of the ten incarnations is generally fixed—it begins with Matsya and ends with Kalki. The order in which the forms or incarnations of Viṣṇu have been described elaborately in the Purāṇas does not seem to be so well-established as the order of the ten incarnations. It appears that the list of the ten incarnations was conceived to serve some purpose.

Buddha described as a yogin or a sannyāsin

In a few Purāṇic passages Buddha has been clearly described as a yogin. 10 He is said to be a yogācārya in Siva-p. II.5.16.11. In Agni-p. 49.8 Buddha has been described as ज्ञान्तात्मन् (having a pacified mind), उद्धवीपद्मस्थित (its meaning is not clear, though it un-

mention of the ten incarnations of Viṣṇu in three places in the Āgneya-p. (ch. 3, 23 and 28) does not necessarily mean that the Buddha was one of them. Although the Buddha has been named as the founder of a heretical faith in Āgneya-p. 29.41 (fol. 102 b) there is not the slightest indication in this Purāṇa that he came to be regarded as an incarnation of Viṣṇu. This shows that the ten incarnations include both Kṛṣṇa and Balarāma instead of Buddha." (Studies in the Genuine Āgneya-purāṇa', in Our Heritage, Vol. III, p. 83, fn.)

10. घराबद्धपद्मासनस्थाङ् ज्ञियष्टि नियम्यानिलं न्यस्तनासाप्रदृष्टिः । य आस्ते कलौ योगिनां चक्रवर्ती स बुद्धः प्रबुद्धोऽस्तु मच्चित्तवर्ती (Dasāvatārastotra attributed to Śańkarācārya, verse 9). As to why Siddhārtha was called Buddha, the statement in the Buddhist work Sūtroddesālańkāra is worthy of note (अनुगतमतीतमभ्युपेतं चरमचरं क्षयिताक्षयं च कृत्स्नम् । यत इह स बुबोध बोधिमूले बुधसहितो भगवान् ततः स बुद्धः ॥, quoted in the comm. Trikāṇḍa-cintāmaṇi on Amarakośa).

doubtedly suggests some secret yoga practice)11; in Matsya-p. 54.19 he is described as शान्त and in Skanda-Revā 151.21 as शान्तिमत्; in Devi-purana 6.5 he is described as शृद्धसद्भावभाव (whose ideas are purely holy), शुद्ध बुद्धतन्द्भव (born of a purified body) and रागद्वेषविनि-मुक्त (free from attachment and hatred); in Visnudharma he is described as नराणामथ नारीणां दयां भूतेषु दर्शयन् (vide Studies in the Upapurānas I p. 144) which is suggestive of Buddha's being a sannyāsin, for showing compassion to all creatures is one of the chief characteristics of sannyāsins. 12 The Purānic assertion that Buddha was clad in clothes of brown-red colour (काषायवस्त्रवसंवीत Santi-p. 348.2 Kum. ed; Cr. ed. App. 1, no 31) also proves that he was a sannyāsin.13. Buddha is sometimes decribed as wearing a red cloth (रक्तवासस् Devi-p. 6. 5; रक्ताम्बरव्यञ्जिताङ्ग, Visnudharma, Ch. 66; vide 'St. Up.' I. p. 144,—a view which is found in the philosophical works also14. The Viṣṇu-p. (3.17-18) speaks of मायामोह (who may be taken as a form of Buddha [Māyāmo ha has been clearly stated as the same as Buddha in Agni-p. 16.2] as wearing red cloth (raktapa‡a). Are we to take rakta as the same as kāṣāya or to think that one of these two descriptions is older than the other or that there were two different views about the colour of Buddha's garment?

The names of the parents, wife and son of Buddha

In the Purāṇas Buddha's father is usually called शुद्धोदन 15

^{11.} Cp. the description of Buddha in the Merutantra : पद्मे पद्मासनस्यं तमूर्वोर्न्यस्तकरद्वयम् । गौरमुण्डितसर्वाङ्गं ध्यानस्तिमित- लोचनम् ॥

^{12.} G. Dh. S. 3.23-24; Yāj. Smṛti 3.61; Manu-smṛti 6.39.

^{13.} The Bauddhas are often described in the Purāṇas as putting on brown-red garment; see ''काषायवाससः शूद्रा....शाक्यबुद्धो- पजीविनः' (Brahmāṇḍa-p. 2.31.59-60); काषायिणश्च निर्ग्रन्था बौद्धाः भविष्यन्ति क्लौ युगे (Saura-p. 4.24)

¹⁴ यथा रक्तपटानां विज्ञानावस्थानेऽपि.... (Śārīraka-bhāṣya 2.2.35); रक्तपटधारणं वा दिगम्बरता वाऽवलम्ब्यताम् (Nyāyamañjarī,I, p. 244) संघो रक्ताम्बरत्वं च शिश्विये बौद्धभिक्षुभिः (Vivekavilāsa 8.275).

^{15.} शुद्धोदनसुतः.... (Agni-p. 16.2) शुद्धोदनस्य पुत्रोऽभूत् स्वयं देवो जनार्दनः (Varāha-p. quoted in Kṛtyaratnākara, p. 248). शाक्यात् शुद्धोदनो नृपः। शुद्धोदनस्य भविता सिद्धार्थः पुष्कलः सुतः॥

—a view which is in consonance with the Buddhist tradition. ¹⁶ There are also a few Purāṇic statements that declare that the name of his father is Añjana, Ajana, Ajina or even Jina. ¹⁷ According to Buddhist tradition Añjana is the name of the father of Buddha's mother. ¹⁸ The exact form of this second name (as mentioned in

(Matsya-p. 271.13). शुद्धोदनसुतो बुद्धो भविष्यामि (Viṣṇu-dharma; vide 'St. Up.' I, p. 144) वस्त्रपाणे: शुद्धोदनः, शुद्धोदनाद् बुधः, बुधादादित्यवंशो निवर्तते (Narasimha-p. 22.15), [Budha is either to be corrected to Buddha or to be taken as a name of Buddha; see सर्वज्ञः सुगतो बुधः (Vyādi, quoted in the Vyākhyā-sudhā comm. on Amara 1.1.13).] Narasimha-p. 26.12 shows the same order replacing Vastra-pāṇi by Astrapāṇi. The Viṣṇu-p. mentions Śuddhodana and Rāhula but not Buddha in its chapter on genealogy (4.22). As Buddha abandoned kingship his name was not mentioned in the genealogical list. The Kalki-p. speaks of Śuddhodana as the brother of Jina, king of the Kīkaṭa country (2. 7.28).

- 16. Buddha himself declared that the name of his father was शुद्धोदन (Mahāpadāna-suttānta in Dīghanikāya).
- 17. बुद्धो नामाजनसुतः (Bhāg. 1.3.24); अजनस्य सुतः । जिनसूत इति पाठे जिनोऽपि स एव (comm. Bhāvārthadipikā); जिनस्य स्तो भविष्यति नाम्ना बुद्धः (comm. Bhāgavatacandrikā); अञ्जनसूतः, अजिन-सत्रश्चे ति पाठद्वयम् (comm. Sārāthadarśini); अजिनस्य सूतो नाम्ना बद्धः (Siddhanta-pradipa) मोहनार्थं दानवानां बालरूपी पथि स्थितः । पत्रं तं कल्पयामास मृढबृद्धिर्जिनः स्वयम् ॥ (Brahmanda quoted in the comm. Bhāgavatatātparya by Madhva on Bhāg. 1.3.24) बौद्धरूपः स्वयं जातः कलौ प्राप्ते भयानके । अजिनस्य द्वि जस्यैव सूतो भूत्वा जनार्दनः ॥ (Bhavişya-p. 4. 12.27). It is to be noted here that the Purāna says (in the verse 28) that Buddha appeared in the Tāmasāntara (in the Tāmasa, i. e. the fourth manyantara). The significance of this assertion is difficult to understand. The Kalki-p. has a peculiar view about both Jina and Suddhodana in 2.6-7. It says that Kalki came to the Kikata country to chastise Buddha and he met with Jina, king of the country and Suddhodana, his brother, both of whom were killed by Kalki.
- 18. "And the name of her [Buddha's Mother's] father is expressly given as Añjana, the Śākiyan" (Rhys Davids: Buddhist India, p. 18).

the Purāṇas) cannot be determined unless proper critical editions of the Purāṇas are prepared.

Since Kalki-p. 2.7.44 regards मायादेवी as the mother of the Buddhists (मातरं बौद्धाः) we may reasonably infer that Māyādevī is the name of Buddha's mother. Buddha himself declared that the name of his mother was Māyādevī (Mahāpadāna-suttānta). Buddhist tradition and the lexicons (Amarakośa 1.1.15) are in favour of this view. 19 A mythical form of Māyādevī is found in Kalki-p. 2. 7. 36-44.

It may be surmised that अञ्जनी is also the name of 'Buddha's mother from the statement मगधे हेमसदनाद् अञ्जन्यां प्रभविष्यति विणोरंशो जगत्याता बुध: (in Kumārika-khaṇḍa 40.255-256). If we take बुध as the same as बुद्ध, अञ्जनी cannot but be the name of Buddha's mother as there is no country of this name. For a discussion on this statement see infra.

There is no mention of Buddha's wife in the Purānas²⁰ and we find no direct statement regarding the son of Buddha in the Purāṇas. The Viṣṇupurāṇa says that Śuddhodana was succeeded by Rāhula (4.22.3),²¹ and from Buddhistic works we find that Rāhula was the son of Buddha It may be presumed that since Buddha took sannyāsa before being enthroned,²² Rāhula is said to have succeeded his grandfather Śuddhodana.

- 19 "The name of his [Buddha's] mother has not yet been found in the oldest texts, but it is given in the Buddhavamsa as Māyā" (Rhys Davids: The History and Literature of Buddhism, p. 60).
- 20. It appears that the Purānic authors had no occasion to mention the name of the wife of Buddha.
- 21. तस्मात् शाक्यः, शाक्यात् शुद्धोदनः, तस्मात् राहुलः, ततः प्रसनेजित् (Viṣṇu-p. 4.22.3). The readings क्रुद्धोदन and रातुल in the place of शुद्धोदन and राहुल (as found in some editions) are corrupt.
- 22. A Varāha-p. verse says that Buddha enjoyed kingship: शुद्धोदनस्य बुद्धोऽभूत स्वयं पुत्रो जनार्दनः। भुक्त्वा राज्यश्चियं सोऽथ गति परमकां गतः॥ (quoted in Kṛṭyaratnākara, p. 247). This is however extremely doubtful. If 'भुक्त्वा राज्यश्चियम्' means 'Buddha's remaining in the royal palace for some years' (before leaving it for ever with a view to discovering the way of getting rid of all miseries) then the Purāṇic statement may be accepted as valid,

The body of Buddha

We have a few statements describing the body and the limbs of Buddha. The expression devasundara-rūpa in Matsya-p. 47. 217 (देवसुन्दररूपेण बुद्धो जज्ञे)²³ shows the exquisite beauty of Buddha. He is said to be of white or pale-red complexion²⁴ and लम्बकर्ण (possessing long ears) in Angi-p.49.8; मुण्डित²⁵ (of shaven head) and शुक्लदन्तवान्²⁶ (having white teeth) in Śānti-p.348.41-42 (Kum. ed.) The epithet अम्बरावृत in Agni-p.49.8 shows that Buddha, unlike Mahāvīra, used to put on cloth on his body.

The language used by Buddha

It is the Mahābhārata that informs us that Buddha preached his views through the medium of the Māgadhī language (भाषया मागधेनेव धर्मराजगृहे वसन्, Śānti-p.348.41; cr. ed. App. 1, no. 31). (Gramatically मागधेन भाषया is wrong; it ought to be corrected to मागध्या; the corrected reading however renders the metre defective).

- 23. It has however variant readings. "In the readings recorded in the Anandasrama edn. the line देवसुन्दररूपेण हैपायनपुर:सरः" is given two variants, one making it more intelligible in its application to the Buddha: देवतासुररूपेण and another introducing the missing Kṛṣṇa दे क्यां "वसुदेवेन. The bulk of the MSS of Matsya collated by us have the reading देवक्यां वसुदेवेन. Further MSS, though not all of them,...read विद्यौ नवमके, thus eliminating the Buddha altogether" (Dr. V. Raghavan: 'Further Gleanings from the Matsya-p.', in Purāṇa III, p. 324).
- 24. In the Majjhimanikāya Buddha is found to have declared that the beauty of his pale-red body was destroyed on account of his practising acute austerities before the attainment of bodhi.
- 25. Cp. Bṛhatsamhitā-57.44 which describes Buddha as सुनीचकेश (57.44) meaning अत्यल्पकेश; its variant सुनीतकेश means अतिनियमितकेश.
- 26. Nilakantha remarks शुक्लदन्ता मांसाशनत्यागाद् अन्यथा रक्तदन्तत्वं स्यात् (on Hariv. 3.3.15). The significance as shown here does not seem to be satisfactory.

The aforesail assertion about the language used by Buddha is historically valid. It is to be noted that (i) Pali was the language of Magadha through which Buddha preached and that (ii) Pali, on account of being spoken in Magadha was called Māgadhī. In time of Buddha Pali (the language of Buddha's sayings) and Māgadhī were synonymous. Afterwards the language of the religious teachings was called Pali and the Prākṛta language current at that time came to be called Māgadhī.²⁷

It is well known that the Māgadhi language was highly praised by Buddhist teachers. In several works on Pali grammar Māgadhi is extolled by the couplet : सा भागधी मूलभासा नरा ययादिक-िषका । ब्रह्माणो चस् सुतालापा संबुद्धा चापि भासरे ॥ ср. the statement मागधभासाक्खरेन लिखाहि (सरसनवंस, p. 31, P. T. Series). Since Buddha used Māgadhai the Buddhist teachers spoke of it in a highly exaggerated way.²⁸

27. In later period Pali ceased to be the spoken language and it existed in religious works only. This later Māgadhī (which in reality is the gradually developed form of Pali) better known as the Māgadhī Prākṛta (Māgadhī Apabhaṁśa) and sometimes called Māgadhīnirukta (Datha-vaṁśa 1.10) is the direct source of Oriya, Maithili, Bengali, Asamese, etc. The Māgadhī in the Sanskrit plays is quite different from Pali. It is better to use बौद्ध-मागभी for Pali and प्राकृतमागभी for मागभी प्राकृत(भाषा). Ardhamāgadhī is, however, a mixture of प्राकृत मागभी and महाराष्ट्री (Saṃkṣiptā-sāra vyākaraṇa 5.98).

28. "It is claimed by Buddhaghoşa, the greatest known Pali commentator, that the language through the medium of which the Buddha promulgated his doctrine and discipline was Māgadhī. To Buddhaghoṣa as well as to other Pali commentators Māgadhī is indeed the nirukti or diction of what is known as the Pali canon" (B. M. Barua: Some Aspects of Early Buddhism, in 'Cultural Heritage of India, Vol I, p. 442). "Even Buddhaghoṣa says that a child brought up without hearing the human voice would instinctively speak Māgadhi" (R. Childers: A Dictionary of the Pali language, p. 13), vide the comm. on the Mahārūpa-siddhi, p. 27.

Activities of Buddha

The Purāṇas ascribe two kinds of activities to Buddha, namely (1) preaching views in order to delude demons etc.29 and (2) blaming animal sacrifice as prescribed in the Vedas.30

Following points are to be noted in this connection. The beings deluded by Buddha were rarely called men; chiefly they were called daityas, danavas and asuras. These words seem to signify 'human beings possessing the characteristics of daity as etc'. It would be illogical to assume that daity as etc. are to be taken in their Puranic sense i. e. 'the offspring of Diti' etc. The metaphorical use of these words is often found in the Puranas.

29. मोहनाय सुरद्विषाम् (Bhāg. 1.3.24; Garuḍa-p. 1.1.32). नमो बुद्धाय च दैत्यमोहिने (Bhāg 10.40.22). दैत्यानां नाशनार्थाय विष्णुना बुद्धरूपिणा। बौद्धशास्त्रमसत् प्रोक्तम् (Padma-p. 6.263. 69-70). नमोऽस्तु बुद्धाय च दैत्यमोहिने (Padma, Sṛṣṭi 73.93). बुद्धो मोहयिष्यामि मानवान् (Śānti-p. 348. 42 Kum. ed.). मायामोहस्वरूपोऽसौ " मोहयामास दैत्यांस्तान् त्याजिता वेदघर्मकम् (Agni-p. 16,2-3). तेन बुद्धस्वरूपेण "भविष्यति जगत् सर्वं मोहितम् "" (Skanda, Revā 151.22). छलेन मोहयिष्यामि भूत्वा बुद्धोऽसुरानहम् (Skanda, Vaisnava, Vasudeva-Māhātmya, 18.41; Gurumaṇḍala ed.). ततो लोकविमोहाय बुद्धस्तवं वै भविष्यसि (Br-Dharma-p. 2.11.72).

देवद्विषां निगमवर्त्मीन निष्ठितानां " बहुभाष्यत औपधर्म्यम् (Bhāg. 2.7.37). वादैविमोहयित यज्ञकृतोऽतदहीन् (Bhāg. 11.4.23). नमस्ते · · · वेदनिन्दाकराय च · · · जैनाय बौद्धरूपाय · · · (Śiva-p. 2.5.16.11; बौद्ध to be corrected to बुद्ध, or it is to be taken in the sense of बृद्धसंबन्धिन्; in the preceding verse Kṛṣṇa and Rāma have been extolled). पुनश्च वेदमार्गो हि निन्दितः " स्थापितं नास्तिकमतं वेदमार्गविरोधकृत् ॥ (Śiva-p. 2.4.9.25). वेदमार्गो विनाशित: (Bhavişya-p. 1.639). ततः संमोहयामास जिनाद्यानसुरांशकान् । भगवान् वाग्भिरुग्राभिरहिंसावाचिभि-हरिः ॥ (Brahmanda-p. quoted In Bhagavatatatparya by Madhva, 1.3.28). पुनरिह विधिकृत-वेदधर्मानुष्ठानविहितः बुद्धावतारस्त्वमसि (Kalki-p. 2.3.29). वेदवर्त्मप्रवृत्तानामसुराणां विमोहनम् । रूपं घृत्वा यज्ञविद्यां हिंसाप्रायां विनिन्द सि ॥ (Purāṇasamhitā 8.81).

Some are of opinion that the use of the words like daitya, dānava, etc. is in accordance with the Purānic character of narrating events of past ages. (Buddha lived long before the authors of the current Purānas). These words refer to those persons who, in ancient times, followed anti-Vedic religions and consequently found the teachings of Buddha as valid and useful. A similar use of words is found in the legends concerning the destruction or the loss of the Vedas. The Purānas say that the Vedas were destroyed or stolen by the asuras namely Hayagriva, Śańkha and others. There is no doubt that in these legends the word asura refers to those persons who were against Vedic discipline and who created obstacle to the propagation of Vedic culture. It must be borne in mind that no mythical tale can spring through pure imagination; such tales must have their bases in some form of rea lity. 32

It is remarkable to note here that in later period followers of the Vedic religion declared that it was love of wanton life that had caused the highly learned persons of the 'Hindu' society to embrace Buddhism (vide Nyāyakusumānjali by Udayana (Ch. II) of the 10th century.

From the Purāṇic statements it does not appear that Buddha was against the nivṛtti-mārga or jñāna-mārga of the Vedas. This is quite in consonance with the teachings of Buddha as found in the Piṭakas. Buddha is found to praise highly of those sages who were the followers of the nivṛtti or jñāna mārga of the Vedas. (vide Brāhmaṇa-dhārmika-sutta in Suttanipāta).

^{31.} Vide Bhāgavata-p. 11.4.17; 5.18.6; Varāha-p. 1.5; 15.10; 113.20; Kūrma-p. 1.16.77-84; Matsya-p. 53.5-7; Padma-p. 4.22.33; 6.257.1-31; Agni-p. 2.16-17; Šānti-p. 347; Vana-p. 85. 46-48.

^{32.} Cp. the historical interpretation of (1) Gayāsura in the 'Buddha-Gayā' by R. L. Mitra and 'Gayā and Buddha Gayā' by B. M. Barua and of (2) Kalki in the papers by (1) K.P. Jayaswal in Indian Antiquary, vol. 46 (1917), by (2) Prof. Pathak in Indian Antiquary, vol. 43 (1918) and by (3) Otto Schrader in Brahmavidyā, vol. I.

^{33.} The Kalki-p. has a statement that precisely states the view-point of Buddha: ब्रह्माभासविलासचातुरी प्रकृतिविमाननाम् असंपादयन् बृद्धावतारस्त्वमिस (2.3.29). The first two expressions in this statement are highly significant and deserve to be explained elaborately. The statement will be explained in a separate paper on 'The Buddhist religion and philosophy in the Purāṇas'.

Buddha is said to be the killer of Madhu and also dear to Madhu in Skanda-Revā 151.2 (मधुहन्ता मधुप्रियः). Nothing is known about this Madhu and the information is not found in any other Purāṇa. Since Buddha is regarded here as the ninth incarnation, the information creates a problem which is difficult to solve. Is the first Madhu the same as Māra?

The places associated with Buddha

Following places have been mentioned in the Puranas in connection with Buddha.

Kikata-It is said that Buddha will appear in Kikata (बुद्धो नामा " कीकटेषु भविष्यति, Bhag. 1.3.24; Garuda 1.1.32).34 Kīkaṭa is not stated to be the birth place of Buddha in Buddhist works35 we are to take the root bhū (in bhavisyati) in the sense of 'to reside' or 'to lead the life. 86 Thus we can take Kikata as a centre for preaching Buddhism.37 The plural number in the

- कीकटेषु मध्ये गयाप्रदेशे (comm. Bhāvārthadipikā); कीकटेष मगधविषयेषु (comm. Padaratnāvalī); cp. Sāttvata-Samhitā 2 65 (पाषण्डशास्त्रमधिकल्प्य सुरद्विषाणां कर्ता जिनस्य तनयो भगवान् गयायाम) and Saundarananda 3.15 (स विनीय काशिषु गयेष बहुजनमथ गिरिव्रजे).
- But see सो च भगवा मागधो मगधे भवत्ता (since Buddha 35. appeared in Magadha, he was called Māgadha), quoted from some Pali text by Pt. Vidhusekhara Sastrin in his Pāli-prakāśa, Intro. p. 13, fn. 32.
- See Ksiratarangini on the root Bhū (p. 4, ed. by 4. 36. Mimāmsaka); in Mbh. Vana-p. 157.45 भविष्यसि means जीविष्यसि (Nilakantha).
- Kikata was deemed so intimately connected with Buddha 37. that the Kalki-p (2.6.40) described Kalki's going to Kikata with an army with a view to chastising Buddha, though Purāṇa tradition declares that Kalki will appear in the future. The Kalki-p. (2.6.41.42) further says that Kikațā was the country of the Bauddhas where there was no performance of the Vedic religion. Inhabitants of this country are said to be the followers of materialism and to be antagonistic to the rules of caste etc. It is remarkable to note that in the Rgveda (3 53.14) Kikata was regarded as a land beyond the pale of aryanism and in the Nirukta (6.32) as an anārya-nivāsa.

word Kikata indicates that it is the name of a janapada. In the Purāṇas Kikata has been mentioned in a very few places. According to Garuḍa p. 1.82.5 Kikata is situated in Gayā; according to Bṛ. Dharma-p. 2.26 20-22 the Kikata country has been called an unholy land. its king Kākakarṇa is said to be the despiser of the Brahmins and the name of one of its towns is Gayā; according to Vāyu-p. 108.73 the holy Gaṇgā, the holy Rājagṛha-vana and the holy river Punaḥpunā are in the Kīkaṭa country. Thus we can take Kīkaṭa as the ancient name of Magadha, a view supported by the lexicographer Hemacandra (Abhidhānacintāmaṇi).

Magadha—Mentioned in Skanda-Kumārikā 40.255 (मगधे हेमसदनादञ्जन्यां प्रभविष्यति). The significance of Hemasadana is to be determined.³⁸ For a discussion on this statement see below.

Dharmarājagṛha—It is said that Buddha, son of Śuddhodana, will delude men staying in the Dharmarājagṛha by preaching his views through the medium of the Māgadhi language (Śānti-p. 348. 41 42 Kum. ed.). It appears that the Dharmarājagṛaha is the same as Rājagṛha.³⁹

That Rājagṛha was intimately connected with the activities of Buddha is a historical fact. It is well known that in Rājagṛha lay the centre of his missionary activities. Buddha is said to have gone out on his first alms-begging in Rājagṛha and to have lived in a cave of a hill in Rājagṛha. In the Dighanikāya Buddha is said to have described many places of Rājagṛha as 'highly delightful'. It is a pity that schism in the Buddhist order also started at Rājagṛha.

Nepala—In the Nepāla-māhātmya section (1.57-65a) of the Himavat khaṇḍa (which is said to be a part of the Skanda-p. and

^{38.} There are minor Buddhist Schools, most of which seem to be of local origin, namely हेमवत, राजगिरिय (Mahāvamsa 5.12-13). Has this हेमवत any connection with हेमसदन?

^{39.} It may also be surmised that since Dharmarāja is the name of Buddha, a particular place (in Magadha) was called धर्मराजगृह. As for example Venuvana in Rājagrha was a place which was intimately connected with Buddha. It is however better to accept धर्म (in the sense of धर्मयुक्त) as qualifying राजगृह.

which seems to be a work of much later age) it is said that Buddha, a form of Viṣṇu, came to a hill in Nepal from the Saurāṣṭra country and practised penance. The goddess Girijā (called Vajrayoginī) appeared to Buddha and gave a boon to him to the effect that persons residing in Nepal would be virtuous and that in this country the devotees of both Śiva and Buddha would reside. Being asked by Devī Buddha established a liṅga at the confluence of the rivers of Vāgmatī and Maṇimatī.

The aforesaid story does not seem to have any Buddhist basis. It appears that since Buddha was born in Nepalese border and since Buddhist Tantra has a close connection with Nepal, the aforesaid story was conceived by the Purāṇic authors.

Time of Buddha

Three kinds of statements are usually found in the Purāṇas about the time of Buddha. Sometimes the expression pura⁴⁰ (in ancient times) is used, which, being vague, does not require any discussion. A good number of Purāṇas declare that Buddha flourished at the beginning⁴¹ or precisely at the first quarter¹² of the Kaliyuga. This view however is not of much value, if we think that a quarter of Kaliyuga is equal to 108000 years (the Kaliyuga being of 432000 years).

^{40.} पुरा देवासुरे युद्धे ""शुद्धोदनसुतोऽभवत् (Agri-p. 16.1-2).

^{41.} ततः कलौ सम्प्रवृत्ते '''बुद्धो भविष्यामि (Bhāg, 1.3.24; Garuḍa-p. 1.1.32). कलौ प्राप्ते यथा बुद्धो भवेन्नारायणः प्रभुः (Narasimha-p. 36.9). कलियुगे घोरे संप्राप्ते ''गुद्धोदनसुतो बुद्धो भविष्यामि (Viṣṇu-dharma, ch. 66; vide Studies in the Upapurāṇas, I p. 144). ततः कलियुगस्यादौ '''गुद्धोदनसुतो बुद्धो '' (Śānti-p. 348 41-42 Kum. ed.). मया बुद्धे न वक्तन्या धर्माः कलियुगे पुनः (V. Dh. U. 3.351.54).

^{42.} कलेः प्रथमचरणे वेदमार्गो विनाशितः (Bhaviṣya-p. 1.6.39). As the verses preceding to this verse are noteworthy for chronological purposes they are given here: "एतस्मिन्न व काले तु कलिना संस्मृतो हरिः। काश्यपाद् उद्भवो देवो गौतमो नाम विश्रुतः।।३६। बौद्धधर्मं च संस्कृत पट्टणे प्राप्तवान् हरिः। दश वर्षं कृतं राज्यं तस्माच् छाक्यमुनिः स्मृतः।।३७। विशद्वर्षं कृतं राज्यं तस्माच् शुद्धोदनोऽभवत्। विशद्वर्षं कृतं राज्यं शाक्यसिहस्ततोऽभवत्।। ३८। शताद्रौ द्विसहस्रोऽब्दे

The third view says that Buddha flourished in the 28th Kaliyuga.⁴³ The Purānic reckoning of the subdivisions of a yuga is still an enigma and unless the problem is solved it is useless to dwell upon this point.

There is a fourth view found in the Kumārikā-khaṇḍa of the Skanda-p. only. From the verses⁴⁴ (as given in the footnote) it appears that Budha i. e. Buddha appeared 3600 years after the beginning of the Kaliyuga, taking त्तः as indicating 'after the beginning of the Kaliyuga'. If 3102 B. C. is taken as the beginning of the Kaliyuga, then, according to this view, Buddha appeared after Christ—an absurd view! The Purāṇic verses as given in the footnote are highly perplexing and one is tempted to take this Buddha as a different person from Siddhārtha Buddha.

व्यतीते सोऽभवन्नृपः। कलेः प्रथमचरणे etc. In some places the printed readings seem to be corrupt. Before 'एतस्मिन्नेव काले तु' the Purāṇa reads महानन्दस्ततो जातः पितृस्तृत् यं कृतं पदम् (35) and it shows the order of the kings from Nanda to Mahānanda as Nanda—Prananda—Parānanda—Samānanda—Priyānanda—Devānanda—Yajñabhaṅga—Mauryānanda—Mahānanda (verses 32-35) The above account has its own peculiarities which deserve to be noted carefully. Smith's observations about the chronological position of the Nanda kings are worth noticing: "Many unsuccessful attempts have been made to harmo nize the conflicting traditions and to evolve a resonable scheme of chronology. I cannot pretend to solve the puzzle" (Oxford H. of India p. 83).

- 43 अष्टाविंशतिमे प्राप्ते "बुद्धो भूत्वा प्रवर्तयत् (Brahma-p. quoted in Kṛtyaratnākara, p. 159).
- 44. ततः त्रिषु सहस्रेषु षट्शतैरिश केषु च। मगधे हेमसदनाद् अञ्जन्यां प्रभविष्यति ॥ २५५। विष्णोरंशो धर्मपाता बुधः साक्षात् स्वयं प्रभुः। तस्य कर्माणि भूरीणि भविष्यन्ति महात्मनः ॥२५६। ज्योतिर्बिन्दुमुखानुग्रान् स हनिष्यति कोटिशः। चतुःषष्टि च वर्षाणि भुक्त्वा द्वीपानि सप्तच। भक्तेभ्यः स्वयशो मुक्त्वा दिवः पश्चाद् गिमष्यति ॥ २५७। सर्वेषां चावताराणां गुणैः समधिको यतः ॥२५८। ततो वक्ष्यन्ति तं भक्त्या सर्वपापहरं बुधम् ॥ २५९ क। (40.255-259a). In lexicons Budha is read as a synonym of Buddha; सर्वज्ञः सुगतो बुधः (Vyādi quoted in Vyākhyāsudhā on Amara 1.1.13).

Following points are to be noted in this connection: (i) This Buddha lived for 64 years, while Siddhārtha Budha lived for 80 years; (ii) this Buddha killed some persons, while Siddhārtha was a strict follower of non-violence; (iii) this Buddha is regarded as suffered, while Siddhārtha has never been regarded as such by the Paurāṇikas (dharma being the same as the Vedic religion). In spite of these glaring differences we find some points of essential similarity, namely his connection with the Magadha country (verse 255) and his being a part of Viṣṇu (verse 250).

It is to be further noted that in this passage the indication of time concerning Buddha is ambiguous. The word तत: in verse 255 does not necessarily mean 'after the beginning of the Kali age; it may early be taken to mean 3600 years after the Saka king'! The relevant verses are given in the footnote⁴⁵; they may be considered by interested readers with a view to deriving a plausible sense. At present we are unable to give any rational explanation of these verses.⁴⁶

- 45 अष्टाविशे कली यच्च भावि तत्त्वं निबोध मे ॥२४८॥ त्रिषु वर्षसहस्रेषु कले यितेषु पार्थिव । त्रिशतेषु दशन्यूनेष्वस्यां भृवि भविष्यति ॥२४९॥ शूद्रको नाम वीराणामधिपः सिद्धिमत्र सः । चितायां समाराध्य लप्स्यते भूभरापहः ॥२५०॥ ततस्त्रिषु सहस्रेषु दशाधिकशतत्रये । भविष्यं नन्दराज्यं च चाणक्यो यान् हनिष्यति ॥२५१॥ शुक्लतीर्थे सर्वपापनिम् क्ति योऽभिलप्स्यति । ततस् त्रिषु सहस्रेषु विशत्या चाधिकेषु च ॥२५२॥ भविष्यं विक्रमादित्यराज्यं सोऽथ प्रलप्स्यते । सिद्धिप्रसादाद् दुर्गाणां दीनान् यो ह्यद्धिरिष्यति ॥२५३॥ ततः शतसहस्रेषु शतेनाप्यधिकेषु च । शको नाम भविष्यश्च योऽतिदारिद्रयहारकः ॥२५४॥ (Kumārikā ch : 40); verses 255-259a quoted above are about Budha or Buddha.
- 46. I have come to know of the following verse on Buddha from some Vaiṣṇavas of the Gaudiya school, which says that Buddha appeared 2000 years ofter the beginning of the Kaliyage: असो व्यक्तः कलेरब्दसहस्रद्धितये गते । मूर्तिः पाटलवर्णस्य द्धिभुजिश्चकुरोजिञ्जतः ॥ (pāṭata=of pale-red or pink colour; cikurojjhita means the some as muṇḍita). If Buddha was born in 624 BC or 563 BC (according to the Buddhist traditions current in different countries), it follows that he was born 2478 or 2539 years after the Kali era. If we read the verse as अध्रसहस्रद्धितय and take it to mean 2500 (500+2000) years, the date as given here tallies with the

Tithi and week day concerning the birth of Buddha

No Purāṇa says anything on these two points. It is the Purāṇa-samuccaya (which is relied upon simply because it bears the word purāṇa in its name; quoted in Nirṇayasindhu, p. 61) that says that Buddha was born in the 6th day of the bright half in the month of Āśvina (कृष्णोऽष्टम्यां नभिस सितपरे चाश्विन यद् दशम्यां बुद्धः कल्की नभिस समभवच् छुक्लष्ट्यां क्रमेण. 47 According to Buddhist tradition Siddhārtha Buddha was born in the 15th day of the bright-half (pūrṇimā) of the month of Vaisākha.

Worship of Buddha

Only a few statements are found about the worship of Buddha. Varāha-p. 48.22 informs us that one desirous of beauty should worship Buddha (रूपकामो यजेंद् बृद्धम्).

In the procedure of the Śravaṇadvādaśi-vrata Buddha is mentioned: कृष्णनाम्ना च नेत्रे हे बुद्धनाम्ना तथा शिरः (Saura-p. 15.16; by uttering the name of Buddha the head of the deity to be worshipped is to be touched); similarly Buddha's name is mentioned in the procedure of the Nakṣatrapuruṣa-vrata in Matsya-p ch. 54 बुद्धाय शान्ताय नमो ललाटं चित्रासु संपूज्यतमं मुरारेः, 54.19). The Varāha-p. h is a chapter on the Buddhadvādaśi-vrata (ch. 47). According to Bhaviṣya (Uttara 4.140) lamps are to be lighted in the temple of Siddhārtha Buddha, Brāhmā and others. In Garuḍa-p. I. 196.11 it is remarked that Buddha is to be invoked for protection from the pāṣaṇḍas (बुद्धः '''पाषण्डसंघातात् '''अवतु). A similar view is found in the procedure of Nārāyaṇa-varman (बुद्धस्तु पाषण्डगणप्रमादात्) in Bhāga-vata-p. 6. 8. 19.

two dates stated above. It is well known that different Buddhist traditions give different dates for Buddha, placing him in 1332 BC, in about 1000, 2959 or 835 BC. (Wilson: Asiatic Researches, vol. XV. p. 92).

47. Cp आषाढे शुक्कनवमी विशाखायां च भास्करें। दिवा नाडीषट्कमध्ये बुद्धोऽभूदंशजो हरे: ।। (Svatantra-tantra quoted in Prāṇato-ṣinī, p. 373).

Cp. also 'Māyādevi was delivered of Bodhisattva or the child on the fifteenth day of the fourth moon of the Wood-Rat year' (A. C. Korosi: The Life and Teachings of Buddha, p. 27). The last part of the sentence is not quite intelligible.

The Kṛtyaratnākara (pp. 159-160) quotes a passage from the Brahma p. about a vrata on the śukla-saptami in the month of Vaiśakha, where it is stated that at the seventh day of Vaiśākha when the moon, associated with the Puṣya constellation, shines, the image of Buddha should be bathed and gifts, garments, etc. should be given to śākya-bhikṣus. The worship of the golden image of Buddha is prescribed in the Varāha-purāṇa (quoted in the Kṛtyaratnākara, p. 247).

In connection with the worship of Buddha it is necessary to show here the Purāṇic outlook about the Aśvatha tree, under one of which Siddhārtha is said to have attained bodhi or lokottara jñāna. 48 (vide Mahāpadāna-Suttāntā in Dighanikāya). Even non-Buddhist scholars are found to opine that the aśvattha-tree came to be called bodhidruma on account of Siddhārtha's having acquired bodhi under it (अस्य मूले भगवता बुद्धेन बोधिः साक्षात्कृत इति साहचर्याद् वृक्षोऽपि बोधिः, comm. Trikāṇḍacintāmaṇi on Amarakośa 2.4.20-21). The verses quoted in the foot note will show how this tree was looked with reverence by the authors of the Purāṇas⁴⁹.

Purassara of Buddha

Matsya-p. 47.247 informs us that Buddha, whose purassara was Dvaipāyana, was born as the ninth incarnation (बुद्धो नवमको जज्ञे " वैपायनपुरस्सरः). The word purassara means 'purogāmin' (going in front, a fore-runner; it may also mean a teacher, a purohita). It is however extremely difficult to conceive Dvaipāyana (whether it means the sage Veda-vyāsa or it means any person born in an

^{48. &}quot;Every Buddha is supposed to have attained enlightenment under a tree. The tree differs in the accounts of each of them. Our Buddha's wisdom tree, for instance, is of the kind called the Assattha or Pippal tree" (Rhys Davids: Buddhist India, p. 229-230).

^{49.} चलदलाय वृक्षाय सदा विष्णुस्थिताय च । बोधिसत्त्वाय योग्याय सदाश्वत्थ नमोऽस्तुते ॥ (Padma-p. 5.55-16) चलद्दलाय वृक्षाय सर्वदा चलियण्यवे । बोधितत्त्वाय यज्ञाय अश्वत्थाय नमो नमः ॥ (Vāyu-p. quoted in Tristhali-setu, p. 361) नमस्तेऽश्वत्थरूपाय ब्रह्मविष्णु-शिवात्मने । बोधिद्रुमाय कर्तूणां पितॄणां तारणाय च ॥ (Vāyu-p. 111. 27) तस्मादिमौ विष्णुमहेश्वरावृभौ बभूवतु बौधिवटौ मुनीश्वराः (Padma-p. 6.117.30).

island) as a purassara (in any one of its senses) of Buddha. The difficulty, however, is got over if we consider that "the Vāyu-p., whose ch. 98 corresponds exactly to the latter part of this chapter (47th) of Matsya, omits the Buddha altogether and reads instead several verses on Kṛṣṇa." It is however to be noted that the idea of 'a fore runner of Śākya Buddha' is found in Buddhist tradition. 51

Sākya in connection wtih Buddha

The Purāṇas sometime use the word fākya in connection with Buddha. In शाक्यबुद्धोपजीविन: (Brahmāṇḍa-p. 2.31.60; Brahma-p. 230.13) fākya is an adjective to Buddha. Sometimes the word is used in the sense of 'a follower of Buddha' as is found in the Brahma-vaivarta passage बौद्धं धर्मं समास्थाय शाक्यास्ते वै बभूविरे (quoted in Śrāddha-kāṇḍa by Hemādri, p. 3).

According to the Matsya-p. 271.72 and Viṣṇu-p. 4.22.3 $\delta akya$ is the name of the grand-father of Buddha. This seems to be highly doubtful as we do not find any corroborative statement in Buddhist works. The Br. Vaivarta-p. (quoted in Tantrādhikārinirṇaya, pp. 2-3) derives $\delta akya$ from the root δak (to be able) in the sense of 'capable of subduing the gods' (said to the asuras by Buddha)—a derivation which is highly fanciful. The word has been explained in various ways⁵³ the authoritativeness of which does not seem

- 50. Vide 'Further Gleanings from the Matsya-p.' in Purāṇa III p. 324.
- 51. Buddhist tradition speaks of 24 predecessors of Siddartha Buddha, the last of whom was Kasyapa; cp. काश्यपाद् उद्भवो देवो गौतमो नाम नामतः (Bhāvisya-p. III.1.6.36). Siddartha Buddha, in turn, is the prredecessor of Maitreya Buddha, who will appear afterwards.
- 52. In a passage in the Āgneya-p. similar to that in the Brahmāṇḍa and the Brahmapurāṇa we read 'साझाद् बुद्धोपजीविन: (vide 'St. Up.' I, p. 145). It appears that the meaning of the word śākya gradually became obscure.
 - 53. शाक्यमुनिर्बुद्धावतारः, शकोऽभिजनोऽस्येति शुण्डिकादिभ्यो ज्यः (Astā. 4. 3.92) (Kṣirasvāmin on Amarakosa 1.1.14). शाकेषु भवो विद्यमानो वा दिगादित्वाद् यत् (Trikāṇḍacintāmaṇi on Amara). शाकवृक्षप्रतिच्छन्नं वासं यस्माच्च चिक्ररे। तस्मादिक्ष्वाकुवंश्यास्ते भुवि

to be out of question. The word Śākya-muni for Buddha is fairly old, for it is found in the Rummindei inscription of Asoka.

Before concluding this article we want to inform our readers that about the Buddhist philosophy and religion the Purāṇas contain various statements—almost all of which blame, denounce or decry them vehemently. Buddhist doctrines as propounded in the Purāṇas (sometimes with the names of the Buddhistic schools) have their own importance and they deserve to be compared with the doctrines found in the Buddhist philosophical works. In a separate paper we shall deal elaborately with the Buddhist religion and philosophy as described in the Purāṇas.

It should be noted in this connection that in the Purāṇas the words Jina, Jinadharma, Buddha-śāstra, Bauddha dharma and the like do not always bear the same sense. Sometimes Bauddha or Jaina means any anti-Vedic doctrine, whether it was taught by Siddhārtha Buddha or by a person anterior to him. There are other problems too. Since all the Purāṇic statements do not regard Buddha as an incarnation of the Viṣṇu, the question 'when Siddhārtha Buddha came to be regarded as an incarnation' is of prime importance and it deserves to be solved properly. We shall try to solve these questions in the aforesaid paper.

शाक्या इति स्मृताः ॥ (Saundarananda 1.24). In fact Śākya is the name of a Kṣatriya clan. Buddha himself declared that he had belonged to the Śākya clan (Pabajjā-sutta in Suttanipāta; vide also Nālaka-sutta in Suttanipātā). There are scholars who think that Śākya is based on the Pali word Śākiya (J. R. A. S. 1806, p. 162 ff.). The origin of the name appears to be shrouded in mystery.

BOOK-REVIEW

Mohd. Ismail Khan: BRAHMĀ IN THE PURĀŅAS—Crescent Publishing House, F/D-56 New Kavinagar, Ghaziabad; pp. 138 along with 30 photoplates. Rs. 90/-;

It is gratifying to learn that the book under review has come from the pen of a non-Hindu scholar, who is well known for his love for Sanskrit learning, especially for Purāṇic studies. His dissertation on Sarasvatī has already proved his competence in the field of Purāṇic research. The observations of the author (in the Preface) that 'there is a singularity in the emersion and development of Brahmā' and 'Brahmā has been a neglected deity in the sense that there is a great paucity of literature on him' are without any exaggeration and we have no hesitation in declaring that the author has made a commendable effort in presenting various aspect of Brahmā. His discussions on the physical aspects of Brahmā and Sarasvatī and especially on the implications of the vehicles (vāhanas) etc. of these deities are highly interesting. I believe that the work will attrack the notice of all lovers of Purāṇic literature.

In its five chapters the book chiefly deals with (1) the position of Brahmā; (2) the birth and death of Brahmā; (3) the offspring and the types of creation of Brahmā; (4) the colour and vehicles of Brahmā; and (5) the image of Brahmā and Sarasvatī, and the objects held in the hands by these deities.

A glance of the book would reveal that the work is not exhaustive and manyessential Purāṇic facts concerning Brahmā are wanting. It is not understood why the author has not utilized all the Purāṇas. He does not seem to have collected materials from the Varāha, Nāradīya, Linga and Kūrma Purāṇas. Again, though he has utilized the Viṣṇudharmottara and Devibhāgavata (both are Upapurāṇas), yet he has left the Śiva, Devi and Kālikā Upapurāṇas. Since the author has chosen only one deity

for his monograph he should have utilized at least all the Purāṇas (if not the Upapurāṇas), for each of these works has something important to say about Brahmā. As for example Kūrma-p. 1.2. 104 says that those who take recourse to Brahmā should bear the mark tilaka on the forehead.

The author has collected a good number of names of Brahmā from eight Purāṇas without giving any explanations. Though most of the names are easily intelligible, yet a few significant names, such as Pingala-locana, Śikhin, Viriñci or Virañci, Kuśadvaja should have been explained in the light of the Puranic material. The etymologies of the names of Brahmā as given in the Purāņas (vide Vāyu-p. 5. 31-46) must have been critically studied by the author. I may inform here the learned author that highly significant names of Brahmā are found in the lexicons also, and these have been explained by the commentators with the help of the Puranas. In a few places necessary references have not been given. The reference to the Puranic view that 'Brahma on account of possessing some particular powers is called Karma-Brahmā' (p. 6), should have been given. Similarly the stanza 'Itihāsa-purāņabhyām....' has been quoted on p. 5 without mentioning the source. Had the author knew the source of this stanza (i, e. Mbh. Adi-p. 1.267-68) the reading of the verse (as printed) would not have been so corrupt.

A few omissions and faults as found in this work are shown here so that the author may make necessary changes in the second edition:

(1) In the enumeration of the eighteen Purāṇas (pp. 1-2) the name of the Brahma-purāṇa which is read in the first place in the 'Purāṇa-lists' in the Purāṇas, is wanting. (2) There is a mistake in the names of the two subdivisions of the vaikṛtasarga; the proper names are ārdhvasarga and arvāksarga and not devasarga and manuṣyasarga as the author thinks (p. 11). (3) The exact name of Vācaspati's comm. on the Sāmkhyakārikā is Tattva-kaumudī (though often it is called Sāmkhyatattvakaumudī) (vide the benedictory verse at the end of the comm.) and not Sāmkhyattvakau nudī prabhā as has been written on p. 14. (4) The use of the word aṅgula in the sense of a particular measure (p. 105)

is wrong. The correct form is anguli, which when used as the final member of a Tatpurusa compound becomes angula, vide Panini 5, 4.86. This wrong use is found almost in all works of modern scholars; it occurs even in the magnum opus of Dr. P.K. Acharya (quoted in the present work on p. 105) and in the Sanskrit-English Dic. by Apte. Maruta for Marut (p. 24) and Anudruhyu for Anu (a son of king Yayati) (p. 46) seem to be the result of inadvertence. Examples of inadventence are found in many places. In suklāsuklamatah' (p. 78) atah has no relevance, it being an indeclinable. (5) The use of both the stem forms (prātipadikas) and the word forms (padas) in one and the same work is highly objectionable. It is needless to give examples. Sometimes the form used by the author is neither a stem nor a word; see the word Durvāsā on p. 65. It should be either Durvāsas (stem form) or Durvasāh (word form). (6) It is painful to note that the author has not strictly followed the rules of transliteration. Sometimes the same Sanskrit word has been written in two different ways. It is not understood the usefulness of using the sign of interjection (!) at the end of the first and second halves of a stanza. The modern practice of using stright lines seems to be better.

In conclusion we want to draw the attention of the author to the fact that a monograph on a deity must contain a discussion on the *tīrthas* associated with it and we request the author to append such a list in the Appendix in the second edition of his work; lists of *tīrthas* associated with Brahmā are rarely found; such a list occurs in the Prabhāsakhaṇḍa of the Skandapurāṇa (Ch. 107). A comprehensive list of the temples of Brahmā would have surely enhanced the value of the work. Many interesting facts are usually connected with the temples; as for example in the temple at Konkan Brahmā is worshipped in the form of his foot-prints; vide Mirasi's 'Studies in Indology' II, p. 13.

The price (Rs. 90/-) of the book will certainly come in the way of its brisk sale.

SOME GRAPHICAL PURANIC TEXTS ON BRAHMA

Author and publisher as above: pages 142 alongwith 16 Photo-plates (8 of Brahmā and 8 of Sarasvatī). Rs. 70/-;

The book contains Purāṇic passages on Brahmā from the Padma, Brahma-vaivarta, Kūrma, Matsya, Viṣṇudharmottara, Vāmana, Brahma and Agni Purāṇas. The collection is, in no sense, exhaustive; as e. g. the author has collected passages from the fifth khaṇḍa of the Padma-p. and not from the other khaṇḍas.

In the Introduction the author has briefly dealt with (1) the epithets of Brahmā, (2) the Purāṇic episode of Brahmā, (3) vehicle of Brahmā, (4) colour or Brahmā, (5) offspring of Brahmā, (6) birth and death of Brahmā, (7) Brahmā as the guardian deity of the Rājasa Purāṇas, (8) the image of Brahmā, (9) various symbols of Brahmā, (10) Brahmā and Sarasvatī, (11) images of Brahmā at various places. Since the Introduction (which is based on the Purāṇic passages collected in this work) is a brief summary of the work reviewed above, no separate review of this book is needed.

It would have been highly useful had the author given at the beginning of the Purāṇic passages brief descriptions of topics which are dealt with in those Purāṇic passages. A work like this must contain a 'subject index' which may be given in the second edition.

-R. S. B.

Frank WHALING, The Rise of the Religious Significance of Rama, With the Foreword by E. G. Parrinder and the Preface by D. H. H. Ingalls, Motilal Banarsidass, Delhi, Varanasi, Patna, 1980 pp. XVIII, 392, Price Rs. 100.

The book traces the rise of the religious significance of the figure of Rāma in North India by examining three important texts: the Vālmīki Rāmāyaṇa, the Adhyātma Rāmāyaṇa of the Medieval Period and the Rāmacaritamānasa of Tulsi Das of XVIII Cent. A. D. These texts have been chosen because they constitute the main works in the development of the importance of Rāma. The author has used three methods to examine these three texts: the

literary/historical, the symbolical, and the theological. The result is that the figure of Rāma is examined in all its aspects as man, husband, king, hero, avatāra of Viṣṇu and in its continuity with Indra, as Brahman and finally as Devotional Lord.

Dr Whaling, who lived in North India from 1962 to 1966, tackles the study of the Rāmāyaṇa-s from the point of view of the Comparative Religionist His knowledge both of the Rāma tradition and of the Christian tradition is deep and well documented; his style is pleasant and attractive. The Appendix gives rich suggestions for comparison between Rāma, Christ and Krsna. The author remarks that the usual confrontation between Christ on the one side and Rāma-Kṛṣṇa on the other does not justify the many situations in which Christ and Rāma stand commonly versus Krsna or in which Kṛṣṇa and Christ are both counterparts of Rāma. The reader will find in this book several new suggestions for further research. The work is a deep contribution towards understanding the figure of Rāma and a help in religious dialogue. Basic is Dr. Whalings intuition, substantiated with many convincing proofs throughout the book, that the Rāma of Vālmiki contains in germ all the later developments, which in turn only manifest the seeds already present in the original figure.

The appendix is particularly important for religious dialogue. It would have been interesting if more attention had been given to the different ways of understanding the role of "religious community" in different religions, and to the role of a "name", the mūrti and the importance of sacraments. Even the concept of bhakti should have been discussed in more depth according to the different religious currents compared.

Both the student of Rāma and the Comparative Religionist, as well as the common reader will be delighted in reading this book which is full of insights and well documented The bibliography is abundant. It would be advisable to add two more books which deserve particular attention: V. Raghavan, The Greater Rāmāyaṇa, All-India Kashiraj Trust, Varanasi, 1973 and Karpatri, Rāmāyaṇa Mīmāmsā, Vārāṇasī, 1979.

The author and the editor are to be congratulated on giving a new tool toward the better understanding of the living Religious traditions of the world.

DIANA L. ECK, Banāras-City of Light, Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1982, pp. XVI, 427,59 Illustrations, 7 Maps. Price \$ 25.00

Of the many books already written and presently being compiled on Vārāṇasī, Diana L Eck's is surely the most fascinating. The author displays a rare capacity of understanding the secrets of this magic town, which is so far from her own culture and feelings. The love and admiration for "Kāśī" which surely must have been present in the author while composing the book, are transmitted to the reader through a splendid and captivating style and, equally important, through a solid acquaintance with the wide range of sources, even the lesser known and the less frequently used. The reader is impressed immediately from the very first page. He is taken on a unique tour along the streets and the riverbank, and into the temples and small lanes to perceive and experience the palpitating life of the city of Śiva.

'The book', says the author, 'is a study and interpretation of Banāras from the stand point of one who is close enough to Hindu tradition to see its religious significance and close enough to western religious and academic traditions to know the problems of understanding that Banāras and the Hindu tradition it represents might pose. My work is based on two primary sources: a voluminous literature of Sanskrit texts which describe and praise Banāras, and the city itself, with its patterns of temples, its seasons of pilgrimage, and its priestly and lay interpreters. It is a study of 'text and context' or perhaps more accurately, of classical Sanskrit texts and the 'text' of the city' (pp. XIII-XIV).

After an introduction of the previous works written on Vārāṇasi and a history of the different names of the town, the book continues with a good presentation of the history of Vārāṇasi. The reader is then taken into the religious geography of the city. With the author and the 'text' he admires and praises every sacred spot and every lane. Slowly and thoroughly he begins to understand that the town is built in the shape of a mystical maṇḍala with its centre being the temple of Viśvanātha, from which it expands in ever increasing concentric circles. As the revelation continues the town transcends its physical geography and one discovers that it is more than just its tīrtha-s or ghāṭs, or temples, but that also

Vārāṇasī, or Kāśī, is the actual or symbolic embodiment of Wisdom, it is *Brahman*, it is Atman, and at the same time it is the city of $k\bar{a}ma$, of artha, of dharma and of mok sa as well.

The appendices give the Sanskrit sources for the study of Banāras, the zones of the Sacred City, the Śivalinga-s of Kāśī, the cycles of Kāśī Goddesses, other Deities of Kāśī, and 'the Year in Banāras: A Partial Calendar'.

The Bibliography is quite rich, though a few important sources could be added such as A. S. Altekar, History of Benares, Benares 1937; A. K. Narain-T. N. Roy, Excavations at Rajghat (1957-1958; 1960-1965), Varanasi, B. H. U., 1976; Benares and its Ghats, Published by the Kashi Tirtha Sudhar Trust, Benares, Allahabad, 1931 and R. L. Singh, Banaras: A Study in Urban Geography.

The diacritical marks of the Sanskrit words have been reduced purposely 'so that this text will not be unnessarily cumbersome to read' (p. 367). However, the name of the town in the title is spelled according to the old fashion 'Banāras', although it is now Vārāṇasī and even before restoration of this name, it was already spelled 'Benares'. Nowhere does the author explain the reason for this choice.

The book is recommendable both to the scholar and to the general reader and deserves attentive reading. The author merits much praise for producing such a book. It is hoped that Diana L. Eck will continue her research and produce similar works of the same exceptional quality.

-G. Bonazzoli

सरिता हांडा, अग्निपुराण की दार्शनिक एवं आयुर्वेदिक सामग्री का अध्ययन, ज्योतिरालोक प्रकाशन, वाराणसी, 1982, pp. XXX, 479. Price Rs. 100/-

From among the many topics which could be chosen for research from the encyclopaedic Agni purāṇa, Dr (MS) Sarita Handa has selected the ayurvedic material, one of the least considered subjects. The book is divided into two parts and deals with both philosophical and ayurvedic matters, but it is the latter which is

given special attention. This book, along with other works on the Garuḍa and Viṣṇudharmottara purāṇa-s, carried on under the illuminating direction of Prof. Jyotir Mitra, enhances greatly our knowledge of ayurvedic science from the medieval period. The Aṣṭāṅga Saṃgraha by Vāgbhāṭa, the Vṛndamādhava, the Cakradatta by Cakrapāṇi and the Viṣṇudharmottara purāṇa constitute the sources of the Agni purāṇa for its ayurvedic material. According to the author such material was attached to the Agni in the first quater of the XII Century A.D. The Agni purāṇa, however, does not simply copy from its sources but at times enlarges them, hence it enhances knowledge on these subjects. The most significant example is the disclosure of the 'sarpamantra', or mantra against snake bite which is not available in any of the other sources of ayurvedic treatises.

The book also contains various kinds of useful bits of information. Comparative tables help the reader throughout the text to determine relationship between the Agni purāṇa and the known works dealing with the same subject. The eleven appendices at the end are extremely helpful toward further research of a scientific nature in the purāṇa-s. They contain masses of useful information which will enhance studies and aid all those who want to know more regarding these topics. Compilers of dictionaries as well as scholars of purāṇa-s will benefit considerably from these appendices.

The book is recommendable for its seriousness of research and for the abundance of its information. The few printing mistakes, especially the quotation of Viṣṇudharmottara purāṇa which has constantly 11 in place of II, should be removed in the second edition.

G. Bonazzoli

ACTIVITIES OF THE ALL-INDIA KASHIRAJ TRUST

(January-June, 1982)

Varāha Purāņa Work

After publication of the critical edition and English translation of the Varāha Purāṇa its Hindi Translation is being revised and edited. It will soon go to the Press.

Garuda Purāņa Work

Four MSS of the Garuḍa Purāṇa have been fully collated and compared: two belong to the Sarasvati Bhandar of Ramnagar Fort and two were taken on loan from Bhandarkar Oriental Institute of Pune. All four MSS are in Devanāgarī. One belonging to the Sarasvati Bhandar of Ramnagar contains all the three khaṇḍa-s, namely the Pūrvakhaṇḍa, the Uttarakhaṇḍa (or Pretakalpa) and the Brahmakhaṇḍa. Other MSS are being ordered from the Royal Society of Bengal, Calcutta, from Dacca University Library, from Bodleian Library, Oxford (U. K.) and from Universitatsbibliothek, Tubingen (W. Germany).

Veda-pārāyaņa

In the bright half of the month of $M\bar{a}gha$ ($M\bar{a}gha$ Śukla), the Śukla Yajurveda Samhitā was recited in the Vyāseśvara temple of the Ramnagar Fort by Pt. Mahadeva Ghanapathi. Sri Visvanatha Shastri was Śrotā of the $P\bar{a}r\bar{a}yana$. On the successful conclusion of the $P\bar{a}r\bar{a}yana$ usual $Daksin\bar{a}$ and certificates were awarded to the reciter and Śrotā.

Purāņa-pāţha and Pravacana

- In the month of Caitra, the Adhyātma Rāmāyana was recited in the Janakpur temple of Ramnagar by Sri Ramji Mishra. The Pārāyana was held from Caitra Śukla Pratipad tithi up to Navamī tithi.
- The Jñānakhaṇḍa of Tripura Rahasya was recited by Sri Ramji Mishra in the Bāla Tripurā Sundari Temple of Ramnagar from Āṣāḍha Śukla Pratipad upto Navami.

Visitors to the Purana Department

1. A group of six persons, among which the Chairman, Vice-Chairman, Secretary of the Haryana Bhumi Vikas

- Bank (HSLDB). They wrote in the Visitor's Book'...are very much impressed by work being done by the Trust and the employees working. This is a great contribution being made by the Trust.'

 —On 7.1.1982
- 2. A. K. Narain, University of Wisconsin, Madison, U. S. A. यहाँ फिर आकर बड़ी प्रसन्तता हुई कि इस शोध संस्थान का कार्य हमेशा की तरह सभी तरह की परिस्थितियों के बावजूद सफलतापूर्वक चल रहा है।

-On 22.1.1982

- 3. Robin Thite, of British Council, Calcutta, with Kumar Rani of Burdawan: 'We were very pleased to have the opportunity to see something of the great work on the Puranas. It requires of all concerned much patience and devotion.'
- 4. K. T. Pandurangi, President, Mythic Society, Bangalore, Upakulapati Poornaprajna Vidyapeetha, Bangalore (Retired Prof. of Sanskrit, Bangalore University). On 11.2.1982.
- C. R. Swaminathan, Deputy Educational Advisor (Skt), Ministry of Education, Govt. of India, New Delhi. On 2.5.1982.
- 6. Mr. Henry O. Thompson, Secretary of the Board of the Global Congress of World's Religions (GCWR). On 31.5.1982.

Demise of Dr. R. C. Hazra

Dr. R. C. Hazra passed way at his residence in Calcutta on 10.5.1982. He was a world renowned scholar of Purāṇas on which he wrote many books and articles opening new fields of research. He was a member of the Editorial Board of our Bulletin. The Chairman of the Trust as well as all the members of the Editorial Board and the staff of the Bulletin express their condolences and pray for eternal peace for his soul.

Research Scholars at the Purana Department

It is not infrequent that scholars and research students come to the Purāṇa Department for completing their studies by using the books of the library and by conversing with the members of the staff

who are specialist in the Purāṇic field. Mrs. Uma Soni a research student of Sagar University visited our Department for a few days in June: her research topic is अन्नदाचरण का व्यक्तित्व एवं कृतित्व ॥

ACTIVITIES OF THE SISTER TRUSTS

Mahārāja Benares Vidyāmandira Mangalotsava

The annual Vasanta mangalotsava took place on 26-28 March 1982 in the evenings from 7 to 9 p.m. The three-day programme was held under the patronage of the Chairman of the Vidyamandira Trust, H. H. Dr Vibhuti Narain Singh. The musical programme was held in the premises of the Vidyamandira inside the Palace. The Chairman of the Trust, important persons of the town and of the Universities attended every day. A group of local people listened with interest to the classical music rendered by the students of the College of Performing Arts of B. H. U. On the last evening a Kathak dance was performed by three boys, students of the difficult art at Kabir Chowra in a traditional school.

Museum

The Museum is the main attraction throughout the year for pilgrims and tourists who come to Vārāṇasī. The rich arm collection and the ivories make Ramnagar Museum one of the best of its kind in India. Among the important visitors who signed the Visitor's Book, are:—

- 1. Brajraj Singh of Kishangarh and Major Pratap Singh.
- 2. Sir John and Lady Thomas, British High Commission in India.
- 3. Prince Anjun Quder, Chairman of Oudh's Trust, Calcutta. He writes in the visitors book: 'A very enjoyable and memorable visit to this great House of Benares, renews old ties of friendship extending to four generations.'
- 4. Major Raja Bahadur Birendra Bahadur Singh of Khairagarh M. P. Bhopal. 'A great Museum only of its kind in India. I have visited almost all the Museums in the country but I never saw such rare collections of arms,

- ivory, houdah etc. both old and modern. I thank H. H. taking me round the Museum—very well kept indeed.'
- 5. Prince and Princess Czetwertynski, Belgian Embassy, New Delhi.
- 6. Mr. and Mrs. Michael Pisto, American Embassy, New Delhi.
- 7. Emilio Paolo Bassi, Embassador of Italy, New Delhi, in a note, 'This is the second time I am coming to this magnificent Palace (with this rich, very well kept museum) and how I hope there will be a third one!'

Dhrupad Mela

The eighth Dhrupad Melā took place. It was organized at Tulsi Ghat, Vārāṇasī, under the auspices of the Vidyamandir Trust. For the occasion the open ground where the Dhrupad Mela took place was decorated and illuminated. The three night programme was performed under a 'shyamāna' where many people, including several young men and women from abroad, spent the whole night in listening to the best artists in the field.

MAHARAJA UDIT NARAIN SINGH MĀNASA PRACĀRA NIDHI

Navahna Pārāyaņa

As usual the Navahna Pārāyaṇa and Pravacana was performed in the Kālī Temple of Chakiā for nine days from Vaiśākha Śukla Pratipad upto Vaiśākha Navamī, i. e., from 24 April to 2 May, 1982. Pravacanakartā were Sivanarain Vyāsa and others.

ANNOUNCEMENT OF FOUR NEW PROJECTS

The All-India Kashiraj Trust has resolved to introduce four new Projects for the advancement of Purāṇic learning. The Trust heartily requests all scholars interested in Purāṇic study for cooperation.

(1) Publication of monographs dealing with Purāṇic literature (i.e. works bearing the names of Purāṇas or Upapurāṇas) in all the regional languages of India. Each monograph should

JULY, 1982] ACTIVITIES OF THE ALL-INDIA KASHIRAJ TRUST 417

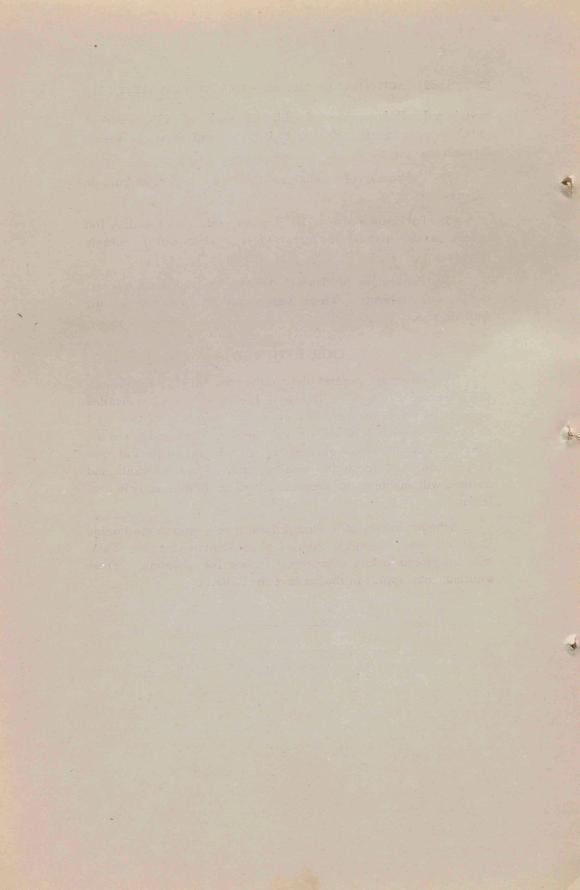
contain a detailed account of published works, of MSS. preserved in the libraries and the Private Collections and of works known through quotations.

- (2) Publication of unpublished theses on important Purāṇic subjects.
- (3) Publication of a series of monographs (not less than 100 pages) on the lives of the great sages as described in Purānic literature.
- (4) Publication of Sanskrit Digests by traditional scholars on Purāṇic subjects. These digests may be published in the Bulletin also.

OUR REQUEST

We earnestly request the authorities of all Institutions (Universities, Colleges or Research Institutes) to send us detailed accounts of works, done or taken up by the members of their staff or by the Research Scholars, on the Purāṇas, Upapurāṇas and the Epics. They are also requested to send us the outlines of their Projects on Purāṇic studies and research. These accounts and outlines will enable us to prepare a Purāṇic Bibliography in near future.

Scholars interested in Purāṇic study may send to the Purāṇa Dept, any query of general interest about Purāṇic matters. These will be placed before competent persons for solution. These solutions may appear in the issues of the Bulletin.



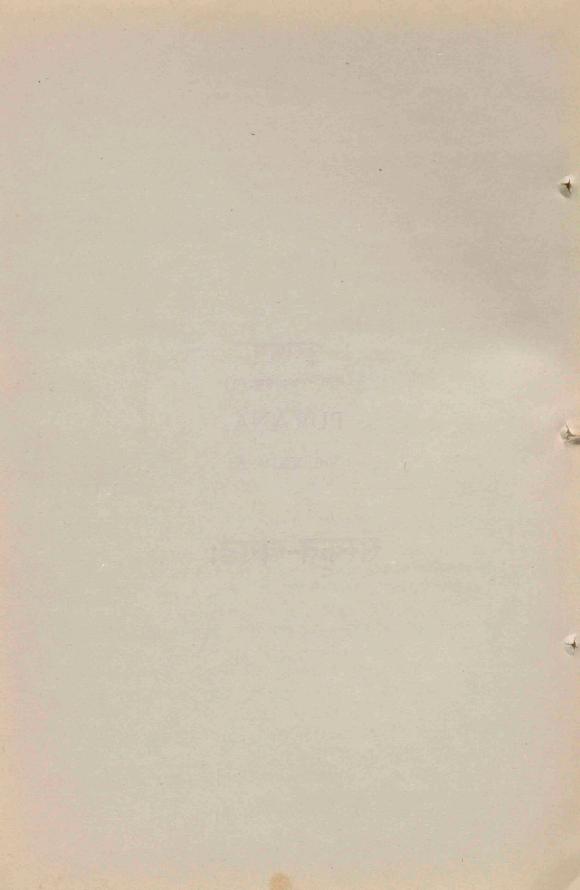
पुराणम्

(भागः-२४; श्रङ्कः-२)

PURANA

(Vol. XXIV. 2)

संस्कृत-खग्डः



पुराणवणिताः पाशुपता योगाचार्याः

प॰ व्रजवल्लभद्विवेदः

[In a host of works on the Pāśupata and Śaiva philosophies and in some of the compendia on Indian philosophies we find a list of 28 Śaiva (Pāśupata) yogācāryas beginning with Śveta and ending with Nakuliśa or Lakuliśa. In some of the Purāṇas (namely Śiva-p. Liṅga-p. etc.) also, we find the names of these ācāryas (often with variations in the names).

In the Purāṇas each of these 28 ācāryas is said to have four disciples (112 in all). Names of many of these disciples (as given in the Purāṇas) have variations. In the Purāṇas and the Mahābhārata we find very little information about these teachers.

Fortunately the works on the Śaiva and Pāśupata śāstras contain some valuable pieces of information about the life and activities of these ācāryas. The author has tried to collect here all important pieces of information about these teachers from the aforesaid śāstras.

There is also a list of 18 avatāras of Śiva in the commentary by Guṇaratna on the Ṣaḍdarśana-samuccaya. A comparison of these names with the names stated in the Purāṇas and the philosophical works has also been made by the author.

An alphabetical list of all these teachers has also been given at the end of the article. —Editor]

हरदत्तविरिचता गणकारिका भासर्वज्ञरिचतया रत्नटीकया सह बड़ोदा-नगरस्थगायकवाड्शोधसंस्थया प्रकाशिता। लकुलीशपाशुव्तमतस्यायं ग्रन्थः। अत्र परिशिष्टक्ष्पेण विशुद्धिमुनिविरिचतं यमप्रकरणम्, विशुद्धिमुनिकृतमात्म-समर्पणम् अज्ञातकर्तृकः कारणपदार्थः, रुद्रनामानि, आचार्यहरिभद्रकृतस्य

१. गणकारिका भासर्वज्ञकृतिरिति तत्सम्पादकस्य मतं डाॅ. सुरेन्द्रनाथदासमहोदयेन (ए हिस्ट्री आफ इण्डियन फिलासफी, भा. ५, पृ. ११-१२), डाॅ. कान्तिचन्द्र-पाण्डेय महोदयेन (शैवदर्शनबिन्दुः, पृ० ३१) च खण्डितम्।

षड्दर्शंनसमुच्चयस्य, राजशेखरसूरिकृतस्य च षड्दर्शनसमुच्चयस्य पाशुपतमत-संबद्धोऽशः, सर्वंदर्शनसंग्रहस्थं नकुलीशपाशुपतमतदर्शनम्, कारवणमाहात्म्य-मित्येते स्वल्पकाया ग्रन्था अपि प्रकाशिता विद्यन्ते । तत्र विशुद्धिमुनिकृते आत्मसमपंणे श्वेतादिलकुलीशान्तानामष्टाविशतिसंख्याकानां योगाचार्याणां नामानीमानि दृश्यन्ते—

श्वेतः सुतारो दमनः सुगोत्र कङ्क एव च।
लोकाक्षिजैगीषव्यौ च तथैव दिधवाहनः ॥
ऋषभो मुनिरुग्रश्च चित्रार्थालिश्च गौतमः ।
वेदिशरा गोकर्णश्च गुहावासिशिखण्डिनौ ॥
जटामाली चाट्टहासो दारुको लाङ्गली तथा ।
श्वेतः शूल्यथ दण्डी च सहिष्णुः सोमशर्मकः ॥
लकुलीशश्चावतारा अष्टाविशतिसंख्यकाः । इति ।

योगाचार्याणामेषां नामानि पाठभेदेन सह ेस्कन्दपुराणस्य माहेश्वर-खण्डान्तर्गतकौमारिकाखण्डस्य ४० तमे अध्यायेऽपि सन्ति । अन्यत्राष्टाविद्याति-संख्याकानामेषां शिवयोगिनां प्रत्येकं चत्वारः शिष्या इत्याहत्य ११२ संख्यकानां शिष्याणां नामावली वर्तते । शिवपुराणे सैषा नामावली स्थलद्वये दृश्यते । एका तृतीयस्याः शतरुद्धसंहितायाश्चतुर्थे पञ्चमे चाध्याये, अपरा च सप्तम्या वायवीयसंहिताया उत्तरभागस्य नवमेऽध्याये । तत्र प्रथमा नामावली वायु-पुराणस्य २३ तमाध्यायानुसारिणी, अपरा च लिङ्गपुराणस्य सप्तमाध्यायस्थां नामावलीमनुसरित । "अद्य ब्रह्मणोऽह्मि द्वितीयप्रहराधें श्रीश्वेतवाराहकल्पे वेवस्वतमन्वन्तरेऽष्टाविंशतितमे कलियुगे" इति प्रत्यहं सन्ध्यावन्दनकाले वयं भणामः । तत्र प्रथमस्यां नामावल्यां प्रतिद्वापरयुगं प्रादुर्भूतानां वेदव्यासानाम्,

श. आचार्यहरिभद्रसूरिणा क्लोकात्मकः षड्दर्शनसमुच्चयाख्यो ग्रन्थो रचितः। तत्र गुणरत्नकृतं व्याख्यानं विद्यते। अत्र व्याख्याग्रन्थस्यांशविशेषः संगृहीत इति विभावनीयम्।

अत्र निबन्धे स्कन्दपुराण-वायुपुराण-लिङ्गपुराणानां मोरसंस्करणस्य, कूर्मपुराणस्य मोरसंस्करण-काशीराजन्याससंस्करणयोः, शिवपुराणस्य च काशीपण्डितपुस्तकालय-संस्करणस्य उपयोगः कृतः । आ. आत्मसमपंणम्, कू. कूर्मपुराणम्, कूका. कूर्म-पुराणकाशीराजन्याससंस्करणम्, लि. लिङ्गपुराणम्, वा. वायुपुराणम्, शिवा. शिवपुराणवायवीयसंहिता, शिश. शिवपुराणशतरुद्रसंहिता, स्क. स्कन्दपुराणम्, इति च संकेतपरिचयो बोध्यः ।

प्रतिकिलियुगं प्रादुर्भूतानां योगाचार्याणां च नामावली संयुक्ता वर्तते विस्तृता सिविवरणा, अपरा च नामावली केवलं योगाचार्याणामेव। सैषा द्वितीया नामावली कूर्मपुराणेऽपि दृश्यते। सौभाग्यादस्माकमस्य पुराणस्य परिष्कृतं संस्करणं काशीराजन्यासमुद्धितं समुपलभ्यते। अस्मिन् संस्करणं पूर्विवभागीयैक-पञ्चाशेऽध्याये वर्तते सैषा नामावली। ततः पूर्वतने चाध्याये वेदव्यासावताराः परिगणिताः। अस्य संस्करणस्य विषयसंवादाख्ये द्वितीये परिशिष्टे व्यासाव-ताराणां च पुराणान्तरेषु विणतानां स्थलनिर्देशो वर्तते, योगाचार्यावताराणां च पुराणान्तरेषु विणतानां स नास्ति। अतो यदस्माभिष्ठपल्बधं तदाधारेणैव

२. व्यासावताराणां नामावलीष्वपि क्वचन वैभिन्न्यं दृश्यते । योगाचार्यनामावली-परीक्षणमेव प्रकृतनिबन्धस्य विषय इति न साऽत्र परामुश्यते ।

३. शिवपुराण-लिङ्गपुराणयोरिप दृश्यते व्यासावतारनामावलीति न सार्वात्म्येन स्थलिनर्देशो विहित इति प्रतिभाति । आगमसंहितातन्त्रादिग्रन्थेषु पुराणेषु च समुपलभ्यन्ते समानविषयकाः समानानुपूर्वीकाः श्लोकाः । स्थलानामीदृशानां प्रामाणिकी सर्वाङ्गपूर्णा च विषयानुक्रमणो निर्मीयेत चेत् तुलनात्मकमनुशीलनमतीव परिष्कृतं स्यात् । प्रत्येकं पुराणस्य पाठपरिष्कारात्मकसंस्करणवत् सम्पूर्णस्य पुराणवाङ्मयस्य पाठपरिष्कारोऽपि परस्परसाहाय्येन कर्तुं शक्यते ।

४. योगाचार्यनामावली डॉ॰ सुरेन्द्रनाथदासगुप्तेन पूर्वोक्ते ग्रन्थे स्थल्द्वये (पृ॰ ६, ७०) चिंचता । त । (पृ॰ ६) टिप्पण्यामन्यैविद्वद्भिः संगृहीता नामावली विनैव नामनिर्देशं समर्यते । साम्याभावाच्च नामावलीयं कल्पनाप्रसूतेति (मिथिकल) च स नि॰कर्षयित । तेन नास्या नामावल्याः परीक्षायै प्रयासो विधेय इति तस्याभिप्रायः प्रतीयते । पौराणिकीषु सर्वासु घटनासु किमिप तथ्यं पिहितमिति चास्माकीनो विश्वासः । एष विश्वास एव प्रवर्तयत्यस्मानस्यां नामावलीपरीक्षायाम् । पाशुपतसूत्रसम्पादकेन श्रीमताऽनन्तकृष्णशास्त्रिणा रिचत उपोद्चातोऽप्यत्र द्रष्टव्यः । विशेषतस्तस्याद्यानि प्राति ।

१. अत्र शिवपुराणीयशतरुद्रसंहिताया इमे क्लोका विशेषतोऽवधेयाः सन्ति—''वैवस्वते- ऽन्तरे सम्यक् प्रोक्ता हि परमात्मना । योगेश्वरावताराश्च सर्वावर्तेषु सुव्रताः । व्यासाश्चैवाष्टिविशत्या द्वापरे द्वापरे विभो । योगेश्वरावताराश्च प्रारम्भे च कलौ कलौ ॥'' (५।५१-५६) इति । तत्रैव वायवीयसंहितोत्तरभागेऽपि—''एते वाराहकल्पेऽस्मिन् सप्तमस्यान्तरे मनोः । अष्टाविशतिराख्याता योगाचार्या युगक्रमात् ॥ शिष्याः प्रत्येकमेतेषां चत्वारः शान्तचेतसः । श्वेतादयश्च रुष्यान्तास्तान् व्रवीमि यथाक्रमम् ॥'' (९।६-७) इति, ''एते शिष्या महेशस्य योगाचार्यस्वरूपिणः । संख्या च शतमेतेषां सह द्वादशसंख्यया। सर्वे पाशुपताः सिद्धा भस्मोद्धू लितविग्रहाः । सर्वशास्त्रार्थतत्त्वज्ञा वेदवेदाङ्कपारगाः ॥'' (९।२१-२२) इति च ।

२८ योगाचार्याणाम्, ११२ संख्याकानां तिच्छिष्याणां च नामावली सपाठभेदं समुपस्थाप्यते समालोच्यते च । द्विविधामिप नामावलीं समुपस्थापयत्सु निर्दिष्ट-पुराणक्लोकेषु वर्तते वक्तृश्रोत्रादिप्रयुक्तं महद्वैषम्यमिति, मा भूच्च वृथा निबन्ध-कलेवरवृद्धिरिति तत्रत्या श्लोका नात्र संगृह्यन्ते ।

२८ योगाचार्याः

१. श्वेतः । "भविष्यामि शिखायुक्तः श्वेतो नाम महामुनिः । हिम-विच्छखरे रम्ये छागले पर्वतोत्तमे ॥'' (४।६-७) इत्येवं शिवपुराणीयशतरुद्र-संहितायां वायुपुराणे (२३।११५-११६) च प्रथमस्य योगाचार्यस्य परिचयो वर्तते । अत्र हिमवच्छिखरेषु छागलाख्यस्य पर्वतोत्तमस्य स्थितिभौगोलिकै-राधुनिकैर्गवेषणीया। छगलाण्डं नाम ज्ञानेन्द्रियभुवनं शैवसिद्धान्तग्रन्थेषु वर्ण्यते । स्वच्छन्दतन्त्रे (१०।१०४६-१०६१) गुणतत्त्वे गुरुपङ्क्तित्रयं वर्ण्यते । तत्र श्वेतादीनां नामानि व्युत्क्रमेण पठितानि दृश्यन्ते । प्रथमस्यास्य योगाचार्यस्य श्वेत इत्येव सार्वित्रकं नाम । नात्र पाठभेदः कचन दृश्यते । श्वेतमुनेरुपाल्यानं महाभारते^३ (आदि॰ १।२३३, शान्ति० १५३।६८, अनु० ११५।६६, १५०।५२), लिङ्गपुराणे (पू० २९-३० अ०) पराख्ये तन्त्रे च समुपलभ्यते । अन्यत्रापि स्यादेतत्। "निवृत्तिमार्गं सुदृढं वर्तयिष्ये कलाविह" (शिश॰ ४।१६), ''निवृत्तिपथवर्धनः'' (शिश० ४।२५), ''निवृत्तिपथवृद्धये'' (शिश० ४।३५),

२. अस्मदीये तन्त्रयात्राख्ये निबन्धसंग्रहे ''वैष्णवेषु तदितरेषु चागमेषु षडध्वविमर्शः'' इति शीर्षको निबन्धो द्रष्टव्यः (प. २७)। वामदेवः, श्वेतः, लोकाक्षः, सुहोत्रः, गौतमः, दिधवाहः, ऋषभः, गोकर्णः, शिखण्डी, जटी, माली, उग्रः, भृगुः, शिखी, शूली, सुपालनः, अट्टहासः, दारुकः, लाङ्गली,

लकुलेश इत्येतानि नामानि योगाचार्यनामावलीमनुकुर्वन्ति ।

३. महाभारते आदिपर्वणि (१।२२५–२३८) सुहोत्रः, काक्षीवान्, औशिजः, दमनः, युवनाश्वः, श्वेतः, कङ्कः, बलबन्धः, निरामर्दः, केतुश्युङ्ग इत्येते राजानो वर्ण्यन्ते । एतानि च नामानि योगाचार्याणामपि दृश्यन्ते । क्षत्रियः पाशुपतपद्धत्या शिवं समाराधयेदिति वामनपुराणं वदति (६।८६-९१) । तेन पाशुपताचार्येषु क्षत्रियनाम्नां संगतिर्बाढं सिद्धचति।

१. शिवायुक्त इति शिश. पाठोऽशुद्धो मन्तव्यः, अग्रिम एव श्लोके ''शिष्याः शिखायुक्ताः'' (४।७) इति पाठदर्शनात् । ''शिवे युक्ताः'' (२३।११६) इति तु वा. पाठः । तत्रापि शिखायुक्ता इत्यनेनैव पाठेन भवितव्यम् । श्वेतमुनेहि द्वितीयस्य श्वेतशिख इति नाम दृश्यते । अष्टमस्य दिववाहनास्यस्य योगाचार्यस्य च शिष्यः पञ्चशिखो भवति । शिखिनः, मुण्डिनः, जटिनश्चेति त्रिविधा मुनयो भवन्ति । तत्र पाशुपता एते योगा-चार्याः शिखिनः स्यः ।

इत्यादिवचनदर्शनादेते योगाचार्या निवृत्तिमार्गंपरायणा आसिन्निति प्रतीयते। ^१प्रवृत्तिपरायणान् मुनोन् निवृत्तिमार्गे प्रवर्तियतुं श्वेतो महामुनिर्दारुवनं जगा-मेति लिङ्गपुराणीयं (१।२९।७-८) कथानकमप्यस्य मतस्य पोषकम्। ब्रह्म-सूत्रव्याख्याता श्रीकण्ठो नानागमविधायिनं श्वेतं स्मरति । एवं च मुनिरयं पाशुपतमतस्य प्रवर्तंकः प्रथमो योगाचार्यं इति मन्तव्यम् ।

२. सुतारः । एतदेव सार्वत्रिकं नाम । कूकाः इत्यत्र तु सुभान इति

नाम मुले स्थापितम्।

३. दमनः । मदनः—शिवा. कू. लि., तारणः —स्क. । दमनाख्यो ब्रह्मर्षि-र्महाभारते (वन० ५३।६-८) श्रूयते ।

४. सुहोत्रः । सुगोत्रः — आ., सुहोत्री — वा. । सुहोत्रनामकः प्राचीनो नृपतिऋषिश्च महाभारते (आदि० १।३२६, वन० २६।२४) वर्ण्यते ।

५. कङ्कः । कङ्कणः – कू. कूका. स्क. । कङ्कतामकः प्राचीनो नृपति-र्महाभारते (आदि० १।२३३) दृश्यते ।

६. लोकाक्षः । लौगाक्षिः—शिवा., लोकाख्यः—स्क. । ७५ संख्याकः शिष्योऽपि लोकाक्षिर्वर्तते । तत्रापि लौगाक्षिरिति पाठान्तरं दृश्यते ।

- ''तान् सात्वते क्रियामार्गे मद्वाक्याद् याहि योजय'' (१।७) इति पाञ्चरात्रीयसात्वत-संहितावचनस्य अद्यावधि निवृत्तिपरायणान् मुनीन् सात्वतशास्त्रोदिते शुद्धे क्रियामार्गे प्रवृत्तिप्रवणे योजयेत्यभिप्रायो भवति । ''तृतीयमृषिसर्गं च देविषत्वमुपेत्य सः । तन्त्रं सात्वतमाचष्ट नैष्कर्म्यं कर्मणां यतः ॥'' (१।३।८) इति भागवतपद्यव्याख्याने श्रीघर:—''कर्मणामेव मोचकत्वं यतो भवति तदाचष्टेत्यर्थः'' इत्याह । ''प्रवृत्ति-लक्षणश्चैष धर्मी नारायणात्मकः'' (३४७।८३) इत्येवं च महाभारते नारायणीयो-पाख्याने प्रतिपाद्यते । तेन पाशुपतो धर्मो निवृत्तिलक्षणः, पाञ्चरात्रधर्मश्च प्रवृत्ति-लक्षणः सिद्धचित । सांख्ययोगाचार्यः पञ्चशिखो महाभारते (शान्ति. २१८।११) पञ्चस्रोतित निष्णातः पञ्चरात्रविशारदश्च वर्ण्यते । तेनोभयधर्माभिज्ञः स इति सिद्धचित । पशुपतेः शिवस्य पञ्चवक्त्रेभ्यः पञ्चक्षोतस्सु शिवागमाः प्रवर्तन्त इति च स्मर्तव्यमत्र ।
 - २. "नमः श्वेताभिधानाय नानागमविधायिने" इति विद्यते तत्रत्यं मङ्गलाचरण-चतुर्थपद्यम् । अत्र श्रीकण्ठभाष्यव्याख्याकारोऽप्पयदीक्षितो वक्ति—''अनेन श्लोकेन शिवशास्त्रप्रचारणार्थशिवावताररूपाणामष्टाविशतेर्योगाचार्याणामाद्यस्य श्वेताचार्य-स्यापि नमस्कारः क्रियते । अस्मिन् पक्षे 'नानागमविधायिने' इत्यस्य 'नानाविध-पाशुपताद्यागमनिर्मात्रे' इत्यर्थः'' इति । तेन च योगाचार्येष्वाद्यस्य श्वेतस्य नाना-गमनिमार्तृत्वं सिद्धचतीति नेयं नामावली कल्पनामात्रप्रसूतेति विभावनीयं विपश्चिद्धिः।

७. जैगीषच्यः । "योगं संदृढियष्यामि महायोगिवचक्षणः । काश्यां गुहान्तरे संस्थो दिव्यदेशे कुशास्तरिः।।" (शिश० ४।२८) इत्येवं सप्तमस्य योगाचार्यस्य जैगीषव्यस्य वर्णनं दृश्यते । वाराणस्यां काशीगुहा प्रसिद्धा । तस्मिन् दिन्यदेशे कुशास्तरण एष योगाचार्यः प्रादुर्भृतं इत्यनेन ज्ञायते। ैब्रह्मसभायां राजमानो जैगीषव्यो महर्षिर्महाभारते सभापर्वणि (११।२४) वर्ण्यते । जैगीषव्यदेवलयोः संवादो महाभारते शल्यपर्वणि (५०५३-५५) जैगीषव्यासितयोस्तत्रैव शान्तिपर्वणि (२२९।३-४), योगसूत्रव्यासभाष्ये (३।१८) च आवट्यजैगीषव्यसंवादो वर्ण्यते।

द. दिधवाहनः । दिधवाहः - शिवा. कुका. । दिधवाहनाख्यः प्राचीनो नृपतिर्महाभारते (शान्ति. ४९।८०) दृश्यते ।

९. ऋषभः । वृषभः — कूका., ऋभतः — शिशा., एष पाठस्त्वशुद्धः प्रतिभाति । महाभारते (वन. ११०।८, सभा. ११।२४, शान्ति. १२५-१२८ अ.) ऋषभाख्यस्य महर्षेः परिचय उपदेशादिकं च वर्तते ।

१०. भृगुः । दशमस्य योगाचार्यस्य मुनिरिति नाम बाहुल्येन दृश्यते । मुनिर्धर्म इति स्क. पाठः, भृगुरिति तु कू. कूका. पाठः । "हिमविच्छखरे रम्ये भगुतुङ्गे नगोत्तमे । नाम्ना भगोस्तु शिखरं तस्मात् तिच्छखरं भृगुः ॥ तत्रापि मम पुत्राश्च भृङ्गाद्याः श्रुतिसंमताः ॥" (शिश. ५।१-२, वा. २३।१४८-१४९) इत्येवमस्य वर्णनदर्शनाद् भृगुरित्येवास्य योगाचार्यस्य नाम स्वीकर्तव्यम्। अस्याचार्यस्य श्रुतिसंमतेषु चतुर्षु शिष्येषु प्रथमस्य भृङ्गस्यात्र निर्दिष्टस्य नाम न कचन दुश्यत इति पाठ एष परीक्षणीयः। महषेर्भुगोविस्तृतः परिचयो महाभारते द्रष्टव्यः ।

११ उग्रः । एकादशस्य उग्राख्यस्य योगाचार्यस्य नाम शिश. इत्यत्र स्पष्टं न ज्ञायते, किन्तु तस्य प्रादुर्भावस्थली गङ्गाद्वारमिति तत्र निर्दिष्टम् । उग्रा-वा. इति त्वशुद्धः पाठः । पुरुषतत्त्वे स्थितमुग्राख्यं भुवनं शैवागमेषु वर्ण्यते । उग्राख्यः शिष्योऽपि ५४ संख्याको द्रष्टव्यः । प्रजापतेः कवैः पुत्र उग्रो महाभारते (अनु. ८५।१३३) दृश्यते ।

१२. अत्रिः । अत्रिवर्णने ''हेमकञ्चुकमासाद्य'' इति शिश.पाठः, "हेमकं वनमासाद्य" इति च वा.पाठः। द्वादशत्रयोदशयोगाचार्ययोनिमनी

१. महाभारते सभापर्वणि (११।१९-२४) भृगुः, अत्रिः, वसिष्ठः, गौतमः, अङ्गिराः, च्यवनः, सनत्कुमारः, देवलः जैगीषव्यः, ऋषभ इत्येते ऋषयो ब्रह्मसभामुपतिष्ठन्त इति वर्ण्यते ।

२. भृगोः, भृगुतीर्थस्य, भृगुतुङ्गस्य नगोत्तमस्य च वर्णनं महाभारतेऽपि बहुषु स्थलेषु वर्तते ।

चित्रार्थालिश्च—आ. इत्येवं दृश्येते । अत्र च स्पष्टं न किमिप ज्ञायते । ५३ संख्याकः शिष्योऽपि तन्नाम्नैव प्रसिद्धः । ब्रह्माषरित्रश्च महाभारतपुराणादिषु प्रथित एव ।

१३ बिलः । बिलः, बालिर्वा महामुनिर्बालिखिल्याश्रमे गन्धमादने पर्वतोत्तमे प्रादुर्भूत इति शिशः वा. इत्याभ्यां ज्ञायते । बालिः—कू. बली—कूकाः, सुपालकः—शिवाः, सुबालकः—िलः, सबालकः—स्कः। ैयुधिष्ठिरः सभायां विद्यमानो बिलिर्नाम ऋषिर्महाभारते (सभा० ४।१०) वर्ण्यते ।

१४. गौतम: । आङ्किरसे वंशे गौतमवने प्रादुर्भूत एष योगाचार्यं इति शिश. वा. इत्याभ्यां ज्ञायते । अत्र पाठान्तरं नास्ति । ८४ संख्याकः शिष्योऽपि गौतमः । महाभारतादिषु विवरणं द्रष्टव्यम् ।

१५. वेदिशाराः । एष योगाचार्यः सरस्वत्या उत्तरे भागे हिमवत्पृष्ठ-वर्तिनि वेदशीर्षाख्ये नगोत्तमे प्रादुर्भूतः । वेदशीर्षा—कूका , वेदशीर्षः—िल , वेददर्शी—कू. वेदशीर्णः—स्क. । वेदिशरा नाम प्राचीन ऋषिर्महाभारते (शान्ति. ३३६।८) दृश्यते ।

१६. गोकर्णः । सुपुण्ये गोकर्णवने गोकर्णस्य प्रादुर्भावो वर्ण्यते शिशः वा इत्युभयोः स्थलयोः । अत्र पाठान्तरं न दृश्यते । गोकर्णं नाम आकाशतत्त्व-भुवनं शैवागमेषु वर्ण्यते । तीर्थरूपेण तपोवनरूपेण च महाभारते बहुषु स्थलेषु वर्ण्यते ।

१७. गुहावासी । ''हिमविच्छखरे शुभे ॥ महालये महोत्तुङ्गे शिवक्षेत्रं हिमालयम् । सिद्धक्षेत्रं महापुण्यं भिवष्यति महालयम् ॥'' (शिशः ५।१८-१९, वाः २३।१७४-१७५) इत्येवं शिशः वाः इत्यत्र महालयाख्यं स्थानमस्य योगाचार्यस्य प्रादुर्भावस्थलत्वेन निर्दिष्टम् । गुहावासः—कू. कूकाः पाठान्तरम् ।

१८. शिखण्डो । हिमविच्छखरे सिद्धिक्षेत्रे महापुण्ये शिखण्डो नाम पर्वतः, सिद्धिनिषेवितं शिखण्डिनो वनं च राजते । तत्रैव शिखण्डवाख्यस्य योगाचार्यस्य प्रादुर्भावो वर्ण्यते पूर्वोक्तयोरुभयोरिप स्थलयोः । ईश्वरतत्त्वे स्थितमेतन्नामकं भुवनं शिवागमेषु श्रूयते । शिखण्डभृत्—िल. स्क., शिखण्डधृक्—कू. । शिखया मयूरिपच्छेन वा विशिष्टः सम्बन्धो योगाचार्याणामित्यनेन नाम्नाऽिप ज्ञायते ।

१६. जटामाली । हिमविच्छिखरे रम्ये यत्र जटायुर्नीम पर्वतो विराजते, तत्रैव जटामालिनो योगाचार्यंस्य प्रादुर्भावः । यजमाली—कू., जटी माली— शिशः ।

महाभारते सभापर्वणि (४।१०-१८) देवलः, सत्यः, बिलः, बकः, दाल्भ्यः, सुमन्तुः, जैमिनिः, भालुिकः, भृगुः, काक्षीवान्, औशिजः, गौतम इत्येते मुनयो युधिष्ठिरसभायामासित्रिति वर्ण्यते ।

२०. अट्टहासः । हिमवत्पृष्ठे देवदानवयक्षेन्द्रसिद्धचारणसेवितो महा-गिरिरट्टहासो नाम राजते। अट्टहासप्रिया जनास्तत्र निवसन्ति। तत्रैवास्य योगाचार्यस्य प्रादुर्भावः । अट्टहासाख्यं नाम वायुतत्त्वभुवनं शैवागमेषु स्मर्यते । अत्र पाठान्तरं नास्ति ।

२१. दारुक: । महति देवदारुवने दारुवने वा दारुकाख्यस्य योगाचार्यस्य प्रादुर्भावः । दारुकं नाम कर्मेन्द्रियभुवनं शैवागमेषु द्रष्टव्यम् । दारुणः—स्क. इति पाठान्तरम्।

२२. लाङ्गली। 'तदाऽप्यहं भिवष्यामि वाराणस्यां महामृनिः।। नाम्ना वै लाङ्गली भीमो यत्र देवाः सवासवाः। द्रव्यन्ति मां कलौ तस्मिन् भवं चैव हलायुधम्।।" (शिश. ५।३०-३१ वा २३।१९९-२००) इत्येवं वर्ण्यतेऽयं योगाचार्यः । लाङ्ग्ली—शिवा. ।

२३. महाकालः । "गिरौ कालञ्जरे शुभे ॥ तत्र कालं जरिष्यामि तदा गिरिवरोत्तमे । तेन कालञ्जरो नाम प्रविष्यति स पर्वतः ॥" (शिश. ५।३३-३४, वा. २३।२०३-२०४) इत्येवमस्य योगाचार्यस्य प्रादुभावस्थलं वर्ण्यते । अस्या-चार्यस्य श्वेत इति नाम शिशः वा. आ. कूका. इत्येवं बहुषु स्थलेषु दृश्यते। प्रथमस्य योगाचार्यस्य तच्छिष्यस्य चाप्येतदेव नाम वर्तते । तत्त् उपर्युक्तेन विवरणेन सह न घटत इति नास्माभिर्मुख्यत्वेन स्थाप्यते । महाकाल इत्येव नाम तद्वर्णनं सार्थंकयति । महाकायमुनिः - लि., महायामो मुनिः - कू., संयमी -स्क. इत्येतानि पाठान्तराणि चास्य विशेषणतया योजनीयानि । ६७ संख्याकः शिष्योऽपि महाकायाख्यो वर्तते। महाकालाख्य तेजस्तत्त्वभुवनम्, कालञ्जरं नाम ज्ञानेन्द्रियभुवनं च शैवागमेषु द्रष्टव्यम्। कालञ्जरं निकषा सिद्धान्त-शैवागमाः र प्रसृति लेभिरे, यत्र हि योगाचार्यस्य त्रयोविशतितमस्य प्राद्रभीवः समजायतेति परीक्षणसापेक्षोऽयं विषयः। शिवपार्षदत्वेन (सभा. १०१३४), ज्योतिर्लिङ्गत्वेन (वन ८२।४९) च महाभारते महाकालो वर्ण्यते ।

१. तस्मिन्नवतीर्णं हलायुधम् — वा.।

२. ''निःशेषशास्त्रसदनं किल मध्यदेशः'' (तन्त्रा. ३७।३८) इत्यभिनवगुप्तो वक्ति । ''तदा श्रीकण्ठनाथाज्ञावशात् सिद्धा अवातरन् ।। त्र्यम्बकामर्दकाभिरूयश्रीनाथाः अद्वये द्वये। द्वयाद्वये च निपुणाः क्रमेण शिवशासने।।अत्रश्चार्धचतस्रोऽत्र मठिकाः सन्ततिक्रमात्।" (तन्त्रा. ३६।११-१४) इति च स एवाह । आमर्दक-तीर्थम्, शङ्खमिठिका, त्र्यम्बक(तरिम्ब)मिठिका च तदनुसारमुक्तस्य त्रिविधस्य शिवशासनस्य प्रसारस्थलान्यासन् । एतानि च झाँसीनगरं परितः पूर्वमवस्थिता-न्यासन्नित्याधुनिका ऐतिहासिका वदन्ति । कालञ्जरतीर्थस्यापि तत्रैवावस्थितिर्वर्तते ।

२४. शूलो । शूली नाम महायोगी योगिवन्दिते नैमिषे समजायत । नैमिषं नाम जलीयं भुवनं शैवागमेषु वर्ण्यते । नैमिषारण्यं च पुराणप्रवचनपीठ-त्वेन प्रथितम्।

२४. डिण्डिमुण्डीशः । दण्डीमुण्डीशः—शिवा., दण्डी—आ., डिण्डी— कूका., दण्डी मुण्डीश्वरः—लि. शिश. वा., डिण्डमुण्डीश्वरः—कू., डिण्डीजुण्डी-इवरः—स्क. इतीमानि पाठान्तराण्यत्र दृश्यन्ते । डिण्डिमुण्डिरिति जलीयं भुवनं स्वच्छन्दतन्त्रे (१०।८५४) वर्ण्यते । तेन डिण्डिमुण्डीश इत्येव नाम प्रधानत्वेनात्र स्थाप्यते ।

२६. सिहु । भद्रवटं पुरम्, पुण्यं रुद्रवटं वा प्राप्य सिहु छ्णुः समजायत । सविष्णुः—शिवा., मुण्डी सहिष्णुः—कूका. इति पाठद्वयमप्यशुद्धम् । वस्तुतस्तु मुण्डीति पदं दण्डी इत्यनेन सह योजनीयम् ।

२७. सोमशर्मा । प्रभासतीर्थमासाद्य सोमशर्मा प्रादुर्भूत: । नास्ति पाठान्तरमत्र । प्रभासं नाम जलतत्त्वभुवनं शैवागमेषु वर्ण्यते । प्रभासतीर्थं च "सौराष्ट्रे सोमनाथं च" इत्यादिना वर्णितं प्रभासपट्टनमेव।

२८. लकुलीशः । तदाऽप्यहं भविष्यामि योगात्मा योगमायया । लोक-विस्मापनार्थाय ब्रह्मचारिशरीरकः ॥ श्मशाने मृतमुत्सृज्य दृष्ट्वा कायमनामयम् । ब्राह्मणानां हितार्थाय प्रविष्टो योगमायया ॥ दिव्यां मेरुगुहां पुण्यां त्वया साध च विष्णुना । भविष्यामि तदा ब्रह्मँल्लकुली नाम नामतः ॥ कायावतार इत्येवं सिद्धक्षेत्रं परं तदा।" (शिश. ५।४५-४८, वा. २३।२२०-२२३) इत्येवं वर्ण्यतेऽयमन्तिमो योगाचार्यः शिशः वाः इत्यनयोः स्थलयोः। स्थलमेतत् साम्प्रतं गुजरातराज्ये बड़ोदानगरं निकषा 'कारवण'नाम्ना प्रथितमस्ति । लकुलीश्वर:-शिवा., लकुली-शिश., नकुली-वा., नकुलीश्वर:-कू., नकुलीशः—कूका.। शास्त्रेषु नकुलीशः, लकुलीश इत्युभयविधमिप नाम समुपलभ्यते, तथापि लकुटपाणिरयं शिवावतारो लकुलीशनाम्नैव ज्ञातव्यः। एष एवाचार्यो लकुलीशपाशुपतमतस्य प्रवर्तकः, पाशुपतसूत्राणां प्रणेता। पाशुपतेषु योगाचार्येष्वयमन्तिम इति पाशुपतमतप्रस्थापकोऽप्ययमेवाचार्य इति केषाञ्चनाधुनिकानां मतं भ्रान्तिवज्मिभतमिति मन्तव्यम्।

योगाचार्याणामेवां ११२ शिष्याः

वामनपुराणस्य षष्ठाध्यायस्य ८६-९१ क्लोकेषु हरार्चकानां चत्वारो भेदा वर्णिताः शैव-पाशुपत-कालवदन-कापालिकाख्याः, चातुर्वर्ण्येन चैषां

१. कायारोहणमित्येवं - वा. ।

सम्बन्धः स्थापितः । ब्राह्मणः शैवमतेन, क्षत्रियः पाशुपतक्रमेण, वैश्यः कालास्य-पद्धत्या, शूद्रश्च कापालिककर्मणा शिवं समुपासीतेति तस्याभिप्रायः प्रतीयते । अत्रापि प्रत्येकं योगाचार्यस्य चत्वारः शिष्याः श्रूयन्ते । किमेषामिप चातुर्वर्ण्येन कश्चनः सम्बन्धः समस्ति ? नास्य प्रश्नस्योत्तरं कापि दृश्यते । गवेषणीयं तत् । योगाचार्याणां केषाञ्चन आविर्भावस्थलादिकं वर्ण्यते पुराणेषु । शिष्याणां तु तादृशं विवरणं कापि न दृश्यते । केवलं नामावली वर्तते । पाठभेदपुरस्सरं सात्र समुपस्थाप्यते यावदुपलब्धपरिचयसहिता ।

१. श्वेतः । प्रथमस्य, त्रयोविंशतितमस्य च योगाचार्यस्य कुत्रचिन्नामैतद् दृश्यते । प्रथमस्य श्वेताख्यस्य योगाचार्यस्य प्रथमः शिष्योऽपि तन्नामक एवेति सर्वत्र परिदृश्यमानं पाठान्तररिहतं नामैतत् कामिप समस्यां समुपस्थापयित । दूरस्थे शिष्ये भवतु नाम नाम्नः पुनरावृत्तिः । अत्र तु साक्षाच्छिष्ये सा दृश्यते ।

२. श्वेतशिखः । शिखः -- वा., श्वेतशिखण्डी -- लि.।

- ३. श्वेताश्वः । इवेतास्यः—कूका. । ७१ संख्याकस्य शिष्यस्य श्यावाश्वः श्यावास्य इति वा नाम दृश्यते । कालास्य इति च शिवार्चकेषु तृतीयस्य नाम ।
 - ४. श्वेतलोहितः।
 - ५. दुन्दुभिः।
 - ६. शतरूपः।
- ७. ऋचोकः । हृषीकः —िशवा. शिश. लि. । पाठान्तरेषु ७० संख्याकः शिष्योऽपि ऋचीकः श्र्यते । ऋचीको महर्षिमंहाभारते बहुषु स्थलेषु वर्ण्यते ।
- द. केतुमान् । ८३ संख्याकः शिष्योऽप्येतन्नामक एव । युधिष्ठिरसभायां विद्यमानं नृपतिद्वयं महाभारते (सभा. ४।२७, ३२) इत्यत्र दृश्यते । नास्ति पाठान्तरम् ।
- ह. विशोकः । विकोशः—शिवा. । महाभारते कश्चन केकयराजकुमार एतन्नामको वर्ण्यते (द्रोण. ८२।३)।
 - १०. विकेशः। विशेषः-शिशः।
 - ११ विपाशः । विशापः —वा. कूका., विपापः —शिशा., विशाखः —कू ।
 - १२. पापनाशनः । शापनाशनः —वा. कू. कूका., पाशनाशनः —लि. ।
- १३. सुमुखः । कश्चन नृपितर्महाभारते (सभा ५१। ७ दाक्षिणात्ये पाठे) वर्ण्यते ।
 - १४. दुर्मुखः । नास्ति पाठान्तरम् ।
 - १४. दुर्दम: । दुर्गम:--शिशा । दुदर्भ:--शिश. ।

१६. दुरतिक्रम: । नास्ति पाठान्तरम् । सात्वतसंहितायां (१०।२६) सिद्धदशकेषु दुरतिक्रमः पठचते ।

१७. सनत्कुमारः । महातपस्वी योगाचार्यो भगवान् सनत्कुमारो ब्रह्म-सभायां ब्रह्माणम्पासत इति महाभारते (सभा. ११।२३) वर्ण्यते । एतत्संबद्धा अन्या अपि कथास्तत्रैव द्रष्टव्याः । दालभ्यः —क् . क्का. पाठान्तरम् । युधिष्ठिर-सभायां विद्यमानो महर्षिर्दालभयो महाभारते (सभा, ४।११) द्रष्टव्यः।

१८. सनकः । सनः —वा. कूका. ।

१९. सनन्दनः । सनन्दः-शिवा. लि. ।

२०. सनातनः । युधिष्ठिरसभायां विद्यमानो महर्षिर्महाभारते (सभा. ४।१६) वर्ण्यते ।

२ : सुधामा । षष्ठस्य लोकाक्षेः, त्रयोदशस्य च बलेर्योगाचार्यस्य द्वौ द्वौ शिष्यौ समाननामानौ स्तः । अत्र ४९ संख्याकस्य शिष्यस्य नाम द्रष्टन्यम् ।

२२. विरजाः । विरजः -वा. । ५२ सख्याकः शिष्योऽप्येतन्नामक एव । प्रजापतेः कवेः पुत्र एतन्नामको महाभारते (अनु. ८५ । १३३) द्रष्टव्यः ।

२३. शङ्खपाद् । शङ्खः-शिवा., शङ्खवाणी-कू., संजयः-शिशा। शङ्खपात्रज-कूका. इति पाठोऽशुद्धः । शङ्खपादज इति पाठेन तत्र भाव्यम् । तदैव शिष्यसख्यापूर्तिः संजायेत । वर्तते च स पाठस्तत्र टिप्पण्याम् ।

२४. अजः । अण्डजः-शिवाः, वैरजः-लि., रवः-वाः, विजयः-शिशः। अजनामक ऋषिगणो महाभारते (शान्ति. २६।७) सूच्यते ।

२४. सारस्वतः । एतन्नामकः प्राचीन ऋषिर्महाभारते (शल्य. ५१। ३, ७-११४, वन. ८५।४६, शान्ति. २०८।३१) द्रष्टव्यः ।

२६. मेघः । मोघः - क., योगीशः - शिशः, सुमेधः - वा० । महाभारते (अनु. १५०।४५) तु योगाख्यः कश्चन ऋषिर्वर्ण्यते ।

२७. मेघवाहः । घनवाहः -- क्का., धनवाहः -- कू. वसुवाहः -- वा. ।

२८. सुवाहनः । सुवाहकः-शिवाः ।

२६. कपिल: । सुप्रथितः सांख्याचार्यः ।

३०. आमुरिः । सुप्रथितः सांख्याचार्यः ।

३१. पञ्चशिखः । सुप्रथितो योगाचार्यः । महाभारते (शान्तिः २१८।११) अयमाचार्यः पञ्चस्रोतिस निष्णातः पञ्चरात्रविशारदश्च वर्ण्यते ।

३२. वोढुः । वाष्कलः—शिवा. लि., वाग्बलिः—वा., शाल्वलः— शिशः।

३३. पराशर: । पराशरो महर्षिर्वसिष्ठपौत्रत्वेन प्रथिततमः ।

३४. गर्ग: । गार्ग्यः—वा. । महाभारते (शान्ति. ३१८।५९-६३) वर्णितोऽस्योपदेशो द्रष्टव्यः ।

३५. भार्गवः । पञ्चशिखशिष्यत्वेन ैसांख्यकारिकामाठरवृत्तौ (७१का.) वर्ण्यते ।

३६. अङ्गिराः । गिरिशः — शिवा. । ब्रह्मणो मानसपुत्रेषु परिगण्यते । महाभारतादिषु विवरणं समुपलभ्यते ।

३७. बलबन्धुः । चलबन्धुः — कू. । महाभारते (आदि. १।२३७) प्राचीनः कश्चन नृपतिर्बलबन्धुनामकः । अन्येषामपि योगाचार्याणां नामान्यत्र दृश्यन्ते ।

३८. निरामित्रः । नरोमित्रः – शिश० । महाभारते (आदि. १।२३७)

बलबन्धुना सह निरामदं इति नाम दृश्यते।

३६. केतुश्रुङ्गः । महाभारते (आदि॰ १।२३७) उक्ताभ्यां नामभ्यां सह पठचते ।

४०. तपोधनः । ८८ संख्याकः शिष्योऽप्येतन्नामकः पाठान्तरेषु दृश्यते ।

४१. लम्बोदरः । पाठभेदो न दृश्यते ।

४२. लम्बः । प्रलम्बकः-शिशः।

४३. लम्बाक्षः । लम्बात्मा-शिवाः, विक्रोशः-कू. ।

४४. लम्बकेशकः । केशलम्बः—शिशः, लम्बकः शुकः—कू. इति त्वशुद्धः पाठः ।

४५. सर्वज्ञः ।

४६. समबुद्धिः।

४७. साध्यः ।

४८. सत्यः । सर्वः—शिवाः लि. वाः, शर्वः—शिशः। युधिष्ठिर-सभायां राजमान ऋषिर्महाभारते (सभाः ४।१०) सत्याख्यो वर्ण्यते ।

४६. सुधामा । २१ संख्याकः शिष्योऽप्येतन्नामक एव । उभयत्रापि पाठभेदो न दृश्यते ।

१. भार्गवः, उलूकः, वाल्मीिकः, हारीतः, देवलश्चेति मुनयः पञ्चिश्वशिष्यत्वेन तत्र विण्ताः । तेषु भार्गवः, उलूकः, देवलश्चेति नामत्रयमत्राप्यस्ति । सांख्यकारिका-व्याख्यायां युक्तिदीपिकायां च अक्षपादः, आसुरिः, ऋषभेश्वरः, कणादः, कपिलः, कश्यपः, गौतमः, पञ्चशिखः, भृगुः, विसष्ठः, वाद्धिलः, सनकः, सनत्कुमारः, सनन्दनः, सनातन इत्येते आचार्याः स्मर्यन्ते । तत्र ऋषभ एव ऋषभेश्वरः, वाग्विलरेव वाद्धिलिरिति वयमुत्पश्यामः ।

५० कश्यपः । काश्यपः — लि. क्. शिशा. कूका. । काश्यपः ६१ संख्याया-मपि वर्तते । तत्रापि कश्यप इति पाठान्तरम् । तेनात्र कश्यपस्तत्र च काश्यप इति नाम स्थाप्यते । कश्यपः काश्यपश्च महाभारतादिषु पृथक्तया वर्ण्यते ।

५१. विसष्ठः । वासिष्ठः — लि., विषष्ठः — शिशः ।

५२. विरजाः । २२ संख्याकः शिष्योऽपि । तत्रत्यं विवरणं द्रष्टव्यम् ।

५३. अत्रिः । १२ संख्याकस्याचार्यस्याप्येतदेव नाम ।

५४. उगः । ११ संख्याकस्याचार्यस्याप्येतदेव नाम । देवसदः — लि., दवशदः —शिशः, उग्रतपाः —वा. इति पाठान्तराणि । पुरुषतत्त्वे स्थितमुग्राख्यं भ्वनं शैवागमेषु द्रष्टव्यम्।

५५. श्रवणः । श्रावणः —वा. ।

५६. श्रविष्ठकः । सुवैद्यकः — क्., श्रविष्टकः — वा. श्रविष्कटः — शिश. ।

५७. कुणि: । १०९ संख्याकस्य शिष्यस्य कुणिक इति नाम । अत्र पाश्पत-सूत्रसम्पादकस्य उपोद्घातस्य (पृ. ३) टिप्पणी द्रष्टव्या । कूणिरेव आर्यभट इति तस्याभिप्रायः।

५८. कुणिबाहुः । कुणिगर्गनामकः कच्चन ऋषिर्महाभारते (शल्य. ५२।३) वर्ण्यते ।

५६ कुशरीरः।

६०. कुनेत्रकः।

६१. काश्यप: । कश्यप: — लि. कू. कूका. । ५० संख्यायामपि पाठान्तरे द्रयते तदेतन्नाम।

६२. उशनाः । भृगोः पुत्रस्य शुक्राचार्यस्य नामान्तरम् । महाभारते (आदि. ६५।३६) द्रष्टव्यम्।

६३. च्यवनः । भृगोः पुत्रस्य च्यवनस्योपाख्यानं भारतादिषु द्रष्टव्यम् ।

६४. बृहस्पति:। महर्षेरिङ्गरसः पुत्रस्य बृहस्पतेरुपाख्यानादिकं भार-तादिषु वर्ण्यते।

६५. उतथ्यः । उच्चास्यः - कू. । महर्षेरिङ्गरसो मध्यमः पुत्रः । महा-भारते (आदि. ६६।५, शान्ति ९०-९१ अ., अनु. १५४।११,२२ १८) परिचयो-पदेशादिकं दृश्यते।

६६. वामदेवः । वामदेवः प्रथितो महर्षिरितिहासपुराणादिषु वर्ण्यते । मायातत्त्वे स्थितं वामदेवाख्यं भुवनं शैवागमेषु द्रष्टव्यम् ।

६७ महाकायः । महाकालः - शिवा. कू., महायोगः -- लि. शिश. । २३ संख्याकस्याचार्यस्य विवरणमत्र द्रष्टव्यम् ।



६८. महालयः । महानिलः-शिवा. कूका., महानिलिः-कू,, महा-बल:—लि. शिशः। महालयं नाम आकाशतत्त्वभुवनं शैवागमेषु द्रष्टव्यम्।

६६. वाचः अवा । वाजः श्रवा — कू., वाचस्रवा — वा.।

७०. सुवीर: । सुपीक:-कूका., सुधीक:-लि., सुकेश:-कू, रुचोक:-शिशा., ऋचीकः - वा. । ७ संख्याकः शिष्योऽपि ऋचीकनामा वर्तते ।

७१. श्यावाश्वः । श्यावास्यः—शिशः, श्यावकः-शिवाः लि. । तृतीयस्य शिष्यस्य विवरणमप्यत्र द्रष्टव्यम् ।

७२. यतीश्वरः । सुपथीश्वरः -- कूका., सुपरथीश्वरः -- कू., दृढव्रतः -- वा., संयताश्वकः — कूका. पाठान्तरम् । दृढव्रतो ब्रह्मिषमेहाभारते (शान्ति २०८। २८-२८) वर्ण्यते । यतिश्च विश्वामित्रपुत्रस्तत्रैव (अनु. ४।५८) दृश्यते ।

७३. हिरण्यनाभः । हिरण्यनामा-शिवाः । हिरण्यनाभ इति नाम महाभारते (शान्तिः १२९।१४९) दृश्यते ।

७४. कौशल्यः । कौशिल्यः - वा. ।

७५. लोकाक्षिः । लौगाक्षिः —लि., अकाक्षुः —कू., लोकाक्षी —शिशः., काक्षीव:-वा.। गौतमस्य ऋषेः पुत्रः काक्षीवान् महाभारते (सभा. ४।१७, १७।२२, २१।५) वर्ण्यते । षष्ठ आचार्योऽपि लोकाक्षिरिति नामधेयः ।

७६. कुथुमि: । कुथुभिधः — कू., प्रधिमः — शिश. ।

७७. सुमन्तुः । महर्षेर्व्यासस्य शिष्यो महाभारते (आदि. ६३।८९, सभा. ४।११, शान्ति. ४७।५) वर्णितो द्रष्टव्यः ।

७८. जैमिनिः । महर्षेर्व्यासस्य शिष्यस्तत्रैव (आदि. ५३।६, ६७।८९, सभा. ४।११, शान्ति. ४७।६) वर्ण्यते । वर्चरी-कृका., बर्बरि:-शिश., बर्बरी-लि.।

७६. कवन्धः । कुबन्धः-शिवा., सुबन्धः-वा. ।

८०. कुशिकन्धरः । कुशकन्धरः-शिवा., कुक्षिकन्धरः-शिश. ।

८१. प्लक्षः।

द२. दार्भायणि: । दालभ्यायणि:—लि., दर्वायणि:—क्., यणि:-वा.।

द३. केतुमाली । केतुमान्—शिशः शिवाः कू. कूकाः लि. । ८ संख्याकः शिष्योऽपि केतुमान् । तेनात्र केतुमालीति नाम स्थाप्यते भेदावगमाय ।

द४. गौतमः । गोपनः—लि., बकः—वा.। युधिष्ठिरसभायां बको नाम ऋषिरासीदिति महाभारते (सभा. ४।११) द्रष्टव्यम् । १४ संख्याक आचार्योऽपि गौतमः । तेनात्र बक इति नाम स्थापनीयम् ।

५४. भल्लवी । भल्लवः—शिशः, भल्लाची—क्., भल्लावी—लि., तृत्याचि: -वा., भल्लापी-कूका., कलापी-कूका. पाठान्तरम्। युधिष्ठिर-सभायां विद्यमानेषु ऋषिषु भालुकिरिति नाम दृश्यते (सभा. ४।१५)। तेन तदेव नामात्र स्वीकर्तव्यम्।

द६. मधुपिङ्गः । मधुपिङ्गाक्षः-वा. ।

८७ श्वेतकेतुः । उपनिषन्महाभारतादिषु प्रसिद्धो महर्षिः ।

दद. तपीनिधः। शिवा. शिश. वा. इत्यत्र नाम न दृश्यते। तपोधनः - कृ. । ४० संख्याकः शिष्योऽपि तपोधनः । तत्र पाठभेदो नास्तीत्यत्र तपोनिधिरिति नाम स्थापितम्।

८९. उशिजः। उशिकः — लि. शिशः., उषिधा — कू., ऊषिजः — वा.। औशिजनामकः प्राचीनो नृपतिर्मुनिश्च महाभारते (आदि. १।२२६, सभा. ४।१७) वण्यंते ।

६०. बृहदश्वः । बृहदुक्थः — वा. कूका, बृहद्रक्षः — कू. । महाभारते बृहदश्वः (वन. २६।२४-२५, ५२।४१-५०), बृहदुक्थः (वन. २२८।१८) इति नामद्वयमपि वर्तते।

६१. देवलः । युधिष्ठिरसभायां राजमानो महर्षिर्महाभारते (सभा. ४।१०) वर्ण्यते ।

६२. कवि: । कपि: - कुकाः । महर्षेर्भृगी: पुत्रो भारते (आदि. ६६।४२)

६३. शालिहोत्रः । मुनिरयं महाभारते (आदि. १५४।१५, १८; वन. ७१।२७, ८३।१०७) इत्यत्र वर्ण्यते : अश्वविद्यायां प्रवीण आसीदयम् ।

६४. अग्निवेश्यः । अग्निवेशः-शिशः लि., सुवेषः शिवाः । अग्नि-वेशः (आदि. १२९।३५-४०, १३८।९), अग्निवेश्यः (वन. २६।२३) इत्यभय-मपि नाम भारते दश्यते।

६५. युवनाश्वः । युवनाश्वत्रयी भारते वर्णिता शब्दानुक्रमणीतो

६६. शरद्वसु: । गौतमगोत्रीयो महर्षिः शरद्वान् भारते (आदि. ६३।१०७, १२९।२-२२) वर्णित इतोऽभिन्न एव स्यात् ।

६७. छागनः । श्वेताख्यस्य प्रथमस्याचार्यस्य विवरणं द्रष्टव्यम्। छगलाण्डं नाम ज्ञानेन्द्रियभुवनं शिवागमेषु वर्ण्यंते ।

६८. कुण्डकर्णः । कुम्भकषीयः - वा. । कुण्डनामक ऋषिभरिते (आदि. ५३।८) द्रयते ।

६६. कुम्भः । कुन्तः-कू., कूष्माण्डः-शिश.। १००. प्रवाहकः । प्रवाहुकः - वा., प्रवर्हकः - क्का. पाठान्तरम् ।



१०१. उल्कः । १०७ संख्याकः शिष्योऽप्येतन्नामक एव । उभयत्रापि पाठान्तरं च न दृश्यते । विश्वामित्रस्य पुत्र एतन्नामक ऋषिर्महाभारते (अनु. ४।५१, शान्ति. ४७।११) वर्ण्यते।

१०२. विद्युतः । वैद्युतः —वा., कृकाः पाठान्तरेऽपि ।

१०३. मण्डूकः । शाद्वलः — कृका., शाद्रकः — कूः, शम्बूकः — शिश, शर्वकः - वा. । ४८ संख्याकस्य शिष्यस्य पाठान्तरेषु शर्व इति नाम दृश्यते ।

१०४. आश्वलायनः ।

१०५. अक्षपादः । न्यायदर्शनप्रवर्तक आचार्यः ।

१०६. कणादः । वैशेषिकदर्शनप्रवर्तक आचार्यः । कुमारः — लि. क्. शिश. कुका.।

१०७. उल्कः । १०१ संख्याकः शिष्योऽप्येतन्नामक एव ।

१०८. वत्सः । वसुवाहनः —कू., वृषवाहनः —कूका पाठान्तरम् ।

१०६. कुशिकः । कुलिकः — शिवा, कुणिकः — क्.। ५७ संख्याकस्य शिष्यस्य कुणिरिति नाम वर्तते। कुशिक ऋषिर्महाभारते (आदि ८।२५, उद्योग. ८३।२७) वर्ण्यंते । स लकुलीशशिष्यात् कुशिकाद् भिन्न एव मन्तव्यः, पराग्भवत्वात्।

११०. गार्ग्यः । गर्गः—िश्वाः. शिवाः कूकाः, गर्भः—िलः.। ३४ संख्याकः शिष्योऽपि गर्गनामको विद्यत इत्यत्र गार्ग्य इति मुख्यं नाम स्थापितम्। यद्यपि महाभारते दृश्यते तन्नाम, तथापि लकुलीशशिष्यस्यास्य त द्भन्नतैव मन्तव्या ।

१११ मित्रः । मित्रकः--शिवा. वा. कूका. ।

११२. कौरुष्यः । रुष्यः-शिवा., ऋष्यः-कूका., रुषः-कू., रुष्टः-वा., तौरुष्यः-शिश.। ''श्वेतादयश्च रुष्यान्ता'' (शिवा. ९।७) इत्यत्रापि रुष्य इत्येव पाठो द्रयते।

एवमत्र २८ योगाचार्याणाम्, ११२ तिच्छिष्याणां च परिचयः पर्यवसितः। इतः परं जैनग्रन्थेषु विणता लकुलीशादिविद्यागुर्वन्ता अष्टादशावताराः प्रास-ङ्गिकतया समुपस्थाप्यन्ते।

अष्टादशावताराः

हरिभद्रकृतषड्दर्शनसमुच्चयव्याख्यात्रा गुणरत्नेन द्वितीयाधिकारेऽष्टा-दशावतारा इमे वर्णिता एवम्—''तस्य (ईश्वरस्य) चाष्टादशावतारा अमी— १. नकुलीशः, २. कौशिकः, ३. गार्ग्यः, ४. मैत्र्यः, ५. कौरुषः, ६. ईशानः, ७. पारगार्ग्यः, ८. कपिलाण्डः, ९. मनुष्यकः, १०. कुशिकः, ११. अन्निः, १२. पिङ्गलः, १३. पुष्पकः, १४. बृहदार्यः, १५. अगस्तः, १६ सन्तानः, १७. राशीकरः, १८. विद्यागुरुश्चः इति । राजशेखरकृते षड्दर्शनसमुच्चयेऽ प तान्येतानि नामानि दृश्यन्ते । तत्र १०. अपरकुशिकः, १२. पिङ्गलाक्षः, १४ बृहदाचार्यं इति नामसु विशेषः । अन्यत् सर्वं समानम् । पाशुपतसूत्र-प्रस्तावनारम्भेऽपि नामान्येतानि परिगण्यन्ते । तत्र ४. मैत्रेय इति नाम्नि विशेषः । राशीकर एव कौण्डिन्यः पाशुपतसूत्रभाष्यकार इति च तत्र प्रदर्शितम् ।

अत्र नकुलीशोऽन्तिमो योगाचार्यः । कौशिकः, गार्ग्यः, मैत्र्यः, कौरुष इति च तस्य चत्वारः शिष्या इति न केवलं पूर्वोक्तविवरणतः, अपि तु शिला-शासनादिभ्यश्च^१ ज्ञायते । अत्र नाम्नि वैशिष्ट्ये सत्यपि क्रमे नैव वैमत्यम् ।

इदं त्वत्र चिन्तनीयम्—अष्टाविंशतियोगाचार्याणामिव अष्टादशावताराणां क्रमोऽङ्गोकर्तव्यः, उतान्तिमस्य योगाचार्यस्य लकुलीशस्य कुशिकादयश्चत्वारः साक्षाच्छिष्याः स्वीकर्तव्याः । यद्यन्तिमः पक्षः स्वीक्रियते, तर्ह्यन्येषां क्रमः कीदृश इति न निश्चेतुं शक्येत । तेनैवं समाधेयम्—लकुलीशावतारपरम्परावदन्येषु युगेष्विप योगाचार्याणां प्रत्येकं महती शिष्यपरम्पराऽवर्तत । तत्र पुराणेषु प्रत्येकं चत्वार एव शिष्या विणताः । ते च न साक्षाच्छिष्याः, किन्तु शिष्यपरम्पराप्रतीकभूता इति ।

तदयं लकुलीशादिविद्यागुर्वन्तानामघ्टादशावताराणां क्रमः पुराणागम-शिलाशासनादिप्रामाण्येन स्थिरीकरणीयः। लकुलीशस्य, तस्य चतुर्णां शिष्याणां चोल्लेखः सोमनाथमन्दिरसमुपलब्धे शिलाशासने वर्तते। सप्तदशस्य राशी-करस्य कोण्डिन्यापराभिधस्य पाशुपतसूत्रभाष्यं समुपलभ्यते। विद्यागुरुश्च प्रमाणस्तुति-अनुभवस्तोत्ररचियतुर्विद्याधिपतितोऽभिन्न एव स्यात्। अन्येषां मध्यवितनामवताराणां परिचयः समुपलब्धव्यः।

श्रुतिषु, पुराणेषु, आगमेषु, चिकित्साशास्त्रेषु च योगाचार्याणामेषां नामानि चरितानि च कीर्तितानि स्यः। तेषामन्वेषणे सारत्यं स्यादिति धिया सर्वान्तेऽत्राक्षरानुक्रमण्या योगाचार्याणां तिच्छिष्याणां च नामावली दीयते। पाठान्तरेषु समुपलब्धानामशुद्धानां शुद्धानां च सर्वेषां पाठानां सममेवात्र संकलनं कृतमित्यवधेयम्। कूका. टिप्पणोस्थितानि पाठान्तराणि, अष्टादशावतारनामानि च न सन्त्यत्र। अत्र आ. इत्यनेन योगाचार्यः, शि. इत्यनेन च तिच्छिष्योऽभिष्रेतः। संख्या च पूर्वोक्तं क्रमं सूचयित।

डॉ० कान्तिचन्द्रपाण्डेयविरचितः शैवदर्शनिबन्दुरित्याख्यो ग्रन्थोऽत्र द्रष्टव्यः (पृ. २८–२९) ।

२. लुप्तागमसंग्रहद्वितीयभागस्य उपोद्घातेऽस्मदीये विद्याधिपतेस्तस्य द्वयोः स्तोत्रयोश्च परिचयः प्रेक्षणीयः ।

योगाचार्याणां तिच्छ्व्याणां च नामानुक्रमणी

७५ अकाक्षुः (शि.)	७९ कबन्धः (शि.)	७४ कौशल्यः (शि.)
१०५ अक्षपादः (शि.)	८५ कलापी (शि.)	७४ कौशिल्यः (शि.)
९४ अग्निवेशः (शि.)	९२ कविः (शि.)	३४ गर्गः (शि.)
९४ अग्निवे यः (शि.)	५० कश्यपः (शि.)	११० गर्गः (शि.)
३६ अङ्गिराः (शि.)	७५ काक्षीवः (शि.)	११० गर्भ: (शि.)
२४ अजः (शि.)	५० काश्यपः (शि.)	३४ गार्ग्यः (शि.)
२० अट्टहासः (आ.)	६१ काश्यपः (शि.)	११० गार्ग्यः (शि.)
२४ अण्डजः (शि.)	८० कुक्षिकन्धरः (शि.)	३६ गिरीशः (शि.)
१२ अत्रिः (आ.)	५७ कुणिः (शि.)	१७ गुहावासः (आ.)
५३ अत्रिः (शि.)	१०९ कुणिकः (शि.)	१७ गुहावासी (आ.)
१०४ आश्वलायनः (शि.)	५८ कुणिबाहुः (शि.)	१६ गोकर्णः (आ.)
३० आसुरिः (शि.)	९८ कुण्डकर्णः (शि.)	८४ गोपनः (शि.)
११ उग्रः (आ.)	७६ क्युभिन्नः (शि.)	१४ गौतमः (आ.)
५४ उग्रः (शि.)	७६ कुथुमिः (शि.)	८४ गौतमः (शि.)
५४ उग्रतपाः (शि.)	६० कुनेत्रकः (शि.)	२७ घनवाहः (शि.)
६५ उच्चास्यः (शि.)	९९ कुन्तः (शि.)	३७ चलबन्धुः (शि.)
६५ उतथ्यः (शि.)	७९ कुबन्धः (शि.)	६३ च्यवनः (शि.)
१०१ उलुकः (शि.)	१०६ कुमारः (शि.)	९७ छगलः (शि.)
१०७ उलुकः (शि.)	९९ कुम्भः (शि.)	१९ जटामाली (आ.)
६२ उशना (शि.)	९८ कुम्भकर्षाश्यः (शि.)	१९ जटी माली (आ.)
८९ उशिकः (शि.)	१०९ कुलिकः (शि.)	७ जैगीषव्यः (आ.)
८९ उशिजः (शि.)	८० कुशन्धरः (शि.)	७८ जैमिनिः (शि.)
८९ उषिघा (शि.)	५९ कुशरीरः (शि.)	२५ डिण्डमुण्डीश्वरः(आ.)
८९ ऊषिजः (शि.)	१०९ कुशिकः (शि.)	२५ डिण्डी (आ.)
७ ऋचीकः (शि.)	८० कुशिकन्धरः (शि.)	२५ डिण्डीजुण्डीश्वरः(आ.)
७० ऋचीकः (शि.)		४० तपोधनः (शि.)
९ ऋषभः (आ)	९९ कूष्माण्डः (शि.)	८८ तपोधनः (शि.)
११२ ऋष्यः (शि.)	८ केतुमान् (शि.)	८८ तपोनिधिः (शि.)
५ कङ्कः (आ.)	८३ केतुमान् (शि.)	३ तारणः (आ.)
५ कङ्कणः (आ.)	८३ केतुमाली (शि.)	८५ तुल्याचिः (शि.)
१०६ कणादः (शि.)	३९ केतुश्रृङ्गः (शि.)	११२ तौरुष्यः (शि.)
५२ कपिः (शि.)	४४ केशलम्बः (शि.)	२५ दण्डी (आ.)
२९ कपिलः (शि.)	११२ कौरुष्यः (शि.)	२५ दण्डीमुण्डीशः (आ.)

२५ दण्डीमुण्डीश्वरः (आ.)	१०० प्रवाहकः (शि.)	६८ महालयः (शि.)
८ दिववाहः (आ.)	८१ प्लक्षः (शि.)	१११ मित्रः (शि.)
३ दमनः (आ.)	८४ बकः (शि.)	१११ मित्रकः (शि.)
८२ दर्वायणिः (शि.)	७८ बर्चरी (शि.)	१० मुनिः (आ.)
५४ दवशदः (शि.)	७८ वर्बरिः (शि.)	२६ मेघः (शि.)
८२ दाक्षायणिः (शि.)	७८ वर्बरी (शि.)	२७ मेघवाहः (शि.)
२१ दारुकः (आ.)	३७ बलबन्धुः (शि.)	२६ मोबः (शि.)
२१ दारुणः (आ.)	१३ बलिः (आ.)	१९ यजमाली (आ.)
८२ दार्भायणिः (शि.)	१३ बली (आ.)	७२ यतीश्वरः (शि.)
१७ दालभ्यः (शि.)	१३ बालिः (आ.)	९५ युवनाश्वः (शि.)
८२ दालभ्यायणिः (शि.)	९० बृहदश्वः (शि.)	२६ योगीशः (शि.)
५ दुन्दुभिः (शि.)	९० बृहदुकथः (शि.)	२४ रवः (शि.)
१६ दुरतिक्रमः (शि.)	९० बृहद्रक्षः (शि.)	७० रुचीकः (शि.)
१५ दुर्गमः (शि.)	६४ बृहस्पतिः (शि.)	११२ हहः (ज्ञि.)
१५ दुर्दमः (शि.)	८५ भल्लवः (शि.)	११२ रुष्टः (शि.)
१५ दुर्दर्भः (शि.)	८५ भल्लवी (शि.)	११२ रुष्यः (शि.)
१४ दुर्मुखः (शि.)	८५ भल्लाची (शि.)	२८ लकुली (आ.)
९१ देवलः (शि.)	८५ भल्लापी (शि.)	२८ लकुलीशः (आ.)
५४ देवसदः (शि.)	८५ भल्लावी (शि.)	२८ लकुलीश्वरः (आ.)
२७ धनवाहः (शि.)	३५ भार्गवः (शि.)	४२ लम्बः (शि.)
१० धर्मः (आ.)	१० भृगुः (आ.)	४४ लम्बकेशकः (शि.)
२८ नकुली (आ.)	१०३ मण्डूकः (शि.)	४३ लम्बाक्षः (शि.)
२८ नकुलीशः (आ.)	३ मदनः (आ.)	४३ लम्बात्मा (शि.)
२८ नकुलीश्वरः (आ.)	८६ मधुपिङ्गः (शि.)	४१ लम्बोदरः (शि.)
३८ नरोमित्रः (शि.)	८६ मधुपिङ्गाक्षः (शि.)	२२ लाङ्गली (आ.)
३८ निरामित्रः (शि.)	६७ महाकायः (शि.)	२२ लाङ्गली (आ.)
३१ पञ्चशिखः (शि.)	२३ महाकायमुनिः (शि.)	६ लोकाक्षिः (आ.)
३३ पराशरः (शि.)	२३ महाकालः (आ.)	७५ लोकाक्षिः (शि.)
१२ पापनाशनः (शि.)	६७ महाकालः (शि.)	७५ लोकाक्षी (शि.)
१२ पाशनाशनः (शि.)	६८ महानिलः (शि.)	६ लोकाख्यः (आ.)
७६ प्रधिमः (शि.)	६८ महानिलिः (शि.)	६ लौगाक्षः (आ.)
१०० प्रबाहुकः (शि.)	६८ महाबलः (शि.)	७५ लौगाक्षिः (शि.)
४२ प्रलम्बकः (शि्.)	२३ महायाममुनिः (शि.)	१०८ वत्सः (शि.)
१०० प्रवर्हकः (शि.)	६७ महायोगः (शि.)	५१ विषष्ठः (शि.)

२3 ठाइट (शि.)

	48	वसिष्ठः (शि.)
	२७	वसुवाहः (शि.)
8	06	वसुवाहनः (शि.)
	32	वाग्बिलः (शि.)
	६९	वाचस्रवाः (शि.)
	६९	वाचःश्रवा (शि.)
	६९	वाजःश्रवा (शि.)
	६६	वामदेवः (शि.)
	37	वाष्कलः (शि.)
	49	वासिष्ठः (शि.)
	90	विकेशः (शि.)
	9	विकोशः (शि.)
	४३	विक्रोशः (शि.)
	२४	विजयः (शि.)
3	05	विद्युतः (शि.)
	88	
	88	विपाशः (शि.)
	25	विरजः (शि.)
	22	विरजाः (शि.)
	47	
	33	विशाखः (शि.)
	88	विशापः (शि.)
	80	विशेषः (शि.)
	9	विशोकः (शि.)
	9	- ' '
8	06	वृषवाहनः (शि.)
		वेददर्शी (आ.)
		वेदशिराः (आ.)
		वेदशीर्णः (आ.)
		वेदशीर्षः (आ.)
		वेदशीर्षाः (आ.)
3		वैद्युतः (शि.)
		वैरजः (शि.)
	35	वोढुः (शि.)

23	शङ्घः (शि.)
23	शङ्खपाद् (शि.)
२३	शङ्खवाणी (शि.)
६	शतरूपः (शि.)
१०३	शम्बूकः (शि.)
९६	शरद्वसुः (शि.)
86	शर्वः (शि.)
१०३	शर्वकः (शि.)
803	शाद्रकः (शि.)
१०३	शाद्धलः (शि.)
85	शापनाशनः (शि.)
93	शालिहोत्रः (शि.)
37	शाल्वलः (शि.)
7	शिखः (शि.)
35	शिखण्डधृक् (आ.)
	शिखण्डभृत् (आ.)
36	शिखण्डी (आ.)
58	शूली (आ.)
	रयावकः (शि.)
७१	च्यावाश्वः (शि.)
७१	श्यावास्यः (शि.)
99	श्रवणः (शि.)
	श्रविष्कटः (शि.)
५६	श्रविष्टकः (शि.)
५६	श्रविष्ठकः (शि.)
	श्रावणः (शि.)
	श्वेतः (आ.)
	श्वेतः (आ.)
	श्वेतः (शि.)
20	
	श्वेतलोहितः (शि.)
	श्वेतशिखः (शि.)
	श्वेतशिखण्डी (शि.)
Ą	श्वेताश्वः (शि.)

३ श्वेतास्यः (शि.) ७२ संयताश्वकः (शि.) २३ संयमी (आ.) २३ सञ्जयः (शि.) ४८ सत्यः (शि.) १८ सनः (शि.) १८ सनकः (शि.) १७ सनत्कुमारः (शि.) १९ सनन्दः (शि.) १९ सनन्दनः (शि.) २० सनातनः (शि.) १३ सवालकः (आ.) ४६ समबुद्धिः (शि.) ४८ सर्वः (शि.) ४५ सर्वज्ञः (शि.) २६ सविष्णुः (आ.) २६ सहिष्णुः (आ.) ४७ साध्यः (शि.) २५ सारस्वतः (शि.) ७० सुकेशः (शि.) ४ सुगोत्रः (आ.) ३ सुतारः (शि.) २१ सुधामा (शि.) ४९ सुधामा (शि.) ७० सुधीकः (शि.) ७२ सुपथीश्वरः (शि.) ७२ सुपरथीश्वरः (शि.) १३ सुपालकः (आ.) ७० सूपीकः (शि.) ७९ सुबन्धुः (शि.) १३ सुबालकः (आ.) २ सुभानः (आ.) ७७ सुमन्तुः (शि.)

१३ सुमुखः (शि.)

२६ सुमेधः (शि.)	९४ सुवेषः (शि.)	२७ सोमशर्मा (आ.)
२८ सुवाहकः (शि.)	५६ सुवैद्यकः (शि.)	७३ हिरण्यनाभः (शि.)
२८ सुवाहनः (शि.)	४ सुहोत्रः (आ.)	७३ हिरण्यनामा (शि.)
७० सुवीरः (शि.)	४ मुहोत्री (आ.)	७ हृषीकः (शि.)



आंग्लभाषामयानां निबन्धानां संक्षेपाः

THE DIVINE PRESENCE IN THE MŪRTI ACCORDING TO THE PURĀŅAS

by

Pinuccia Caracchi

पौराणिकदृष्ट्या मूतों (= प्रतिमायां) देवताया विद्यमानता

हिन्दूधमंसंमता देवमूर्तिपूजा पाश्चात्त्यै विचारकैः 'जडवस्तु-पूजाविशेष-रूपा' इति चिन्तिता प्राक्; कुमारस्वामिप्रभृतिभिर्विद्वद्भिः कृतानां ग्रन्थाना-मध्ययनेन मतिमदिमदानीं परिवर्तितं संजातम्। न खलु जडा मूर्तिः पूज्यते, प्रत्युत मूर्तौ (अर्थात् मूर्तिद्वारेण) ऐश-सत्तायाः पूजनं क्रियते—इत्येव इदानी-मभ्युपगम्यते। मूर्तिरोश्वरचिन्तने साहायकमादधातिः न खलु कश्चित् 'मूर्तिरेव ईश्वरः' इति चिन्तयित। अतएव मूर्तौ देवताया आवाहनं क्रियते, पूजानन्तरं च तस्या विसर्जनमिप। आवाहन-विसर्जन-क्रिययोः किमपि गूढं फलं मूर्तौ प्रकटितं भवति—इति विज्ञेयम्। अस्य रहस्यं बहुधा व्याख्यातं अवेलन—प्रभृतिभिः आधुनिकैव्याख्यातृभिरिप। न खलु आवाहन-विसर्जनिक्रये मूर्तै कमपि वास्तवं परिणामम् आधत्तः प्रत्युतोपासकस्य मन एव तत्तत्क्रियया प्रभावितं भवति—इति बह्वो मन्यन्ते। विषयेऽस्मिन् किं मतं शास्त्रदृष्ट्या युक्तमिति विस्तरेणालोचितं लेखिकया। आवाहनविसर्जनिक्रयाभ्यां मूर्तौ कश्चन निग्ढोऽलौकिकः परिणामः (Mystical transformation) उत्पद्यते-इति निबन्धान्ते स्फुटं प्रदिश्चितम्।

पुराणागमतन्त्रादिषु मूर्तिविषयकाणि (मूर्तिनिर्माणादिपराणि) बहूनि मतानि दृश्यन्ते । प्राधान्येन पुराणमतान्याश्रित्यैवात्र विचारः कृतः । कुमार-स्वामि — अवेलनमतयोः समर्थंनमेव पुराणवचनेषु दृश्यते । विष्णुधर्मोत्तर— विष्णु-गरुड-भागवत-परमसंहिता-प्रश्नसंहिता—वचनानि स्वमतपुष्टयेऽत्र उदाहितानि ।

लेखिकयेदं दिशतं यद् अमूर्ते देवे चित्तस्य समाधानाय मूर्तिसाहाय्यमादौ स्वीकार्यमेव; साधनस्य चरमदशायां न मूर्तिपूजाया अपेक्षा भवतीति चात्र व्यक्तमेव प्रतिपादितम् । स्वयोग्यतानुसारेण शिवादिदेवता उपासनीयाः-इत्यप्युद्-घोषितम् । इदमप्यत्र विचारितम्—न निर्गुणं ब्रह्म प्रतिमादिषु उपास्यते प्रत्युत शिवादय ऐश्वर्यवन्तो देवाः, ये स्वैश्वर्यंबलेन मूर्तिषु आविशन्ति । इमे देवा अपि तत्त्वदृष्ट्या ब्रह्मण एर्वावभीविवशेषाः, अतएव ब्रह्म मूर्तममूर्तं चोच्यते । न खलु साकाराणि जडवस्तून्येव मूर्तिशब्देनाभिलप्यन्ते, प्रत्युत ससीमाविभीविवशेषाः, परिच्छिन्नाभिन्यक्तिविशेषा वा मूर्तिशब्देन ग्राह्माः । इमे प्रायेणावतारा इत्युच्यन्ते, येषां विवरणं विस्तरेणोपलभ्यते पुराणेषु ।

यतो हि मूर्ति-साहायकेन परस्यात्मन उपासनं क्रियते, अतो मूर्ति-निर्माणादिकमधिकृत्य पुराणागमादिशास्त्रकारै बंहुधा चिन्तितम्—कस्य देवस्य कीदृशी मूर्ति: कथं कैद्रंब्यै निर्मेया; क च सा कथं स्थापनीया, काभिवा प्रक्रियाभि: पूजनीयेति ।

निबन्धेऽस्मिन् आवाहन-विसर्जन-प्राणप्रतिष्ठाश्चाधिकृत्य विशिष्टो विचारः कृतो लेखिकया, न्यासाधिवासनादिकर्मणां लघु विवरणमपि प्रदत्तम् । मूर्तीनां चलादिभेदा अपि उक्ताः—'नामनामिनोरभेदः' इति सिद्धान्तमाश्चित्य जपो विधेय इत्यप्युक्तम् । मन्दिरस्थितस्य मूर्तस्य देवस्य पूजां कुर्वतो जनस्य इयं मतिरपि जायते यद् आत्मनो देवस्याधिष्ठानभूतिमदं शरीरमन्दिरमिति । मूर्तौ देवताया उपस्थिति र्यादृशी सा न वर्णयितुं शक्यते—इत्युपसंहृतं लेखिकया ।

प्रसंगत इमे विषया इह विवेचिताः—इष्टदेवतास्वरूपम्; योगिदृष्टि-भक्तदृष्ट्योभेदः; दोषयुक्तायाः पूजाया असाफत्यम्; वैदिक—तान्त्रिक-मिश्रभेदेन उपासना-त्रैविष्यम्; मन्त्रशक्तिश्च ।

THE ROLE OF FOUR VARNAS DURING THE TIME OF NÏLĀDRIMAHODAYAM

by

Vidyut Lata Ray

नीलाद्रिमहोदयग्रन्थरचनासमये चतुर्णां वर्णानां प्रभावकर्माण

नीलाद्रिमहोदयं नाम एकनवत्यध्यायात्मकं किमिप स्थलपुराणं (तीर्थ-विशेषमाहात्म्यविवरणप्रधानं) विद्यते । पुराणिमदं स्कन्दपुराणीय—पुरुषोत्तम-माहात्म्यखण्डम् अनुकरोतीति दृश्यते । स्त्रीष्ट्रीय-चतुर्दश-शतके विरिचतिमद-मित्यनुमीयते । पुराणेऽस्मिन् जगन्नाथमाहात्म्यादि-विवरणेन सह तात्कालिक-समाजस्य चित्रणमिप कृतिमिति दृश्यते ।

एतत्पुराणोक्तं यत् सामाजिकं विवरणं तद् निबन्धेऽस्मिन् लेखिकया प्रदर्शितम् । इमे विषया अत्र मुख्यत उक्ताः —समाजस्य द्विधा विभागो राज-प्रजात्मकः; प्रजानां बाहुल्येन धर्मपरायणत्वम्, तासां स्वधर्मनिरतत्वं च; चण्डालजातेः सामाजिकी स्थितिः; केषां जगन्नाथमूर्तिस्पर्शनेऽधिकारः; के खलु समाजे प्रशंसिता मान्याश्च भवन्ति; वर्णसंकरस्य स्वरूपम्; ब्राह्मणस्य माहात्म्यं कर्माणि भेदाश्चः उपनयनादिसंस्काराः; पुरोहितानां विशिष्टमर्यादाः; क्षत्रियाणां धर्माः (कर्माणि), ब्राह्मणैः सह तेषां संबन्धः; क्षत्रिय-इन्द्रद्यम्न-न्पतिविषयिणी चर्चा; ब्राह्मणक्षत्रिययो रन्तरङ्गः संबन्धः; वैश्यानां धर्माः, श्द्रेरनाचरणोयानि कर्माणः, शबराणां यवनानां च कर्माणि, तेषां वासस्थानानि च।

मुख्यविचारप्रसंगे इमे अवान्तरविषया अपि आलोचिताः—वैदिको वर्णव्यवस्था कर्महेत्की; जन्ममूलिका वर्णव्यवस्था स्मृतिशास्त्रसिद्धा अवीक्-कालिकी; जगन्नाथप्रसादग्रहणे प्राणिनामधिकारभेदस्य अभावः; ब्राह्मणानामेव प्रतिग्रहेऽधिकार इति ।

पुराणारमभे नैमिषोयमुनिप्रसंगो दृश्यते । तीर्थतत्त्वस्य व्याख्यानाय सूनो मुनिभिः पृष्टः; सूतेन च प्रसंगानुप्रसंगत उपर्युका विषयाः प्रतिपादिताः ।

THE SYAMANTAKA GEM STORY: A STRUCTURAL ANALYSIS

by

Ivan Strenski

स्यमन्तकमण्युवाख्यान-रचनाविन्यासस्य विश्लेषणम्

निबन्धास्यारम्भे लेखकेन पुराणसामान्यविषये पुराणसंख्याविषये च लघ्वी चर्चा कृता । केषाञ्चन पुराणानां रचनाकालविषयेऽपि स्वमतं प्रकटीकृतम्, विष्णपूराणमधिकृत्य विशिष्टा चर्चापि कृता ।

स्यमन्तकमणि-कथा यथा विष्णुपुराणे प्रोक्ता, तथा ततोऽविक्कालिके भागवतेऽपि । प्राचीनपुराणेषु अन्यतमे मत्स्यपुराणेऽपि कथेयं वर्तते । तथैव प्राचीनतरे वायुप्राणे महाभारतेऽपि । यद्यपि कथाया अस्या मुख्यं रूपं सर्वत्र सदृशमेव, तथापि गौणेषु अंशेषु भेदो दृश्यते विभिन्नेषु पुराणेषु । यथा—वायु-पुराणीया कथा नांशतो विष्णुपुराणमनुसरति, अनुसरति च महाभारतीयां कथाम्।



स्यमन्तकमणिकथारचनाविन्यासविश्लेषणे लेखकेन केषांचन पारचात्त्य-विदुषाम् (यथा लेबी स्ट्रौस्, टो, मूर, ई. आर. लीच इति नामधेयानाम्) आलोचनारीतिरनुसृता।

अस्याः कथाया ये अवान्तरविभागा भिवतुमहीन्त, ते आदौ दिशताः। विभागेषु प्रत्येकमाश्रित्य लेखकेन विचारः कृतः । इमे खलु विभागाः-

(१) सूर्येण सत्राजिते मणिः प्रदत्तः । (२) कृष्णभयात् सत्राजित् स्वभात्रे प्रसेनाय मणि दत्तवान् । दुष्टोऽयं सिंहेन हतः, जाम्बवता च सिंहो हतः, मणिश्च लब्धः। (३) कृष्णेन सह जाम्बवतो युद्धम्। (४) कृष्णेन मणिः प्राप्तः। (५) कृष्णः सत्राजिते पणि दत्तवान् । सत्राजित्कन्यया सत्यभामया सह कृष्णस्य विवाहो जातः। (६) कृष्णेन सह सत्यभामाया विवाहे जाते कृतवर्मादि-यादवा रुष्टा जाताः । रुष्टः शतधन्वा सत्राजितं जघान । (७) वारणावते पाण्डवा दग्धा इति श्रुत्वा कृष्णो वारणावतं प्रस्थितः। (८) सत्यभामया कृष्णो विज्ञापितं वारणावते—शतधन्वना सत्राजितो हतो मणिश्च गृहीत इति । (९) शतधन्वना मिणरक्रूराय प्रदत्तः । यद्यपि कृष्णेन हतः शतधन्वा, तथापि तेन मिणर्नं प्राप्तः । मणिविषये कृष्णं प्रति बलरामस्य संशयः, अप्रसन्नचित्तस्य तस्यान्यत्र गमनम्। (१०) मणियुतोऽक्रः यज्ञानुष्ठानपरायणो बभूव, तदिधिष्ठिता द्वारका समङ्गला जाता। (११) 'अकूरे मणिरस्ति' इति कृष्णो ज्ञातवान्। तेन पृष्ठः स मणि सभायां प्रदर्शितवान् । कृष्णो पणिर्न गृहीतवान्, अतोऽक्रूरो पणि कण्ठे विधार्य सूर्यं इव तेजस्वी जातः।

प्रत्येकं विभागेषु बहवोऽवान्तराः कथाः सन्ति । सर्वांसां कथानां स्वरूपं कथान्तःपातिनां जनानां चरितं च विस्तरेण निबन्धे प्रदिशतम्।

किंविधो राजनैतिको धार्मिको वा हेतुः प्रत्येकं घटनानामुद्भावको भवति, कस्य उद्देश्यस्य पूर्तये कः किं कर्म (विशेषतः मणि-दानरूपं कर्म, मणिग्रहणरूपं कर्म वा) संपादयति – इति विस्तरेण प्रदर्शितमस्मिन् लेखे । सात्त्वतवंशीयानां यादवानां काचिद् विशिष्टा राज्यव्यवस्थाऽसीत्, सभा च। सभ्येषु कृष्णो बलवत्तरः । विरोधिनः सभ्याः कृष्णेन सह कथं विरोधं चक्रु:-इत्यनया कथया स्फुटं विज्ञायते । कृष्णेन सह यादवान्तराणां यो विरोध आसीत्, स एतत्कथाया मलमिति व्यक्तं प्रतीयते ।

अस्याः कथायाः पर्यालोचनेन कृष्णचरितस्य महत्ता विज्ञाता भवति । अक़्रो न कृष्णस्य मित्रम्, तथापि तस्मै एव मणिर्दत्तः कृष्णेन-इत्यनेन कृष्णस्य माहातम्यं सुप्रतिष्ठितं भवति ।



THE VÄYUPURÄŅA AND THE MĀRKAŅDEYA PURĀŅA: A COMPARATIVE STUDY

by

Lallanji Gopal

वायु मार्कण्डेय-पुराणयोस्तुलनात्मकमध्ययनम्

सर्गादिपञ्चिवषय-बिहर्भृता अपि विषयाः प्राचीनकालादेव पुराणेषु संकिलताः। यथा यथा विद्यानां विकाशा जाताः, तथा तथा तेषां संग्रहोऽपि पुराणेषु कृतः। विभिन्नानां धर्मदर्शनसंप्रदायानाम् आचारा मतानि च पुराणेषु यथाकालं प्रतिपादितानि। योगशास्त्रीयम् अरिष्टविषयम् कितपय-पुराणप्रतिपादितम् अधिकृत्य प्राक्तने निबन्धे ('पुराण'-प्रकाशिते) लेखकेन विचारः कृतः। वायु-मार्कण्डेय-पुराण-द्वय-गतम् अरिष्टविषयम् अधिकृत्येह विचारः प्रस्तूयते। तुलनाप्रधानोऽयं विचारः।

विषयेऽस्मिन् इमानि मतानि लेखकेन प्रतिपादितानि—(१) सन्ति कानिचन अरिष्टित्रिषयकाणि मतानि यानि एकस्मिन्नेव पुराणे उक्तानि, न द्वयोः। (२) पुराणद्वयवचनेषु बहुत्र शब्द-सादृश्यमवलोक्यते; बहूनि वचनानि सर्वथैक-रूपाणि। (३) केषुचित् स्थलेषु अर्थैक्ये सत्यिप पर्यायशब्दप्रयोगे भेदो दृश्यते (यथा विह्नस्थले पावक इति)। (४) वाक्यानां पौर्वापर्ये नोभयत्र एकरूपता-वलोक्यते। (५) एकस्मिन् पुराणे यद् अस्पष्टार्थकम् अधिकम् अप्रयोजनं दुरुकं पूरणसापेक्षं वा, तस्य तथा परिवर्तंनम् अन्यस्मिन् पुराणे कृतं यथा स दोषो दूरीकृतो भवेत्। (६) केषुचित् स्थलेषु लिपिकरप्रमादा अपि जाताः।

पुराणद्वयगतयोरनयोविवरणयो रुपजीव्योजीवकभावो न निश्चेतुं शक्यते । उभयोः किमपि स्वतन्त्रम् एकं मूलमासीदित्येव संभाव्यते ।

पुराणद्वयरचनाकालमधिकृत्यापि लेखकेन स्वमतं प्रकटीकृतम् । लेखकेन पिजटर-हाजरा-अग्रवाल-प्रभृतिविदुषां मतानि प्रदिश्ततानि समीक्षितानि च । मार्कण्डेयपुराणगतारिष्टविवरणपरकोऽध्यायः, वायुप्राणगतारिष्टपरकोऽध्यायश्च स्त्रीष्टीये चतुर्थे शतके विरिचतौ-इति लेखकीया दृष्टिः । मार्कण्डेयपुराणोक्त-विवरणस्य प्रभावो वायुपुराणगतिववरणे वर्तते—इति यद् हाजरा-मतं तन्न लेखकेनाभ्युपगतम् । अरिष्टविवरणस्य प्राचीनतमं मूलं देवलधर्मंसूत्रे महाभारते चोपलभ्यते—इति विज्ञेयम् ।

निबन्धस्यान्ते—'मूलभूतं पुराणम्, तस्य च यथाकालमुपबृंहणपूर्वकं पुराणान्तराणां विरचनम्' इत्यादिविषयानिधकृत्य लेखकेन विशदं विवेचितम्, वायुपुराणस्य महाभारतादिप प्राचीनता प्रदिशता ।



THE COLOPHONS OF THE CRITICALLY EDITED PURANAS

by

Giorgio Bonazzoli

समीक्षात्मक-संस्करणवतां पुराणानां पुष्टिपकाः

ग्रन्थः खल्वध्याय-सर्गादिभिविभक्तो भवति । अध्याय-सर्गादि-समाप्ते रनन्तरं अध्याय-सर्गादि-प्रतिपादितानां विषयाणां ज्ञापकं यद् वाक्यम् 'इति' पदघटितं दृश्यते, तदेव 'पुष्पिका' इत्युच्यते । पुष्पिकावावयं यथा काव्यादिषु दृश्यते, तथा पुराणेष्वपि । प्रायेण पुष्पिकावाक्ये ग्रन्थनाम्नः, अध्यायसंख्यायाः, प्रधानाप्रधानविषयादीनां च समुल्लेखो वर्तते ।

पृष्पिकावाक्यसम्पादने प्रायेण पुराणसंपादका उपेक्षका भवन्ति। समीक्षात्मकपुराणग्रन्थसंपादका अपि पुष्पिकावाक्यसंपादने शैथिल्यं भजन्ते— इति दृश्यते । सम्पादकाः स्वयमेव पुष्पिकावाक्यं विरच्य ग्रन्थे स्थापयन्ति-इत्यपि लक्षितं कचित्। पुष्पिका-लेखने लिपिकराणाम् प्रमादा अपि दृष्टाः। सन्ति ईदृशानि पुष्पिकावाक्यानि, येषां प्रामाण्यविषयेऽपि संशयो जार्गति ।

निबन्धेऽस्मिन् लेखकेन समोक्षात्मकसंस्करणवतां त्रयाणां पुराणानाम् (वामन कूर्म-वराह-नामकानाम्) पुष्पिका आश्रित्य विचारः कृतः ।

निबन्धस्य प्रथमांशे पुष्पिकागतान् अध्यायादि-संख्या-परक-निर्देशान् अधिकृत्य विचारः प्रस्तुतः । अत्रापि यथाक्रमम् (क) नवीनसंख्याया निर्देशः (पूर्वप्रचलिताध्याय-संख्यानिर्देशं परित्यज्य नवीनसंख्याया (ख) द्विधा अध्यायसंख्यायाः निर्देशः (ग) अध्यायगणनाया विच्छेदः, (घ) अध्यायसंख्यानिर्देशे पुनरुक्तिः, (ङ) एकस्मिन् हस्तलेखे स्वविभागान्तःपातिनां विभागान्तरान्तःपातिनां वा हस्तलेखान्तराणां प्रभावः, (च) प्रकीर्णा विचाराश्च — इतीमे विषया बहुभिरुदाहरणै विचारिताः।

विचारप्रसंगे लेखकेन यानि विशिष्टानि मतानि प्रोक्तानि तेषु कानिचनेह प्रदर्शनते-

द्विविभागविशिष्टे कूर्मंपुराणे केषुचिद् हस्तलेखेषु अध्यायसंख्याया अविभागो दृश्यते (कृत्स्ने ग्रन्थे धारावाहिकरूपेण अध्यायसंख्या प्रदत्ता)। धारावाहिक-संख्यानिर्देशेन सह नवीनसंख्यानिर्देशोऽपि कचित् कृतः। यथा वराहपुराणगते मथुरामाहात्म्ये पृथगूपेणाध्यायसंख्या प्रदत्ता केषुचिद् हस्तलेखेषु । इदं निर्देशा-धिक्यमपि न सर्वेषु हस्तलेखेषु सर्वग्रन्थन्यापि लक्ष्यते । पुराणग्रन्थलिपिकरैरेव संख्यानिर्देश ईदृशं वैचित्र्यं कृतिमिति न तर्कसहम्।



अध्यायसंख्याया द्विनिर्देशः काचित्कः । कूर्मपुराणे अस्या रीतेः कानिचनो-दाहरणानि लभ्यन्ते । उदाहरणानामल्पीयस्त्वाद् एतद्रीतिविषये न किमपि वैशद्येन विचारियतुं शक्यते।

पुराणग्रन्थे कृत्स्नायाः पुष्पिकाया योऽभावः, पुष्पिकायामध्यायस्य वा योऽनुल्लेखः, अनयोः कारणेषु लिपिकरप्रमादः मुख्यतां भजते-इति कथनं नासंगतं भवति । पुराणगता अध्यायविशेषाः कदा संयोजिता वियोजिता वा इति एवं-विधपुष्पिकानामध्ययनेन अनुमातुं शक्यते। को हस्तलेखः कस्मिन् विभागे स्थापनीयः - इत्यपि आभिविज्ञातुं शक्यते । अध्यायसंख्यानिर्देशे कचित् शब्द-सादृश्यहेतुकी भ्रान्तिरपि जाता लिपिकराणामित्यपि दृश्यते ।

अध्यायसंख्यानिर्देशे पुनरुक्तिः खलु लिपिकरप्रमादात् प्राक्तन-भ्रान्तनिर्देश-संशोधनकरणाद् वा संजातेति व्यक्तं प्रतीयते । कचित् 'हस्तलेखस्य प्राचीनं रूपं कोदृशम् आसीत्' इत्यपि पुनरुक्तिपर्यालोचनेन प्रतीयते ।

एकस्मिन् हस्तलेखे हस्तलेखान्तराणां यः प्रभावः, स वामनपुराणीय— सरोमहात्म्याच्ययनेन स्फुटं विज्ञायते—इति प्रदर्शित लेखकेन ।

अन्तिमायां पुष्पिकायां हस्तलेखस्य रचनाकालादिविषयिणी सूचना विद्यते । पुराणगतानि बहूनि विचित्राणि तथ्यानि अन्तिम-पुष्पिकाध्ययनेन ज्ञातुं शक्यन्ते । अस्यां पुष्पिकायामपि लिपिकर-प्रमादा दृश्यन्ते; पूर्वतन-लिपिकरकृता प्रमादा अर्वाक्कालिक-लिपिकरेणानुसृताः — इत्यप्यवलोक्यते ।

निबन्धस्य द्वितीयेंऽशे ता समस्या विचारिता याः पुष्पिकागतेषु पुराण-पुराणाध्याययोर्नामसु दृष्टाः । पुष्पिकागतेऽध्यायनामनिर्देशे वैचित्र्यं दृश्यते— कचित् सप्तमीविभवतेः कचिद् वा प्रथमाविभक्तेः प्रयोगः कृतः; कचित् प्रकरणद्वयनामापि गृहोतम्—'रुद्रगोतासु भुवनकोशे' इति । पुराणस्य कियानंशः प्राचीनः, प्राचीनतरो वा—इति पुष्पिकागत-पुराण-पुराणाध्याययो नीमनी दृष्ट्वा अनुमातुं शक्यते।

पुष्पिकोक्त-पुराणनामनिर्देशे भिन्नताऽवलोक्यते; यथा 'आदि-' पद-प्रयोगः पुराणनाम्ना सह कचिद् दृश्यते, कचिन्नेति । पुराणावान्तरभागानां निर्देशेऽपि वैचित्र्यं दृश्यते । कूर्मपुराणस्य पूर्वभागः सदैव पूर्वभाग इत्युच्यते, उत्तरभागस्तु उत्तरखण्ड इति, उत्तरार्घ इति उपरिभाग इति उपरिविभाग इति वा शब्दै रभिलप्यते। अनेन सूच्यते यद् उभौभागौनैकस्मात्पुराणसंप्रदायादागतौ। कचित् पुष्पिकायां सिवशेषणमिप पुराणनाम दृश्यते । तच्चापि न क्रत्स्न-पुराण-व्यापि । कचित् पुष्पिकायां विशेषणपदे परिर्वतनमपि लक्ष्यते । यथा कूर्मपुराणे पुष्पिकायां 'षट्साहस्त्रिकायां संहितायाम्' इति, 'वैयासिक्यां संहितायाम्' इति च पठ्यते विभिन्नेषु हस्तलेखेषु। अनेन सूच्यते यत् पुराणस्य पूर्वकालिकं रूपम् अपरकालिकं च न सर्वथा अभिन्नम्।

लेखकेनेदं सुदृढं प्रतिपादितं यत् न केवलं पुराणग्रन्थरचनाविषये बहूनि तथ्यानि पुष्पिकाः सूचयन्ति, प्रत्युत 'कः खलु कस्य पुराणस्य आदिमोऽध्यायः (सर्वादौ प्रतिपादनीयो विषयः)' 'प्रथमाध्याय-विषयस्य प्रतिपादनं स्वस्थानात् च्यावितं न वा' इत्येते विषया अपि पृष्पिकाध्ययनेन अनुमातुमर्हाः । यतः काश्चन पुष्पिका अनवधानेन विरचिता इति नापलपनीयम्, अतः पृष्पिकाणां परीक्षणं कृत्वैव तासाम् अध्ययनं विधेयम् ।

BUDDHA AS DEPICTED IN THE PURAŅAS

by

Ram Shankar Bhattacharya

पुराणवणितो बुद्धः

पुराणेषु (उपपुराणेषु महाभारते च) भगवतो बुद्धस्य विषये यानि वचनानि उपलभ्यन्ते तानि आश्चित्य निबन्धोऽयं विरिचतः। एषु वचनेषु बुद्धस्य चिरतमिधकृत्य यद् विशिष्टं मतमुक्तं तिदह तन्त्र—बौद्ध वाङ्मयादि-मतप्रदर्शनेन सह विचारितम्। रामायणोक्तं बुद्धपरकं वचनं न सिद्धार्थबुद्धं लक्षयित—इति लेखकीया दृष्टिः।

निबन्धे इमानि वस्तूनि विशेषतो विचारितानि—बुद्धस्य विष्ण्वतार-त्वम्; बुद्धावतारिवषये पुराणस्य दृष्टिः; अवतारगणनायां बुद्धस्य स्थानम्; बुद्धस्य योगित्वं सन्यासित्वं च; बुद्धस्य पितरौ, पत्नी, पुत्रश्च; बुद्धस्य शरीरम्; बुद्ध-प्रयुक्ता भाषा; बुद्धकृतानि कर्माणि; बुद्धसंबद्धानि स्थानानि; बुद्धस्य कालः; बुद्धस्य जन्मतिथिः; बुद्धस्य पूजा; बुद्धस्य पूर्वाचार्याः; बुद्धसंबन्धि-शाक्येति-शब्दस्याभिप्रायः।

उपर्युक्तेषु विषयेषु यानि पौराणिकानि मतानि न तानि सर्वाणि एकमेव बुद्धनामकं पुरुषं लक्षयन्ति, यतो बुद्धजन्मादि-परकेषु पुराणवचनेषु न सर्वत्र ऐकमत्यं दृश्यते—इति लेखकेनोक्तम् । बुद्धशब्दः पुराणेषु योगार्थेऽपि (ज्ञानि— ज्ञात्रादिषु अर्थेष्) प्रयुक्त उपलभ्यते, इति लेखकेन दिशतम् । इदमपि चोक्तं यत् कचित् सिद्धार्थबुद्धोकाद् मतात् प्राचीनतरम् अवैदिकमतम् अपि बौद्धशब्देन पुराणेषु लक्षितम् ।

पुराणोक्तमतानां विश्वदोकरणाय लेखकेन बहुत्र प्रयतितम् । तेनेदं प्रति-पादितं यत् पुराणकारैमंगधभाषेति रूपेण यदुक्तं तत् पालिभाषेवः बुद्धेन न वैदिकज्ञानकाण्डस्य गर्हणं कृतम्, प्रत्युत हिंसामयकमंणामेवः बुद्धस्य पुराणिनिर्दिष्टः कालो न सर्वथा काल्पनिकःः किचित् पुराणोक्तो बुद्धकालो न सुष्टु उपपादनार्हः । उपनिषत्सु बुद्धः स्मृतो न वा, बुद्धेन राज्यश्रीर्भुक्ता न वाः बुद्धेन ये मोहितास्ते मनुष्या वा दैत्य-दानवा वा—इत्यादयः केचन प्रश्ना अपि समाहिता लेखकेन ।



सर्वभारतीय-काशिराजन्यासस्य कार्यविवरणम्

(जनवरी-जून १९८२)

वराहपुराणसंबन्धि कार्यम्

वराहपुराणस्य पाठसमीक्षितसंस्करणम् आंग्लभाषानुवादश्च प्रकाशितौ । अस्य हिन्दीभाषानुवादोऽपि कृतः । संप्रति अस्यानुवादस्य संपादनं संशोधन च क्रियते । हिन्दीभाषानुवादोऽयं शोद्यमेव मुद्रणार्थं दास्यते ।

गरुडपुराणसंबन्धि कार्यम्

गम्बद्धपुराणस्य चतुर्णां हस्तलेखानां पाठसंवाद-लेखनकायं च संपूर्णं जातम्। एषु चतुर्षुं हस्तलेखेषु द्वौ रामनगरद्धुर्गस्थ-सरस्वतीभण्डारपुस्तकालयस्य; द्वौ च पुण्यपत्तननगरस्थ-भण्डारकर-प्राच्यिवद्या-शोध-संस्थानस्य। सरस्वतीभण्डारस्यैकस्मिन् हस्तलेखे गम्बद्धपुराणस्य त्रयः खण्डाः—पूर्वंखण्डः, उत्तरखण्डः (प्रेतकल्पापरनामा), ब्रह्मखण्डश्च दृश्यन्ते। एशियाटिकसोसायटी (कलकत्ता) –ढाकाविश्वविद्यालय —बोडलियनपुस्तकालय (अनसफोर्ड) — द्विन्गेन-विश्वविद्यालय (पश्चिमजर्मनी) —इत्येतेभ्यः संस्थानेभ्यो हस्तलेखानामवासये प्रयासो विधोयते।

वेदपारायणम्

रामनगरदुर्गस्थिते व्यासेश्वरमन्दिरे माघमासे शुक्लपक्षे शुक्लयजुर्वेद-संहितायाः पारायणं कृतं श्रोमहादेवघनपाठिमहोदयेन । विश्वनाथशास्त्री पारायणस्य श्रोतासीत् । पारायणसमाप्तौ पारायणस्य कर्त्रे श्रोत्रे च दक्षिणा प्रमाणपत्रं च प्रदत्तम् ।

पुराणपाठः

१—यथापूर्वं चैत्रशुक्लप्रतिपत्तिथिम् आरभ्य नवमीं तिथि यावद् रामनगरस्थिते जनकपुरमन्दिरे अध्यात्मरामायणस्य पाठः श्रीरामजीमिश्र-महोदयेन कृतः।

२—आषाढ्शुक्लप्रतिपत्तिथिमारभ्य नवमीं तिथि यावद् रामनगर-स्थिते बालात्रिपुरसुन्दरोमन्दिरे त्रिपुरारहस्यस्य पाठः श्रीरामजीमिश्रमहोदयेन कृतः।

पुराणविभागे समागता विद्वांसः

१—हरियाणा-भूमिविकास-बैंक इति संस्थानस्य अध्यक्ष-उपाध्यक्ष-सचिव-संहिताः षड् अधिकारिणः पुराणिवभागे समागताः। एभिर्दर्शक-पुस्तिकायां लिखितम्—''अस्मिन् न्यासे अत्यल्पाधिकारिभिश्च यत् कमैं क्रियते तेन वयम् अतीव प्रभाविताः। न्यासेनानेन महत्त्वपूर्णं कार्यं क्रियते'' इति। (७।१।८२ दिनाङ्के)।

२ — प्रो० अवधिकशोरनारायणः (अमेरिका-देशस्थ-विस्कन्सिन—विश्वविद्यालयस्य प्राध्यापकः); अनेन लिखितम्—''पुनिरहागत्य इदं विज्ञाय महती प्रसन्नता जाता यदस्य शोधसंस्थानस्य कार्यं सदैव अनुकूलायां प्रतिकूलायां वा अवस्थायां साफल्यं प्राप्नुवदेव प्रचलित'' इति । (२२।१।८२ दिनाङ्के)।

३—श्री रिवन्थिटे, 'ब्रिटिशकाउन्सिल, कलकत्ता' इत्यस्याधिकारी, वर्धमानराज्यस्य कुमारराणिना सह । एताभ्यां लिखितम्—''पुराणविषये क्रियमाणस्य महतः कार्यस्य अंशविशेषस्यावलोकनेन वयमतीव प्रसन्नाः । अस्मिन् कर्मणि संबद्धानां सर्वेषां कृते धैर्यस्य समर्पणभावस्य चातीव आवश्यकता भवति'' इति ।

४—डा. के. टी. पाण्डुरिङ्ग, बंगलोरिस्थतायाः 'मिथिक् सोसायटी'-संस्थाया अध्यक्षः, तत्रस्थस्य पूर्णप्रज्ञिवद्यापीठस्योपकुलपिक्स (११।२।८२ दिनाङ्के।

५—डा. सी. आर. स्वामिनाथन्, केन्द्रीयशिक्षामन्त्रालयस्य उपशिक्षा-परामर्शदाता (२।५।८२ दिनाङ्के)।

६—हेनरी ओ थाम्प्सन—विश्वधर्मसभासिमतेः सिचवः (शिकागो-नगरस्थः) (३१।५।८२ दिनाङ्के) ।

डा० राजेन्द्रचन्द्रहाजरामहोदयस्य निधनम्

प्राणविषये विश्वविश्वतो विपश्चिद् डा. राजेन्द्र चन्द्रहाजरा १०।५।८२ दिनाङ्के कलकत्तानगरस्थिते स्वीये वासगृहे निधनमवाप । अनेन महाभागेन पुराणविषये बहवो विद्वत्प्रशंसिता निबन्धा ग्रन्थाश्च प्रणीताः, प्राणविषयकानुसन्धानस्य नूतनो मार्गश्च प्रदर्शितः । हाजरामहोदयः 'पुराण'—पत्रिकायाः संपादकमण्डलस्य सदस्य आसीत् । न्यासाध्यक्षाः, अन्ये सदस्याः, पुराणपित्रका-सदस्याश्च निधनवृत्तान्तं विज्ञाय दुःखितान्तःकरणैः समवेदनां ज्ञापयन्ति, दिवंगतात्मनः शान्त्यै च प्रार्थयन्ति ।



पुराणविभागे शोधछात्राः

शोधछात्रा विद्वांसश्च स्वकार्यसंपादनाय पुस्तकाद्यवलोकनार्थं पुराण-विषये मार्गदर्शनार्थं च पुराणविभागे प्रायशः समागच्छन्ति । सागरविश्व-विद्यालयस्य शोधछात्रा उमा सोना महाभागा जूनमासे केषुचिद् दिनेषु पुराण-विभागे समागताध्ययनार्थम् । 'अन्नदाचरण का व्यक्तित्व एवं कृतित्व' इत्यस्याः जोधविषय: ।

सहयोगि-न्यासानां कार्यविवरणम्

१. महाराजबनारसविद्यामन्दिरन्यासमङ्गलोत्सवः

वार्षिको वासन्तिक-मङ्गलोत्सवः १९८२ वर्षीय--मार्चमासस्य २ -२८ दिनेषु सायंकाले ७ वादनतः ८ वादनं यावत् प्रतिदिनं रामनगरदुर्गे संपन्नः। कार्यक्रमः तत्रभवतां न्यासाध्यक्षाणां महाराजानां डा. विभूतिनारायणसिंहमहोदयानां सान्निध्ये संपन्नः । सगीतोऽयमुत्सवः दुर्गस्य विधा-मन्दिरप्राङ्गणे संपन्नः। न्यासाध्यक्षाः, नगरस्य विश्वविद्यालस्य च विशिष्टा जनाः प्रतिदिनं उत्सवकार्यक्रमस्यावलोकनं चकुः। बहवो जनाः सावधाना भूत्वा शास्त्रीयं संगीतं शुश्रुवुः । शास्त्रीय-संगीतस्य कार्यक्रमः काशिक-हिन्दु-विश्वविद्यालयीय-संगीत-महाविद्यालयस्य छात्रैविहितः। अन्तिमे दिने कबीर-चौरा-स्थित-विद्यालयस्य त्रयञ्छात्राः 'कत्थक-नृत्यं' प्रदर्शयामास्ः ।

संग्रहालय:

वाराणसीमागतानां तीर्थयात्रिणां पर्यटकानां च कृते विद्यापन्दिरन्यासस्य संग्रहालयः शाश्वतम् आकर्षणकेन्द्रं वर्तते । यतोऽत्र शस्त्राणां हस्तिदन्तनिर्मित-वस्तूनां चातिविशालः संग्रहो विद्यते, अतः सग्रहालयोऽयं भारतवर्षे विशिष्टं स्थानं भजते । विशिष्टदर्शकेषु येषां हस्ताक्षराणि दर्शकपुस्तके सन्ति, त इमे--

१-किशनगढनरेशः श्रीमान् व्रजराजसिंहः, श्रीप्रतापसिंहश्च ।

२-भारतस्थितस्य ब्रिटिशदूतावासस्य श्रीजानमहोदयः, लेडी थामस-महोदया च।

३—प्रिन्स अञ्जुनकुदरमहोदयः (कलकत्तास्थितस्य 'अवधट्रस्ट'--इत्यस्याध्यक्षः)। एष महाभागो दर्शक-पुस्तके लिखति--''काशिराजस्य अतीव आनन्दकरी स्मरणीया च यात्रा। चतुष्पुरुष-व्यापी योऽस्माक मैत्री-संबन्धः, तस्य नवीनीकरणं जातम्" इति ।



४ —मध्यप्रदेशस्य खैरागढराज्यस्य मेजर--राजाबहाद्र-वीरेन्द्रबहाद्रर सिंहः। एभिलिखितम्--''महानयं संग्रहालयः; भारतेऽद्वितीयः। स्वदेशेऽहं बहुन् संग्रहालयान् तत्रत्यानि संगृहीतवस्तूनि च दृष्टवान्, परन्तु नूतनानां प्राचीनानां शस्त्राणां, हस्तिदन्तिर्नितानां वस्तुनां, 'हौदा'--इत्यादिवस्तुनां च एवं-समृद्धः संग्रहः न मयान्यत्र कदापि दृष्टः। तत्र भवतः काशिराजान् प्रति संग्रहालयदर्शनार्थमहं धन्यवादान् वितरामि । वस्तुतोऽतीवशोभनरूपेण रिक्षतोऽयं संग्रहालयः" इति ।

५—दिल्लीस्थितस्य वेलजियम-दूतावासस्य कुमारः तथा कुमारी जेटरटिन्स्की।

६—अमेरिकनदूतावासस्य श्रीमान् माइकेलिपस्टो तथा तस्य पत्नी

७—दिल्लीस्थितस्य इटलीदेशस्य राजदूतः श्रीइमिलिओ पाओलो बासी। अनेन लिखितम्--"अस्मिन् प्रशस्ते राजभवने ममागमनिमदं द्वितीयम्। अस्त्रसमृद्धः, सूसंरक्षितश्च अत्रत्यः सग्रहालयः। कथमहं पनरागच्छेयम् इति जायते वाञ्छा' इति ।

ध्रुपदमेला

अष्टमो ध्रुपदमेलासमारोहो महाराजबनारस-विद्यामन्दिर-न्यासेन वाराणस्यां तुलसीघट्टे संपन्नः। समारोहार्थं घ्रुपदमेलास्थानम् अलङ्कृतम्, प्रकाशव्यवस्था च विहिता। यामिनीत्रयात्मकः कार्यक्रमः 'शामियाना'-प्रावरणस्याधोऽनुष्ठितः । बह्वो जनाः (एषु केचन वैदेशिका युवानो युवत्यश्च आसन्) कृत्स्नां रात्रि कार्यक्रमस्य श्रवणमकुर्वन् । समारोहेऽस्मिन् सदैव ध्र पदगानविद्यायां प्रवीणाः पण्डिताः प्रदर्शनं कुर्वन्ति ।

चतुर्णाम् अभिनवप्रकल्पानां विषये घोषणा

प्राणविद्याया अभिवृद्धये काशिराजन्यासेन चत्वारोऽभिनवाः प्रकल्पाः संकित्वताः। सर्वे पुराणविदो विद्वांसः अस्मिन् कर्मण सहयोगाय प्रकामं निवेद्यन्ते ।

- (१) अस्मद्देशे क्षेत्रीयभाषानिबद्धा बहवः पुराणग्रन्था विरचिताः। एताद्शसाहित्यविवरण-पराणां नवीनग्रन्थानां (Monograph) प्रकाशनम् न्यासेन संकल्पितम् । एषु ग्रन्थेषु प्रकाशित-हस्तलिखित-साहित्यस्य विवरणेन सह उद्धरणज्ञापितग्रन्थानां च विवरणमपि स्यात्।
- (२) पौराणिकविषयप्रतिपादनपराणां शोधग्रन्थानाम् अप्रकाशितानाम् प्रकाशनम्।



- (३) पुराणवर्णित-मुनिचरितविवरण-पराणां ग्रन्थानां (१०० पृष्ठादिध-कानाम्) प्रकाशनम्।
- (४) पौराणिकविषय-प्रतिपादनपराणां लघु-संस्कृतग्रन्थानां संस्कृतविद्वद्-विरचितानां प्राचीनानाम प्राचीनानां च प्रकाशनम् । प्राणपित्रकायामपि इमे ग्रन्थाः प्रकाशनीयाः स्यः ।

अस्माकं सविनयमभ्यर्थना

सर्वासां शिक्षासंस्थानानामधिकारिणः सविनयमभ्यर्थ्यन्ते -- यत्ते स्वस्व-संस्थानसदस्यैः शोधछात्रैर्वा लिखितानां लेखिष्यमाणानां वा पुराणविषयकाणां ग्रन्थानां विवरणमस्मत्सकाशे प्रेषयेयुः (पुराणशब्देन उपपुराणानि इतिहासश्च ग्राह्यानि)। पुराणाध्ययनगवेषणाविषये यदि तेषां केचन प्रकल्पाः स्युस्तर्हि तेषामपि संक्षिप्तं विवरणं प्रेषणीयम्। पुराणविषयकग्रन्थसूची-निर्माणाय उपर्युक्तंग्रन्थविवरणं प्रकल्पविवरणं च अत्यन्त मावश्यकम् ।

पुराणविषयरसिका विद्वांसो निवेद्यन्ते यत् ते पुराण-विषयिण्यो जिज्ञासाः प्रश्ना वा अस्मत्-सकाशे प्रेषयेयुः समाधानार्थम् । इमा जिज्ञासाः प्रश्ना वा समाहिता भविष्यन्ति पुराणविशेषज्ञैः; सित संभवे जिज्ञासा-मीमांसे पुराण-पत्रिकायां प्रकाशमेष्यतः।



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