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डा॰ रामकरण शर्मा भूतपूर्वं कुलपित, सम्पूर्णानन्द संस्कृतिवश्वविद्यालय, वाराणसी; नयी दिल्ली

डा॰ रामचन्द्र नारायण दाण्डेकर भण्डारकर प्राच्यशोधसंस्थान; पुणे डा॰ जे॰ गोण्डा, उटरेख्ट, नीदरलैण्डस

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व्यासपूणिमाङ्कः

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व्यासमहिमा

(8)

यान्युज्जहार माहेन्द्राद् व्यासो व्याकरणार्णवात्। तानि कि पदरत्नानि सन्ति पाणिनिगोष्पदे॥ न दृष्टिमिति वैयासे शब्दे मा संशयं कृथाः। अज्ञैरज्ञातमित्येव रत्नं न हि न विद्यते॥

(2)

अधीती शब्दशास्त्राणां षष्टौ द्वैपायनो विभुः। कृती निजकृतौ कुर्यात् कथमेवापभाषणम्॥

(3)

अष्टादश पुराणानि नव व्याकरणानि च। निर्मथ्य चतुरो वेदान् मुनिना भारतं कृतम्।।

NOTES ON THE GLORIFICATION OF VYASA

T

These two are the benedictory verses in the commentary of Devabodha on (the Adiparvan of) the Mahābhārata. It is stated in these verses that the gems of words, which Vyāsa extracted from the ocean-like grammar of Mahendra (i.e. Indra), are not to be found in the small puddle of Pāṇini; and that it would be wrong to raise a doubt on the validity of the un-Pāṇinian words used in the Mbh. simply because they were not analysed by Pāṇini, for he was not aware of these words.

These verses undoubtedly point to the following facts: (i) There was a pre-Pāṇinian grammar composed by Indra; (ii) it dealt with such words as had not been discussed by Pāṇini; (iii) there are many words in the Mahābhārata which are in accordance with the grammar of Indra though they are not found in the

grammar of Paṇini; (iv) words used by Vyāsa cannot be held as incorrect even if they are not found in Pāṇini.

There is hardly any reasonable doubt about the existence of the grammar by Indra¹. This vast treatise was lost in ancient times (Kathāsaritsāgara 4.24-25).

It is interesting to note that these verses of Devabodha were quoted by Gopāla Cakravartin in his commentary on the Sapaśatī (with the introductory remarks तथा च भारताचार्यधृतवचनम्, 1.1) with the reading यान्युज्जहार माहेशाद् though there is no variant reading in the verse of Devabodha.

This line is often quoted to prove the existence of a grammar called Māheśa by Śiva or Maheśvara which was deemed to be the first (cp. the saying महेश्वरादि व्याकरणम्) and greatest of all grammars.²

While considering the un-Pāṇinian words used in the Mahābhārata the grammarians of the Pāṇinian and other schools usually assert that Vyāsa and other sages like Vālmīki are beyond the pale of the grammar of Pāṇini.³

It is to be noted in passing that the verse has been quoted in the Apāṇinīya-prāmāṇya-sādhana (or Apāṇinīya-pramāṇatā) of Nārāyaṇabhaṭṭa (the celebrared author of the Prakriyāsarvasva) with the reading यान्युज्जहार भगवान् व्यासो व्याकरणाम्बुध: and भान्ति (for सन्ति). The view that 'words not found in Pāṇini's grammar must be regarded as incorrect' has been severely criticized and refuted in this booklet and it is established that words used by ancient sages and the views of later grammarians like Candra, Bhoja and others must be regarded as valid even if they are not in accordance with the grammar of Pāṇini.

See Burnell: On the Aindra School of Sanskrit Grammar;
 Y. Mimāmsaka: संस्कृतन्याकरणशास्त्र का इतिहास I, pp. 80-89;

^{2.} See K. C. Chatterjee: Śivasūtras and Sanskrit Alphabet, pp. 22-26.

उच्यते—-निह क्यासप्रभृतीनिधकृत्य अष्टाध्यायी कृता; ते हि भगवन्तो वाग्विषये स्वतन्त्रा इति (दुर्घटवृत्ति ७।१।९३)।

II

The verse says: How could the competent Dvaipāyana, who studied sixty grammars (works of sixty schools of grammar), use incorrect words in his own composition (i.e. the Mahābhārata)?

That Vyāsa, the author of the Mahābhārata, was the master of various systems of grammar was wellknown to our former teachers.⁴ The most astonishing factor mentioned in this verse is the number of grammars, for the grammarians and others usually speak of eight or nine systems of grammar only. It is true that besides the eight⁵ or nine⁶ grammars, there were other grammars (by Cākravarman, Bhāguri and others; see also the Kavīndrācārya-sūci) also, yet it is difficult to justify the number.

Can it be surmised that the original reading of the first foot of the verse is 'अभीती शब्दशास्त्रस्याष्ट्रसु द्वैपायनो विभुः''? (अष्टसु = अष्टसु भेदेवु).

Ш

It is quoted in the Apāṇinīyaprāmāṇyasādhana (p. 2) without mentioning the name of the source. A similar verse however occurs in the Bhaviṣyapurāṇa⁷, which mentions eight vyākaraṇas. This also points to Vyāsa's deep knowledge of Sanskrit language, an echo of which may be found in Vāyu-p. 1.18 (भारती चैव विपुला महाभारतविधनी).

- 4. अधीत्य चतुरो वेदान् साङ्गान् व्याकरणानि च। कृतवान् भारतं शास्त्रं तस्मै ज्ञानात्मने नमः।। (ब्रह्मपु॰ 245.10). The Mbh. uses the epithet वागीशान for Vyāsa in Droṇa-p. 71.24.
- 5. इन्द्रश्चन्द्रः जयन्त्यष्टादिशाब्दिकाः (कविकल्पद्रम) ।
- 6. सोऽयं नवव्याकरणार्थवेत्ता (Rāmāyāṇa, Uttara. 36.47); ऐन्द्रं चान्द्रं काशकुत्स्ने कौमारं शाकटायनम् । सारस्वतं चापिशलं शाकल्यं पाणिनीयकम् ।। (श्रीतत्त्वनिधि) ।
- 7. अष्टादश पुराणानि अष्टौ व्याकरणानि च । ज्ञात्वा सत्यवतीसूनुश्चक्रे भारतसंहिताम् ।। (भविष्य पु॰ १।१।५८)।

विष्णुस्तोत्रम्

अंक्र उवाच-

सन्मात्ररूपिणेऽचिन्त्यमहिम्ने परमात्मने । व्यापिने नैकरूपैक-स्वरूपाय नमो नमः ॥ ४८ ॥

सर्वरूपाय तेऽचिन्त्य हिवर्भूताय ते नमः। नमो विज्ञेयरूपाय पराय प्रकृतेः प्रभो॥ ४९॥

भूतात्मा चेन्द्रियात्मा च प्रधानात्मा तथा भवान् । आत्मा च परमात्मा च त्वमेकः पञ्चधा स्थितः ॥ ५० ॥

प्रसीद सर्वंधर्मात्मन् क्षराक्षरमयेश्वर । ब्रह्मविष्णुशिवाद्याभिः कल्पनाभिष्ठदाहृतः ।। ५१ ॥

अनाख्येयस्वरूपात्मन्ननाख्येयप्रयोजन । अनाख्येयाभिधान त्वां नतोऽस्मि परमेश्वर ॥ ५२ ॥

न यत्र नाथ विद्यन्ते नामजात्यादिकल्पनाः । तद् ब्रह्म परमं नित्यमविकारि भवानज ॥ ५३ ॥

न कल्पनामृतेऽर्थस्य सर्वस्याधिगमो यतः । ततः कृष्णाच्युतानन्त-विष्णुसंज्ञाभिरीड्यते ॥ ५४ ॥

४८. तन्मात्ररूपिणे (ब्र०)।

४९. शब्दरूपाय (ब्र॰)। सत्त्वरूपाय (जीवा॰)। विज्ञानपाराय (जीवा॰; वङ्गवासी); विज्ञानरूपाय (ब्र॰)। प्रभोः (ब्र॰);।

५१. सर्वधर्मात्मन् (ब्र॰)। क्षराक्षरमहेश्वर (ब्र॰)। शिवाख्याभिः (गीताप्रेस संस्क॰)। उदीरितः (गीताप्रेस संस्क॰)।

५३. अजः (गीताप्रेस संस्क०)।

५४. ईड्यसे (व्र०)।

सर्वार्थास्त्वमज विकल्पनाभिरेतद् देवाद्यं जगदखिलं त्वमेव विश्वम् । विश्वात्मं स्त्विमिति विकारभावहीनः सर्विस्मिन्नहि भवतोऽस्ति किञ्चिदेतत् ॥ ५५ ॥

त्वं ब्रह्मा पशुपित रयंमा विधाता धाता त्वं त्रिदशपितः समीरणोऽग्निः । तोयेशो धनपितरन्तकस्त्वमेको भिन्नार्थेर्जंगदभिपासि शक्तिभेदैः ॥ ५६ ॥

विश्वं भवान् सृजित सूर्यंगभिस्तिरूपो विश्वेश ते गुणमयोऽयमजः प्रपञ्चः। रूपं परं सिदिति वाचकमक्षरं यज् ज्ञानात्मने सदसते प्रणतोऽस्मि तस्मै॥ ५७॥

ॐ नमो वासुदेवाय नमः सङ्कर्षणाय ते । प्रद्युम्नाय नमस्तुभ्य मनिरुद्धाय ते नमः ॥ ५८ ॥

(विष्णुपु० ५.१८. ४८-५८; ब्रह्मपु० १९२.४८-५८)

५५. सर्वार्थाः (गीताप्रेस संस्क०); सर्वात्मन्(व्र०) । विकल्पनाभिरेतैः; देवाद्यैभविति हि यैरनन्तविश्वम् (गीताप्रेस संस्क०); एतद् देवाद्यं(व्र०) । विश्वात्मा, विकार-हीनमेतत्, असि किञ्चित् (गीताप्रेस संस्क०) ।

५६. त्वं घाता (व्र०)। भिन्नात्मा जगदपि (व्र०)।

५७. सृजन्ति हन्ति गभस्तिरूपः (व्र०)। विश्वं च ते (व्र०' वङ्गवासी-संस्क०)। अतः प्रपञ्चः (गीताप्रेस संस्क०); अजः प्रपञ्चः (व्र०)।

५८. च (तु-स्थले) (गीताप्रेस संस्क०)।

NOTES ON THE VISNU-STOTRA

(Verse 48) Obeisance to Thee Who art the supreme self, all pervading, of the nature of existence, of inconceivable glory, and of manifold forms as well as of one form.

The reading $tanm\bar{a}trar\bar{u}pine$ (Br.) does not yield any good sense here. The word $m\bar{a}tra$ in $sanm\bar{a}tra$ shows that this ultimate existence is free from intrinsic (svagata), generic ($saj\bar{a}t\bar{\imath}ya$) and extrinsic ($vij\bar{a}t\bar{\imath}ya$) difference. It is the substratum ($\bar{a}dh\bar{a}ra$) of all existent things. ¹

Some Vaiṣṇava teachers do not take *acintya* simply in the sense of 'inconceivable' or 'being beyond the field of *pramāṇa'*, but in the sense of 'capable of being known through a particular form of *arthāpatti* (presumption) called *śrutārthāpatti*.³

Naikarūpa—Here the two words are na (and not nan) and ekarūpa;4 cp. एको नैक: (in Viṣṇusahasranāma 91) for the two opposite aspects of Viṣṇu.⁵

(Verse 49) O inconceivable Lord, salutation to Thee, Who art of all forms, of the nature of oblation, of unknowable nature and beyond the prakṛti (the three guṇas, constituents).

- About the words सत् and सन्मात्र Samkara's remarks are worth noticing: सन्मात्रं हि ब्रह्म, न तस्य सन्मात्रादेव उत्पत्तिः संभवति *** (2.3.9); सच्छब्दार्थोऽपि पर्यांलोच्यमानो न मुख्यादात्मनो-ऽन्यः संभवति (3.3.17).
- 2. Commenting on अचिन्त्य (a name of Viṣṇu) Śaṁkara remarks : प्रमाणादिसाक्षित्वेन सर्वप्रमाणागोचरत्वाद् अचिन्त्यः । अयम् ईदृश इ ति विश्वप्रपञ्चिवलक्षणत्वेन चिन्तयितुम् अशक्यत्वाद् वा अचिन्त्यः (on V. S. N. 102).
- 3. Vide Śridhara's comments on Visnu-p. 1.3.2.
- 4. On नैकमाय (a name of Viṣṇu) Samkara observes : नलोपो नज: (Pā. 6.3.73) इति नकारलोपो न भवति, जकारानुबन्धरहितस्यापि नकारस्य प्रतिषेधवाचिनो विद्यमानत्वत् (on V. S. N. 46).
- 5. The Bhāṣya remarks : प्रमार्थतः सजातीयविजातीयस्वगतभेदविनि-र्मुक्तत्वाद् एकः " मायया बहुरूपत्वान्तैकः.

Some editions of the Viṣṇu-p. read सत्त्वरूपाय (for सर्वरूपाय) and विज्ञानपाराय, beyond vijnāna, intellect (for अविज्ञेयरूपाय). The reading विज्ञानरूपाय (Br.) means 'one whose nature is consciousness'. प्रभी: (Br.) (for प्रभी) is corrupt. ज्ञान्द रूपाय (Br.) means 'one whose form is sastra or the Veda'.

Havir bhūṭāya—Cp. the name Mahāhavis in V. S. N. 85.; cp. Gītā 4.24 (ब्रह्मार्पणं ब्रह्म हिवः) , and Gītā 9.16 (अहं हुतम्).

(Verse 50) Thou dost exist in five forms, namely the *bhūtas*, the organs or capacities, *pradhāna* (*prakṛṭ*ī), the (embodied) self and the supreme self, who is bereft of all limiting adjuncts.

The verse is found to have been quoted in various works; vide the bhāṣya on V. S. N. (p. 37 Gītā Press edition), the Paramātmasandarbha p. 5 (of Jīvagosvāmin) etc.

The word bhut ātman may mean 'भूतानामात्मा अन्तर्यामी:'. The words indriyātman and pradhānātman may be explained in the same way. Ātman primarily means 'the inner self's, pratyagātman=who knows and acts with the help of different organs.9

(Verse 51) O Lord, be merciful. Thou art the essence of all dharmas; Thou dost comprise both the perishable and the imperishable; Thou hast been described by the names or designations of Brahmā, Viṣṇu, Śiva and the like.

सर्वधर्मात्मन् (Br.) seems to be the best reading here.

^{6.} ब्रह्मात्मिन सर्वं जगत् तदात्मतया ह्यते इति महाहिवः (Bhāṣya). हिवस् is derived as हिवषा हयते

भूतात्मा महाभूतरूपः । इन्द्रियात्मा इन्द्रियरूपः । प्रधानात्मा प्रकृतिरूपः । आत्मा भृतादित्रितयोपाधिपुरुषः । परमात्मा निरुपाधिः ।

^{8.} आत्मशब्दः प्रत्यगात्मविषय एव मुख्यः (Śaṁkara on Kaṭha-up 1. 2. 22).

^{9.} See the derivation of the word ātman: यच्चाप्नोति यदादत्ते यच्चात्ति विषयानिह । यच्चास्य सन्ततो भावस्तस्मादात्मेति कीर्त्यंते ।। (Linga-p. 1. 70. 96).

The assertion that Viṣṇu is the essence of all dharmas is one of the most attracting views of the Paurāṇikas. 10 The words क्षर and अक्षर are used in various senses 11 and all of these senses may be taken here. An echo of the idea expressed in the second half of this verse is to be found in Viṣṇu-p. 1.2.66. 12 The use of the word kalpanā is highly significant; cp. साधकानां हितार्थीय ब्रह्मणो रूपकल्पना (Rāmatāpinī-up. 1.1.7). The difference in forms of the deity is said to be in accordance with the character of meditatiion. 18

(Verse 52) O supreme Lord, I bow down to Thee, Whose nature is indescribable, Whose purpose is unthinkable and Whose name is inexpressible.

A thing can be described if it falls under any one of the four categories, namely jāti (genus), guṇa (quality), kriyā (action) and dravya (substance). 14 Since Viṣṇu in his brahman-aspect transcends jāti etc. He is rightly regarded as anākhyeya-svarupa; cp. न शब्दगोचरं यस्य योगिध्येयं परं पदम् (Viṣṇu-p. 1.17.22).

- 10. यं पृथाधर्मचरणाः पृथाधर्मफलैषिणः ।
 पृथाधर्मैः समर्चन्ति तस्मै धर्मात्मने नमः ।।
 (Śānti-p. 47. 50).
- 11. Gitā 15.16, 18; 8. 3-4; Śvetāśvatara-up. 1.8; 1.10; Atharva-śiras 1; Garbha up. 3.
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ब्रह्म विष्ण्वीशरूपाणि त्रीणि विष्णोर्महात्मनः । ब्रह्मणि ब्रह्मरूपः स शिवरूपः शिवे स्थितः ।। पृथगेव स्थितो देवो विष्णुरूपी जनार्दनः ।। (Vāmana-p. quoted in the Paramātmasandarbha, p. 9).

- 13. मणिर्यथा विभागेन नीलपीतादिभिर्युतः। ह्यानभेदात्तथाच्युतः। (quoted in various works of the Caitanya sect)
- 14. Cp शब्दप्रवृत्तिहेतुजात्यादिरहितत्वात् (Śamkara on Tai-up. 2.1); यद्धि करणगोवरं तदन्यस्मै उपदेष्टुं शक्यं जातिगुणक्रियाविशेषणै: (Śamkara on Kena-up. 1.1).

Śrīdhata remarks that Viṣṇu's acts of creation etc. are to be regarded as his sport $(l\bar{\imath}l\bar{a})$. Since Viṣṇu is $\bar{a}ptak\bar{a}ma$, there can be no real purpose for is activities. Śrīdhara observes that Viṣṇu is called $an\bar{a}khyeya$ - $abhidh\bar{a}na$ since He has no definite names $(abhidh\bar{a}na)$ or He has innumerable names and as such His names are beyond the field of description.

(Verse 53) O birthless One, Thou art that changeless eternal brahman about which there can be no idea of name, species and the like.

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 $N\bar{a}moj\bar{a}ty\bar{a}di$ - $kalpan\bar{a}$ is a wellknown philosophical term. ¹⁴ By the force of the word $\bar{a}di$, categories like guna, $kriy\bar{a}$ and dravya are added. The word $avik\bar{a}rin$ is significant, for anything that transcends $j\bar{a}ti$ etc. must be changeless. The changeless entity having no difference in it is usually called brahman. ¹⁷

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The verse means to say that these names are absolutely necessary to conceive Viṣṇu as without denoting words $(v\bar{a}caka \dot{s}abda)$ there can be no thinking. Meditation on entities depends upon the words denoting them.

- 15. Cp. लोकवत्तु लीलाकैवल्यम् (Br.-sū. 2.1.33). अनास्येयं प्रयोजनं यस्याप्तकामत्वेन लीलाब्यतिरेकेण सृष्ट्यादिप्रयोजनस्य अनास्येयत्वात् (Śridhara).
- 16. प्रत्यक्षं कल्पनापोढं नामजात्याद्यसंयुतम् (Pramāṇasamuccaya); प्रत्यक्षं कल्पनापोढं यज्ज्ञानम् अर्थे रूपादौ नामजात्यादिकल्पनारिहतम् (Nyāyapraveśa of Dinnāga, p. 7). This kalpanā is sometimes called vikalpa. Name, species etc fall under vikalka.
- 17. प्रत्यस्तमितभेदं यत् सत्तामात्रमगोचरम् । वचसामात्मसंवेद्यं तज् ज्ञानं ब्रह्मसंज्ञितम् ॥ (Viṣṇu-p. 6.7.53).

The assertion that Viṣṇu is the essence of all dharmas is one of the most attracting views of the Paurāṇikas. 10 The words क्षर and अक्षर are used in various senses 11 and all of these senses may be taken here. An echo of the idea expressed in the second half of this verse is to be found in Viṣṇu-p. 1.2.66. 12 The use of the word kalpanā is highly significant; cp. साधकानां हितार्थीय ब्रह्मणो रूपकल्पना (Rāmatāpinī-up. 1.1.7). The difference in forms of the deity is said to be in accordance with the character of meditatiion. 18

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(Vāmana-p. quoted in the Paramātmasandarbha, p. 9).

- 13. मणिर्यथा विभागेन नीलपीतादिभिर्युतः । कृपभेदमत्राप्नोति ध्यानभेदात्तथाच्युतः ॥ (quoted in various works of the Caitanya sect)
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- Ср. लोकवत्तु लीलाकैवल्यम् (Br.-sū. 2.1.33). अनाख्येयं प्रयोजनं यस्याप्तकामत्वेन लीलाव्यतिरेकेण सृष्ट्यादिप्रयोजनस्य अनाख्येयत्वात् (Śrīdhara).
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All these words (names) have their derivative meanings, which are highly appropriate. 18

(Verse 54) O unborn Deity, Thou dost possess all; Thou art all this world beginning with the gods. O Universal Soul, Thou dost exist in all in a changeless form. Anything other than Thee has no existence.

The reading in the Vang. ed. is given here.

The expression देवाद्यं जगत् means 'the creatures beginning with the *devas*'. This idea is found not only in the Purāṇas but also in the works of philosophical schools¹ $^{\circ}$.

(Verse 55) Thou art Brahmā (the creator), Śiva (lit. the lord of animals), Aryaman, Vidhātṛ, Dhātṛ, the king of gods (Indra), Air, Fire, the lord of waters (Varuṇa), the lord of wealth (Kubera) and Yama. Though one, Thou dost protect the world through various powers fulfilling various purposes.

18. कृषिभूँवाचकः शब्दो ण श्च निर्वृतिवाचकः ।
 विष्णुस्तद्भावयोगाच्च कृष्णो भवित शाश्वतः ।।
 (Mbh. Udyoga-p. 70.5); कृषािम पृथिवीं पार्थं भूत्वा काष्णीयसो हलः ।
 कृष्णो वर्णश्च मे यस्मात्तस्मात् कृष्णोऽहमर्जुन ।। (Śanti-p. 342.79).
 यस्मान्न च्युतपूर्वोऽहमच्युत स्तेन कर्मणा ।। अनन्तः नास्ति अन्तो यस्थ—
 ''नित्यत्वात् सर्वगतत्वात् परिच्छेदाभावात्'' ।। (Śankara on V.S.N.
 108). यस्माद् विष्टमिदं सर्वं तस्य शक्त्या महात्मनः । तस्मादेवोच्यते विष्णुविशेर्धातोः प्रवेशनात् ।। (Viṣṇu-p. 3. 1. 45). वेवेष्टि व्याप्नो तीति विष्णुः, विषेवर्याप्त्यभिधायिनो नुक्प्रत्ययान्तस्य रूपं विष्णुरिति
 (Śamkara on V.S.N. 14).

19. अष्टभेदान् सुरान् कृत्वा तिर्यग्योनि च पञ्चधा ।

मनुष्यानेकभेदांश्च सृष्टिमेवं ससर्ज ह ॥

(Skanda-p., Avantīkṣetra 2. 31);

दैवमष्टिवधं ज्ञेयं तैर्यग्योन्यं च पञ्चधा ।

सर्वमेकं च मानुष्यमेतत् संसारमण्डलम् ॥

(Devī-bhāg. 10.2.7);

दैवमष्टिवधं ज्ञेयं तैर्यग्योनं च पञ्चधा ।

पर्वमेकं तु मानुष्यमेतत् संसारमण्डलम् ॥

(Comm. on Gaṇakārikā, p. 11).

The two gods Dhātṛ and Vidhātṛ are said to be the sons of Bhṛgu and Khyāti (Viṣṇu-p. 1.8.15).

There are a large number of Puranic statements about the powers of Viṣṇu and their respective functions. For a detailed discussion on the śaktis of Viṣṇu, see the Bhāgavata-sandarbha (of Jivagosvāmin), sec. 16 etc. The Brahmasamhitā (Ch. 5) vividly describes how various gods perform their functions remaining under the guidance of Govinda—the supreme deity. For the three fundamental śaktis of Viṣṇu, see Viṣṇu-p. 6.7.61.20

(Verse 56) O the Lord of the world, O the birthless One, Thou, assuming the form of solar rays, dost create the world. That is why this transmigrating existence possesses Thine guṇas (constitutents, namely sattva etc.). Thy supreme form is denoted by the syllable sat. I bow down to that entity whose essence is consciousness and which is both existent and non-existent (i.e. cause and effect).

For the idea in the first foot, cp. Śānti-p. 341.41(छादयामि जगत् कृत्सनं भूत्वा सूर्य इवांश्वभिः). Cp. also the two names of Viṣṇu namely Bṛhadbhānu (V. S. N. 49) and Gabhastinemi (V. S. N. 65). The form j̄nānātman (of Viṣṇu) has ben described in the Purāṇas; see Viṣṇu-p. 1.2.6 (ज्ञानस्वरूपमत्यन्तं निर्मेलं प्रमार्थतः).

Sadasate—Some explain sat and asat as imperishable and perishable, while others take them to mean 'cause' and 'effect' as the (material) cause is relatively more enduring (sthāyin) than the effect.

(Verse 58) Salutation to Thee in the forms of Vasudeva, Samkarṣaṇa, Pradyumna and Aniruddha.

The verse is based on the Pāncarātra Āgama, the origin of which is traced to the supreme being Nārāyaṇa, who revealed the śāstra to Nārada and other sages. The Caturvyuha view of this sect which is mentioned in Śānti-p. 351.22,21 has been clearly

विष्णुशक्तिः परा प्रोक्ता क्षेत्रज्ञाख्या तथापरा ।
 अविद्या कर्मसंज्ञान्या तृतीया शक्तिरिष्यते ॥

^{21.} On चतुर्विभक्तः पुरुषः स क्रीडित यथेच्छिति (Śānti-p. 351.22) Nilakantha observes : पाञ्चरात्रमार्गमुपसंहरित चतुर्विभक्त इति । चतुर्विभक्तः चतुर्धा वासुदेवादिरूपेण विभक्तः क्रीडित शास्य-शासितृभावेन भोग्यभोक्तुभावेन च

propounded by Sankarācārya in his bhāṣya on Brahmasātra 2.2.42. It is stated here that Bhagvat Vāsudeva, whose nature is pure consciousness, divides himself in four forms and appears in four vyūhas, namely Vāsudeva, Samkarṣaṇa, Pradyumna and Aniruddha. Vāsudeva is the highest self while Samkarṣaṇa is the individual (embodied) self. Pradyumna and Anirudha denote respectively the mind and the egoism (ahamkāra). While Vāsudeva is the ultimate cause, the others are the effects.

Since references to Pāñcarātra are found in the Chāndogya-up 8.1 (ekāyana meaning Pāñcarātra), Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa (13.6.1.1), Rāmāyaṇa (7.7.16) and the Mahābhārata (Śānti-p. 359. 1; 384. 62-63), a great antiquity must be ascribed to this śāstra.²²

^{22.} See Introduction, p. xxi, Śrī Pāñcarātrarakṣā (The Adyar Library Series).

A NEW INTERPRÉTATION OF THE DOCTRINE OF AVATĀRAS

BY

Y. KRISHAN

The meaning of the term avatara:

The word avatāra is derived from the word ava \(\forall tr^1 \) which means 'to descend (as a deity) in becoming incarnate; to make one's appearance'. Hence the word avatāra means 'descent of a diety from heaven, appearance of any deity upon earth, more specifically the incarnation of Viṣṇu in ten principal forms viz. the Fish (Matsya), Tortoise (kurma), Boar (Varāha), Narasimha (man-lion), Vāmana (Dwarf), Paraśurāma, Rāma (Dāśarathi), Kṛṣṇa, Buddha and Kalki.

In this paper we are concened with the classical doctrine of $avat\bar{a}ras$, that is the divine incarnation of Viṣṇu in relation to the doctrine of Karma.

- 1. The other synonyms for the term avatura are:
 - (a) pradurbhāva, manifested, revealed. This is used in Harivamsa cr. ed. 30 and 31.
 - (b) Vyuha or mūrti, form, manifestation of Purusottama as Vāsudeva, Samkarṣaṇa, Pradyumna and Aniruddha. This term is used by the Pañcarātras who also used another term āveśa avatāra, meaning entrance of God or the Supreme spirit in bodily forms, human or bovine. An exposition of the doctrine of vyūhas is to be found in in the Nārāyaṇīya Section of the Sāntiparva of the Mahābhārata and in the Ahirbudhnya samhitā.

The concept of amisa avatāra (partial incarnation) as distinct from pūrņa avatāra (full incarnation) has been explained subsequently: See f.n. Ten classical avatāras are considered pūrņā avatāras. These are enumerated presently.

(c) The Buddhists and the Jainas use the terms avakrānti (Skt) and Okkanti (Pāli), Avakrama means to descend (into a womb). Okkanti also means the same, descent. See Monier Williams: Sanskrit-English Dictionary and R. C. Childers: A Dictionary of Pali Language. At Bharhut there is an inscription Bhagavato Ūkranti. H. Luders: Bharhut Inscriptions Ootacamund, 1963, Vol. II Pt. II. B 19 (801) pp. 88-92.

The sources of the doctrine of avataras:

In the Bhagavadgit \bar{a} (B. G.), the cause and the purpose of divine incarnation is stated explicitly as well as implicitly, though the term $avat\bar{a}ra$, as such, is not used.

The B. G. 4. 7-8 2 says:

yadā yadā hi dharmasya glūnirbhavati bhārata | abhyutthānamadharmasya tadātmānam sṛjāmyaham || 7.

- 2. The other variants of these verses are:
 - (i) (a): Asatām nigrahārthāya dharma samrakšanāya caļ Avatīrņo manusyānāmajāyata yadukṣaye | | Mbh cr. ed. Appendix I 27.83-84. For subduing evil and protecting righteousness, justice, rule of law, (the God) descends into the human birth to strengthen or support them (righteous just persons). This is an interpolation in Mbh.
 - (b) Jātāhīyam Vasumatī bhūrākrantā, when the earth is overwhelmed with burdens and suffering (due to daityas, dānavas and rākrasas.) Visņu takes birth for bhūrāvataraņam, removal of the burden by curbing evil and protecting good (nigraheņa ca pūpanīm, prāgraheņa ca sādhūnām, Mbh 12.337.29-32).
 - (c) dharma-samrakṣanārthāya dharma-samsthāpanāya ca | taistairveṣaiśca rūpaiśca triṣu lokeṣu bhārgava | Mbh. 14.53.13
 - O Bhārgava (son of Bhṛgu), for the protection and establishment of the *dharma*, justice, rule of law, I assume the appropriate dress and form in the three worlds.
 - (d) Dharmasya setum bandhāmi calite calite ynge | Tāstā-yonih pravišyāham prajānām hitakām-yayā Mbh. 14.53.13
 - I take birth from age to age to establish the righteous order (of justice, rule of law) for the benefit of the masses of the people.
 - (e) Viṣṇu descends (avatīrṇa) to this world to destroy the personification of evil, Rāvaṇa. Mbh. 3.260.5
 - (ii) In the *Uttarakāṇḍa* B. 15.27 of the *Rāmāyaṇa* (*Rām*) Viṣṇu is born in this world from time to time (*Kāle Kāle*) to eliminate the *rākṣasas* and dasyus (enemies of gods) who destroy righteous-

O Bharata! Whenever there is decline of *dharma*, righteousness, justice, rule of law, and there is increase in injustice (break-down of law), I take birth.

The purpose is set out in the next verse:

Paritrāṇāya sādhunām vināsāya ca duṣkṛtām | Dharmāsamsthāpanārthāya sambhavāmi yuge yuge | | 8.

To protect the good, the law abiding and to destroy the evil, the delinquent, the unjust or inequitous, and to establish the *dharma*, justice, I (God) take birth yuga (aeon) after yuga.

The word *dharma* and *adharma* are usually translated as religion and irreligion. But we feel that this is not the true significance of these words here. *Dharma*, as religion, is a discipline for achieving heaven and liberation (moksa) and these are to be attained in future life or lives. *Dharma* also means law, justice; danda (punishment, law) is *dharma*. In this verse Kṛṣṇa promises to uphold the law to give justice and end adharma, injustice. Here Kṛṣṇa promises emancipation from tyranny but not from cycle of existence, bhavasagara. In other words, an avatara, divine incarnation, seeks to confer protection or rescue $(pari \sqrt{trai}-paritrana)$ from evil forces here and not moksa or liberation from repeated births and deaths hereafter.

The doctrine of $avat\bar{a}ra$ is also implicit in certain $ślokas^3$ of the B. G. viz. 7.24, 9.11 and 12.2.

ness ($nastadharma-vyavasth\bar{a}n\bar{a}m$). The $Uttara-k\bar{a}nda$ is a late addition to the $V\bar{a}lm\bar{i}ki$ $R\bar{a}m\bar{a}yana$.

- (iii) The same reasons for the phenomenon of avatāras ere adduced in the various purāṇas:

 Matsya XLVII 34 and 104 and XLVII 235;

 Viṣṇu III 2.54-57; Bhāgavata IX 24.56, Devibhāgavata 9.39; Brahmapurāṇa 181.2-4 and 9.
- 3. In B.G 7.24 it is said that the unintelligent persons believe that the unmanifest becomes endowed with individuality (avyaktam vyatimāpannam); in B.G 9.11 it is said the Lord is embodied as a human being mānuṣīm tanumāśritam. Further in B.G 11. 10-43 Kṛṣṇa reveals to Arjuna his virātrupa, the cosmic from: it is not easily comprehensible; it is bewildering, frightening. That is why in B.G 11.46 Arjuna begs Kṛṣṇa to revert to the

Thus the essential ingredients of the doctrine of avatāra are four:

- (i) Cause: decline of righteousness, law, justice and dominance of evil, injustice.
- (ii) Objective: the protection of the good, law-abiding and the destruction of the evil-doers, violaters of law.
- (iii) Means of realisation: by God taking birth in an earthly form, human or bovine.
- (iv) Timing of the incarnation: from age to age, vuge vuge4.

human-like form in which he is four-armed, endowed with a crown, mace, wheel (cakra). In fact in B.G 12.2 Kṛṣṇa proclaims that those who worship him in his saguṇa form are also as good as the best of yogīs. Radhakrishnan (Indian Philosophy, London Vol. II p. 545) explains away avatūras by saying that, though the work of divine redemption is a constant activity, the selfmanifestation of God "becomes emphatic" when the order of the world grows disproportionately evil.

A. A Macdonell & A. B. Keith: Vedic Index, Vols. I 4. & II London, 1912: yuga means in Rg Veda i. 158.6, a generation; in Atharva Veda viii, 2,21, a century, in Taittirīva Brāhmana iii, 12,9.2,100,000 years: Kautilya Arthasastra BK II Chap. XX 109 a five year period. In Vedangaivotisa it means a period of five years. In the Romaka Siddhānta, a yuga is a period of time of 2850 years. In the B.G. however, it means a cycle of time, and four successive yugas or time cycles make one manyantara. These cycles of time are of unequal length or duration and intervene between cration (srsti) and destruction (pralaya). These four time cycles are: Krta or Satya yuga, 1,728,000 years; Tretā, 1,296,000 years; Dvapara 864,000 years and Kaliyuga, 432,000 years. This concept of yugas came to be evolved between the 4th or 3rd century B.C. and the 1st century A.D. See P.V. Kane: History of the Dharmasastras, Poona 1973. Vol. III, Chap. XXXIV pp. 885-900, R. W. Saletore: Encyclopaedia of Indian Culture, New Delhi, 1985.

Subsequently other reasons⁵ were adduced as justifying divine incarnations such as rediscovery of lost scriptures, for benefit of the people, for the gratification of devotees, for making the supreme reality more easily comprehensible etc.

Of the four time cycles (yugas) Krta is the age of righteousness or dharma or justice. The dharma is envisaged as fourfooted and in Krtayuga, it rests on all the four feet meaning thereby that there is no evil, injustice or adharma in this age. In the Treta, there is loss of dharma, legal morality, to the extent of 1th, the dharma resting on three feet: justice is still dominant in an overwhelming manner. In the Dvīpara, good and evil, justice and injustice, are evenly balanced, the dharma resting on two feet. In the Kaliyuga the evil, injustice, becomes dominant, being 3th: field of justice is reduced to 1th as the dharma rests on one foot only.

In the Puranas, however, the decline in dharma in certain yugas is matched by corresponding enhanced capacity of relatively limited religious practices to secure heaven. In Kaliyuga a person can earn considerable stock of merit by little good effort or Karma whereas in Krtayuga it will take considerable effort to attain the same stock of merit. Visnupurāna VI. 1.58 avers that in Kaliyuga a man will acquire by trifling exertion as much eminence in virtue

For revealing the lost Vedas and śrutis (Mbh. 12.326.94); for the benefit of the people (lokahita) Mbh 12.236.17, for the benefit of both gods and men Mbh. 12.236, Harivamsa (cr. ed) 31.13 too, inter alia conferring grace on human beings Harivamsa 31.112, 31.184, to gratify his worshippers (Sankara in Ved intasūtrabhāsya I. 1.20; for improving the apprehension or understanding of the Lord (Rāmānuja Vedāntasūtrabhāsya I. 1.22) out of compassion for His votaries, for teaching of mankind, as a sport (Bhāgavata V. 3 & 4, V. 19, X. 23.) In modern times Aurobindo Ghosh has put forward the fanciful theory that the dectrine of avatara is a parable of evolution: origin of the species from aquatic creatures (fish) through amphibians (tortoise), sand animal (boar), a hybrid (man lion), undeveloped human being (dwarf) and man, mental being and finally overmental superman. Aurobindo Ghosh Letters Second Series p. 493. This thesis that the avatūra doctrine is a theory of human evolution does not fulfil any of the ingredients of the doctrine and has no basis in the doctrinal texts.

as is the result of arduous penance in *Kṛtayuga*. Kūrma-p. 1.28-36 emphasises that a man can acquire very great virtue with consummate case in *Kali* age. As the *Bhāgavatapurāṇa* XII 4.57-62 says: In *Kaliyuga*, merely by chanting the names and glories of Kṛṣṇa, one reaches the Supreme, whereas the same object can be attained in *Kṛtayuga* by contemplating Viṣṇu, in *Tretā* by sacrifices and in *Dvāpara* through worship. In other words the consequences of *Karma* are dependent not only on their quality but also on the *yuga* or time stage on which they are done.

A critical analysis of the role of various avatāras with reference to the essential ingredients of the classical 10 divine incarnations of Viṣṇu, shows that there is no nexus between the concept and the mythological roles of the various avatāras. Four incarnations, Matsya (fish), Kūrma (tortoise), Varāha (boar), and Narasimha (man-lion), belong to Kṛta age.

 $V\bar{a}mana$ (dwarf), Paraśurāma and Rāma (Dāśarathi) belong to $Tret\bar{a}$.

Kṛṣṇa appears towards the end of Dvāpara; in fact, the Kaliyuga commences with his death.

The Buddha and Kalki belong to the *Kaliyuga*, the latter and the last *avatāra* appearing when this *yuga* is coming to an end.

Most of the divine incarnations do not fulfil the essential ingredients of avatura or divine incarnation or embodiment.

(i) In Kṛtayuga there is no decline in righteousness: dharma is absolutely dominant. There is no rationale for the appearance of an avatāra in Kṛtayuga; but Matsya, Kūrma, Varāha and Narasimha belong to this yuga.

Similarly in $Tret\bar{\imath}$, dharma is overwhelmingly dominant; adharma is weak, being $\frac{1}{4}$ th as compared to dharma being $\frac{3}{4}$ th. There is no occasion for a divine incarnation in the form of Parasurāma and Rāma.

(ii) Again all the avatāras do not play the role of destroying adharma. In fact there is no adharma to be destroyed by Matsya, Kūrma and Varāha avatāras.

The Matsya avatāra protects the world from destruction by the cosmic flood, the Deluge: here the avatāra of Viṣṇu in the form of fish, is the protector of Manu or Vaivasvata and all the creatures, inanimate or stationary and animate or moving (sthāvara and jaṅgama) against cosmic dissolution.

In Viṣṇupurāṇa I. 9.80, Viṣṇu in his role as Kūrmāvatāra advises the devas (gods) to work with the asuras in churning the nectar (amṛta) from the ocean. He assured the devas: I will take care to see that the enemies of the gods do not obtain a share of the nectar; they shall only be sharers in the pains of the labour (of churning):

tathā cāham kariṣyāmi yathā tridasa-vidviṣaḥ |
na prāpsyantyamṛtam devāḥ kevalam kleṣabhāginah ||

This Viṣṇu achieves by assuming the form of a beautiful maiden Mohinī and deluding the asuras by her charms.

In the account of the Vāmana avatāra in the Bhāgavatapurāṇa viii. 18-23 I, it is clear that Bali maintains absolute truth and fulfils his promise of donation to the Dwarf (Vāmana) even though Bali knew that he was innocent, and that Viṣṇu had deceitfully 'begged' for a piece of land. In fact even the heaven and the earth had lamented Bali's fate; Brahmā also said that "Vali did not deserve this humiliation (of being consigned to Pātāla) and as a compensation Bali is consigned to Sutala which is free from suffering, calamities and diseases with the promise that he would later become Indra. The narration of the story in the Purāṇa leaves no doubt that Viṣṇu had deceived Bali to achieve his partisan objective of restoring Indra to his throne. In fact Viṣṇu takes the form of Vāmana (dwarf) "to bring about the highest welfare of the gods (devas)".

Again in the legend of the Narasimha avatāra Viṣṇu as Narasimha killed the demon Hiraṇyakaśipu even though there was no immediate provocation for this murder.

Hiraṇyakaśipu had tormented son Prahlāda to renounce his allegiance to Viṣṇu but in vain. Towards the end there was complete reconciliation between the father (Hiraṇyakaśipu) and his son Prahlāda, the great devotee of Viṣṇu. The Vi_s ṇupurāṇa I. XX. 29-31

31 alludes to the death of *Hiranyakasipu* in a very cursory manner after the reconciliation between the father and the son.

In *Bhāgavata* VII. 8. 18 Narasimha kills Hiraṇyakaśipu "to prove the reality of His devotee's words (that Viṣṇu is the controller of all and source of power in all) and also to assert His own omnipresence"

Again Paraśurāma killed his mother Reņukā at the behest of his father Jamadagni on the ground that Reņukā had entertained amorous thoughts towards a third person and hence had become unchaste. Further Paraśurāma killed Kārtavīrya for lifting the sacrificial calf of his father Jamadagni. In retaliation, the sons of Kārtavīrya killed Jamadagni. Paraśurāma, in revenge, destroyed Kṣatriyas twentyone times. Eventually he was humbled in a contest with Rāma. It is noteworthy that Paraśurāma was the only incarnation who was a Brāhmaṇa by caste; others viz. Rāma, Kṛṣṇa, Buddha (or Balarāma) and Kalki were all Kṣatriyas.

The story of Paraśurāma avatāra records the struggle for supremacy or the feud between the Brāhmaṇas and Kṣatriyas, a settlement of old scores between two higher castes. It does not deal with decline of righteousness or of morality requiring divine intervention. The fact that Paraśurāma is eventually humbled by Rāma seriously undermines his position as an avatāra.

Thus, at least five of the ten avatāras, do not qualify for descent on the earth for the purpose of destroying evil and promoting righteousness.

Only two ayatāras, Rāma (Dāśarathi) and Kṛṣṇa ostensibly descend on earth to destroy evil personified by Rāvaṇa and Kamsa. Hiraṇyakaśipu also was an embodiment of evil and his destruction by Narasimha can, perhaps, be legitimately claimed to represent destruction of evil by the divine incarnation. This would make only three avatāras fulfil the essential ingredients of the avatāra doctrine. As it has been noticed earlier, Narasimha and Hiraṇyakaśipu belong to the Kṛṭa age when no evil existed at all; Rāma and Rāvaṇa belonged to the Tretā when righteousness was dominant and hence in these ages the avatāras were not required.

The role of the Buddha the ninth avatāra is equally dubious. Visnu took the form of Buddha, mavamaha,6 the Great Deluder, to mislead the nastikas (those who do not believe in the authority of the Vedas) to their destruction by neglecting the Vedas and sacrifices, by failing to observe the caste rules, Varna-jati-dharma etc. Surely this was not a very honourable way of destroying evil and promoting righteousness by an omnipotent Being. It is significant that Kumārila7 Bhatta did not admit that the Buddha was an avatāra. Similarly the Nārāyaniya section of the Mbh. and some of the Puranas like the Vavu do not consider the Buddha as an avatīra. Instead Balarāma, the elder brother of Krsna is considered as an avatāra (Mbh I, 197.33, and 13.147.54). Balarāma was fond of drink. He is also deemed to be the avatara of sesa, the cosmic serpent on whose coiled up back Visnu reclines.8 In the Matsyapurāņa XLVII 234-245, four of the ten avataras viz. Dharma, Dattātreya, Māndhātr and Vedavyāsa are described as amsa (part) of Nārāyana, hence partial avatāras. Similarly the Bhagavatapurana enumerates a total of 22 avataras. Of these Narada (who helps mankind to obtain release from the bondage of Karma) Nara-Nārāyana, (who preach self-control and penance), Kapila (who revealed Sāmkhya philosophy), Dattātreya (who revealed the nature of soul), Dhanvantari (who brought amrta from the bottom of ocean) etc. are partial emanations or amsa avataras, in contradistinction to full or pūrna avatāras.9 Partial incarnations are suras (devas) and sages who use their spiritual attainment to impart knowledge and to relieve mental and physical suffering especially on an individual basis.

The Ahirbudhnya Samhitā speaks of 39 avatāras or Vibhavas (manifestations) of Vāsudeva.

^{6.} Visnupurana 3.17.18

^{7.} Kane: ibid Vol. II p. 721.

As Cornelia Dimmit and J. A. Van Buitenen: Classical 8. Hindu Mythology, Philadelphia 1978, p. 63 point out "The meaning of avatāra is consistent; the lists and functions of avataras are not."

^{9.} Bhāgavatapurāna I.3.5 explain that Krsna, as the source of all manifestations: etannānāvatārānām nidhānam bījamavyayam: Kṛṣṇa is the source of all these manifestions. Again Kṛṣṇas tu bhagavan svayam: Kṛṣṇa indeed is himself the supreme Lord, Bhagavata.

It also appears that in the evolution of the concept of avatāras, the form of divine energy in Vedic mythology was adapted. In the Vedic 10 literature, the Taittirīya Samhitā, Taittirīya Āranyaka and the Śatapatha Brāhmana, the divine energy in the form of fish, tortoise and boar are identified with Prajāpati or Brahmā; in the Mahābhārata Viṣṇu is substituted for Brahmā. Likewise the germ of the Vāmana avatāra is to be found in the three strides of Viṣṇu in the Rg Veda. The story of Viṣṇu killing a demon in the form of Narasimha is alluded to in the Taittirīya Āranyaka. The avatāra theory is in the process of development in the Mahābhārata. It is only in this epic that the fish, tortoise and boar gradually become the avatāra of Viṣṇu. 11

This explains the heterogeneous character of the doctrine of $avat\bar{a}ras$ and why it does not fit in with its rationale in the $Bhagavadag\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$ and other texts.

Thus the doctrine of avatāras suffers from serious internal contradictions both in regard to the time and role of the divine incarnations. The avatāras of the Fish, the Tortoise, the Boar and Vāmana (Dwarf) are hardly genuine avatāras. These are, in fact, cosmological myths whose incorporation in the doctrine served to give the concept an antiquarian and sacred respectability deriving from the Vedas.

Kṛṣṇa of the Mahābhārata is the avatāra par excellence. It appears that the concept of avatāra was evolved round Kṛṣṇa and then extended to other prādurbhāvas, manifestations, of the latter. The most important of such manifestations was Rāma (Dāśarathi); he fulfills the essential ingredients of the concept.

Though the motivation of an avatāra is destruction of evil and injustice, it is not essential that he must actively and directly engage in the process of destruction: Kṛṣṇa only instructs and exhorts Arjuna to shed his reservations and fight evil. He avoids

^{10.} See Kane: History of Dharmaśāstra Poona, 1974 Vol. II Pt. II pp. 717-19, J. Doneson: A Classical Dictionary of Hindu Mythology & Religion, Geography. History and Literature, London 1950, Hopkins: Epic Mythology, Delhi reprint 1974 pp. 197, 200, 201-202, 209-218.

^{11.} Hopkins: ibid p. 210.

any direct involvement in the defeat of the Kauravas. This task is entrusted to mortals, the Pandava brothers and especially to Arjuna. They are inspired by Kṛṣṇa to perform this sacred though unpleasant duty. It is only in the Ramayana that Rama directly fights Ravana. Kṛṣṇa avatara as a teacher and guide12 iustifies Gautama Buddha and Mahāvīra being regarded as avatāras. A variant of the doctrine of divine incarnation is that of the Supreme Being Visnu or Siva transferring his tejas (energy) to the gods (devas) to enable them to fight and destroy the demons (asuras). Thus in the Mbh¹³ we find Visnu transferring his teias to Brhadasva and his son Kuvalāsva to destroy the demons and Siva promising to give half of his tejas for destroying Tripura. But this concept did not gain popularity, perhaps because it was an indirect way to meeting the instant challenge of overpowering evil and was not quite consistent with the belief in the omnipotence of God.

The doctrine of *Karma*, as a doctrine of retributive justice, was a powerful challenge to the theistic concept of an omnipotent and omniscient Godhead. In fact, as the cosmic force of causation and retribution, *Karma*, had rendered God as irrelevant. In this context, the intervention of an *avatāra* in human affairs, like the *deus ex machina*, however, did not imply any repudiation of the law of *Karma*. Nay the *purāṇas*, which narrate the exploits of the *avatāras*, make it a point to acknowledge the supremacy of the law of *Karma* by asserting that even the *avatāras* conformed to it.

In the *Harivamsa* section of the *Mbh* 31.52, referring to the request of the gods to Prajāpati (Brahmā) to destroy the demon Hiranyakasipu, Prajāpati replies:

Avaśyam tridaśāstena prāptavyam tapasaḥ phalam | Tapaso'nte 'sya bhagavān vadham Viṣṇuḥ kariṣyati || Mbh cr. ed. 31.52.

He (Hiranyakasipu) must enjoy the fruits of his austerities. When the (merit of) austerities is exhausted bhagavān Viṣṇu will

^{12.} Mahatma Gandhi both as a leader and as a thinker is an avatāra of modern times.

^{13.} Mbh III 193.24, 195.18 and V 16. 16.

destroy him. In other words the destruction of the demon will have to wait till the merit of his Karmas (austerities) is destroyed; the operation of the law of Karma cannot be interrupted. In fact in Harivamsa 30.6 it is averred that the avatāra is responsible for making the human being go round in the circle of existence (yaścakram vartayatyeko mānuṣāṇāmanāmayam) which can only be interpreted as the round of births and deaths arising from accumulated Karmas.

The Matsyapurāṇa also recognizes the inescapable nature of the law of Karma. It exempts the devas¹⁴ as they do not bear good and evil results (śubhāśubha-phala, Matsya IV. 6.) This implies that men cannot escape from Karmas. Again it is said that Brahmā found it imperative to create, not immortals, but such beings as would have to experience the result of their own, good and evil (Karmas): Matsya IV 31-32.

Viṣṇupurāṇa¹⁵ I.5. avers that, at the time of universal dissolution, pralaya, saṃhāra, the previous good and evil Karmas subsist (Karmabhirbhavitāḥ purvaiḥ kuśalākuśalai). Viṣṇu III 7.4 recognises that the creatures of all the constituent of the universe, dvīpas, pātālas, lokas, are bound by the bond of Karmas (na santi prāṇino karmabandhanibandhanāḥ).

In the Bhāgavataņurāņa I.3.8 Nārada, the third of the 22 avatāras declares that the doctrine of Vaiṣṇava tantra devotion to Viṣṇu and of detachment from mundane actions (naiṣkarmya) frees a person from the Karmas (Karmaṇām yataḥ). In the Bhāgavata I.3.34-35 it is stressed that the jīvas, beings, devoted to Lord Nārāyaṇa do not suffer from the fear causing metempsychosis—from the recurring cycle of birth and death (nay atra bhūyaḥ parivarta ugraḥ). Bhāgavata I.5.15-22 recognises that

^{14.} We suggest that *devas* are considered exempt from the law of *Karma* in *Matsyapurāņa* so that authority of Brahmā for having committed incast with his own daughter as described in the *Rg Veda* is not challenged.

^{15.} In Viṣṇu III.7.14 Yama accepts the supremacy of Viṣṇu saying that he (Yama) is the lord only of those who are not Viṣṇubhaktas, (devotees of Viṣṇu): Yama is the dharmarāja, who administers law of Karma. By excluding the devotees of Viṣṇu from the control of Yama, the operation of the law of Karma is not affected; only jurisdiction is transferred from Yama to Viṣṇn.

the wordly objects of sense are brought to us in due course of time as a result of our actions done in previous lives. Again in the Bhagavata I 5.32.36 it is emphasised that Karma, which is ordinarily the cause of bondage to samsara or repeated births and deaths (evamnrnam krivayogah sarve samsrti-hetavah), the same Karma when dedicated to the Lord is capable of destroying individual existence. When a person does work for the Lord's pleasure (Krivate karma bhagavatparitosanam), he attains jñana (along with bhakti). In the Bhagavata I.8.32-35 the purposes of Kṛṣṇa's incarnations are enumerated : one of these is to relieve or free (arhani) men from this existence through listening to God's praises and through meditating on Him (śravana smaranāharni) free him from the Karmas born of avidya and desire (Klisyamānānām avidyā-kāma-karmabhīh). Varāhapurāna 5.15 teaches that a persou is not bound (lipyate) by the consequences of deeds, good or evil, that is, he can free himself from the consequences of Karmas, if he dedicates them all to Nārāyana (sarve Nārāyane nyasya). Thus Varāhapurāņa recognises the validity of the law of Karma and finds a means of avoiding the consequences of Karmas

Nāradapurāņa I 31.70 recognizes that the consequences of actions must be experienced and that the Supreme Being, who is perfect and eternal, enjoys through the fruits of all actions (sarva-karmaphalam bhunkte).

Garuḍapurāṇa makes avatāras, divine incarnations, as subject to the law of Karma: it says Viṣṇu had to undergo suffering in the incarnations due to his Karmas (I 113.15); Bali who gifted the whole world to Vāmana (the 15th incarnation according to Garuda was placed under bondage to him due to daiva, fate, which had come to be a synonym for Karma(I 113.16); Rāma (the 18th incarnation according to Garuḍa) had to suffer due to his Karmas (I 113-26). The purāṇas bring out tellingly the power of Karma by pointing out that Cupid, the son of Janārdana (Viṣṇu) and Lakṣmī, possessed an evil intellect and mind and hence was liable to be punished for his misdeeds.

In short the B.G. and the $Pur\bar{u}nas$ held that the $avat\bar{u}ras$ did not repudiate the law of Karma, nay they fully demonstrated the majesty of that law. In fact, doing good Karmas is the supreme

dharma. This has to be appreciated in the context that the concept of yugas in itself ran counter to the doctrine of Karma inasmuch as the yuga concept postulates that (1) there is concentration of good or evil in certain periods of time: Kṛta is all virtue, whereas in Kaliyuga evil predominates, (ii) the efficacy of Karma is not absolute but relative to the time, yuga, in which it is done.

In the context of *Karma* as the cosmic law of justice, when and how does the standard of righteousness change ushering in different *yugás*? The *Mahābhārata* provides a clear answer.

Mbh 5-130, 16 and 12.70.25 says:

Rājā kṛtayuga-sṛṣṭā, tretāyā dvāparasya ca | yugasya ca caturthasya rājā bhavati kāraṇam ||

The king is the author of Krta, $Tret\bar{a}$ and $Dy\bar{a}para$. He is also the cause of the fourth or Katiyuga.

Mbh 5.130.15 makes it clear that there can be no doubt—whether $K\overline{a}la$ (Time) or the king is the cause of the time cycles: it asserts, king is the cause: $r\overline{a}j\overline{a}$ $K\overline{a}lasya$ $K\overline{a}ranam$.

Again $R\bar{a}jadosena$ hi jagat sprsyate jagatah sa ca: King's shortcomings affect the people and the people's affect the king. Mbh 5.130.18.

This is explained in Mbh 3.198.34-35 when it is urged:

Vyābhicārānnarendrāṇām dharmaḥ samkīryate mahān |

Adharmo vardhate cāpi samkīryante prajāḥ |

adharmatvāt prajanamabhavaḥ sadā |

Righteousness (dharma) greatly diminishes due to immoral evil and unjust and arbitrary conduct of the rulers.

(It leads to) increase of unrighteousness or injustice (adharma) and makes the life of the people impure, that is, causes their decay. Due to unrighteousness, injustice, always the people are destroyed.

That is why *Mbh* 5.130.14 emphasises that when the king enforces the law correctly or justly, that is, he upholds justice and righteousness, then he ushers *Kṛtayuga*, the best of the time cycles.

Sukranītisāra IV. 55-56 describes the king as one who inaugurates the yuga, yugapravartako rājā.

In brief the decline in *dharma* (righteousness, justice) and increase in *adharma* (unrighteousness, injustice, tyranny) flows from the character and conduct of the ruler. 16

In the Vāyupurāṇa 23.72 the complete break down of society and the absence of moral values and of standards in the conduct af the people are described vividly at length. Inter alia, it also emphasizes that the political authority, as distinct from individuals, is unjust and unfair in dealing with its subjects: the kings, like thieves, steal or misappropriate the property and wealth of their subjects; they only protect themselves and not their subjects and only collect taxes from the latter and misbehave with women. It is significant that the Matsyapurāṇa 47.34 justifies avatāra whenever there is collusion for destruction between devas and asuras (devāsura-vimardeṣu). This could mean that there is a total collapse of moral principles which regulate the functioning of a society; the gods abandon their traditional role of resisting the demons; they become the accessories of the latter.

Thus the Mbh provides an explanation of the need and justification of an avatāra: when it says that the King is the cause of the yugas and the decline in dharma, it is obviously referring to the State, be it a king or an institutionalised authority. An avatāra or divine incarnation comes into existente for management of the crisis in human affairs arising from institutional or systemic injustice and oppression. Such injustice and oppression may be caused by a ruler-King or the State through misuse of political authority and constitutional powers; it may result from economic exploitation due to unfair distribution of wealth and undue concentration of economic power in a few hands or classes and their

^{16.} The crucial responsibility of the King in governing righteously or justly is emphasized in the Rāmāyaṇi cr. ed. 3.6.11 when it declares that a ruler is guilty of adharma, injustice, if he fails to protect his subjects though he collects 1/6th of the produce as taxes.

^{17.} Matsya XLVII 34 adds that Viṣṇu assumes the human form when devas and asuras combine to oppress the world (devāsura-vimardeṣu jāyate Harirīśvaraḥ).

perpetuation through the coercive authority of the State; it may arise from an unjust social system such as practising apartheid or untouchability. Each individual member of the institution or system may, by himself, be most righteous and law-abiding; he may even be unaware or ignorant of the injustice and oppression that the existing institutions, the manner of their operation, the laws and the legal system may cause and perpetuate. He may feel sincerely and strongly that his own conduct conforms strictly to the dictates of the ethics of *Karma*. Personal retribution of the law of Karma provides no answer to impersonal institutionalised injustice and oppression.

The doctrine of Karma is individualistic; each person suffers or enjoys the results of his moral actions. Further the doctrine of Karmavipāka implies that, as a rule, retribution comes in a subsequent life or lives of the doer of a Karma. A person may pay for his cruel, evil and tyrannical acts in subsequent life or lives. Meanwhile the sufferers have to await the end of the tyrant etc. through natural death. Likewise when there is wide-spread violence, corruption, exploitation and injustice, in short a breakdown of a just and moral order, political, economic and social, innocent and righteous people suffer. Such situations arose when Ravana of the Remayana was harrassing the inhabitants of this earth or Hitler established the Nazi terror in Europe. It is cold comfort to explain individual suffering in terms of the Karmic law as the result of that person's past actions; delayed retribution for persons responsible for gross and wide-spread injustice and oppression is liable to undermine faith in a just and moral order in general and in the validity of the law of Karma in particular. In other words, the law of Karma fails to find an answer to widespread suffering caused by a man-made crisis of uncertain duration. It is the resolution of such a situation that the avaāra doctrine provides an answer: an omnipotent and omniscient God responds to a situation, which is not adequately regulated and managed by the law of Karma, by His direct intervention.

The Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad (Bṛhad Up) emphasises the supreme importance of justice, of rule, of law. Bṛhad Up 2.4 describes creation, procreation and multiplication, by the Supreme Self (Virāj) of the varied forms of existence, the organisation of

human beings into four castes. But this fails to bring happiness and prosperity till righteousness, justice, was created (dharmam atyasrjata). The dominion or power of the Kṣatriya (the person who wields political authority) is in upholding the dharma, justice: (Kṣatrasya kṣatram yaddharmaḥ). There is nothing greater than righteousness, justice, rule of law (tasmāt dharmātparam nāsti). It is through the law that a weak person does not fear the strong (abalīyām balīyāmsamāśamsate¹⁸ dharmeṇa, Bṛhad Up 1.4.14).

The Brhad. Up. 2.5.11 repeats: righteousness, justice (dharma) is honey to all beings; the vital power and the immortal being is nothing but dharma, law, justice $(dharme\ tejomayo\ 'mrtamayah\ purusah$). That is why the coronation of a King enjoined him to practise not only state craft $(n\bar{\imath}ti)$ but also dharma (law) and danda (justice) $(Mbh.\ 12.9.106-08)$. In short whosoever fights successfully against injustice and lawlessness $(ar\bar{\imath}jakt\bar{a})$, against perversion of justice $(m\bar{a}tsyany\bar{a}ya$ 'fishy' justice where might is right) and whoever establishes the rule of law comes to be considered as an $avt\bar{a}ra$, divine incarnation. In fact $Bhagavadg\bar{\imath}t\bar{\imath}$ 10.38 identifies Lord Kṛṣṇa with danda: justice is divinity.

^{18.} āšamsate has also been translated as "wishes to defeat".

Ramakrishna Math's translation of this Upanisad,
Madras 1979.

THE SPRING FESTIVAL IN THE MADANMAHOTSAVA-VARNANAM OF THE BHAVIŞYAPURĀŅA¹

BY

L. ANDERSON

Almost invariably scholars describing the Indian Spring Festival (Caitrotsava, Vasantotsava), cite the Madanamahotsavavarnana of the Bhavisya Purāṇa as source material for their study. This excerpt, dealing as it does with that famous episode in Indian mythology in which Siva destroys Kāma, the Indian God of love, is important for our understanding of the mythological context in which Spring rites were performed in Medieval India. This paper examines the Madanamahotsavavarṇana first by translation and second, by a detailed analysis of the spring rites described therein. The purpose, here, is to arrive at an understanding of the complex inter-relationsship of myth and ritual in Indian religion.

The Bhaviṣya Purāṇa is one of the eighteen mahā or major purāṇas. Like all mahāpurāṇas the Bhaviṣya contains diverse material. It deals with a wide range of subjects and gives us information regarding ritual prescriptions and the myths associated with such ritual data. Altogether, the Bhaviṣya Purāṇa is comprised of fourteen thousand verses, the bulk of material in it dealing with Brāhmaṇical ceremonies, feasts, duties of caste, as well as containing a few legends. The title (i. e., 'future events') bears little relation to the actual contents of the text. Although this purāṇa is referred to as an early text in sources like the Āpastamba Dharmasūtrā, the extant work does not seem to correspond to the original referred to therein. Our text is, in fact, almost impossible to accurately date: some sections may be as early as the eighth or eleventh centuries, others are much later.

^{1.} Bhavisya Purāṇa (Bombay: NSP, 1959), Uttara, ch. 135.

^{2.} Winternitz, A History of Sanskrit Literature, I. 567.

^{3.} S. C. Banerji, A Companion to Sanskrit Literature (Delhi: Motilal Banarsidass, 1971), p. 159.

Chapter 135 of the *Bhavişya Purāņa* describes the Spring Festival under the title of *Madanamahotsāva*. It occurs on the thirteenth day of the bright half of Caitra (i. e., *Madanatrayodaši*) and might be translated as follows:

- 1. Having married Gauri, Siva took the Pasupata vow. The husband of Umā, Pasupati, became intent on meditation.
- 2,3. Kāma was sent by Brahmā and the other gods who, delighted, had gotten together and decided that he alone was fit to shake Śiva from his meditation; they wished to fulfil Gauri's desire for a son. Then the deadly one (Māra), the one who leaves behind memories, (Smara), the god of love (Kāma) went to the hermitage of Śiva.
- 4. He was accompanied by lust, love, wild abandon, and the beauty of spring (Vasanta). He was surrounded by wine, pride, and amorous gestures.4
- 5,6. Kāma' crest was made of Asoka and mango trees. His headpiece was made of Jasmine. His best messengers were the female cuckoo and the music of drums and lutes, and song. His treasury official was the sound of musical instruments and drums, his marvellous councillor was the spring rāga and he rode on women who were intoxicated with drink.⁵
- 7. And so, like a King of great kings, Kāma, came into the presence of Hara. Kāma was rich with smell of the south wind, showering sidelong glances.
- 8. Kāma, having drawn his bow of flowers, hurled an intoxicating arrow at the slayer of the three cities, in order to cause the interruption of his meditation.
- 9. Rudra knew him and knew that intention of his. With anger blazing from fury, Hara sent forth fire from his forehead through this third eye.
 - 4. The meaning of "nidhāna" here is unclear, it could, however, be appropriately read as "nidhuvana" in this context.
 - 5. In these verses Kāma is described with all the attributes of a king, i. e., wearing a crown, headpiece, having messengers, treasures, councillors, and riding an elephant.

- 10. 'Kāma, when looked at by that glance, was reduced to ashes in a flash. Seeing Kāma burnt up, Ratı and Prīti were frozen in grief and wailed piteously.
- 11. Everyone else rushed off in another direction. Then Gauri, seeing Kāma burning, with a heart pained from grief, said to Rudra:
- "O lord, you have burnt Kama because of me. Look at 12. the two wives of Kama, why should they weep so?
- Be kind to Rati and Prīti, O lord of Gods, O bull-banner-13. ed one, revive Kāma! O Śambhu, give him form again."
- Having heard that, Siva was pleased and said to Parvati: 14. "The whole world was oppressed by Kama when he had a body.
- How can I revive the burnt Kama? But dear one, I shall 15. respect your words, I shall do as you ask.
- 16. In this very time of the year, the spring, in the bright half of the moon on the thirteenth, O Devi, he who is mindborn (Kāma) will become embodied.
- 17. Indeed the whole world, with him as the cause, will find delight." Having granted this boon to Kāma, O Yudhi-
- 18. The beloved of Parvati went to the top of the Himalayas to Kailāsa. O king, I have told you the story of Kāma.
- 19,20. Now I will tell you about the other part—the ceremony of worship. Listen! Having bathed on this thirteenth night, one should paint the Asoka tree with paints made from sindura and then make an image of Kama and Vasanta, either out of gold, out of wood, or painted. The image should have Rati and Prīti along with it. The god Kāma should be horse-headed and fish-bannered and accompanied by groups of apsarases, proud, walking in languorous, sensuous steps.6
 - I have read here "vājivaktram" as an epithet of Kāma, "Horse-headed." Coomaraswamy connects the iconography of horses with the yakşa motif, telling us horses (normal, fish-taled, or water-horses) are commonly found as vehicles as yaksas and yaksas). He, further, includes Kāma in his descriptions of yaksas, (Yaksas, II. 31).

- 22. Kāma should be intent on listening to music, songs and plays. He should be accompanied by an auspicious sign (svastika), Rati, Prīti, Krīḍā, Nandyavartī, and Vidhyādharas.
- 23. A man, along with his wife, at midday should worship the image, with devotion, offering food, incense, and garlands and reciting this *mantra*.
- 24. "Praise to Vāma, Kāma, the lord of lords, the embodied one who causes agitation in the hearts of Indra, Śiva, Viṣṇu, and Brahmā."
- 25. Having done that and praised the god of gods, Kāma, then one should place sweetmeats, which are a pleasure to the mouth, in front of him.
- 26. And one should give various kinds of foods saying "may Kāma be pleased with me." Then one should take leave of the Brahmins having given them a pair of bullocks with the dakṣiṇā.
- 27. A woman should worship her husband with ornaments and garlands and clothes, considering him to be the god Kāma and with her mind full of happiness (i. e., thinking truly of him and not of someone else).
- 28. In the abode of Kāma the man of the house (sacrificer) accompanied by friends should keep an all-night vigil in such a way that the night passes in pleasure.
- 29. In the night the festival should occur. Offerings of areca nuts, sandal, and a paste of saffron and camphor and food of various types should be made.
- 30. Dancing should also occur, as should the shining of lights and public shows and repetition of dramas which are pleasing to see. The great festival, O Partha, should occur every year.
- 31. In the city, the king who is delighted and pleased when the time of spring comes, celebrates this festival thus,

- every year, O Partha, ensures that for the whole year his subjects will be free from sickness.7
- 32. Clouds will rain at will, in his kindgom there will be abundance, welfare, health, prosperity, the highest pleasure, and no disease.
- 33. The god having three eyes is greatly pleased as are Kāma, Visnu, Prajāpati, and Vasanta.
- 34. Also Candra, Sūrya, and all the planets, all Brāhmanical sages, Yaksas, Gandharvas, Danavas, are pleased.
- 35. Asuras, Yātudhanas, Garudas, birds and Nāgas are pleased and bestow the highest happiness on the performer, of this there is no doubt.
- 36. On the Caitrotsava, having praised Kāma withRati, whose friends are the wind from the mountain Malaya and Vasanta, a man together with his wife will gain fortune, a son, beauty, and fertility.

Of first importance, this excerpt from the Bhavisya Purana describes the Spring Festival as a festival which celebrates the revival of Kama. It specifically links this festival with the myth in which Kama is reduced to ashes by fire issuing from Siva's third eye. The revival of Kama occurs on this festival day. The text thus associates the Caitrotsava with a well-known event in mythology and makes much the same type of correlation as those which associate holy sites with mythological events to emphasize their sanctity. Further investigation into the connection between this myth and the festivals reveals that motifs which are central to this celebration (passion and love) are also central to the larger mythology of Kāma. Kāma emerges in the Bhavisya Purāna uttara, (135) (and in other texts as well), not only as a figure directly associated with the Vasantotsava but as a symbol of eroticism par excellence. As such, Kāma is also intimately connected with fertility. In this mythological event, Kāma's encounter with Siva is a prelude to the production of a son from the union of Siva and Parvati, or as

The subject seems to switch in this verse, perhaps the 7. text is simply bringing out that the king must also celebrate this festival

other texts have it, in their marriage and their son. The significance of the marriage motif in this festival is clear from other texts⁸ and it is thus not surprising to encounter it here, in the divine realm, in this description in the *Bhaviṣya Purāṇa*. There is a clear connection of the myth reproduction and fertility, a theme which is at the core of the *Vasantotsava*.

A second element which bears investigation relative to this study of the *Bhavisya Purāṇ*a (135), is the ritual procedure, $koj\bar{a}gara$, or 'staying up all night.' This is a ritual intimately connected with the worship of Lakṣmī. According to this text, however, it is performed on the *Caitrotsava*, in honor of Kāma. We shall return to this again.

Kāma's Mythology and the Vasantotsava

The conflict between Kāma and Śiva and the ultimate victory of Kāma as recorded in texts like the *Bhaviṣya Purāṇa* reflect thematic motifs fundamental to the celebration of the Spring Festival. It is Kāma's fertile powers which are invoked during *Vasantotsaya*. Kāma is desire, a symbol of creative, lifegiving powers. Stella Kramrisch says:9

Kāma was the urge in the creative mind toward manifestation, condensation, and substance. The arrows of Kāma—of which the *Purāṇas* speak—were directed hitheward....The arrows of Kāma flew towards this world; they would wound but not kill, they would incite passion.

He is desire incarnate. According to the Siva Pur in 1:10

Brahmā created all the gods and all the Prajāpatis, including Dakṣa. Then a beautiful woman named Sandhyā was born from his mind. Her beauty, which deluded the hearts of sages, aroused Brahmā, but he was paralysed by indecision, realizing that his sons were present. Then from his mind

^{8.} See, for example, the *Virūpākṣavasantotsavacampū* (Dharwad : 1965), the *Ratnāvalī* (Poona : 1954), and the *Kathāsaritsāgāra* (Bombay : 1899) Book xii, No. 17.

^{9.} Kramrisch, *The Presence of Śiva* (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1981), p. 218.

^{10.} Paraphrased from the Śiva Purma, ed. J. L. Shastri, trans. by a Board of Scholars, 4 vols (Reprint: Delhi: Motilal Banarsidass, 1977), 2.3.17-42.

was born Kāma, with his five marvellous flower arrows. Dakṣa and the others were excited by desire and could not remain calm, but Brahmā regained control of his emotions and said to Kāma, 'Enchant men and women with your five flower arrows and your own beauty, maintaining creation eternally. No one will be able to withstand you—not even Viṣṇu and Śive and I.'

Kāma's primary function in Hindu myth is to arouse his victims sexually. As early as the Atharva Veda Kāma is referred to as the god of sexual love. 11 Like Eros of the Greeks and Cupid of the Romans, Kāma is armed with a bow and arrow; however his bow is made of sugar cane, its string made of bees, the tips of his arrows made of flowers. His vehicle is a parrot and the sign on his banner, a fish. Amongst men, animals, plants, as well as gods, he usually accomplishes his task of arousing desire by shooting one of his love arrows at his victims.

As long as his arrows are directed towards ordinary worldly mortals, Kāma's work is relatively unobstructed. His victims are both male and female and he seems to afflict them indiscriminately, especially during the spring and, in this capacity, he is well known in the Indian tradition. His form is one of irrestible beauty. Suffice it here to give a few examples of Kāma's expertise in accomplishing this task. Kāma wields his power among hermits in the *Kumār asam bhaya*. 12

- 34. The hermits, dwelling in the forest of the Immovable One, seeing this untimely advance of spring, scarcely remained master of their minds, whose agitation they with difficulty repressed.
- 35. When the God of Love with flower-bow ready strung, together with Rati, came to that place, the loving couples revealed by their actions their state of mind, pervaded with the delight of love which had reached its peak.

^{11.} Atharva Veda, 111.25.

^{12.} Kālidāsa, *Kumārasambhava*, text and trans. S. R. Sehgal (Delhi: 1959), Canto III. pp. 93f.

Kāma's arrows are fired not only at potential lovers but at married couples as well. So, for example in the sixteenth century Gujarati Poem, the Vasantotsavavilāsa we read: 13

1.7 Kāma, having opened the doorway of love and pride, entered the heart of married couples.

Notable in these passages is the passivity of Kāma's targets. The reponsibility for desire $(k\bar{a}ma)$ rests conveniently with Kāmadeva. He intrudes into the world of men; his victims are helpless in the face of his arrows, unable to curb the passion which is thus engendered. Humans, particularly, seem unequipped to counter the onslaught of his arrows. Kāma has little difficulty when 'swaying' his mortal victims.

Kāma is worshipped in the above capacity during the Vasantotsava, as, for example, in the Ratnavali by the queen14 and, as prescribed for celebrants in the Bhavisya Purāna above. He is invoked in order to engender amorous sentiments and to win conjugal felicity. Descriptions of the Vasantotsava highlight the sexual nature of the festivities and Kāma is clearly an appropriate figure for worship in this context. But it is not simply Kāma's ability to instil passion amongst mortals, but also his ability to do so amongst the gods that we find as central in the description of the Vasantotsava found in the Bhavisya Pur ana. In fact, even though Kāma plays the vital role of Cupid amongst the gods in Hindu myth, in comparative terms, his exploits here are quite limited: he appears in the Hindu canon primarily in connection with Siva. Siva is Kāma's most famous adversary. Kāma's attempt to sexually arouse this great ascetic god. Siva, is typical of his primary characteristic here and elsewhere, that of inciting love.15

^{13.} Vasantavilāsa, ed. trans. intro. W. Brown (New Haven: American Oriental Society, 1962), 1.7.

^{14.} Harsa, Ratnāvalī, Act 17.

^{15.} Though Siva is the best known of Kāma's victims he is not the only powerful figure to be on the receiving end of one of Kāma's arrows. According to the Vāmana Purāṇa the penance of Nara and Nārāyaṇa was, on one occasion, disturbed by Kāma.

The position of Siva relative to Kāma in this myth is first of all, one of opposition. Kāma is creative, Siva, destructive. O'Flaherty in, Śiva, the Erotic Ascetic says:

Siva is the natural enemy of Kāma because he is the epitome of chastity, the eternal *brahmacārin*, the very incarnation of chastity. When Himālaya tries to bring his daughter Pārvatī to Śiva, Śiva objects with the traditional misogynist argument:

This girl with her magnificent buttocks must not come near me. I insist upon this. Wise men know that a woman is the very form of Enchantment, especially a young woman, the destruction of ascetics. I am an ascetic, a yogi, so what need have I of a woman? An ascetic must never have contact with women.

Because of his chastity, Siva is considered to be the one man in the universe who can resist Kāma. (p. 141).

If we examine Indian mythological literature we find that the above described episode is multi-form, recounted, with some variation, in most pur \$\overline{a}n\taus\$ and in a fair number of other texts as well. Details of it appear in the \$Kath\overline{a}sarits\overline{a}gara\$, \$Kum\overline{a}rasambhava\$, and in the \$V\overline{a}mana Pur\overline{a}na\$.\text{\$^{16}\$} The \$Siva Pur\overline{a}na\$, for example, gives us a detailed account of this episode. Here, too, \$K\overline{a}maa\$'s encounter with \$Siva occurs during the spring season. Vasanta (Spring), indeed, is \$K\overline{a}maa's constant companion. The \$Kum\overline{a}rasambhava\$ also tells us that spring accompanies \$K\overline{a}maa\$. With spring and his consort \$Rati\$, \$K\overline{a}ma\$ seeks out \$Siva\$ in his hermitage in the Him\overline{a}layas. As they approach the hermitage the features of the spring season begin to appear in the forest. Hence:

25. While the sun, transgressing his ordained course, began to go towards the quarter guarded by Kubera, the south exhaled a scented breeze, likened to a sigh of sorrow.

^{16.} O' Flaherty gives thirty-four different references for this event in Sanskrit literature (p. 321). See also Siva Purāṇa, 11.3.17, 9, 19-24; 11.3.18.39; 11.3.19. 6—8, 14, 15, 17; 111.18. 3, 5, 35, 38. Kathāsaritsāgara, III. 69-72. A similar event takes place in the Buddhacarita with Māra and Gotama Buddha (XII.2; 1.22, 53; XIII.1.6,7). The similarity of the two encounters (the Buddha and Māra; Siva and Kāma) is striking and suggests the antiquity of the motif.

26. The Asoka tree at once gave birth to flowers and tender shoots, right from its trunk. It did not wait to be touched by the feet of beautiful women, their anklets tinkling, etc. (Canto III)

In a deviation from the *Bhaviṣya Purāṇa* where it is Brahmā who sends Kāma to Śiva, in the Śiva Purāṇa it is Indra who performs this task. Indra sends Kāma also in the Skanda Purāṇa (5,3.150.7-35), and Indra and Brahmā join forces to accomplish the deed in the Linga Purāṇa. The centrality of Indra in this myth is indicative of the common characteristics of Kāma and Indra; both are erotic, antiascetic figures. Traditionally Indra is an enemy of ascetics and the Kāma/Siva incident probably, as O'Flaherty suggests, finds precedent in the episode of Indian mythology in which Indra, fearing the powers of ascetics, sent apsarases (beautiful women) to dissuade holy men (ascetics) from the religious quest. 18

Other texts like the Matsya Purāņa confirm the Bhavişya Purāņa above and tell us it is Brahmā who commissions Kāma.¹⁹ The Matsya Purāṇa traces the origin of this event to even earlier times. It tells us how Kāma came to be burnt by Śiva: Brahmā lusted after his daughter (Angaja) and felt ashamed at not being able to suppress his passion (Kāma) and so he cursed Kāma to be reduced to ashes by Śiva. And, further, in even another rendition, the conflict between Śiva and Kāma can be traced to Brahmā who gives Kāma this commission out of revenge against both Kāma and Śiva.

In any case, whether Kāma is the emissary of Brahmā or Indra, the results are the same. All three figures (Brahmā, Kāma, and Indra) are concerned with the maintenance of their world and not with the destruction of it, particularly at the hands of a troublesome ascetic like Siva. Even Brahmā, though cursing Kāma to destruction, promises that Kāma will be revived, hence effectively voiding his curse and putting even Siva's ascetic powers to test. As O'Flaherty points out, although Siva is primarily an ascetic, he

^{17.} Skanda Purāṇa, 5.3.150. 7-35; Linga Purāṇa, ed. J. L. Shastri, trans. Board of Scholars, 2 vols. (Delhi: Motilal Banarasidass, 1973), 11.561.

^{18.} O' Flaherty, Śiva, p. 120.

^{19.} Matsya Purāņa. IV. 12.

also has an erotic side.²⁰ Destruction thus encompasses potential renewal, a theme essential to the myth of Kāma and Śiva, and indeed, to the festival of Vasanta (Caitra) with which the *Bhaviṣya Purāṇa* associates it.

This theme of renewal central to the *Caitrotsava* is stressed, in fact, in all the myths of Kāma. Kāma not only succeeds in arousing Śiva's desire which would have been sufficient for the purposes of the overall myth, but, in addition, he must die and be reborn, in an enactment of seasonal renewal.

Kāma's death is the first step towards the production of Śiva and Pārvati's son. The course of his actions which lead to his end is a result of his forgetfulness, his stridency, and his lack of fear. The Kumārasambhava portrays Kāma as overwhelmingly confident in his prowess in influencing human and godly affairs.

- 4. Who, desirous of position, has aroused your envy by prolonged austerities: He will straightaway become obedient to the command of this my bow with its arrow held ready.
- 5. Who is it who against your will has set out on the path of Salvation, from fear of the pains of rebirth? Let him stand long bound by the love-glances, charming with arching of brows, of beautiful women.
- 6. Of what enemy of yours, say,—be he taught Right Conduct by Uśanas himself—shall I, commissioning passion as my envoy, oppress the Wealth and Righteousness, like to a swollen flood the banks of the river?
- 7. What lovely woman, of sorrowful mien through her vow of wifely fidelity, who has entered your wayward mind by her tender beauty, do you desire, that free from shame she should in spontaneous embrace twine her arms around your neck?
- 10. Through your grace, though armed with but a flower, and taking spring as my sole comrade, I shall bring low the steadfastness even of Hara who wields the bow: what are other bowmen beside me? (Canto III).

^{20.} Ibid., p. 119.

And in the Linga Purana we read:

31-33. Thus advised by Brahmā, Parameṣṭhin, Bṛhaspati of good holy rites bowed to the lord of Devas. Accompanied by Devas including Indra, he went to the peak of the mountain Meru and remembered Kāma. On being remembered by the preceptor of Devas, Kāma came along with his wife Rati. With palms joined in reverence, he spoke to Bṛhaspati sitting along with Indra, O excellent Brahmins.

34-38. "O Bṛhaspati, since I am remembered by you I have come here in your presence. Tell me what I have to do." Thus, he who was summoned by Bṛhaspati spoke to him. Lord Indra, too, honoured the fish emblemed god and said: "Unite Umā happily with Śiva today whereby the bull emblemed lord can sport with her. Take adequate steps for the same along with your wife Rati. Mahadeva, if pleased, will grant you excellent boon. He is already separated from her. On acquiring Umā the daughter of the lord of the mountain he will be delighted." On being told thus, Kāma bowed to Indra the lord of Śaci and of Devas and decided to go to the penance grove of the lord of Devas in the company of Rati. (1.101)

In the Śiva Purāṇa, Kāma, having accepted the commission of interrupting Śiva's meditation, is confident in his ability to succeed, completely forgetting the curse of being sizzled by Śiva which hangs over him. Ironically, it is often Kāma's wife, Rati, who is responsible for Kāma's apparent memory lapse. Hence, after the curse:

Then Brahmā vanished and Dakṣa said to Kāma, "Take this daughter of mine for your wife." Seeing her beauty, Kāma forgot the terrible curse that Brahmā had given him, and a great celebration took place.²¹

Rather than shunning Rati, Kāma is unable to resist her. His very nature is desire. Kāma undergoes, then, a period of temporary amnesia indicative of transition. Kāma is about to undergo a change in state: from life to death.

^{21.} O' Flaherty, Śiva, p. 119.

Though when Kāma is cognizant of his peril, the gods are able to convince him that his course of actions cannot be otherwise. Even Siva himself deludes Kāma into thinking he can succeed in the Siva Purāṇa.²² In the Matsya Purāṇa when Indra commissions Kāma to rouse Siva from his meditation, Kāma reacts as follows:

Lord of the universe! Lord Siva is unconquerable by my resources which are terrifying to the Munis and Dānavas and do you not know this? You know the glory of the mighty Siva very well. Perhaps the blessings and wrath of the great are also great, there is always greatness in the great. You have thought of your advantage in the enticement of Siva. This is not right, for, such schemes against īśvara, launch one into utter ruin. It has been witnessed many times before that. The intentions of the beings become known and those who are over anxious to gain their ends, do not attain their ambition. (Matsya Purāṇa 154, 212-6)

Nonetheless Kāma does of course accept the challenge and succeeds in interrupting Śiva's meditation. Just as inevitably though the plan backfires when Śiva emerges from his trance angry and reduces Kāma to ashes. On one level Kāma's death may be understood in Gaster's terminology as a ritual of purgation and essential to the pattern of renewal. The evil (see quote below) which Kāma represents and its "noxious contagion" which might impair the prosperity of the cosmos are removed by means of his death. It is only after the old, used up, worn out material of the universe has been destroyed that the new can be created. Kāma represents a fusion of all of this material. Śiva, himself, in the context of this cycle of myths tells us:

The universe must continue without Kāma, for it was he who caused all the gods, including Indra, to fall from their places and to become humble, and it is Kāma who leads all creatures to hell. Without Kāma a man can do no evil, and even Tāraka will be without desire from now on, although he used to be evil. I burnt Kāma in order to give peace to all creatures, and I will not revive him, since he is the evil at

^{22.} Śiva Purāṇa, 1.3.9. 18-31.

^{23.} Gaster, Thespis, p. 26.

the root of all misery. (Skanda Purāṇa 1.1.21. 82-89; cited and trans. by O' Flaherty, Śiva, p. 144).

The repercussions of Kāma's death, however, are felt throughout the universe. In the Skanda Purāṇa the gods respond as follows:

Without Kāma the whole universe will be destroyed.24

Or, again, hearing the news, everyone became depressed, saying:

Everything proceeds by intercourse, and without Kāma all creatures are drying up. 25

Kāma's death is accompanied by the mourning cries of Rati.

Hence in the Siva Purana:

- 24. Lamenting thus and crying out various piteous words she (Rati) beat with her hands, kicked with her legs and plucked her hairs.
- 25. O Narada on hearing her lamentation even the beast and residents of the forest, nay all the immobile and bushes became miserable. ($Rudra\ Samhit\bar{a}$, 19)

The durge sung by Rati over Kāma's death is due to her mortification over his annual disappearance from the earth. Gaster tells us that howling and wailing are frequently associated with the rites of certain deities or spirits of fertility and are well attested at seasonal ceremonies throughout ancient civilization. All that remains of Kāma is ash, and ash, in the Indian tradition, is a poweful symbol of death as well as life. The sages in the pine forest are enjoined to cover their bodies with ash to burn away sin. Siva says:

The supreme purification of the entire universe is to be accomplished by ashes; I place my seed in ashes and sprinkle creatures with it. One who has done that which is to be done by fire will master the three worlds. By means of my ashes, my seed, one is released from all sins. . . . Let a man smear his body until it is pale with ashes and meditate upon

^{24.} O' Flaherty, Siva, p. 144.

^{25.} Ibid., p. 151.

^{26.} Gaster, Thespis, pp. 30-31; See also Bhavisya Purāņa, 132 (below).

Bhava in his heart, and then, . . . by bathing in ashes, he becomes a leader of my hosts, receives all sacrifices and grasps the supreme ambrosia.²⁷

Just as Kāma's suspension in ash marks the end of one cycle, so too does it mark a new beginning, a fresh start. Siva is inevitably persuaded to reinstate Kāma. In the Śiva Purāṇa it is ash, the essence of Kāma, that is preserved by Rati under the instructions of the gods:

The gods said:

27. Take some ashes and preserve them. With effort check your fear. The lord will resuscitate your lover. You will regain your lover again.

28. There is none who gives us happiness or misery. All enjoy and experience the fruit of what they do. In vain do

you curse the gods.

It is, further, in the same text, on the occasion of Siva and Pārvatī's marriage that Siva, by merely glancing at the bag of ashes, restores Kāma to life.²⁸

Finally, Kāma is revived and it is his rebirth at the beginning of the year which, in the *Bhaviṣya Purāṇa*, is cause for the *Vasantotsava*, anticipating the prosperity of the new year and guaranteeing on going creation. Kāma is reborn, in the *Skanda Purāṇa*, in an even more powerful form:

"Śiva gave Kāma a body, and Kāma performed tapas until Śiva, pleased, made Kāma's body more beautiful than ever before and removed all obstacles for him." (trans. O' Flaherty, Śiva, p. 151).

Further some versions of this story connect Kāma to Kṛṣṇaite tradition. They tell us Kāma is to be reborn as Pradyumna. Hence in the Śiva Purāṇī:

Siva said:

38. The Lord Kāma, the husband of Rati, shall remain bodiless till Viṣṇu incarnates as Kṛṣṇa on the earth and marries Rukmiṇī.

^{27.} Brahmāṇḍa Purāṇa, trans. by O' Flaherty, Hindu Myths, pp. 147-9.

^{28.} Šiva Purāņa, "Rudrasamhitā," 51.7. 13-14.

- 39. Kṛṣṇa will beget Kāma in Rukmiṇi when he goes to Dvārakā and begins to procreate children.
- 40. His name will certainly be Pradyumna. The demon Sambara will abduct the boy at the time of his very birth.
- 42. O Rati, you shall stay in his city. . . . There alone you will get back your husband Pradyumna.
- 43. Kāma in the name of Pradyumna will regain his wife. . O gods, he will be happy thereafter.

The connection here between Kāma and Pradyumna relates the Spring Festival to the present day $Hol\bar{\imath}$ celebrations in which Kṛṣṇa plays a central role in some areas of North India.

The myth of Kāma's death and rebirth clearly represents what Eliade calls the "collective regeneration through repitition of the cosmographic art." Each celebration marks Kāma's death but also reiterates Kāma's revival. The Caitrotsava then, celebrates Kāma's revival, the temporary restoration of the tension between Śiva and Kāma, the ultimate victory of Kāma and through him the continued creation and maintenance of the universe. The prelude to this creation is destruction: both are essential to the mythology of Śiva and Kāma and essential to the Spring Festival celebrating, as it does, the end of the old year and the beginning of the new year. These parallels extend beyond myth directly into the intricacies of the Vasantotsava ritual as well. As the Bhaviṣya Purāṇa tells us, the death and resurrection of Kāma is a cosmic affair and as a rite it is symbolically re-enacted at the Vasantotsava every year.

Raghavan (p. 204) notes that at the South Indian festival of the new year called *Kāmandī* (burning Kāma) a pole (*stambha*) is set up in an enclosure to represent Kāma. The pole is set on the fire and the people are divided into two parties. They sing respectively "Kāma is burnt" and "Kāma is dead." The *Nāradīya Purāṇa* tells us that the fire consumes an effigy of the old year. It reads as follows:

samvatsarasya dāho 'yam kāmadāho matāntare. (This is the burning of the old year; othere say it is the burning of Kāma) (I. 124.81).

^{29.} Eliade, Cosmos and History, p. 78.

This text thus connects Kāma's destruction with the old year and further exemplifies the manner in which the symbolism of Kama and the fire is connected to the new year ritual. P. V. Jagadisa Ayyar in South Indian Festivals describes the well known episode, known in Hindu mythology as the background material for this celebration which is also known as Kāmadahanam (the burning of Kāma) in South India. 30 Kāmadahanam is part of the larger celebration of the Panguni Uttaram festival, celebrated on the full moon day of Phalguna (Tamil Panguni and hence the Vasantotsava) in order to win conjugal felicity. In this version of the myth, Rati solicited the aid of Visnu following the destruction of Kāma, who advised her to go to Surendra Tirtan (a large tank in front of a Siva temple at Kamararavalli) and perform a sacrifice to Siva. Rati did as advised and underwent severe penance for about forty days. She succeeded in having Kama restored to life with the condition that he be visible only to herself. 31

Jāgaraņa

Further, the Bhavisya Pur ma prescribes the ritual of jāgaraņa (maintaining an all night vigil) in honor of Kāma. An all night vigil is described in various texts and, like the Spring Festival itself, it is referred to under several titles. It is a ritual of some antiquity being detailed fairly early in Sanskrit literature. Descriptions of jāgaraṇa appear in several Purāṇas wherein it is most

- 30. P. V. Ayyar, South Indian Festivals (Madras: Higginbothams Ltd., 1921), pp. 61-4. See also, P. Younger, "Ten Days" in Modern Asian Studies.
- 31. There are a variety of representations of this Kāma myth in South Indian art evidencing its popularity. A bronze representation of Rati appealing to Siva exists in the temple of Kamarasavalli in Trichinopoly. The whole scene of Kāma's destruction is depicted in the portico near the tank in the Ekambareswarer temple at Conjeeveram. Further, in the Adipuriśvara temple at Tiruvorriyar, there is a record of King Rājakeśarivarman alias Tribbhuvanachakravartin Rājādhirājadeva (1172-1186) which mentions that this King was present at this festival during Panguṇi Uttiram. (See Ayyar, South Indian Festivals, p. 64).
- 32. So, for example, it is called Jāgaraņa, Ko jāgara, Kaumudījagara, and, simply, Kaumudī.
- 33. Vātsyāyana, for example, in the *Kāmasūtra* refers to this ritual as *Kaumudī*, 1.4.27.

often prescribed in honor of Lakṣmī. The Spring Festival, being a particularly auspicious event in the calendar year, seems to become laden with many associative mythical events and multiple ritual procedures. Jāgaraṇa is one such ritual. As we shall see there is some degree of overlap here with respect to the focus of this particular ritual and other important ritual days.

Jāgaraṇa is among the various rituals which are associated with the Caitrotsava, and forms part of the coherent body of transitional rituals of spring. It is a ritual which upsets the every-day routine requiring of its observers, instead of remaining awake during the day and sleeping at night, that they remain awake all night. This disruption of order occurs at and signals the end of a ritual period (winter) creating, in Eliade's terms, a temporary return to chaos.³ In turn, the ensuing renewal and rejuvenation extends from the following day into the coming year.

The inclusion of $j\bar{u}garana$ in this text highlights two important and interrelated aspects of this festival. First, the overlap of ritual: $j\bar{u}garana$ is typically performed in honour of Lakṣmi; here it is included as a ritual of Kāma. Lakṣmi is a figure in Hindu myth who imparts prosperity; Kāma is worshipped during this segment of the festival for prosperity. With respect to the apparent overlapping of rituals associated with Lakṣmi, Kāma, and the Vasantotsava, we cite also the Śrīpancamī (usually the worship of Lakṣmi) which is sometimes given as the worship of Kāma and Rati (see below). Second, $j\bar{u}garana$ is usually performed in the autumn. Thus it will be recalled that the Indramahotsava, although essentially an autumn festival, is given, in certain texts, as a festival of spring.

Laksmī, Jāgaraņa, and the Kaumudīmahotsava

The commonality of these autumn rituals and rituals of spring might be traced to the popularity of the traditional days

^{34.} Eliade, Cosmos and History, p. 68.

^{35.} See, for example, The Goddess Laksmī, pp. 170-1,

^{36.} The Kausika Sūtra, Rāmāyaṇa, and Atharveda Parisisṭas mention the Indramahotsava as an autumn festival. The Sarasvatīkaṇṭhābharaṇa and the Sṛngāra Prakāsa link it to the Spring Festival. (See Raghavan, Festival Sports, and Pastimes, pp. 120f., 128).

which are marked for the celebration of, respectively, the end of winter and the beginning of spring on the one hand and the end of summer and the beginning of winter on the other. This overlapping of rituals is emphasized by the Indian calendar itself. The important periods divide the year into two parts and these parts correspond roughly to the vernal and autumnal equinoxes. These periods are both known as navaratra (nine nights). The first of these periods occurs during the first nine days of the bright half of Caitra and the second during the first nine days of the bright half of Kārttika. Navarātra, then, refers to the name of a cognate ritual period twice a year; we would expect the rites to be the same or similar in each case.³⁷ Raghavan tells us that in all the Nibandhas and also in practice, a Vasanta (spring) navaratra and a Sarada (autumn) navarātra is prescibed.38 So, for example, in the Nirnavāmrta, the Durgotsava (festival of Durgā) must be celebrated both during the bright half of Aśvina as well as during the bright half of Caitra.39 It will be recalled, too, that the Indrama hotsava was prescribed in certain texts as an autumn ritual and in others as a spring ritual. In Nepal, at Bhaktapur, there is a smaller Indradhvaja festival in spring and a larger one in autumn. 40

This information confirms Gaster's contention that seasonal festivals are often made to coincide with the solstice or equinox.⁴¹ He says, further, that the re-emergence of the sun in spring was an obvious date from which to reckon the renewal of the world's vitality and the decline of the sun in autumn was a natural occasion from which to date the eclipse of such vitality.⁴² In India, however, two agricultural periods are not uncommon, both of these ritual periods may mark renewal: one at the close of the rainy season in September/October and one at the beginning of spring proper in March/April.

^{37.} Babb, The Divine Hierarchy, p. 132.

^{38.} Raghavan, Festivals, p. 150.

^{39.} Nambiar, *The Nārada Purāṇa*; *A Critical Study*, (Poona 1968), p. 463.

^{40.} Raghavan, Festivals, p. 150.

^{41.} Gaster, Thespis, p. 47.

^{42.} Ibid., p. 48.

The Spring Festival (Vasantotsava) and the Autumn Festival (Kaumudīmahotsava) both mark particularly auspicious periods in the calendar year; both festivals are seasonal in their import and perhaps it is due to their 'seasonality' that they are often related and sometimes even equated.

Usually jagarana forms part of the glorification of the autumn moon (Kaumudīmahotsava) and its concomitant worship of Laksmi. 43 Although jagarana or kojagara is described in a variety of puranas and other texts, the time when this festival is celebrated, however, varies considerably. 44 The Bhavisya Purana and the Padma Purana tell us that the Kaumudīmahotsava is celebrated on Karttika Amavasya (Dipavali).45 Kojagara purnima, otherwise called Kaumudīmahotsava, is observed in the autumn on the full moon day of Asvina (Sept./Oct.) or the first day of the bright half of Karttika (Oct./Nov.).46 The festival is preeminently a Laksmi vrata and those who observe it are blessed with offspring, wealth, and a long and prosperous life.47 The Narada Purana describes this ritual in some detail. Here Laksmi is worshipped for prosperity, by keeping a jar of gold, copper, or mud in her honor and lighting lamps, and staying awake all night.48 She is said, here, to offer good luck to those who remain awake on this night. The danger during this night is that Laksmi might visit the house and find the inhabitants asleep, and hence not offer them good fortune.

In present day Bengal and Assam jāgaraņa is a ritual which is associated with Lakṣmī and connected to the worship of Durgā.

^{43.} Śabdakalpadruma, II, pp. 200-1, cited in The Goddess Lakṣmī: Origin and Development, p. 171.

^{44.} Raghavan in Festivals, cites the Skanda Purāṇa, Bhaviṣya Purāṇa, Padma Purāṇa, and authors of Smṛti digests like Hemādri and Raghunandana in describing this ritual. (p. 177).

^{45.} Bhavişya Purena, 140.6.60, Padma Purena, 6.124.61f., cited in The Goddess Laksmi, pp. 170-4.

^{46.} Padma Purāņa, 6.124.61f., in The Goddess Laksmī, pp. 170-1.

^{47.} Ibid., p. 173.

^{48.} Nārada Purāņa, 124.47.55 cited by D. Nambiar, Nārada Purāņa: A Critical Study (Poona: Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute, 1968), p. 415.

Here it is usually performed on the full moon after the Durgā Pūjā celebrations. An all-night vigil is recommended in honor of Lakṣmī and the goddess is believed to ask at midnight: " $koj\bar{a}gartti$ " ("who is awake?"). As Handiqui suggests, the term $koj\bar{a}gara$ is probably a contraction of $kaumud\bar{\imath}j\bar{a}gara$ (staying up all night on the full moon [' $kaumud\bar{\imath}$ '].49

Kojāgara or Kaumudījāgaraņa, then, is a ritual which has multiple associations with various other important deities and ritual days. As well as belonging to the rituals of autumn it appears, here, in the Bhaviṣya Purāṇa and in the commentary on the Kāmasūtra as a ritual of spring.⁵⁰

Laksmī, Kāma, and the Vasantotsava

The $\dot{S}r\bar{\imath}pa\bar{n}cam\bar{\imath}$ is another case where individual rituals associated with Lakṣmī, Kāma, and the Vasantotsava become mixed. The $\dot{S}r\bar{\imath}pa\bar{n}cam\bar{\imath}$ is a festival which is usually associated with Lakṣmī, 51 although it is given as celebrating Kāma and Rati in the $Varṣakṛtyad\bar{\imath}pik\bar{a}$ and the $Haribhaktivil\bar{a}sa$. The $\dot{S}r\bar{\imath}pa\bar{n}cam\bar{\imath}$ is usually a ritual of prosperity, celebrated on the fifth day of spring and therefore included in the Vasanta $Navar\bar{\imath}tra$ (the nine days of celebrations in honor of Durgā, Lakṣmī, and Sarasvati). 52 It is called the $Vasantapa\bar{\imath}cam\bar{\imath}$ in the $Pur\bar{\imath}nasamuccaya$. 63

The inclusion of Lakṣmī rituals (jūgaraṇa and Vasanta-pañcamī) as one of the prescribed activities honouring Kāma at the time of the Spring Festival, indicates a degree of reciprocity with respect to the function of these two deities. It is apparent that both Kāma and Lakṣmī are worshipped for prosperity and offspring. Both become figures of the renewal.

^{49.} K. Handiqui, Yasastilaka and Indian Culture, p. 403, note 2. See also Śabdakalpadruma under kojāgara.

^{50.} Kāmasūtra, 1.31.31.

^{51.} See, for example, Hemādri, Caturvargacintāmaņi, pp. 184-90.

^{52.} Varṣakṛytadīpaka, pp. 287-288. See also Raghavan, Festivals, p. 187 and De, The Early History of the Vaiṣṇava Faith in Bengal, pp. 448f.

^{53.} Raghavan, Festivals, p. 252.

Conclusion

With respect to the fundamental characteristics as found in the Bhavisya Purāna, we can fruitfully focus our attention in two general directions. First, Kāma's destruction and resurrection provides us with a specifically defined mythological framework. Kāma is clearly a deity associated with the Siva tradition: he is subordinate to Siva (destroyed by the fire of Siva) as well as dependent upon Siva for rebirth. Here Siva's power and dominion over Kama and, indeed, the cosmos, are established. Second, Kāma is destroyed by fire and fire may be understood as a destructive, creative, and transformative force. The transformation of Kāma from life to death and death to life is the focus of the Spring ritual. Although Kāma is burnt, he will be reborn just as inevitably as the arrival of spring. Kāma's revival signals the success of his mission vis-a-vis the union of Siva and Parvati and the production of a son to destroy the demon Taraka, and thus stabilize the cosmos.

The transitional stage which the festival highlights has its counterpart in the ritual realm as well. Jāgaraṇī is clearly a ritual of transition and its association with the worship of Lakṣmī and the Kaumudīmahotsava reflects the versatility of Indian ritual forms. The meaning of the ritual is derived, in part at least, from the context in which it is performed. The association of jāgaraṇa and Lakṣmī is appropriate, as is the association of the Kaumudīmahotsava and the Festival of Spring. Both festivals celebrate important transitions; both figures (Lakṣmī and Kāma) are worshipped for prosperity. Degeneration and regeneration form the thematic basis for the Spring Festival and these two themes acquire specific meaning and form in the Bhaviṣya Purāṇa (135).

TANTRICISM AND THE SUN-CULT IN INDIA: A HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

Ву

V. C. SRIVASTAVA

Indian tradition views life as a sadhan with twofold aims abhyudaya and nihśreyasa which are subsumed in the fourfold aims of life-Dharma, Artha, Kāma Moksa. The path of sādhanā may be pursued by different traditions of religio-philosophical culture according to the needs, qualities, stages and aspirations of the traveller. Broadly speaking, there are three such ways of sādhanā-the Vedic, the Purānic and the Tantric which are not successive as is generally supposed as well as the latter two are not2 'fungus' growth on the so called original Vedic tradition. Without entering into the controversy of substratum theory and the problem of continuity and change in the Indian tradition it is suffice to say for the present that the Tantric tradition³ of sadhana has a great antiquity going back to the Vedic and even earlier ages4 and it forms an integral part5 of the organic component of Indian spiritual-cultural ethos. However, it was in the post-Gupta period that Tantric sadhana6 became all pervasing due to many factors—socio-economic, religious and ideological7, so much

^{1.} Bhagavan Das in Cultural Heritage of India, ed. H. Bhattacharya, Calcutta, 1983, Vol. IV, p. 14, G. C. Pandey, Foundations of Indian Culture, New Delhi, 1984, Vol. I.

^{2.} Swami Pratyagatmananda, Tantra as a Way of Realization in Cultural Heritage of India, Vol. IV, p. 227.

^{3.} J. Gonda, Change and Continuity in Indian Religion, The Hague, 1965, Intr.

^{4.} P. V. Kane, History of Dharmaśāstra, Poona, 1977, Vol. V, pt. II, pp. 1031-1041.

^{5.} Cultural Heritage of India, Vol. IV, p. 227.

^{6.} C. Chakravarti, The Tantras, Studies on their Religion and Literature, Calcutta, 1963.

^{7.} R. S. Sharma, Material Milieu of Tantricism, *Indian Society*, *Historical Probings in Memory of D. D. Kosambi* New Delhi, 1974, pp. 175-189.

so that there was rarely any cult of India which remained unaffected by this trend⁸ and there was no region of India which did not have the popularity of the Tantricism of some form or the other.⁹ All the major sects and cults such as Saiva, Vaiṣṇava, Saura, Gāṇapatya and Bauddha¹⁰ came to be dominated by the Tantric tradition.

The Sun-cult is one of those faiths of India which originated in prehistoric times, received ideological foundations in the Vedic tradition and developed its classical form under the combined pressures of the Vedic and the Puranic lores and lastly adopted (after its identification with Saivism) Tantricism in the early mediaeval and mediaeval periods.¹¹ The Sun-cult of India has received attention from scholars in the past¹² but the nature and the degree of Tantric influence on the Indian Sun-cult has not been given due attention so far. Two major works on Sunworship are those of L. P. Pandey and V. C. Srivastava.¹³ Pandey has referred to Tantric influence on the Sun-cult on the basis of some Puranas and on the ground of Martanda-Bhairava images in a very brief manner without any reference to the nature and degree of this influence.14 Similarly Srivastava15 demonstrated the Tantric influence on the Sun-cult on the basis of the later chapters of the Samba Upa-Purana by listing names of Tantric rituals like dīksā, mandala, mahāmantra, tattvanyāsa, mantranyāsa, six abhicaras in the worship of the Sun as Siva. However, one significant hypothesis was developed by him that there is an absence of the concept of a Saura-śakti like Prajnā of Tantric Buddhism and Umā of Tantric Hinduism which shows that the

^{8.} See Gopinath Kaviraja, Tantric Vānmaya me Šākta Dristi, Patna, 1963 and A. Bharati, The Tantric Tradition, London, 1965.

^{9.} P. C. Bagchi, Evolution of the Tantras, in Cultural Heritage of India, Vol. IV, pp. 211-226.

^{10.} Ibid.

^{11.} V. C. Srivastava, Sun-worship in Ancient India Allaha-bad, 1972, pp. 264-266.

^{12.} Ibid, pp. 1-18.

^{13.} Sun-worship in Ancient India, Delhi, 1971, Srivastava, op. cit. Allahabad, 1972.

^{14.} op. cit., pp. 107, 121 143 and 159.

^{15.} op. cit. pp. 264-266.

Sun-cult was influenced by Tantricism outwardly only.16 No detailed discussion for the hypothesis could be done as the work was covering a long period from the prehistoric period to the 12-13th century A. D. Srivastava published a Hindi translation of the Samba Purana where he translated with historical notes the later chapters also having Tantric influence on the Sun-cult¹⁷ but has no occasion to discuss the hypothesis. G. D. Pandey came to the conclusion in his recently published monograph Sāmba Purāna kā Sāmskritika Adhyayana that the Sun-worship was totally influenced by the Tantric tradition on the ground that it was dominating all religions and sections of Indian society at the time of the composition of the Samba Purana. 18 He has not analysed the specific question raised by Srivastava that the concept of a female Sakti of Surya was not developed. Moreover, the general dominance of Tantric tradition at the time of the composition of the later chapters of the Samba Purana (1250-1500 A. D.) cannot be construed as the ground for the view that the Sun-cult was totally affected by the Tantricism in all its aspects, even if the statement of general dominance over all religions and classes is accepted. However, there are many religious systems and philosophical schools of this time which remained unaffected by Tantricism19, a feature which goes against the surmise that all classes and systems were dominated by the Tantricism. Neverthelese, the question of the degree, nature and effects of Tantric impact on the Sun-cult in India needs fresh and detailed appraisal in the light of archaeological and literary evidences.

The archaeological sources for the impact of the Tantricism on the Sun-cult are limited to the world-famous Konark Sun-temple with Tantric scenes on the outer walls²⁰ and a few Mārtaṇḍa-Bhairava images. The period for the construction of the Konark

^{16.} Ibid., p. 265.

^{17.} The Samba Purana, Allahabad, 1975.

^{18.} Sāmba Purāņa kā Sāmskṛtika Adhyayana, Allahabad, 1986, pp. 125-131.

^{19.} Jainism has very little Tantric impact. Cultural Heritage of India, Vol. IV, pp. pp. 220-224 refers to the Buddhist, Saiva, Vaisnava, Saura, and Gāṇapatya Tantras but not of Jainas.

^{20.} Srivastava, op. cit., 1972, pp. 335-337.

Sun-temple may be placed during the middle of the 13th century A. D. The Martanda-Bhairava images such as from Rajashahi (Bengal) conform to the dhyanamantra variety of the Sun-god mentioned in the Saradatīlakatantra²¹—a variety which appears to have developed in the 12-13th centuries A.D. 22 Some images of the consorts of Sūrva have been discovered23 but they do not belong to the Tantric tradition.24 Thus the archaeological sources that are available for the Tantric impact on the Sun-cult are very limited and are not very helpful in ascertaining the inner milieu of the Tantricism in relation to the Sun-cult. We may only state that the Tantric tradition came to exert influence on the Sun-cult in the period from the 12th century A. D. onwards and this was facilitated by the identification of Sūrya and Siva and the evolution of the dhyana variety of the Sun-god such as Martanda-Bhairava, and eroticism of Tantric tradition came to be displayed in the Konark Sun-temple. We do not have evidence of an independent image of Saura-śakti round Chāyā, Samjñā, Uṣā, Sandhyā. Niksubā, Rājñī, Suvarcasā, Savarņā, Prabhā etc. or there is no depiction of Saura-śakti in any art-example of India.25

Of the literary sources the Purāṇas are valuable guides in knowing the nature, degree and effects of the Tantricism on the Sun-cult. The Agni Purāṇa devotes chapter 73 to the method of Sun-worship which is full of Tantric import. Here the Sun-god has been identified with Brahmā, Viṣṇu and Śiva. The earlier chapters are concerned with Vaiṣṇava gods, methods of worship involving Tantric rituals etc. while the immediate later chapters are devoted to Śiva-Caṇḍī worship etc. involving Tantric methodology. The chapters are quite late and may be assigned to the 11-12th

^{21.} Ibid., p. 319, cf Śāradātilaka, XIV, 41.2.

^{22.} Ibid.

^{23.} *Ibid.*, pp. 261-262, Pandey, *op. cit.*, pp. 90-91, 96, 108, 137, etc.

^{24.} Ibid. none of them are in the alinganamudra.

^{25.} Cf. Srivastava, op. cit. pp. 293-321

^{26.} See Agni-Purāṇa-Garga Samhitā anka of Kalyāṇa, Gita Press, Gorakhpur and Agni-Purāṇa ed. Ananadasrama Sanskrit Series, Poona, 1900.

centuries A.D.²⁷ at the earliest. It is also to be noted that this very Purāṇa (Cl. 51) mentions the iconographical features of Sūrya which are free from Tantric impact. Obviously this chapter is earlier and contains the earlier Purāṇic tradition of the Sun-cult. This Purāṇa has two others references to Tantric Sun-worship in the chapters 48 and 301.

The Garuḍa Purāṇa²8 also identifies Sūrya and Śiva and mentions Tantric diagrams and mantra and even prescribes the worship of Daṇḍī and Pingala while worshipping Śiva. The chapter is later than 10th century A.D.²0 The Nār dīya Purāṇa prescribes in about 12 verses the worship of the Sun-god with his family and attendents through a Tantric diagram.³0 These verses are late interpolations and may be dated in the later centuries of the early mediaeval period.³1

The $N\bar{a}rad\bar{\imath}ya$ $Pur\bar{a}n^{23}$ again mentions the worship of the Sun with Tantric rituals like anga $ny\bar{a}sa$. These verses are late interpolations and may be dated in the later centuries of the early mediaeval India. The Padma $Pur\bar{a}n^{23}$ enjoins the use of Tantrik mantra in the Sun-worship for the cure of mental and physical diseases. These chapters have been dated between the 12th and the 14th century A. D. There are references to a vast Saura literature but unfortunately none of them are available in full with the exception of the $S\bar{a}mba$ $Upapur\bar{a}na$ which is the magnum opus of the classical Sun-cult in India. For our present purpose the later chapters of this $Pur\bar{a}na$ are very relevant as they appear to have

^{27.} R. C. Hazra, Purāṇic Records on Hindu Rites and Customs, Varanasi, 1975, assigns these chapters to a date later than the 9th century A.D. but these may be of later date than 11th and 12th century A.D. as it refers to full-fledged Śāktism.

^{28.} Garuda Purāņa, ed. Sarasawati, Calcutta, p. 61.

^{29,} Hazra, op. cit. p. 186.

^{30.} Nāradīya Purāņa, Sri Venkateswara ed. ch. 60, v. 25-36.

^{31.} Hazra, op. cit., p. 185 has dated chapters with smrti materials between 875-1000 A.D. In view of this it may be dated later than 1000 A.D. as it contains pure Tantric materials like mandala etc.

^{32.} Ch. 69, vv. 7-24.

^{33.} Ananadasrama ed. ch. 76, v. 51.

been thoroughly influenced by the Tantric tradition.34 These chapters have been fixed chronologically between 1250-1500 A.D.35 Within this broad category there appears to be more than one unit.36 It is significant to note that the Bhavisya Purana which has borrowed its chapters on the Sun-cult from the Samba Upa-Purana has not taken any material connected with the Tantric Sun-worship as found in the Samba Upapurana.37 Thus the Samba Upapurana appears to be the only available source for knowing the nature, degree and effects of the Tantric tradition on the Sun-cult. However the short description of Tantric Sun-worship in the Agni Purana has to be taken into account as it appears to contain the Sakta variety of the Tantricism more than the Tantricism of the Agamanta variety. Before we analyse the available materials on the Tantricism and the Sun-cult, it is relevant to point out that the Tantricism had varieties within varieties38 in the Indian tradition.

Analysis of Tantric milieu vis-a-vis the Sun-cult in India

The Agni Purāṇa hast hree main descriptions of Tantric Sunworship. In chapter 73 it³⁹ describes the method of the Sunworship by means of Aṅganyāsa and Karanyāsā. First, the worshipper should imagine that he or she is the Sun-god and give arghya with the mantra—Oṁ Ām Ḥridyāya namaḥ and touch organs of the body. In the temple Daṇḍī in the south and Piṅgala in the left should be worshipped. Gaṇeśa and Guru should be worshipped in the Tantric manner. In the centre of the pīṭha one should meditate on a lotus-shaped seat. On the four sides of the pīṭha Vimala, Sāra, Ārādhya and Parama Sukha and Prabhūtāsana in the middle should be worshipped. Thereafter, nine śaktis—Dīptā

^{34.} R. C. Hazra, The Samba Purana: A Saura work of different hands: Annals of Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute Vol. 36, 1956.

^{35.} R. C. Hazra, The Sāmba Pūrāṇa through the Ages, Journal of Asiatic Society (Calcutta), Letters, Vol, XVIII, 1952, pp. 91-111.

^{36.} Hazra, op. cit., 1956.

^{37.} Ibid. Cf. Srivastava, The Samba Purana, Intr., pp. 6-7

^{38.} Bagchi, op. cit., pp. 211-226.

^{39.} op. cit.

Sūkṣmā, Jayā, Bhadrā, Vimalā, Amoghā, Vibhūti, Vidyutā and Sarvatomukhi (in the centre) should be worshipped as seated on the lotus with mantras with Tantric import such as ram diptayai namah, rim sūksmāvai namah, rum Jayavai, namah, rem Bhadrayai namah, raim Vibhūtave namah, rom Vimalāvai namah, raum Amoghāyai namah, ram Vidyutāyai namah, rah sarvatomukhāyai namah. After this it enjoins that the pitha of the Sun-god should be worshipped with the mantra—Om Brahma-Visnu-Siva-atmakaya Sauraya Yogapithatmane namah. Further invocation of the Sungod should be done with the Tantric mantra with 9 letters—om ham kham Khakholkaya namah. After meditating the Sun-god and establishing him before himself arghva of water should be given with the mantra—ham himsah Sūryāya namah. Thereafter, different parts of the body should be worshipped by showing Padma-mudrā, Bimba-mudrā with mantras like Om ām Hridvāya namah, Om Bhuh Arkaya namah, sirase syaha, om bhuyah suresaya šikhāyai vasat, om svah kavacāya hum, om ham netratrayay vausat, vah astrāya phat for heart, head, hair, kavaca. eyes and weapons respectively. Thereafter different mudras should be shown. Dhenumudrā, Gośrnga mudrā, trasanimudrā for heart, head, hais kavaca eyes and weapons respectively. Then the Grahas should be worshipped with mantras as follows-Om Som Somaya namah for the moon in the east, Om bum Budhaya namah for Budha in the south, Om brim Brihaspataye namah for Brihaspati in the west, Om bham Bhargavaya namah for Sukra in the north, om bhaum bhaumaya namah for mangala in the south-east, om sam sanaiscaraya namah for Sani in the south-east, om ram rahave namah for Rahu in the north-west, om kem ketave namah for Ketu in the north-east. These planets should be worshipped along with the Sun under the name of Khakholka, The Sun should be worshipped under the name of Siva-Sūrya which may be translated as either welfare-giving Sun or the combined form of Siva-Sūrva. In early medieval times Siva and Sūrya came to be identified40 and here we may have a reference to this trend under which Tantric influence could be introduced in the Sun-cult. The original mantra for the Sun-god is om ham kham khakholkaya namah in the Agni-Purana which is different from the original mantra of the Sun-god found

^{40.} D. K. Biswas, Sūrya and Śiva, *Indian Historical Quāterly*, XXIV, 1984 cf. The Sāmba Purāṇa, 1975, pp. 16-17

in the $\dot{S}arad\bar{a}tilaka$ which may be read as—om hrim ghṛṇiḥ $s\bar{u}ry\bar{a}ditya$ Srim. This clearly indicates that there were different traditions for the original mantra of the Sun-god in the Tantric form of the Sun-cult.

The Agni Purāna has another account of the Tantric form of Sun-worship in the chapter 148 in connection with the victory in the battle.41 The mantra is om de kha khvam sūrvāva sangrāmavijayaya namah. Bhagavat Śankaras ays to Skanda that following six letters are meant for six parts of the body in the battle for victory—hram, hrim, hrum, hrem, hrom and hrah which are meant for anganyāsa as follows: -hram hridayāya namah, hrim śirase svāhā, hrum šikhāyai vasat, hrem kayacāya hum, hrom netratrayāya vausat, hrah astrāva phat. The mantra for the worship is again the same as earlier—om ham khakholkāva svahā. The bīja mantras for the six angany as a are sphum, hrum, hum; krum hrom krem. Five deities under the name of Prabhūta, Vimala, Sāra, Āradhya and Paramasukha are to be worshipped in the pitha.42 It is difficult to be categorical about the exact nature of these deities because there are various literal meanings of these names such as Prabhūta means a primary element in the Sānkhva as well as one of the deities in the 6th Manyantaras. Vimala may mean a bright spotless deity or a magical formula recited over weapons, Sara may mean the inner spirit of the Sun and Parama sukha may be symbolic of the godhood representing the highest bliss in the Tantric tradition. Ārādhya may represent the Sun-worthy of worship.43 However 1t is certain that these names are of the Tantric-Sāmkhya tradition. In the eight directions of the pitha dharma, jñāna, vairāgya, aiśvarya, adharma, ajñāna, avairāgya and anaiśvarya should be worshipped. Here we have opposites of four values and both sides should be worshipped because the Tantrik sādhanā takes positive and negative both in the universe as the descent of Siva-Sakti and therefore are not to be distinguished. Vidyā and Avidyā, Yoga and Bhoga, Pravrtti and Nivrtti

^{41.} op. cit.

^{42.} ibid.

^{43.} It means 'to be worshipped' see M. M. Williams, A Sanskrit-English Dictionary, Varanasi, 1986, p. 150

are to be equally respected and sublimated into the ascent of the sādhaka towards the Śiva-Śakti.44

There is a provision for the worship of anantasana, simhasana and padmāsana, sūrvamandala somamandala and agnimandala. Then nine śaktis-Diptā, Sūksmā, Jayā, Bhadrā, Vibhūti, Amoghā, Vidvutā and Sarvatomukhī should be worshipped. These nine saktis of the Sun represent most probably the 'heat' of the Sun which is an integral part of the Sun as well as the creative aspect of the Sun. Thus these two features of the heat of the Sun are sufficient to make them saktis of the Sun-god. Dipta, Bhadra, Vibhūti. Vidvutā are connected with the heat45 while Amoghā and Javā are names of Dūrga46 also. Sūksmā is the name of a śakti of Visnu also but here in the context of the Sun cult it may mean Sakti in the form of the supreme subtle soul of Sūrya.47 It is significant to note that these names of Saura-saktis are not found in connection with the Puranic account 48 of the wives of Surya-Samjñā, Chāyā, Suvarcalā, Rājñī, Niksubhā, Ūsā, Pratyūsā etc. Moreover, the difference between the Saktis of the Sungod and the consorts of the Sun-god has been maintained in the same Purana in the same chapter when it enjoins after the worship of the Saktis the adoration of Usa, Prabha, Sandhya, Chaya, 49 along with Visnu, and 8 gatekeepers, the Sun-god along with Canda and Pracanda. It is pertinent to remark that the Puranic theistic tradition of worshipping consort of the Sun-god is different from the worship of the Saura-saktis in the Tantric-Saktic tradition. One Sakti-Jaya mentioned here has been mentioned in the Tantric work—the Sammohatantra as having an independent cult round her. 50 This work seems to have assumed its present Saktic form around the fourteenth century⁵¹ A. D. If Jayā of Agni-Purāna is the same as

^{44.} K. Mishra, Significance of the Tantric Tradition, Varanasi, 1981, pp. 63 ff.

^{45.} M. M. Williams, op. cit., p. 481, 746, 966, 978.

^{46.} Ibid., p. 83, 412

^{47.} Ibid., p. 1241

^{48.} Srivastava, op. cit., 1972, pp. 261-262

^{49.} vv. 7-9.

^{50.} Quoted by Cultural Heritage of India, Vol. IV, p. 221

^{51.} Ibid., p. 222

Jayā of the Sammoha Tantra these passages may be assigned to the Śāktic stage of the development of the Tantric tradition around the fourteenth century A. D.—a date which accords well with the chronology established by Hazra.⁵² The reference to nine Śaktis of Sūrya in this Purāṇa appears to have been modelled on the pattern of Nava-Durgās—Kumarikā, Trimūrti, Kalyāṇi, Rohiṇi, Kāli, Caṇḍikā, Sāmbhavī, Durgā, Bhadrā.

The Agni Purāṇa in Chapter—30, refers to the bija-mantra of the Mārtaṇḍa-Bhairava and the worship of five images of the Sun-god⁵³ with following mantras—am sūryāya namaḥ, im bhāska rāyà namaḥ, um bhānave namaḥ, em ravaye namaḥ, om divākarāya namaḥ and meditation of Sūrya as seated in the north-east with his śakti in the left. It also refers Tantric rituals like māraṇa, stambhana, apyayana, katrughāta, mohana, vaśikaraṇa. Thus the Agni Purāṇa which was wholly influenced by the Tantric-Śāktic tradition developed the Tantric-Śāktic variety of the Sun-cult also whose salient points may be recapitulated here before we proceed further to analyse the Tantric milieu of the Sun-cult in the Sāmba Upapurāṇa:—

Firstly, there is a direct reference to 9 saktis of the Sun-god which are different in name and symbolism from the consorts of Sūrya.

Secondly, the Sun-god has generally been invoked under his own traditional names like Sūrya, Āditya, Bhāskara, Ravi, Bhānu, Divākara etc. and with one possible doubtful identification of Sūrya and Śiva and one reference to Mārtaṇḍa-Bhairava the Sun-god is free from Śaivite influence.

Thirdly, Tantric rituals and symbolism have been used in full. It refers to Tantric mantras, maṇḍalas, nyāsas, japa, dhyāna, cakra, and mentions six Tantric acts like Vaśikaraṇa, māraṇa, stambhana, etc.

The picture presented by the Agni-Purāṇa for the Tantric milieu of the Sun-cult is positively that of Tantric-śāktic tradition rather than of Agamānta Tantrism as there is no mention of the

^{52.} Op. cit., 1952

^{53.} op. cit.

Vedas in these accounts. As indicated earlier the accounts appear to have been related to the 13-14th century A. D.

The Sāmba Upapurāṇa⁵⁴ contains Tantric Sun-worship in its later interpolated chapters 39-43 and 47-83 which have been dated by Hazra between 1250-1500 A. D. First let us present a review of the main ideas of Tantric Sun-worship as developed in this sectarian Saura Purāṇa.

Firstly, let us analyse the concept of the Sun-god in these later chapters in order to find out whether it conforms to the Tantric philosophy of the godhood.

The Samba Upapurana describes the Sun-god as sakala and niskala both and the letters are parts of the body of the Sun-god and the creation. A and \bar{A} are conducive of the Karma-nirvana. I and \overline{I} are located in the forms of Vidyesa and Yogisa in the navel of the Sun-god. U and \bar{U} became two thighs of the Sun-god after they became bijas. R and R are two feet under the forms of Rita and Satva. Lkāra became vipula, probably the earth or a metre. E and Ai are two mothers of the Sungod. Am and Ah are two big skies. G and Gh are his mandala. \dot{N} is the charioteer. C, Cha, J, Jh, \bar{n} are respectively pitris, gods and demons, entire universe bondage, and creative power. T, Th, D, Dh represent the powers of breaking the bondage, of removing the difficulties, of giving grace and of anger of the god respectively. N, T, Th, D, Dh, N represent respectively great ascetics like Bālakhilya, Bhrigu etc., Siddha and Gandharva, power producing punya, power control of senses, visible Brahmā, and all pervasive ananta. P is for indestructible, Ph for removal of inauspicious, B is for auspiciousness, B is for dispeller, M is for the lord of the rivers. Y, stands for the planets. and stars and R is for the destroyer. L, V, \dot{S} , S, S, H stand for indulgence in the senses, the creation, the removal of defects bija (the secret words of a mantra), the origin of metre and the eternal Brahmā. These are the Bijas of the Sun-god.

^{54.} The Sanmoha Tantra refers to a vast literature of Saura Tantra—30 Tantras, 99 Upatantras, 4 Samhitās, 2 Upa-Samhitās, etc. quoted by Cultural Heritage of India, Vol. IV, p. 222 but no Saura Tantra has been found so far. The Sāmba Upapurāņa is the only corpus of Saura Tantra.

^{55.} The Samba Purana, Venkateshwara ed., Ch. 40

This is a typical Tantric version of the creation of the universe from the letters and the Sun-god has been conceived as the original power. The Sungod has been described in the same context in this Purāṇa as the Śabdamūrti⁵⁶. The creation of the universe by the Sun-god has been repeated in many other descriptions in the Sāmba Upapurāṇa. In the chapter 56 it is stated that Sūrya consists of three elements—bījatattva, varṇatattva, and yonitattva which is visualized in the heart of a worshipper. Sūrya is Sākala and Niṣkala as well as Sakala-Niṣkala.⁵⁷ In the chapter 57 this original power is said to have created the universe by creating the varṇas. This creation of the letters has been detailed in subsequent chapters.⁵⁸

The supremacy of the sun god has been expressed by explaining the meaning of different names in the chapter 51. In the beginning this universe was without action, knowledge, smell etc. This unmanifested and undifferentiated cause was termed as Pradhana-Prakṛti which is the womb (yoni) of the universe. It is original, unborn, subtle and unexpressed. 59 This is also known as Purusa, Parameśvara, which is encompassing the movable and immovable creation. It is the cause of the origin and dissolution of the universe. It is endowed with innumerable gunas, but is one. He is Nārāyana because he created water. He is Hiranyagarbha because he is surrounded by hiranya from all sides. He is Brahmā because he is ever increasing. He is Mahādeva because he is great among gods. He is Khakholka because he is the cause of five elements. He is Prajapati because he created the creatures. He is self-born hence is called Svayambhū. He is the first Purusa with thousands heads, hands, feet etc. The order of creation is like this from unmanifested came Prakṛti, from Prakṛti came Mahat, from Mahat came ahamkara, from Ahamkara came senses and thereafter creatures. Thereafter, the meaning of different names of the Sun-god have been detailed with a view to showing the supremacy, allpervasiveness and original causal nature of the god in the typical

^{56.} Ibid., ch. 41, v.4 cf. J. Woodroff, The Garland of Letters, pp. 214-227

^{57.} ch. 56, v. 2

^{58.} The chapters 57-61 are concerned with the letters.

^{59.} Ch. 51, v. 126 ff

Tantrik-Vedāntic manner. Such ideas are repeated in other chapters of the Sūmba Upapurāṇa. In some later chapters the Sun-god has been completely identified with Śiva such as in the Chapter 69. Here the aim is the attainment of Śivaloka. Then the god to be worshipped is formless Śiva⁶⁰. The worshipper must know the formless Śiva and his supremacy. In the chapter 71 it is again said that Śaṅkara and Śiva-śakti are present in the Universe.⁶¹ The chapters from 55 to 83 are saturated with Śaivite influence where the ultimate power has been conceived. Śiva-Śakti and the process of creation and rituals are Tantric Śaiva-Śakta rather than pure Saura of pure Saura-Tantra. It is in conformity with the trend that Saura worship came to be identified with Śaiva worship, so much so that a Purāṇa which is named as the Saura-Purāṇa is actually a Śaiva Purāṇa.⁶²

The concept of a female principle along with a male (Purusa) is a fundamental doctrine of Tantricism which became the central figure in the form of Sakti in medieval Śaktism.63 Let us analyse as to how much this concept of female principle in Saura Tantra as developed in the Samba Upapurana. It is well known that there were many wives of Siva in the Epic-Puranic tradition such as Samina, Chaya, Suvarcala, Rajni, Niksubha, etc. which are mentioned as the wives of the Sun-god in the Samba Upapurana but have not been referred to as the Sakti of Sūrva. They are simply members of the family of the Sun and are developed in response to the anthropomorphisation of the Sun-god. In the chapters influenced by Tantricism the Samba Upapurana has references to two types of Saura Sakti. The chapters which are generally free from Saiva predominance refer to many Saura Saktis which are representatives of the heat, and light of the Sun. 64 In the chapter 43 which is free from Tantricism the Sun has been described as Prakriti and Purusa and in spite of Chāvā and Saminā is without

^{60.} Ch. 69, vv. 1, 17 ff.

^{61.} Ch. 71, vv. 1-3

^{62.} Saura Purāṇa, Anandasrama Series, 1924.

^{63.} Cultural Heritage of India, Vol. IV, pp. 221-222

^{64.} Sāmba Upapūrāṇa, Ch. 51, v. 75 refers to seven mothers some of which are expressive of the heat and light aspects of the Sun-god such as Dīptī, Rochi, Prabhā.

support and dependence. 85 This is a significant reference to initiate the discussion on the presence, nature and degree of Saura Sakti-concept in the Samba Upapurana. It shows that Chaya and Samina were not conceived in the Tantric-Samkhya fashion as the Sakti of Sūrya in earlier tradition of the Puranas. In the next stage when Tantra came to influence the Samba Upapurana some Saktis of Sūrva came to be developed. These are, for example, the seven mothers (Saptamatrkas) under the names of Ksubha. Maitri, Prabha, Śyama, Rochi, Dipti, Suvarcala.68 Some of these are well known names of the wives of Sūrya such as Niksubhā, Suvarcala, Prabha. Others have been made from such words as mitra, ruchi, dīptī connected with the Sungod. Mahāśvetā has also been conceived in Saiva-free chapters as the Sakti of Sūrya.67 In the chapter 39 there is provision for the making of a mandala for Sūrya-initiation. In this mandala there is provision for the making of the images of Saktis under the name of Mahākāli, Kalpikā, Prabodhini, Nilāmbarā, Ghanantasthā, Amrtā, etc. 68 In the mandala there is provision for the making of tools of Devi like Vaira, Sakti, Khadga, Pāsa, Gadā, Trišūla, 69 etc. There is a reference to the bindu 70 which is ultimate element produced by the combined power of Siva-Sakti. The whole description of the mandala-design reminds us of the anahata cakra in which there is a provision of 12 petalled lotus in the centre of which is seated Śakti with pāśa, kapāla⁷¹ etc. In the chapter 55 we have a reference to Devi created by Siva. 72 There are mantras for invocation Mahāśvetā Chāyā⁷³ etc. The above analysis shows that the Saktis of Sūrya could not be developed round the familiar names of Sūrva's wife though they continued to be worshipped along with other members of his family in the Tantra-oriented Sun-worship

^{65.} Ibid., Ch. 43, v. 17

^{66.} Ibid., Ch. 51, v. 75

^{67.} *Ibid.*, Ch. 51, v. 65, 102, 105, 108, III, Ch. 50 cf. G. C. Pandey, *op. cit.*, pp. 83, 86, 98, 114

^{68.} Ibid., Ch. 39, v. 45

^{69.} Ibid., Ch. 39, v. 41

^{70.} Ibid., Ch. 39, v. 49 Cf. Saradātilaka, ch. 1

^{71.} Cf. J. Woodroff The Serpent Power, pp. 382-383, Sāmba Upapurāṇa, ch. 39

^{72.} Ibid., Ch. 55, v. 109

^{73.} Ibid., Ch. 51, v. 75, 114

also. Secondly: seven mothers of the Sun-god have been developed on the pattern of Vaiṣṇava tradition. Thirdly, philosophically we have the concept of a Saura-śakti in chapters which are not dominated by the Śaiva tradition but these Śaktis are not to be found among the list of devīs and śaktis in standard iconographical texts⁷⁴ end we do not have any actual extant image of Saura-śakti so far, though Mahāśvetā is found depicted below the Sungod and we have images of Sun's wives which are free from Tantric influence. Fourthly, we have references to Devī in connection with Śaiva-dominated chapters but there also Śakti has not become the central point of attraction as it became in medieval Śākta tradition.

Tantra is no doubt a philosophy but in actual life it is more popular as a practice and a ritual for obtaining certain siddhis.76 The ritualistic aspect of Tantra has been quite well developed and followed in the later chapters of the Samba Upapurana. In view of the comprehensiveness of the subject of Tantric ritual in this Upa-Purāņa here it is not possible to discuss them in detail.77 We will confine ourselves to the discussion of the salient points of these rituals with a view to showing the predominance of Tantric methodology for the Sun-worship. The chapters 39-41 of the Samba Upapurana are concerned with Saura-diksa which is wholly Tantric, as it utilizes Tantric mantras including Tantric Gayatri, Tattvanyāsa, drawing of mandalas, Yajna with varnas, 78 etc. A special feature of Tantric dīkṣā is the identification of Guru and the god as well as the meditative identity of the worshipper and the worshipped. These features are well attested in the initiation of a Sun-worshipper as enunciated in the Samba Upapurana. For example it is nentioned in connection with the Saura dīksā that the

^{74.} T. A. G. Rao, Elements of Hindu Iconography, Vol. 1, Pt, 11, pp. 103ff

^{75.} G. C. Pandey, op. cit., pp. 90-91, Srivastava, op. cit. pp. 261, 308, 312, 316

^{76.} Cultural Heritage of India, Vol. IV, 219

^{77.} For details see V. C. Srivastava, The Sāmba Purāṇa, Allahabad 1975, (Hindi Tr. with historical notes)

^{78.} Sāmba Upapurāņa, Ch. 39

^{79.} A. B. Ghosh, The spirit and culture of the Tantras, in Cultural Heritage of India, Vol. IV, 241-251

lord of the world—Sūrva resides where the mandala-knowing ācārva sits.80 It is referred that the worshipper to be initiated should meditate on Sūrva in himself.81 Another Tantric change in the Sun-worship lies in the changed names of 12 Adityas⁸²—Nara. Viśvātmaka, Śambhū, Namaskāra, Vasatkrt, Sambudha, Niskala, Jñānasambhava, Mana, Unmana, Viśvakartā and Mahanasattva in place of familiar dvādasādityas.83 There are references to nyāsas like tattvanyāsa, mantranyāsa, karanyāsa etc.84 There are specifications of different elements of Tantric worship-avahana, sthāpana, rodha, sānnidhya, pādapraksālana, arghya, snāna, vastra, lepana, puspa, dhūpa, vibhūsana, dīpa, bali, arghya, japa, nyasa, stavana, yajna, samhara, suddhi, pata, vihara, visarjana, 85 which are described in detail in many Tantric works.86 The ultimate aim of Tantric sadhana like other sadhanas is atmajnana or mukti but it admits lower types of aims like worldly gains and achievements.87 The Sāmba Upapurāna accepts jnañāyoga of Śiva-Sūrya tattva as the ultimate aim but admits abhicaras—of the Tantric tradition also. It refers to vasīkaraņa, ākarsaņa, satru stambhana, and Uccatana.88 There acts should be done in the cremation ground. There are references to a variety of Tantric mantra like kartarī, salakā, dakṣiṇā, churikā89 etc. The mantras are full of Tantric symbolism. Various mudras and japas of Tantric import have been used. 90 The word Tantra has been used not only for Tantric

^{80.} Samba Purana, Ch. 39, v. 25

^{81.} Ibid., Ch. 40. v. 4

^{82.} Ibid., Ch. 39, v. 42 cf. 51, v. 67

^{83.} Srivastava, op. cit., 1972, pp. 207 ff. cf. Rai, Paurāņika Dharma aur Samāja, Allahabad, 1968, pp. 47-53

^{84.} Sāmba Purāṇa, Ch. 39, vv. 57, 58 cf. Jayākhya Samhitā, patala, ii, Prapancasāra, 6, Kularnavatantra, 4.18

^{85.} Sāmba Purāṇa, ch. 50, cf. Woodrooffe, Principles of Tantra pp. 781-795

^{86.} See Srivastava, op. cit., 1975, p. 223, fn. 1

^{87.} Cultural Heritage of India, Vol. IV, pp. 242-43

^{88.} Sāmba Purāṇa, Ch. I, i9; 67, 68

^{89.} Ibid, Ch. 81, vv. 20-21

^{90.} *Ibid.*, Ch. 48 details types of *mudrās*. Cf. Kane. *History* of *Dharmaśāstra*, Vol. V, pp. 65-66, For Japa see *Sāmba Purāņa*, Ch. 47

procedure but also for Tantric⁹¹ works. There is a very significant reference in the Sāmba Upapurāṇa to the effect that there are various Tantras and only this system as developed in this Purāṇa will give success and siddhī.⁹² It shows that there were many varieties of Tantric worship during this period and the Sun-cult as enshrined in the Sāmba Upapurāṇa adopted a particular type of the Tantricism. There are several other references to Tantric rituals in connection with the Sun-cult in this Purāṇa.⁹³ Thus Tantra-oriented Sun-cult followed Tantric rituals of lower type also.

It is desirable in order to know the nature of the Tantricism of the Sun-cult to throw light on the attitude of solar sectarians of this tradition towards the rituals of the Pañcamakāras on account of which Tantricism has become a byword for corruption and sextual laxity.94 There appears to be only one reference to the Pañcamakāra and that too in a figurative sense in connection with the lotus. As such we have failed to find any direct and expressed reference to the Pancamakara. However, there are references to the offering of meat and fish in the oblations meant for lower type of sadhanas.95 The attitude towards sex, ethics and morality in this Purana in context of the Tantricism is definitely and moralistic. It preaches such qualities in teachers (Guru) such as control of senses, expert in Vedic lore, protagonist of Manavadharma implying the Manusmriti and a sun-worshipper has to be vegetarian, expert in yogic practices, devoted to dharma and tolerance, liberal, of good family, devoted to the god and the Brahmanas, lover of Sastras, non-indulgent in females, Brahmacari, though with a lady, 97 etc. The classical orientation towards ethics may be seen in the ethical interpretation of Asta-puspa98 as consisting of such

^{91.} Ibid.

^{92.} Ibid., ch. 41, v. i

^{93.} see Srivastava, op. cit., 1975

^{94.} Cultural Heritage of India, Vol. IV, p. 211

^{95.} Sāmba Purāņa, Ch. 56, v. 4

^{96.} Ibid., chs. 65, v. 14; 67, v 8; 68, v. 20

^{97.} *Ibid.*, chs. 39, v. 20-22; 51, v. 121; 51, v. 196; 55, v. 4; 61 v. 50; 64, v. 29; 68, v. 22

^{98.} Ibid., ch. 82, vv. 5-7

ethical qualities as control of senses, non-violence, steadfastness, forgiveness, purity, love, modesty, and truth which is typically Buddhist-Jain or Yogic. In view of above it is safe to assert that in spite of the marginal reference to Saktis the degraded aspect of the Tantricism such as the Pañcamakāras could not be devoloped as it came to be developed in Saiva and Sakta Tantricism and Vajrayanism. The ethical aspect of the Sun-cult which had a long background in the Vedic and Puranic tradition99 could not be submerged under the flood-water of the Tantricism. Moreover, the the Tantricism as enunciated in earlier chapters of the Tantra-influenced section of the Samba Upapurana was pro-Vedic but in the later chapters which are out and out Saivite-Tantric Vedas are not held in that esteem which was the case in the earlier sections.100

In view of the above discussion it may be said that the Tantricism of the Sun-cult as developed in the later Puranas in early medieval and medieval period has distinctly more than one variety. In earlier chapters of the Samba Upapūrāna Tantra of the Suncult is pro-Vedic and pro-Sūrya (as it is free from the Śaiva influence while the later chapters have Saiva-influenced Tantricism which is not pro-Vedic and Sūrya has been identified with Siva. The concept of a Saura- Sakti is found in both traditions but the difference lies in the fact that in Tantra of the earlier variety Saura-Sakti has been developed around the heat, light and rays of the Sun-god symbolically, not around the female consorts of Surya while in the later variety Sakti has been developed round Siva-Śakti. In spite of this ideological presence of a Śakti (which is of course marginal if we compare its position with Saktis in Tantric-Śāktism) it is definite that due to naturalistic and ethical foundations of the Sun-cult no concrete example of a Tantric variety of Saura-śakti in the form of an image has been discovered so far.

Srivastava, op. cit., 1972, pp. 53, 227 ff 99.

Hazra, R. C. Studies in the Upapuranas, Vol. 1., 100. p. 63

So far no Sun image of Tantric variety has been found. 101. However some images of Danda with his sakti in Alingana mudrā has been discovered from Bundelkhand region but remain unpublished as it has been informed by Dr. S. D. Trivedi, Director, State Museum, Lucknow

There are possibilities that such idea was not utilized in practice in spite of Konark erotics. Thus Tantricism was definitely of a sober variety in the Sun-cult of early medieval and medieval periods.

in a personal communication. Even this discovery will not compensate for the absence of an image of Saura-Sakti in Tantric pose.

VALIDITY OF THE PURANIC VIEW ABOUT THE NATURE OF VEDIC RECENSIONS

By

RAM SHANKAR BHATTACHARYA

Sāmaśramin's assertions regarding the faulty character of Puranic view

While discussing the nature of Vedic recensions (\$\sigma k h \alpha s\$) the celebrated Vedic scholar Satyavrata S\sigma massramin has asserted that the Puranic account of Vedic recensions (veda-\$\sigma k h a-vibh \alpha ga)^1 is untrustworthy on account of the following reasons 2(Vide Aitarey\sigma locanam, pp. 119-126):

- (i) From some Puranic passages (Bhāgavata-p. 12. 6. 54-60; Viṣṇu-p. 3.4. 16-25) it appears that a śākha is a portion of a Veda (vedāmsa). As the Bhāgavata-purāṇa is divided into twelve skandhas and each skandha into many adhyāyas, so the one Veda has been divided into four parts (i. e. the four Vedas) and each part into sub divisions (called śākhās). As the readings and contents of each adhyāya of the Bhāgavata-p. are different from those of other adhyāyas, so the mantras and contents of each śākhā are
 - 1. Though 'sākhā' means 'a samhitā along with its brāhmaṇ र' (मन्त्रब्राह्मणसमुदायात्मिकां शाखाम्, Medhātithi on Manu
 2. 165) yet here the word stands for the samhitā only.
 The Purāṇas speak of sākhās as 'संहितानां विकल्पकाः'
 (Viṣṇu-p. 3.6.15). Cp. the expression संहिताभेद (Viṣṇu-p.
 3.6.3) in connection with sākhās. The expressions
 सर्वशाखात्रत्यय and सर्वब्राह्मणत्रत्यय used in the Mimāmsā philosophy also show that the word sākhā may well refer to
 to the samhitā only.
 - 2. Following statements of Sāmaśramin are worth noticing: तदेवं पुराणविणतं शाखाविभागमतं प्रेक्षावतां वेदविदुषां स्यादुपेक्षणीयम् (p. 122); तस्मात् पौराणिकः शाखाभेदो मन्वादिमतिवरुद्धः (p. 124); एवं च यदुक्तं विष्णुपुराणभागवतयोः तत्सवं शाखापदार्थज्ञानिवहीनत्वावेदकमेव (p. 126).

different from those of other śakhas of a Veda. Thus it follows that as the reading of one chapter of a skandha of the Bhagavata-p does not mean the reading of a whole skandha, so the reading of one śākhā of a Veda does not mean the reading of one whole Veda. All this is against the established view of Vedic tradition. That śākhās of a Veda are not different portions may be known from Anukramani of Saunaka which says that most of the mantras in the Śākala and the Bāṣkala śākhā (of the Rgveda) are the same though the order of the mantras is different in a few places. A perusal of the extant śākhās of each of the four Vedas would show that the śakhas cannot be regarded as different portions of a Veda.

- (ii) The Puranic authors were not well-informed of Vedic matters. That is why the well-known Sankhayani śakha has not been mentioned in the Vișņu and the Bhāgavata Purāņa.
- (iii) Since according to the Puranas all the śakhas of a Veda constitute the Veda (sakhas being the portions of a Veda), the study of a Veda would mean 'to study all the 'sākhās of a Veda'an act which is highly impossible. This is against the Manusmṛti, which enjoins that a person should study the entire Veda (kṛtsna veda) (2.165). (A period of 12 years is given for this study by Manu 3.1 and other Dharmasastra works).
- (iv) The assertion of the Kūrma-p. (Pūrva. 51) that Vyasa alone composed all the recensions of the Vedas (like the composition of the eighteen Puranas) is not accepted by the Vedic tradition.8 (The verses quoted by Samasramin occur in the Ven. ed. of the Kūrma-p. 1.52. 19-20).

Validity of Puranic authors' views about Vedic matters

Before showing the validity of the Puranic views about the nature of Vedic recensions, we want to submit that there are strong grounds to believe that Puranic authors were intimately acquainted with Vedic matters. Following examples may be considered in this connection .

It has also been stated by Samasramin that the wrong view about the nature of Vedic śakhās found in the 3. Sanskrit dictionary Vācaspatyam (शाखा वेदैकदेश:) and in the Bengali Viśvakośa by Nagendra Nāth Basu is due to the mistaken idea of the Puranas that a śakha is a वेदपरिच्छेदविशेष वेदांश (p. 122).

- (i) While describing vows, worship etc. the Purāṇas quote a large number of Vedic mantras and mention the names of many sūktas, anuvākas, adhyāyas of the Vedas. All of these mantras etc. are found to occur in the Vedic works⁴ (some however occur in the Sūtra works).⁵
- (ii) Puranic descriptions of the sacrifices (along with the mention of stomas etc.) are found to follow the Sūtra works.
- (iii) Definitions and characteristics of the three kinds of mantras and of the brahmana are found to be based on the authoritative works of Vedic tradition.⁶
- (iv) The Purāṇas often speak of many views (concerning dharma etc.) and remark that they are held by the Vedas. Almost all of such views are found in the Vedic works.
- (v) The Purāṇas contain many tales or stories (ākhyāna etc.) which are said to be based on the Vedas. All of these stories are found to occur in the Vedas. It is however needless to say that these tales in the Purāṇas are in more or less exaggerated forms since the Vedic matter was augmented by adding new materials to serve the purpose of the Puranic authors.

That the Purāṇas contain such pieces of information about the $\dot{s}\bar{a}kh\bar{a}s$ as show the trustworthiness of Puranic views about the nature of Vedic $\dot{s}\bar{a}kh\bar{a}$ is proved by the following facts:

^{4.} In my पुराणगतवेदनिषयक सामग्री का समीक्षात्मक अध्ययन (Ch. II. sec. 3 and 5) it is shown that sūktas, anuvīkas, sāmans etc. mentioned in the Purāṇas do occur in Vedic works. In a separate monograph we shall show that mantras quoted in the Purāṇas also occur in the Vedic works.

^{5.} There are however corrupt readings in the printed editions of the Purāṇas on account of which it becomes sometimes difficult to identify them or to trace them in Vedic works. As for example Siva-p. 5.51.47 mentions जननीसूक्त which must be corrected to रजनीसूक्त (=रात्रिस्क).

^{6.} See पुराणगतवेदविषयक सामग्री का समीक्षात्मक अध्ययन, Ch. I, sec 2-3.

^{7.} Ibid. Ch. IV, Sec. 5.

- (i) The total number of śākhās of each Veda as given in the Purāṇas is found to be the same as stated in various authoritative works.⁸
- (ii) The names of a large number of \hat{sakhas} as given in the Purāṇas are also found in the works belonging to Vedic tradition.
- (iii) Epithets of sākhākāras as given in the Purāṇas are found to be corroborated by the works belonging to Vedic tradition.9

Non-Puranic character of śākhāvibhāga

It is to be known that the subject of Vedic $\dot{s}\bar{a}kh\bar{a}$ does not fall under any of the five¹⁰ or ten¹¹ characteristics of the Purāṇas. It is not included even in the materials called $\bar{a}khy\bar{a}na$, $up\bar{\imath}khy\bar{a}na$, $g\bar{a}th\bar{a}$ and $kalpa\dot{s}uddhi$ (or kalpajokti),¹² which were incorporated in the Purāṇa afterwards.

This shows that $\hat{sakhavibhaga}$ does not bear the character of those subjects that are naturally suited to the works of Puranic nature. It can be observed that the enumeration of \hat{sakhas} is neither

- 8. Ibid. Ch. III, Sec. 1.
- 9. As for example the Purāṇas inform us that the Śākhākāra Śākapāṇi was the author of a work on Nirukta (Vāyu-p. 60. 65; Viṣṇu-p. 3.4.33; Brahmāṇḍa-p. 1.35.3)—a fact mentioned in the works like Yāska's Nirukta (4.3). Similarly the epithet padavittama is given to the śākhākāra Śākalya in Vāyu-p. (60.53) and Brahmāṇḍa-p-(1.35.1). That Śākalya was the author of the padapāṭha of the Rgveda is an established fact (See Nirukta 6.28).
- 10. Sarga, pratisarga, vamsa, manyantara and vamsyānucarita or vamsānucarita. For the elucidation of these, see the article प्राणलक्षणानि in Purāṇa Vol. I, No. 2.
- 11. Sarga, visarga, vṛtti, rakṣā, antaras, vaṁśa, vaṁśānucarita, saṁsthā, hetu and apāśraya (Bhāg. 12.7.9). Bhāg. 2.10.1 contains a similar view. See also Br. Vai. 4.131.6-10.
- 12. आख्यानैश्चाप्युपाख्यानैर्गाथाभिः कल्पशुद्धिभिः ।
 पुराणसंहितां चक्रे पुराणार्थंविशारदः ।।
 (Viṣṇu-p. 3.6.16, Vāyu-p. 60.21; Brahmāṇḍa-p. 1.34.21).
 see my पुराणगतवेदविषयक सामग्री का समीक्षात्मक अध्ययन; भूमिका,
 p. 21.

useful (as it serves no secular purpose like the *vaṁša*-lists in the Purāṇas) nor attractive to those authors of the Purāṇas who were votaries of different sects. That is why the section on śākhāvibhāga is found only in a few Purāṇas, namely the Bhāgavata (12. 6-7), the Vāyu (Ch. 60-61), the Brahmāṇḍa (1.34-35) and Viṣṇu (3.4-6). The Agni contains a very brief account (271.1-10) and the Kūrma (1.52) simply mentions the number of śākhās of each of the four Vedas without giving the names of the śākhākāras.

Thus it follows that the Puranic authors received the material of Vedic $\dot{s}\bar{a}kh\bar{a}$ from the teachers of Vedic tradition and included it in the Purāṇa with a view to glorifying Vyāsa and his tradition. It is this purpose that prompted Puranic authors to include this subject. It is remarkable to note in this connection that Vyāsa's connection with the division of the Vedas and their recensions is not mentioned in the work of Vedic tradition, namely Nirukta, Bṛhaddevatā, Anukramaṇī etc.

It can thus be reasonably inferred that many meaningful expressions found in the Puranic chapters on \$\delta kh\ar{a}vibh\ar{a}ga\$ are likely to be found in ancient works. A perusal of the works of Vedic tradition lend strong support to our assumption.

Nature of Vedic śākhās as conceived by Puranic authors

Though the Puranic authors, while referring to a Veda and its recensions, use the world 'tree' and 'branches' respectively, giving rise to the wrong idea that śākhās are the different portions of a Veda (as found in the work of Sāmaśramin), yet there is a clear Puranic passage that removes the wrong idea by showing the true nature of Vedic recensions. The passage reads as under:

सर्वास्ता हि चतुष्पादाः सर्वाश्चैकार्थवाचिकाः । पाठान्तरे पृथग्भूता वेदशाखा यथा तथा ।। 14

- 13. वेददुमं विटपशो विभिजिष्यित स्म (Bhāg. 2.7.36); वेददुमश्च यं प्राप्य सशाखः समपद्यत . . . (Vāyu-p. 1.45); चक्रे वेदतरोः शाखा दृष्ट्वा पुंसोऽल्पमेधसः (Bhāg. 1.3.21); वेदास्ते शाखिनोऽभवन् (Bhāg. 1.4.23); यजुवेदतरोः शाखाः (Viṣṇu-p. 3.5.1; Agni-p. 150.27); etc..
- 14. As this verse occurs in the same section in which the division of the Vedas has been described it may be taken to be of utmost importance.

[Vāyu-p. 61.59; Brahmānda-p. 1.35.67 with the corrupt reading बथाभताः for पथगभताः].

The verse says that all the four recensions of the original Purānasamhitā composed by the disciples of Vyāsa had four sections (padas) each. 15 They had the same subject matter and their difference lay in the difference of readings and not in the difference of contents as is found in the Vedic recensions.

The expression वेदशाखा यथा तथा is highly significant. It undoubtedly shows that the sakhas of a Veda are not the different portions of the Veda, each having its own subject but are the variations of a Vedic text.

Character of composition of the recensions

It is gratifying to note that besides the above-quoted general statement disclosing the real nature of Vedic recensions, there are such Puranic passages as vividly describe the process of composition of these recensions. From these passages it appears that the difference in recensions consists in the difference of accent, letters etc. as well as in the difference in the order of mantras, sūktas etc. The difference of purpose and similar other factors are said to be the causes of such changes.

These Puranic passages 16 assert that one single Veda was divided into four by the sage Vedavyāsa in the Dvāpara yuga and further declare that these Vedas were variously arranged by the

- See Vayu-p. 61.57-61 and Brahmanda-p. 1.35. 63-69 for some details of these Purana-samhitas. See also Visnu-p. 3.6.17-19, Agni-p. 271.11-12 and Bhagavata-p. 12.7.5
- एको वेदश्चतृष्पादः संहत्य तु पुनः पुनः। 16. संक्षेपादायुषश्चैव व्यस्यते द्वापरेष्विह ॥१० वेदश्चैकश्चतुर्घात् व्यस्यते द्वापरादिष । ऋषिपत्रैः प्नवेदा भिद्यन्ते द्ष्टिविभ्रमैः ॥११ तू ब्राह्मणविन्यासैः स्वरक्रमविपर्ययैः। ते संहता ऋग्यजुःसाम्नां संहितास्तैर्महर्षिभिः ॥१२ सामान्याद वैकृताच्चेव दिष्टिभिन्नैः क्वचित्क्वचित् । (Matsya-p. 144.10-13a).

वेदश्चतुष्पादस्त्रेतास्विह विधीयते ॥१० संरोधादायषश्चैव दश्यते द्वापरेष च। वेदन्यासैश्चतुर्घा तु न्यस्यते द्वापरादिषु ॥११ ऋषिपुत्रैः पुनर्वेदा भिद्यन्ते दृष्टिविभ्रमैः। मन्त्रबाह्मणविन्यासैः स्वरवर्णविपर्ययैः ॥१२ संहिता ऋग्यज् :साम्नां संहन्यन्ते श्रतिषिभः । सामान्याद वैकृताच्चैव दृष्टिभिन्नैः ववचित् ववचित् ॥१३ (Vāyu-p. 58.10-13).

वेदश्चतुष्पाद्धि त्रेतास्विह विधीयते। एको संक्षयादायषश्चैव व्यस्यते द्वापरेषु च ॥११ ऋषिमन्त्रात् पुनर्वेदाद् भिद्यते दृष्टिविभ्रमैः। मन्त्रबाह्मणविन्यासैः स्वरवर्णविपर्ययै: ।।१२

संहिता ऋग्यजुःसाम्नां संपठ्यन्ते महर्षिभिः । सामान्या वैकृताश्चैव दुष्टिभिन्ने व चित् क्वचित् ॥१३ (Brahmanda-p. 1.31.11-13).

एको वेदश्चतृष्पादस्त्रेतास्विह विधीयते। संक्षयादायुषश्चीव व्यस्यते द्वापरेष सः ॥ ऋषिपुत्रैः पुनर्भेदा भिद्यन्ते दृष्टिविभ्रमैः। मन्त्रबाह्मणविन्यासैः स्वरवर्णविपर्ययैः ॥ संहिता ऋग्यजुः साम्नां संहन्यन्ते मनीविभि । सामान्या वैकृताश्चैव दुष्टिभिस्तैः पथक् पथक। (Linga-p. 1.39.57-59).

एको वेदश्चतुष्पाद स्त्रेतास्विह विधीयते ॥४३ वेदन्यासैश्चत्र्घा तु न्यस्यते द्वापरादिषु । ऋषिपुत्रैः पुनर्वेदा भिद्यन्ते दृष्टिविभ्रमैः ॥४४ मन्त्रब्राह्मणविन्यासैः स्वरवर्णविपर्ययैः। संहिता ऋग्यजुःसाम्नां प्रोच्यन्ते परमर्षिभः ॥४५

सामान्याद वैकृताश्चैव द्ष्टिभेदैः वत्रचित्रवचित (Kūrma-p. 1.29.43-46a; the cr. ed reads भेदाद भिद्यन्ते in verse 44 and सामान्याद् वैकृताच्चैव in verse 46a).

sons of the sages by changing the accent and letters and also by arranging the *mantras* and $br\bar{a}hmanas$ in various ways. Thus $sa\dot{m}hit\bar{a}s$ of each Veda were prepared, which were mostly similar, though in some places there were differences in them.

Though the readings of theses passages are corrupt in many places, yet the sense is sufficiently clear. The words दृष्टिविभ्रम, मन्त्र- ब्राह्मणिवन्यास, सामान्या and वैकृता and the use of the roots भिद् (भिद्यन्ते) and सम् + हन् (संह्न्यन्ते) are of utmost importance in determing the nature of composition of Vedic recensions. These Puranic passages evidently falsify the view of Sāmašramin. It may be noted in passing that a comparision of the Puranic view as presented in these verses with Sāmašramin's own view about the nature of Vedic $s\bar{a}kh\bar{a}^{17}$ would show that both the views agree in all essential points—a fact which cannot be denied.

Significance of the words vrksa and śākhā in connection with śākhā-vibhāga

Now a question presents itself. If the Puranic authors are considered to be aware of the fact that the śākhās of a Veda are not different portions of the Veda, what is the relevance of using the words 'tree' and 'branches' at the time of referring to a Veda and its recensions? Is a branch not a portion of a tree?

We reply that the use of these two words is to be taken not literally but in a figurative sense. The significance of a simile is to be determined according to the intention of the author, or to the nature of the context or circumstances. Since the Puranic authors were aware of the real nature of Vedic śākhās (as shown above), the simile is to be interpreted in a way that is in consonance with this nature.

According to us the purpose of using the simile is to show (i) similarity and (ii) gradual appearance. To be explicit: As branches of a tree are similar to one another in many respects, so the recensions of a Veda are similar in their verbal form and con-

^{17.} कालभेद-देशभेद-व्यक्तिभेदादिभिः अध्ययनक्रमोच्चारणादिभेदात् क्रमभेदाः पाठभेदाश्च संपन्नाः, तत एव एकस्य वेदस्य बहुनामतो बह्न्यः संहिताः प्रसिद्धिं गताः (Ai. Ālo. p. 124).

tents. Again, as a branch comes out from another similar branch, so the $s\bar{a}kh\bar{a}$ of a teacher becomes the source of other similar $s\bar{a}kh\bar{a}s$ composed by his disciples afterwards.¹⁸

Thus it is clear that Sāmaśramin has misunderstood the significance of the simile of 'tree and its branches'. Consequently his contention that 'as all the branches are the component parts of a tree and as each branch is different from other branches, so all the recensions of a Veda are, according to the Purāṇas, different portions of one and the same Veda' becomes baseless.

If a \$\bar{s}akh\bar{a}\$ is regarded as a Veda (according to Vedic tradition) then what is to be conceived as the tree (branches presuppose the existence of a tree)? Puranic authors seem to think that the \$samhit\bar{a}\$ of each Veda, composed by Vy\bar{a}sa, is to be regarded as the (original) tree, since all later \$samhit\bar{a}s\$ (\$\bar{s}akh\bar{a}s\$) are based on it. We may further add that whenever a \$\bar{s}akh\bar{a}\$ gives rise to another \$\bar{s}akh\bar{a}\$ (i. e. whenever the disciples of a \$\bar{s}akh\bar{a}k\bar{a}ra\$ sage compose new works on the basis of the \$\bar{s}akh\bar{a}\$ taught by their \$\bar{s}akh\bar{a}k\bar{a}ra\$-teacher) the original \$\bar{s}akh\bar{a}\$ must be regarded either as a tree (in a secondary sense) or as a main branch. Puranic authors came to know of this fact and accordingly they used such words as \$anu\bar{s}akh\bar{a}\$ prati\bar{s}akh\bar{a}\$, carana, etc. to show the position occupied by a \$\bar{s}akh\bar{a}\$ in connection with others (see Visnu-p. 3.4.18; 3.4.25; 3.11.15; Bh\bar{a}g. 12.6.52 etc). The original import of these terms remains to be determined.

A study of the relevant works reveal that the conception of tree is Puranic in character, since it is not to be found in the works of Vedic treating, which use the words $\delta \bar{a}kh\bar{a}$, $bh\epsilon da$ and the like subjects.

^{18.} Cp. अनुवदते कट: कलापस्य (Mahābhāṣya 2.4.3.). It shows that the Kaṭha śākhā is based on the Kalāpa śākhā and as such the former is mostly similar to the latter. Some teachers of Vedic tradition expressly declare that the śākhā of Śākalya was the source of five śākhas composed by his disciples.

^{19.} Sabara says वृक्षस्थानीयस्य वेदस्य शाखा; (on MS. 2.4.17). Similarly Kumarila used the word वेदवृक्ष (एकस्य वेदवृक्ष सस्य बहुशाखैकवृक्षवत्) on M. S. 2.4.17. These show the validity of the Puranic conception of वेदवृक्ष in connection with शाखा.

Reasons for the non-mention of śākhās

Now the objection (raised by Sāmaśramin) that 'the well-known Śānkhāyana śākhā of the Rgveda has not been mentioned in the śākhā sections of the Bhāgavata and Viṣṇu Purāṇas—a point which shows the invalidity of the Puranic account of Vedic śākhās'—remains to be solved. We may further add that this śākhā has not been mentioned in the longer lists of śākhās given in the Vāyu and Brahmāṇḍa Purāṇas.

Before stating the reasons for the non-mention we want to say that until critical editions of these Purāṇas, especially of the Vāyu and Brahmāṇḍa Purāṇa, are prepared, nothing can be said definitely regarding the non-mention of a particular śākhā.

Even if we accept that the Śānkhāyanı śākhā has not been mentioned in these four Purāṇas, the reason for this non-mention is not difficult to conceive. It seems that the Puranic authors did not mention it deliberately as they considered it to be a work not belonging to the tradition of Kṛṣṇadvaipāyana Vyāsa. ²⁰ The Puranic authors may be wrong in their supposition, but it cannot be denied that the non-mention is not due to the ignorance of the Puranic authors but to some definite notion. ²¹

The Agni-p. in its brief account of śākhāvibhāga has mentioned the Śānkhāyana śākhā (272.2). (Sāmaśramin has also referred

^{20.} Cp. the Puranic assertion that Vedas were divided many times by Vyāsas in former ages (manvantaras) (Liṅga-p. I. 7; Brahmāṇḍa-p. I. 35 and Viṣṇu-p. III. 3) and that the śākhāvibhāga in all ages is sama, similar (Viṣṇu-p. 3.6.32; Vāyu-p. 61.74; Brahmāṇḍa-p. 1.35.84). This may be taken to mean that the Puranic authors came to know of such śākhās as were not connected with the tradition of Kṛṣṇadvaipāyana Vyāsa.

^{21.} That our assumption, namely 'Puranic authors did not mention those śākhās in their lists of śākhākāras which were not connected with the tradition of Kṛṣṇa-dvaipāyana Vyāsa', is not baseless may be proved from the nonmention of the Śvetāśvatara śākhā in these lists. The sage Śvetāśvatara is said to have lived in the Svāyambhuva manvantara (i.e. he lived long before Kṛṣṇadvaipāyana Vyāsa); see Kūrma-p. 1.14.23-50; Saura-p. 27.12-28. (The Purānic description of this sage is sectarian in character).

to this Agni-p. passage on p. 132). It is connected with the tradition with Vyāsa. This may prove that the Puranic lists of śākhākāras as found in the aforesaid four Purānas are not exhaustive. These should not be taken as absolutely correct.

The Kurma view about the authorship of Vyasa

It is true that according to Kūrma-p. 1.52. 19.20 (quoted as from the Chap. 51 by Sāmaśramin) Vyāsa is said to compose all the recensions of the four Vedas. According to us the Kurmaview is to be taken in a figurative sense. The purpose of this statement seems to glorify Krsnadvaipāyana Vyāsa, the first author of the four-fold division of the Veda (in this manyantara), on the basis of which the śākhās of each Veda were composed by the sages belonging to his school. At the time of glorifying a great personality such figurative sentences are usually used by the Puranas; see Visnu-p. 3.2.56 in which Vyāsa is said to be the author of the śākhās. The purpose of this verse is to glorify Visnu, who appears in the form of Vyasa. These secondary statements were taken afterwards as valid and later authors of the Puranas attributed the authorship of śākhās to Kṛṣṇa-dvaipāyana Vyāsa; Vide Skanda-p. Purusottama 46.11 (शाखासहस्रमतनोत कृष्णद्वैपायनो मनिः).22

Questions arising from Puranic statements

In conclusion I want to submit that there arise some intricate questions from the Puranic statements regarding the division of the Veda and the composition of śākhās that require to be solved. Only two problems are given here by way of sample:

(1) The words ऋच, यजस, सामन and अथर्वन, used in connection with the composition of the four Vedas, must mean the four kinds of mantras as the context shows. That the first three are the three kinds of mantras is well known (vide Mīmāmsā-sūtra 2.1.35-37).

Similar figurative statements are found regarding Pura-22. nic literature also. Though the Puranic authors were aware that one Purāṇa-samhitā was composed by Vyāsa and that several versions or redactions were prepared by his disciples, yet such statements in the Purāṇas are not wanting as declare that all the eighteen Puranas were composed by Krsnadvaipāyana Vyāsa.

Atharvan is not regarded as a kind of mantra like the rc etc. What is the characteristic of the mantras of the Atharvan?

(2) According to the Purāṇas Vyāsa composed the four Vedic samhitās by compiling the mantras only and he taught them to his four disciples. The Puranic view is valid so far as the Rksamhitā is concerned. In the Śuklā-yajuḥ-samhitās there are a good number of mantras of the rc type. A few mantras of the Yajus type are found in the Atharva-samhitā also, Were these mantras incorporated in later times to fulfil some purpose?

BOOK-REVIEW

Vimarsacintamaņi (in Sanskrit)—By Padmabhūṣaṇa Pt. Baladeva Upādhyāya; Publisher : Sarada Samasthana, 37 B, Ravindra Puri, Varanasi-5; pages 385; price Rs. 80/-.

The book under review is a collection of essays (arranged in eight groups) on a variety of subjects concerning the field of Indian Culture and Sanskrit. The work is marked not only by much fresh information about a large number of authors and their works but also by new presentation of old facts. The treatment is descriptive, historical and critical and the language is lucid, graceful and easily understandable. The author, in most cases, has spared no pains in gathering the least bit of information. He has proved that compositions in Sanskrit can be made successfully even while treating a subject through the process of modern research.

Some of the important topics dealt with in the book are: Lives of Kṛṣṇa and Sāyaṇa; scientific basis of the views of Vedānta; Tāntrikī kalā; connection of the Bhojpurī language with the Mahābhāṣya; glory of Sanskrit; discussions on a few works, namely Vākyapadīya, Pārasīka-prakāśa(a grammar of the Persian language in Sanskrit); Bṛhatsaṁhitā and its commentator, Hayata, a work on Arabian jyotiṣa, Bhakticandrikā, Bhaktiratnāvalī, Kāvyālaṅkāra (of Bhāmaha), Vāṅmayārnava (a lexicon), Nāgānanda; a detailed survey of Sanskrit works of various schools composed in Vārāṇasī; informative reviews of a considerable number of books; memoirs of two savants, namely M M. Gopīnātha Kavirāja and M. M. Rāmāvatāra Śarman.

Often the book makes a pleasant and illuminating reading by informing the readers that kerosine oil is called Pārasīka taila (p. 219), that Kālidāsa was called Gālidāsa in the Mongolian language (p. 39); that a library is called pustakāśrama in Cambodia (p. 225).

We thank the author for his careful effort in using the correct forms of a few words, as e. g. he has used the correct form ज्योतिष instead of the incorrect form ज्योतिष that is frequently used by modern scholars of Sanskrit. In a few places we however differ

from him. It is not understood why the suffix त्व has been used in the word द्वापरत्व (p. 151), for द्वापर (meaning a doubt) can itself express the intended sense fully. The word व्यक्तित्व in the sense of personality (p. 240) has been coined in modern times. The use is objectionable as the word व्यक्ति means manifestation, specific appearance or even an individual (opposite to jāti). It never means a person, a man. This wrong use is so deep-rooted that Satyavrata Sāmaśramin used the masculine expression एकव्यक्तिना in his ऐतरयान्होचनम् (p. 122). May we request the versatile author to coin a suitable Sanskrit word for personality? I doubt whether the Hindi expression अपनी रामकहानी can be idiomatically rendered by स्वरामकथा in Sanskrit (p. 42). The use of anusāram in मीमांसाशास्त्रानुसारम् (p. 270) is ungrammatical.

A few quotations require to be corrected. बारे in आत्मा बारे ब्रह्टब्य: (p. 206) must be corrected to बा अरे (the words being बै and अरे; see Br. Up. 2.4.5). In the poem by Pt. Rāmāvatāra Śarman the fourth foot of the 3rd verse विधी हन्त को वर्ततां भेदवाद: (p. 331) does not seem to yield any suitable sense. We have read the line as विचिन्त्येति को वर्ततां भेदवादे in our school days. The book is fairly free from printing mistakes. एक्षो (p. 339; in the Bengali poem by Tagore) should be corrected to एसो.

The octogenerian author, who has devoted his whole life in studying and teaching Sanskrit with a steady mind deserves rich praise for producing a work which will certainly encourage our young scholars to write serious works in Sanskrit.

-R. S. Bhattacharya

ACTIVITIES OF THE ALL-INDIA KASHIRAJ TRUST January-June 1987

Garuda Purāņa Work

Collation of two Bengali manuscripts was completed during this period. The third Bengali manuscript is being collated. The work of critically editing the text of the Garuḍa Purāṇa has been assigned to Dr. N. Gangadharan of the Madras University. He has tentatively edited the first ten chapters of the Garuḍa Purāṇa. He is engaged in editing the remaining chapters. The work of the subject concordance with the Puranas and Epics is also continuing.

Manasakhanda of the Skanda Purana

Further 10 chapters (65-75) were edited during this period.

Śivadharma and Śivadharmottara Purāņas

Some more manuscripts are being examined for the collation of these Purānas.

Veda Pārāyaņa

During the bright half of the month of Māgha (from Māgh Shukla pratipad to Purnima) [30. 1. 87 to 13. 2. 87] the Tattirīya Śākhā of the Krishna Yajurveda was recited in the Vyaśeśvara temple of the Ramnagar Fort. The recitation was made by Pt. Yajna Narayana Sharma Ghanapāthi (A. P.) and Pt. Sriram Ghanapāthi was the Śrotā. After the successful conclusion of the Pārāyaṇa the usual Dakṣiṇā and food was given to the reciter and the Śrotā.

Visitors to the Purana Deptt.

During the period the following persons visited the Purāṇa Deptt. and they were informed about the activities of the Deptt. The Scholars eulogised the activities of the Trust and the Purāṇa Department.

Prof. P. Sriram Murti, Professor of Sanskrit, Andhra University, Visakhapatnam. 19. 3. 87.

He remarks in the Visitor Book.

- "I deem it a privilege to visit the Institute which has been devoting itself to the edition of the Purāṇas and their Critical studies. The work deserves richly more encouragement and reinforcement of the staff to take up more work and complete in a shorter time. Their new scheme of publications in regional languages is praiseworthy. I wish them all success and godspeed."
- 2. Dr. Mohd. Ayub Khan, Professor and Head of the Sanskrit Deptt., Kashmir University writes: "I have a great pleasure to visit the Institute and was very much impressed by the work being done by this unit. The work done specially on Puranas is praiseworthy. I wish all success in the future programme of the Institute."

 Srinagar. 1.4.1987.
- 3. Sri R. S. V. Ratnam, Veda-Vigyan Mahavidyapeeth, Bangalore.
- 4. Dr. John Mitchiner Second Secretary (Development) British High Commission, New Delhi

ACTIVITIES OF THE SISTER TRUSTS Maharāja Benaras Vidyāmandir Trust: Dhrupad Melā

Dhrupad Melā organised by this Trust was held during the whole three nights on February 24-26, 1987 at Tulasi Ghat named after Goswami Tulasidas, the famous saint and author of the Rāmacharitamānasa. It was the Twelth year of the Melā. Maharaja Kumar Sri Anant Narain Singh, inaugurated the Melā by lighting the lamp. In his inaugural speech Maharaja Kumar traced the History of this Melā and said that encouraged by this Melā various private and Government agencies had organised such Melās at different places of the country. He also mentioned with gratitude the help and co-operations rendered by different persons and agencies to this Melā. The Melā was very successful and thousands of people, both Indian and foreigners attended it all three days.

On the first day of the Melā, on 24 February 1987, after the inaugural speach of Maharaja Kumar Sri Anant Narain Singh, the second Volume of the Dhrupad Annual, which was brought out on this occasion, was released by the distinguished scholar and former Member of the Lok Sabha, Dr. Raghunath Singh. Dr. Raghunath Singh was kind enough to attend the inaugural function in spite of his indifferent health. The "Dhrupad Annual" is solely devoted to the different aspects of Dhrupad and is unique of its kind. Not only Indian but foreign scholars also have showed their interest in this journal and in both the issues foreign scholars have also contributed to this journal. We are thankful to its editor, Prof. Prem Lata Sharma, Vice-Chancellor of the Indira Kala Sangeet Vishwavidyalaya, Khanagarh, for her best efforts to bring out this journal with unique distinction.

Mangalotsava

This year the Mangalotsva organised by this Trust was held on 17th March 1987 at the premises of Ramnagar Fort. Famous artists, both vocalists and instrumentalists participated in this function.

Maharaja Udit Narayan Singh Manasa Prachar Nidhi

Under the auspices of this Trust in the bright half of Vaiśākha month the Rāmacharitamānas was recited and discourses on it were delivered in evening from Pratipad to Navamī tithis of the lunar month (from 30th April to 8th May 1987) in the Kālī mandir of Chakia. A large number of listeners daily heard the discourses. His Highness Maharaj Dr. Vibhuti Narain Singh also attended the kathā in the evening. On the concluding day a Bhaṇḍāra was arranged to feed the Sants and Pandits. Among the prominent Vyāsas who gave discourses this year were Sri Shyam Narain Vyasa, Sri Ram Lakhan Dwivedi and Sri Kashi Nath Vyasa.

पुराणम्

(भागः-२९; ग्रङ्कः.-२)

PURĀNA

(Vol. XXIX. 2)

संस्कृत-खण्डः

संस्कृतविद्वांसोऽभ्यर्थ्यन्ते यत्ते पुराणपत्रिकायां प्रकाशनार्थम् (१) पुराणगत-दर्शनशास्त्र-धर्मशास्त्रादि-विषयकान् लेखान्, (२) पुराणोक्त-दुरूहार्थकास्पष्टार्थकवचनव्याख्यापरान् लेखांश्च प्रेषये-युरिति ।

आङ्गलभाषानिबद्धानां लेखानां संक्षेपाः

अवतारसिद्धान्तस्य काचिदभिनवा व्याख्या

A NEW INTERPRETATION OF THE DOCTRINE OF AVATĀRA

Y. KRISHAN

अव + तृधातोरर्थः 'अवतरणं स्वस्य प्रकटनं' च । ततश्चावतारशब्दास्यार्थः स्वर्लोकाद् भगवतोऽवतरणम्, पृथिब्यां भगवत आविर्भावः । वस्तुतो विष्णोर्दशा-विर्भावा मत्स्यादिका अवताररूपेण गण्यन्ते ।

कर्मवादेन सहावतारसिद्धान्तस्य यः सम्बन्धः सोऽत्र विचार्यते । यदा धर्मस्य ग्लानिर्भवति, अघर्मस्य चाभ्युत्थानं तदा भगवान् अवतरित—इति गोतायामुक्तम् । साधूनां परित्राणाय, दुष्कृतां विनाशाय, धर्मस्य संस्थापनाय च भगवान् प्रति-युगमाविर्भवतीत्यिप चोक्तम् ।

धर्मः स्वर्गमोक्षप्रापणहेतुभूतो विधिन्यायदण्डरूपश्च । अवतारस्य कर्म जीवानां रक्षणं न पुनर्जीवेभ्यो मोक्षस्य दानिमिति विज्ञेयम् । गीतायाम् अन्यत्र चावतार-परका ये निर्देशास्तेभ्यो विज्ञायते को हेतुरवतारस्य, किमुद्देश्यं कि स्वरूपं कश्च काल इति ।

कृतादयश्चत्वारो युगाः। कृतयुगे धर्मश्चतुष्पाद्, त्रेतादिषु एकैकपादहीनो धर्मो जातः। चतुष्पादधर्मयुते कृतयुगे मत्स्यादयश्चत्वारोऽवताराः, त्रेतायां वामन-परशुराम-रामाः, द्वापरान्ते कृष्णः, कलौ बुद्धकल्की इति। कृतयुगे धर्मः परिपूर्णः, अतोऽस्मिन् युगेऽवतारस्य नास्ति किमपि प्रयोजनम्। त्रेतायामपि धर्मस्य प्राधान्यमतो नास्त्यवतारस्य प्रयोजनमस्मिन् युगे।

सर्वेऽवतारा नाधर्मस्य नाशं कुर्वन्तीति दृश्यते। मत्स्यकूर्मवराहकृतानि कर्माणि न खल्वधर्मनाशकारकाणि। धर्मानुष्ठानपरायणो बलि वीमनरूपेण विष्णुना छलेन विजितः। हिरण्यकिशपुना न विष्णुं प्रति अपराधोऽनुष्ठितः, तथापि सहतो विष्णुना। बहवः क्षत्रियाः परशुरामेण निहताः, स च रामेण दाशरिथना पराभूतः। परशुरामकाले धर्मस्य ग्लानिर्न जाता।

रावणकंसकृताधर्मनाशाय राम-कृष्णौ अवतीर्णौ । नृसिहावतारेणांशतोऽधर्म-नाशः कृत इति कथयितुं शक्यते । सत्यत्रेतायुगयोरवतीर्णानाम् अवताराणां कि प्रयोजनिमिति प्रश्न उदेति । नास्तिकमोहकारिणो बुद्धावतारस्यापि कर्म अवतारो-चितमिति न प्रतिभाति । मोहजननं न प्रशंसास्पदं कर्म भवित सर्वशक्तेरीश्वरस्य । अतएव बुद्धस्य अवतारत्वं कुमारिलेन नाभ्युपगतम् । केषुचित् पुराणेष्विप बुद्धो-ऽवताररूपेणोक्तः, बलरामो बुद्धस्य स्थाने खलूकः । अवतारसंख्याविषये दृश्यन्ते मतभेदाः ।

अवतारस्वरूपस्य बीजरूपेण चिन्तनं वेदेऽपि दृश्यते । पल्लिवतोऽवतारवादो महाभारते । गीतायाम् अवतारप्रयोजनरूपेण यदुक्तं न तत् सर्वं मत्स्यकूर्मवराह-वामनेषु दृश्यते । कृष्णस्य अवतारत्वं सर्वथा संगतम् प्रतिभाति । कृष्णमाश्रित्यैव अवतारस्वरूपं चिन्तितम्; ततश्च अन्येषु अवतारत्वम् आरोपितिमत्युपपद्यते । दुष्कृतिकारिध्वंसरूपं यत् कर्मं तत् स्वयमेवावतारेण करणीयमित्यपि न कथियतुं शक्यते; पुरुषान्तरं प्रेरियत्वापि नाशोऽयं कृत इति दृश्यते—दुर्योधनादीनां वधः कारितः कृष्णेन । कृष्णस्योपदेशकत्वम् अनुकरोति बुद्ध-महावीरयोरुपदेशकत्वम् ।

सर्वज्ञसर्वशक्तीश्वरस्वरूपेण सह कर्मसिद्धान्तस्य विरोधो दृश्यते (अवतारा ईश्वरस्यैव रूपान्तराणि)। अवतारा अपि कर्मभ्यो न प्रभवन्तोति पुराणकारा अपि दर्शयन्ति । तपश्चरणफलभूतं यद् बलमधिगतं हिरण्यकशिपुप्रभृतिभिः, तद् यावत् स्थास्यति न तावत्तान् कश्चिदपि हन्तुं प्रभवेत्—इति पुराणवचनात् कर्मफलस्य सामर्थ्यं विज्ञायते। सर्वे प्राणिनः स्व-स्व-कर्मणां फलानि अवश्यं भुञ्जी-युरिति प्रदर्शितं पुराणेषु । कर्मबन्धनं न स्वतो नश्यति, तपसा ज्ञानाभ्यासेन च तस्य क्षयो भवति। अतएव अवतारा अपि कर्माधीना इति कानिचन पुराणानि कथयन्ति, किं कर्म कस्यावतारस्य हेतुरित्यपि तैर्दर्शितम्।

वस्तुतः कर्मसिद्धान्तप्रतिष्ठार्थं मवतारा आविर्भवन्ति । धर्मो नाम पुण्यकर्मा-चरणम् । अस्य धर्मस्य मर्यादा युगभेदेन भिद्यते । तदिदं 'राजा कालस्य कारणम्' इत्येवंविधवचनेभ्यः सिद्ध्यति । युगप्रवर्तको राजेति विज्ञायते । राजकृता धर्मा-धर्माः प्रजाकृत-धर्माधर्माणां हेतवो भवन्ति । इदं प्रतीयते—अवतारप्रसंगे यो युगस्योल्लेखः, स राष्ट्रं (देशं, समाजं च) लक्षयति । राष्ट्रे (राजनैतिकाधिक-सामाजिक-जीवने) यदा केनचिद् हेतुना अनीतिः प्रब्रलतां भजते, तदा अवतारा आविर्भवन्ति ।

सर्व जना अस्मिन् जन्मिन जन्मान्तरे वा स्वस्वकर्मणां फलान्यश्वयं भोकार इति कर्मिसद्धान्तेन प्रतिपाद्यते । देशराष्ट्रसमाजगताया दुष्कृतेध्वंसाय जनैः कालः प्रतीक्षितन्यः—एवंविधा दुष्कृतिर्नेकेन पुरुषेण अपाकर्तुं शक्यते । एतदर्थम् अवतारा आवश्यकाः । ईदृशदुष्कृतेर्नाशो मयैव कर्त्तन्य इति मत्वा सर्वज्ञः सर्वशक्तिरीश्वरः स्वयमाविभैवति । ऐशं कर्मेदं न कर्मसद्धान्तेन नियन्त्रितं भवति । दुष्कृतिनः

प्रति दण्डस्य यद् विधानं तद् ऐशं कर्म । अस्य कर्मणोऽनुरूपं कर्म राजकृतं दण्ड-विधानम् । मात्स्यन्यायो न प्रभवेदिति मत्वा यः महान् पुरुषः कर्मानुतिष्ठति स एवावताररूपेण संमानितो भवति । 'दण्डो दमयतामहम्' इति गीतावचनं दण्डस्यै-शरूपतां प्रकटयति ।

भविष्यपुराणगत-मदनमहोत्सववर्णने वसन्तोत्सवः

THE SPRING FESTIVAL IN THE MADANAMAHOTSAVA-VARŅANAM OF THE BHAVIŞYA-PURĀŅA

L. ANDERSON

भारतीयं चैत्रोत्सवं वसन्तोत्सवं वा वर्णयन्तो विद्वांसो भविष्यपुराणगतं मदनमहोत्सववर्णनाध्यायम् आकरग्रन्थरूपेण उदाहरन्ति । अध्यायेऽस्मिन् मदनदहनं वर्णितम् । अस्याध्ययनं वसन्तोत्सवरहस्य-ज्ञानायावश्यकम् ।

भविष्यपुराणे परस्परिवलक्षणा विषयाः प्रतिपादिताः । पुराणिमदं नात्यन्तं प्राचीनम् । एकादशशताब्दीतः पश्चादिष केचनांशा अस्मिन् पुराणे संयोजिताः । आपस्तम्बधर्मसूत्रोक्तं भविष्यत्पुराणं प्रचलिताद् भविष्यपुराणाद् भिन्नमेव ।

भविष्ये (उत्तर० १३५ अ०) उक्तम्—चैत्रशुक्लत्रयोदश्यामुत्सवोऽयमनुष्ठितो भवित । अत्र कुद्धेन शिवेन कामस्य दहनम्, कामपत्न्या रतिविलापः, गौरीकर्तृकं शिवप्रसादनं च विणतम् । शिवेनोक्तम् चैत्रशुक्लत्रयोदश्यां कामः पुनरुद्भूतो भविष्यित प्रतिवत्सरम् । वसन्तोत्सवः कथमनुष्ठेय इत्यप्यत्र विशेषेणोक्तम् (१९-३६ श्लोकेषु) ।

अत्रेदं विज्ञेयं यद् वसन्तोत्सवेन चैत्रोत्सवेन वा सह कामस्य पुनरुज्जीवनं संयोजितम्। कामो वस्तुतः कामुकतायाः प्रतोकः। अतः तस्य संबन्धः फल-प्रदातृत्वेन अबन्ध्यत्वेन च सह विद्यते। रात्रिजागरणम् (कोजागरनामकम्) चात्र विहितम्। लक्ष्मीपूजया सहास्य जागरणस्य संबन्धः। ब्रह्मणो मनसः कामो जातो जन-संमोहनकरणायेति पुराणेषूक्तम्। मैथुनवृत्तेरुद्बोधनं कामस्य मुख्यं कर्मं। वसन्तोत्सवविलासनामके गुजरातीभाषामयकाव्ये कामस्य शक्तिर्वणिता। कामभावनोत्पादाय दाम्पत्त्यसुखवृद्धये च काम उपास्यते। किंच ध्वंसकारिणा

शिवेन सह सृष्टिप्रवृत्त्युन्मुखस्य कामस्य विरोधः प्रामुख्येन दिशतः शास्त्रेषु काव्येषु च । वसन्तर्तुंना सह कामस्य शाश्वतिकः संबन्धोऽपि सर्वत्रोक्तः ।

ष्रह्मणा भीतेन इन्द्रेण वा प्रेरितः कामः शिवाभिभवाय प्रायतत—इत्युच्यते । यथा इन्द्रस्य तथा ब्रह्मणश्च स्वभावे कामासिक्तर्वर्तते (ब्रह्मा स्वतनयां चकमे)। ध्वंसाधिदेवे शिवे प्रेमापि विराजते—इति ज्ञातव्यम् । शिवेन कामे दग्धे सित शिवमनिस विवाहेच्छा प्रादुर्वभूव । कामो यथा न कमिप मोहयेत् इति चिन्तयित्वा शिवः कामं ददाह । दहनानन्तरं कामस्य भस्मैवावशिष्टम् । भस्म जीवनस्य मृत्योश्च प्रतीकभूतम् । पापक्षालनाय शरीरे भस्मलेपनं क्रियते । भस्मनो यो मिहमा शिवेनोक्तः तेन गम्यते भस्म यथा कस्यचिद् अन्तं ज्ञापयित तथा कस्यचिद् आरम्भमिप । विवाहानन्तरं शिवेन कामस्य भस्म दृष्टम्, ततश्च स कामम् जीवितं चकारेति क्वचिदुच्यते ।

कामस्येदं पुनर्जन्म वसन्तोत्सवस्य तात्पर्यम् । कामः कृष्ण-रुक्मिणी-सुत-प्रद्युम्नरूपेण पुनः प्रादुर्बभूव द्वारकायाम् । अयं काम-प्रद्युम्नसंबन्धो वसन्तोत्सवम् अधुनातन-होल्युत्सवेन सह संबध्नाति । अस्मिन् उत्सवे कृष्णस्य मुख्यं स्थानं लक्षणोयम् । कामो वस्तुतः शिवेन नात्यन्तं पराभूत इत्येतद् एतदुत्सवेन व्यज्यते ।

दक्षिणभारते 'कामन्दी'-उत्सवोऽनुष्ठीयते यत्र काममरणकथा गीयते। कामिवरहपीडिता रितः चत्वारिशद् दिनानि तपश्चचारेति प्रसिद्धिदंक्षिणभारते विद्यते। शारदोत्सवाः केचन वसन्तर्नुं-कालिकैरुत्सवैः सह संयोजिताः। शारद इन्द्रमहोत्सवो वसन्तकालिकोऽपि दृश्यते।

वसन्तोत्सव इव कौमुदीमहोत्सवोऽिष प्रामुख्यं भजते । नारदपुराणे व्रतिमदं विशेषेणोपर्वाणतम् । कौमुदोमहोत्सवेऽिष जागरणं विहितम् कौमुदोजागरणिमिति शब्दः कोजागररूपेण परिणत इति संभाव्यते । लक्ष्मी-काम-वसन्तोत्सवसंबद्धानां कृत्यानां मेलनं श्रीपञ्चम्यां दृश्यते । वसन्तनवरात्रान्तर्गतेयम् । पुराणसमुच्चये श्रीपञ्चमीतिशब्दः प्रयुक्तः ।

उपसंहारे इदं दक्तव्यं यत् कामस्य मरण-पुनराविर्भावयोः पुराणोक्तयोः किमिप रहस्यमस्ति । कामः शैवपरम्परासंबद्धः शिवाधीनश्चः; स च विह्निना दग्धः । नाशसर्जनिवपरिणामकारकः खल्विग्नः । वसन्तोत्सवो नूनं जीवनमृत्युचक्रप्रतीक-भूतः । कामस्य वसन्तस्य पुनरागमनं नियतमेव । शिवपार्वतीमेलनं तयोः सुतप्राप्तिश्चेत्येतत् सर्वं कामेन सूच्यते । ध्वंस-पुनरुत्पत्त्योनियतः संबन्धो भविष्य-पुराणर्वाणतेन वसन्तोत्सवेन व्यज्यते—इति निश्चप्रचम् ।

भारते तान्त्रिकधर्म-सौरधमौं : एतद्विषये किमिप इतिवृत्तपरं परिप्रेक्षणम्

TANTRICISM AND THE SUN-CULT IN INDIA: A HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

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अभ्युदयिनः श्रेयसयोः, धर्मार्थकाममोक्षाणां वा साधनं जीवने कर्तव्यमिति भारतीया परम्परा। तदिदं साधनं बहु सम्प्रदायिवभक्तम्—वैदिकपौराणिक-तान्त्रिकभेदै स्तत् प्रधानतस्त्रिधा भिद्यते। एषु तान्त्रिकसाधनपरम्परात्यन्तं प्राचीना—वेदादिप प्राचीनतरेति सम्भाव्यते। साधनमिदं गुप्तराज्यकालानन्तरं सर्वव्यापि जातम्—सर्वे शैवादिमार्गास्तन्त्रप्रभाविताः सम्पन्नाः।

सौरधर्मः प्रागैतिहासिककाले आविभूतः, सन् क्रमशो विकाशमापन्नो मध्य-युगे सर्वेषु संप्रदायेष्वनुप्रविष्टः । सौरधर्मे तन्त्रस्य प्रभावः कीदृश इति विषयमिध-कृत्य पूर्णाङ्गो विचारोऽद्यापि न कृतः । सूर्योपासनामिधकृत्य केचन ग्रन्था इदानीं विद्वद्भिः प्रणीताः । साम्बपुराणे या सूर्योपासना सा तन्त्रदृष्टिभूयिष्ठेति दृश्यते । अत्रापि स्त्रीरूपिणी सूर्यशक्तिनोक्ता ।

सौरधर्मे तन्त्रस्य प्रभावः कोनार्कस्य-सूर्यमन्दिरदर्शनतः सिद्धो भवति । अत्र तन्त्रोक्ताः काश्चन मूर्तयोऽङ्किताः । स्त्रीष्ट्रीयत्रयोदशशताब्द्यां मूर्तिरियं निर्मिता । द्वादशशताब्दीतः तन्त्रधर्मस्य प्रभावः सौरधर्मे वृद्धि गतः । एवं सत्यपि सूर्यपत्नीनां छायासंज्ञादीनां मूर्तयो नोपलभ्यन्ते ऽत्र ।

सौरधर्में तन्त्रस्य प्रभावः कीदृश आसीदिति तु पुराणतो विज्ञायते । अग्निपुराणस्य केषुचिद् अध्यायेषु प्रतिपादिता सूर्यपूजा तान्त्रिकधर्मबहुला । सूर्योऽत्र ब्रह्मविष्णुशिवरूपः । गारुडे सूर्यः शिवादिभन्नः । अत्र तन्त्रोक्ता मन्त्रयन्त्रादय उक्ताः । नारदीयपुराणेऽपि तन्त्रोक्तर्यंन्त्रैः न्यासादिभिः सूर्यपूजा विहिता । पद्मपुराणेऽपीदृशी पूजा विहिता शारीरमानसरोगप्रशमनाय । अग्निपुराणस्य त्रिषु अध्यायेषु सौरधर्मस्य प्रतिपादनं संक्षेपेण कृतम् । तन्त्रदृष्टिबहुलमिदम् । एषु अध्यायेषु बीजमन्त्राणां मुद्राणां ग्रहपूजाया न्यासानांचेल्लेखो विद्यते; तान्त्रिका मन्त्रा अपि दिश्वताः । विद्याविद्यादिपरस्परविरुद्धपदार्थानां सामरस्यमत्र दिश्वतम् । नवानां सूर्यशक्तीनां दीप्तादीनां पूजापि विहिता । अत्रोक्ताः काश्चन शक्तयस्तन्त्रेऽपि

उल्लिखताः । नव दुर्गा इव इमा नव शक्तय इति प्रतिभाति । मार्तण्डभैरवमन्त्रो-ऽपि उक्तः । सूर्यस्य पञ्चानां रूपाणां पूजा विहिता । मारणादि-षट्-कर्मणां तन्त्र-शास्त्रप्रसिद्धानां विवरणमपि प्रदत्तम।

साम्बपुराणं सौरधमं विशेषेण प्रतिपादयति । अस्मिन् तान्त्रिकः प्रभावः स्फुटमवलोक्यते । अत्र सूर्यस्य नवानां शक्तीनां विवरणमुपलभ्यते । मार्तण्ड-भैरवोऽत्र शैवप्रभावशून्यः। अत्रापि तन्त्रानुमता मन्त्र मण्डल-न्यास-जप-ध्यान-चक्रादय उक्ताः, वशीकरणादिकर्माणि च । अग्नि-साम्बप्राणगते विवरणे वेद-मन्त्रादीनाम् उल्लेखो न विद्यते ।

साम्बपुराणे सूर्यः सकल-निष्कलरूपेण वर्णितः। अकारादीन्यक्षराणि सूर्य-स्याङ्गरूपेण दिशतानि । अक्षरेभ्यो जगतः सृष्टिर्भवति -- इति यत् तान्त्रिकं मतं तदनेन ध्वनितम्। बीज-वर्ण-योनितत्त्वानि सूर्यात्मकानि--इत्यप्युक्तम्। सूर्यस्य नाम्नां तात्पर्यमत्र दिशतम् -- एभिर्नामभिः सूर्यस्य महत्ता ज्ञाप्यते; सूर्यां-शभूताः सर्वे देवा इति नामतात्पर्यतः सिद्धं भवति। सूर्यः शिवादभिन्न इति प्रदर्शितमत्र। सूर्यमहिम-प्रतिपादकं सौरपुराणमपि वस्तुतः शैवपुराणविशेष इति प्रत्यक्षतो दश्यते।

स्त्रीरूपस्य शक्तितत्त्वस्य प्रतिपादनं तन्त्रशास्त्रस्य मुख्यं वैशिष्ट्यम् । सूर्यस्य बह्वयः पत्न्य इतिहासपुराणे उक्ताः, साम्बपुराणेऽपि आसां विवरणम् उपलभ्यते । पत्नीरूपा इमाः शक्तयो बहून् व्यापारान् विद्धति । अस्ति काचिद् विशिष्टा सौर-शक्तिः, तया च सह सप्त मातुकाः संबद्धाः।

यद्यपि तन्त्रमपि दार्शनिकप्रस्थानिवशेषः, तथापि विशेषेणेदमुपासनान्युप-दिशति, यानि सिद्धिप्राप्तिहेतुभूतानि । तन्त्रस्येदं स्वरूपं साम्बपुराणगते सौरधर्म-विवरणेऽपि दृश्यते । पुराणेऽस्मिन् सौरी दीक्षा, तान्त्रिकी गायत्री, पूजाविधिः, तत्त्वन्यासो, मण्डलनिर्माणम् इत्येते ये विषयाः वर्णितास्ते सर्वे तन्त्रमार्गानु-सारिणः । द्वादशादित्यनामान्यपि न स्मृत्युक्तानि, प्रत्युत विलक्षणान्येव । तान्त्रिक्यो मुद्राइच विहिताः सर्वत्र । वाममार्गीयाः काश्चन क्रियाः, विशेषतश्च पञ्चमकार-प्रिक्रिया सूर्यपूजाप्रसंगे उक्ताः। एवं सत्यपि नैतिकधर्मोपदेशो बहुधोक्तोऽत्र। अष्टदिव्यगुणप्रतिपादकरूपेण अष्टपुष्पाणां या चर्या कृता सा मननीया। पुराणे-ऽस्मिन् यथा वेदानुयायी तन्त्रधर्मः प्रतिपादितस्तथा अवैदिकस्तन्त्रधर्मोऽपि। अतएव सौरधर्म प्रतिपादनमपि द्विधा भिन्नम् । नैतिकाचारबहुलः सौरधर्मो वेदानु-यायितन्त्रकर्मप्रभावितः, दुराचरणस्पर्शयुक्तः सौरधर्मी वाममार्गप्रभावितः, प्रभावोऽयं कोनार्कस्थमूर्तिदर्शनतोऽवगम्यते ।

वैदिकशाखास्वरूपविषयकस्य पौराणिकमतस्य न्याय्यता

VALIDITY OF THE PURANIC VIEW ABOUT THE NATURE OF VEDIC RECENSIONS

RAM SHANKER BHATTACHARYA

सत्यवतसामश्रमि-नामधेयो विद्वान् ऐतरेयालोचनग्रन्थे कथयति यद् भागवत-विष्णुपूराणयोयिद्शः शाखाविभाग उक्तः, ततः 'शाखा वेदांशविशेषः' इति सूच्यते । एकस्य वस्तुनोंऽशा यथा परस्परं भिन्ना भवन्ति, सर्वेषामंशानां मेलनेन यथा वस्तू पूर्णं भवति तथा एकस्य वेदस्य शाखाः परस्परं भिन्नाः (शब्ददृष्ट्या विषयदृष्ट्या च); सर्वासां शाखानां मेलनेन च कश्चिद् वेदः पूर्णो भवति । इयं पौराणिकी दृष्टि वैदिकसंप्रदायविरुद्धा-शाखा न वेदांशभूतेति वैदिकी दृष्टि:। किंचातिप्रसिद्धा शाङ्ख्यायनी शाखा न पुराणगतशाखाप्रकरणेषुका । इदं पुराण-काराणां वेदानभिज्ञतां सूचयति । अपि च यतः सर्वासां शाखानाम् अध्ययनं न कश्चित् कर्तुं शक्नुयात्, अतः 'कृत्स्नो वेदोऽधिगन्तव्यः' इति स्मार्तं मतम् असिद्धं स्यात् । वेदव्यासस्य सर्वशाखाप्रणेतृत्वं यत् पुराणेषूक्तं तन्मुधैव । (शाखा = संहिता)।

उपर्युक्तं सामश्रमिमतमापातरमणीयं, यक्तिविरुद्धं चेति लेखेऽस्मिन प्रदिशतम।

आदाविदं विज्ञेयं यत् पुराणकारा वेदविषये खल्वज्ञाः—इति कथनमपार्थक-मेव, यतः (१) पुराणोक्तानां सूक्तानुवाकादीनाम् उल्लेखो वेदेषु दृश्यते; (२) पुराणोक्तानि यज्ञविवरणानि सूत्रग्रन्थानुसारीणीति दृष्यते; (३) मन्त्रादीनां पुराणो-क्तानि लक्षणानि वैदिकपरम्परानुमतानि; पुराणगतानि वैदिकानि मतानि आख्या-नानि च वेदेषपलभ्यन्ते । किंच शाखासंख्याविषये, शाखाकारनामविषये, शाखा-कारस्वरूपविषये यत् पुराणेषुक्तं तत्सर्वं समीचीनमेवेति दृश्यते ।

शाखाविभागविषयोऽयं सर्गादिविषया इव न पुराणस्वभावानुगतः । वेदव्यास-महिमप्रदर्शनार्थमेव विषयोऽयं पुराणकारैक्कः। विषयोऽयं वैदिकसंप्रदायादेव संगृहीतः पुराणकारैः । नायं विषयस्तैः स्वमनीषिकया चिन्तितः ।

पुराणकारे वैंदिशाखास्वरूपं सम्यग् ज्ञातम् इत्यस्मिन् विषये 'सर्वास्ता हि चतुष्पादाः विदशाखा यथा तथा' इति श्लोकः प्रमाणम् । किंच शाखानां (संहितानां) या प्रणयनरीतिः केष्चित् पुराणेषूक्ता, तत इदं विज्ञायते यद् एकस्य वेदस्य शाखा परस्परं सद्शा यत एतासां शाखानां वाक्यानि विषयाश्च

न परस्परम् अतितरां भिद्यन्ते। मन्त्रादीनां क्रमे भिन्नता बहुत्रावलोक्यते। वस्तुतः कालभेददेशभेदानुष्ठानभेदादिभिः अध्ययनक्रमोच्चारणादिभेदात् क्रमभेदाः पाठभेदाश्च सम्पन्नाः, तत एव एकस्यैव वेदस्य बहुनामतो बह्वयः संहिताः प्रसिद्धिं गताः—इति सामश्रमिमतमेव पुराणकाराणामपि अनुमतम्।

संहितार्थे शाखाशब्दस्य यः प्रयोगः सोऽपि सार्थक एव । वृक्षशाखानां परस्परम् सादृश्यमिव एकस्य वेदस्य शाखानां सादृश्यम् अस्तिः किंच यथा काचित् शाखा शाखान्तराद् उद्भूता भवित, तथा एका शाखा बहूनां शाखानाम् आधारभूता भवित । शाखासु जन्यजनकभावः प्राधान्याप्राधान्यभावो विद्यते—इति स्वीकरणीयम् । अतएव शाखानामन्योन्यसंबन्धप्रदर्शनाय अनुशाखा-प्रतिशाखा-चरणादिशब्दाः पुराणकारैः प्रयुक्ताः ।

वायुत्रह्माण्डगतशाखाप्रकरणे शाङ्क्षायनीतिशाखाया योऽनुल्लेखः स सहेतुकः । शाखेयं कृष्णद्वैपायनपरम्परायां न प्रणीतिति संभाव्यते । शाखाप्रकरणीयः पुराणपाठो न सर्वथा शुद्ध इत्यतः शाखाया अस्या नाम नास्मिन् प्रकरणे दृश्यते— इत्यिप कथियतुं शक्यते । व्यासेन सर्वाः शाखाः प्रणीता इति यत् कूर्मपुराणे उक्तं सोक्तिः व्यासप्रशंसापरेति प्रतिभाति ।

पुराणगतशाखाप्रकरणीय-वचनदर्शनेन काश्चन शङ्का विदुषां मनिस प्रादुर्भ-वन्ति । एवंविधे द्वे शङ्के लेखान्ते दर्शिते ।

सर्वभारतीय-काशिराजन्यासस्य कार्यविवरणम्

(जनवरी-जून १९८७)

गरुडपुराणसंबन्धि कार्यम्

अस्मिन् मासषट्के द्वयो वंङ्गिलिपिहस्तलेखयोः पाठसंवादकायं पूर्णतां गतम् । गरुडपुराणस्य पाठसमीक्षितसंस्करण-संपादनकार्यस्य दायित्वं मद्रपुरीविश्व-विद्यालयाध्यापकाय अ० एन० गङ्गाधरन् महाभागाय सम्पितमस्ति । तेन प्रारम्भिकदशाध्यायानां सम्पादनं विहितम् । अग्रिमाध्यायानां सम्पादने सः संलग्नोऽस्ति । विषयसंवादकार्यमपि क्रियमाणं वर्तते ।

स्कन्दपुराणीय-मानसलण्डस्य सम्पादनम्

स्कन्दपुराणीय-मानसखण्डस्याग्रिमदशाध्यायां (६६-१९५) सम्पादनं पूर्णं जातम्।

शिवधर्मपुराणं शिवधर्मोत्तरपुराणं च

अनयोः पुराणयोः पाठसंवादनिमित्तं केषाञ्चिदन्येषां हस्तलेखानां परीक्षणं विहितमस्मिन् कार्यावधौ ।

वेदपारायणम्

माघमासस्य शुक्लपक्षे प्रतिपत्तिथिमारभ्य पूर्णिमातिथिपर्यंन्तं (३०.१.८६ दिनाङ्कमारभ्य १३.२.८७ दिनाङ्कं यावत्) रामनगरदुर्गस्थिते व्यासेश्वरमन्दिरे कृष्णयजुर्वेदस्य तैत्तिरीयशाखायाः पारायणं जातम्। पारायणकर्ता पं० यज्ञनारायणशर्मा घनपाठिमहोदय आसीत् । श्रोता च पण्डित श्रीरामघनपाठिमहोदयः। पारायणसमाप्तौ पाठकर्त्रे पाठश्रोत्रे च विहिता दक्षिणा भोजनादिकं च प्रदत्तम्।

पुराणविभागे आगता विद्वांसः

अस्मिन् मासषट्के अधोनिर्दिष्टा विद्वांसः पुराणविभागम् आगताः, अत्रत्य-कार्यजातेन च परिचायिताः । विद्विद्भः न्यासस्य पुराणसंबधिकार्यजातस्य प्रशंसनं कृतम् ।

- १. प्रो० पी० श्रीराममूर्तिमहोदयः, आन्ध्रविश्वविद्यालयस्य संस्कृतप्राध्यापकः (१०.३.८७ दिनाङ्के)—एष महाभागः दर्शकपुस्तिकायां लिखिति—अहं पुराणानां संपादने समीक्षिताध्ययने च संलग्निमदं संस्थानं दृष्ट्वान्। अस्मै कार्याय अधिकसाहाय्यस्य अपेक्षा वर्तते येन अधिका विद्वांसो नियुक्ता भवेयुः, अधिक-कार्यस्य च अल्पावधौ पूर्णता भवेत्। अस्य संस्थानस्य क्षेत्रीयभाषायां प्रकाशनस्य नवीना योजना प्रशंसनीया वर्तते। अहम् अस्य साफल्यस्य कामनां करोमि।
- २. डॉ॰ मुहम्मद अयूब खॉन् (काश्मीरिवश्वविद्यालये संस्कृतिविभागाध्यक्षः १-४-८७ दिनांके)—अहमस्य संस्थानस्यावलोकनेनातीव प्रसन्नोऽस्मि । अनेन संस्थानेन क्रियमाणस्य कार्यस्यावलोकनेनातीव प्रभावितोऽस्मि । पुराणविषये कियमाणं कार्यं प्रशंसाहं वर्तते । अस्य संस्थानस्य समग्रस्य भविष्यकार्यक्रमस्य साफल्यं कामये ।
- ३. श्री आर० एस० बी० रत्नमु—बङ्गलोरनगरस्थितस्य वेदविज्ञान-महाविद्यापीठस्य विद्वान्।
- ४. डा॰ जान मिचिनरमहोदयः—दिल्लीनगरस्थित-ब्रिटिश-हाइकमीशन' इत्यस्य द्वितीय सिचवः (विकास)।

सहयोगिन्यासानां कार्यविवरणम्

महाराज बनारस विद्यामन्दिर न्यासः

ध्रुपदमेला

अनेन न्यासेनायोजिता घ्रुपदमेला फरवरी मासस्य २६-२६ दिनाङ्केषु वाराणस्यां तुलसोघट्टे रात्रिषु सम्पन्ना । इदं घट्टं रामचिरतमानसग्रन्थस्य रचियतुः प्रसिद्ध-सन्तगोस्वामि-तुलसीदासस्य नाम्ना प्रथितमस्ति । महाराजकुमार श्री अनन्तनारायणसिंहः दीपप्रज्वालनेन अस्य मेलापकस्योद्घाटनं कृतवान् । महाराजकुमारः अस्य मेलापकस्यैतिद्धां विणतवान्ः उक्तवान् च यदनेन मेलापकेन प्रभाविता बहवः स्वायत्तसंस्थाः शासनसंस्थाश्च देशस्य विविधस्थानेषु एतादृशमेलापकानामायोजनं कृतवत्यः । अस्य मेलापकस्य कृते विविधन्यनैः संस्थाभिश्च कृतस्य साहाय्यस्यापि महाराजकुमारेण कृतज्ञतापूर्वकमुल्लेखः कृतः । मेलापकम्तीव सफलमासीत् । सहस्रशो भारतीया वैदेशिकाश्च संगीत्रच्चयः सज्जनाः तिसृषु रात्रिषु संगीतानन्दमनुभूतवन्तः ।

मेलापकस्य प्रथमे दिवसे २४ फरवरी १९६८ दिनाङ्के महाराजकुमारस्य श्री अनन्तनारायणसिंहस्य उद्घाटन-भाषणानन्तरं ध्रुपद-वार्षिकी-पत्रिकायाः द्वितीया-

ङ्कस्य उद्घाटनं लोकसभायाः पूर्वसदस्येन प्रथितविदुषा डॉ॰ रघुनार्थासह-महाभागेन कृतम् । डा० रघुनाथसिंहमहाभागः स्वदुर्बलस्वास्थ्यमविगणय्यापि अस्मिन्नवसरे उपस्थित आसीत्। एतदर्थं वयं कृतज्ञाः स्मः। एषा पत्रिका केवलं ध्रुपद विषयमधिकृत्य वर्तते—इदमस्य अनन्यसाधारणं वैशिष्टयम् । न केवलं भारतीया विद्वांसः, अपि तु वैदेशिका विद्वांसोऽपि एनां पत्रिकां प्रति स्व-स्वरुचि प्रदर्शितवन्तः। अस्या पत्रिकायाः द्वयोरङ्कयोः वैदेशिकानां विदुषामि निबन्धाः प्रकाशिताः । वयं संपादिकां खैरागढ-नगरस्थ-इन्दिराकला-संगीत-विश्वविद्यालस्य कुलपतिपदमलंकुर्वतीं प्रेमलताशर्ममहोदयां प्रति कृतज्ञाः। अनया महाभागया सर्वविधप्रयत्नान् विधाय एषा वैशिष्ट्यान्विता पत्रिका प्रकाशिता ।

मङ्गलोत्सवः

१७ मार्च १९८७ दिनाङ्के रामनगरदुर्गे अनेन न्यासेन मङ्गलोत्सवः आयोजित आसीत्। अस्मिन् उत्सवे वाद्यसंगीतस्य कण्ठसंगीतस्य च विशिष्टा कलाकारा स्व-स्ववैशिष्टयं प्रदिशतवन्तः ।

महाराज उदितनारायणसिंह मानसप्रचारनिधिः

अनेन न्यासेन वैशाखमासस्य शुक्लपक्षे प्रतिपत्तिथिमारभ्य नवमीं तिर्थि यावत् चिकयानगरस्थिते कालीमन्दिरे रामचरितमानसस्य नवाहपाठः आयोजित आसीत् (३० अप्रैल १९८७ दिनाङ्कमारभ्य ८ मई १९८७ दिनाङ्कं यावत्)। सायंकाले प्रतिदिनं प्रवचनं जातम् । बहवो जनाः प्रतिदिनं प्रवचनं श्रुतवन्तः । तत्रभवन्तः काशिनरेशाः महाराजा डाँ० विभूतिनारायणसिंह-महोदया अपि सायंकाले कथाश्रवणं कृतवन्तः । अन्तिमदिने 'भण्डारा' इत्यस्यायोजनं जातं यत्र सन्ताः साधवः ब्राह्मणाश्च भुक्तवन्तः । प्रमुखेषु व्यासेषु श्यामनारायणव्यासः, रामलखनद्विवेदी, काशीनाथव्यासञ्च आसन्।

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