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ALL-INDIA KASHIRAJ TRUST FORT RAMNAGAR, VARANASI

सम्पादक-मण्डल

डा॰ रामकरण शर्मा भूतपूर्व कुलपित, सम्पूर्णानन्द संस्कृतिवश्वविद्यालयः वाराणसो; नयी दिल्ली डा॰ रामचन्द्र नारायण दाण्डेकर भण्डारकर प्राच्यशोधसंस्थान, पूणे

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पुराणम्—PURĀŅA

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नवदुर्गास्तोत्रम्

दुर्गा चामुण्डया साधं नवदुर्गासमन्विता। आद्या तावन्महालक्ष्मीनंन्दा क्षेमकरी तथा॥९॥ शिवदूती महारुण्डा भ्रामरी चन्द्रमङ्गला। रेवती हरसिद्धिस्तु नवैताः परिकीर्तिताः॥१०॥

> अमरपित-मुकुटचुम्बित-चरणाम्बुजसकलभुवनसुखजननी । जयित जगदीशवन्दिता-सकलामलनिष्कला दुर्गा ॥११॥

> ेवकृतनखदशनभूषण-रुधिरवशाच् छुरितक्षतखड्गहस्ता । जयित नरमुण्डमुण्डित-पिशितसुराहारकृच् चण्डी ॥१२॥

प्रच्छादितशिखिगणोद्बल-विकटजटाबद्धचन्द्रमणिशोभा । जयति दिगम्बरभूषा सिद्धवटेशा महालक्ष्मीः ॥१३॥

करकमलजनितशोभा पद्मासनबद्धपद्मवदना च। जयति कमण्डलुहस्ता

नन्दा देवी नतार्तिहरा ॥१४॥

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फेत्कारोद्दाम-पूरितदिशौघा ।
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दुःसहतरचिकतसकलदिक्चका।

जयति भुजगेन्द्रमणि-शोभितकर्णा

महातुण्डा ॥१७॥

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सिंहवरा ध्यानयोगतन्निष्ठा

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चन्द्रकला चन्द्रमण्डला देवी ॥१९॥

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संचूर्णितविविधशत्रुसंघाता

जयति शितश्लहस्ता

बहरूपा रेवती भद्रा ॥२०॥

पर्यटित जगित हृष्टा

पितृवननिलयेषु योगिनोसहिता।

जयित हरसिद्धिनाम्नी

हरसिद्धिर्वन्दिता सिद्धैः ॥२१॥

इति नवदुर्गासंस्तव-

मनुपममार्याभिरपरराट् कृत्वा।

इदमूचे सह देवैस्

त्राह्यस्मान्

सर्वभीतिभ्यः ॥२२॥

(भविष्यपु० उत्तर० ६१।९-२२; in connection with ध्वजनवमीव्रत)

NOTES ON THE NAVADURGA-STOTRAM

It is needless to say that the worship of nine Durgās is one of the important acts in the worship of the goddess Durgā (नवदुर्गास्तथा पूज्या देव्याः सन्निह्ताः शुभाः, Durgābhaktitaraṅgiṇī, p. 39). The present stotra eulogizes Durgā (with Cāmuṇḍā) who is associated with nine forms (दुर्गा चामुण्डया सार्च नवदुर्गासमन्विता, Bhaviṣya, Uttara 61.9), namely Mahālakṣmī, Nandā, Kṣemakarī, Śivadūtī, Mahāruṇḍā, Bhrāmarī, Candramaṅgalā, Revatī and Harasiddhi (61.9b-10).

It is astonishing that in similar enumerations of nine Durgas the names always vary. As for example, the well-known list of nine Durgās in the Devikavaca mentions the names as Śailaputri, Brahmacāriņī, Candraghantā, Kūşmāndā, Skandamātr, Kātyāyanī, Kālarātrī, Gaurī and Siddhidātrī. Similarly the Agni-p. furnishes a list of nine Durgās in 348, 15-16, in which the names read are: Bhagavati, Kātyāyani, Kauśiki, Candikā, Pracandā, Suranāyikā, Urgā, Pārvatī and Durgā. In the nine jars of the mandala nine Durgās are contemplated, namely Jagaddhātrī, Maheśvarī, Kaumāri, Vaisņavi, Vārāhi, Nārasimhi, Indrāņi, Cāmuņdā and Kātyāyanī. Some are of the opinion that the nine trees of the Navapatrikā are connected with the nine Durgās. (The nine names are however different from the names given in the Bhavisya-p.1 We may further add that in the ceremony of installing a jar (ghațasthāpana) nine Śaktis are contemplated, namely Ugracandā, Pracanda, Candogra, Candanavika, Candika, Candavati, Candarūpā and Rudracandi; cp. these names with the names of Navagehasthā Durgā, namely Rudracandā, Pracandā, Candogrā, Candanāyikā, Canda, Candavatī, Candarūpā, Aticandikā and Ugracandā (Agni-p. 185. 3b-6a).

^{1.} कदली (plantain) is connected with Brahmāṇi; कचु (Arum colocacia) with Kālikā; हिरद्रा (tumeric) with Durgā; जयन्ती (Premna spinosa) with Kārttiki; बिल्न with Śivā; दाडिमी or दाडिम्ब (pomegranate) with Raktadantikā; अशोक with Śokasahitā; मण or मन (Arum Indicum) with Cāmuṇḍā; घान्य (corn) with Lakṣmī.

A few examples of ninefold division of Devis of different characters are also wellknown. An enumeration of nine Mātṛkās (Brahmāṇi, Māheśvari, Kaumārī etc.) is found in many works. Sometimes we find some changes in the names (vide Agni-p, 315. 19). Some Purāṇas assert that the Mātṛkās, who followed Vīrabhadra (while he was going to punish Dakṣa) were nine in number, namely Kālī, Kātyāyani, Īśāni, Muṇḍāmālinī, Cāmuṇḍā, Bhadrakāli, Bhadrā, Tvaritā and Vaiṣṇavī. There is also a conception of Navakātyāyanī.

It is remarkable to note that a nine-fold enumeration concerning the *šakti* aspect of Devi or of a particular *deva* or *devi* is often found in Tantric tradition.⁴

(Verse 11) The goddess Durg \bar{a}^5 is supreme or pre-eminent; she is $sakal\bar{a}$ (with $kal\bar{a}s$ parts or characteristics or attributes),

- There is however no fixed number of Mātṛkārs. They are said to be 6, 7, 8, 9, 12, 64 etc. in number in authoritative works. The names also sometimes vary in these enumerations.
- 3. We hardly find any mention of Navakātyāyani in Sastric texts. Images of nine Kātyāyanis are found in a temple in Hirapur, near Bhuvaneswar (Orissa).
- प्रभा माया जया सूक्ष्मा विशुद्धा नन्दिनी पुनः । सुप्रभा विजया सर्वेसिद्धिदा 4. नुवशक्तमः ॥ (quoted from a certain Nibandha in Tantrasāra, p. 186, ed. by P. Bhatṭācārya; these are the nine पीठ-शक्तिs of Durga). An enumeration of nine saktis in the worship of Bhuvaneśvari is found in the same work (pp. 164-165; The saktis are : जया, विजया, अजिता, अपराजिता, नित्या, विलासिनी, दोग्झी, अघोरा and मङ्गला). There are nine पीठशक्तिs in the worship of Sūrya (namely दीसा, सुक्मा etc.) (Ibid, p. 227), nine पीठशक्तिs of Vișnu, namely विमला. उत्कर्षणी etc. (p. 242) and nine saktis of Laksmi, namely विभृति, उन्नति, etc. (p. 218). For nine saktis in the worship of Siva (namely वामा, ज्येष्ठा etc.), see Agni-p. 74.47-49. The nine-fold division of the 'power' of the Deity has a prominent place in the Vaisnava śāstras also; cp. the worship of nava-vyūha of Visnu in Agni-p. Ch. 201.
 - 5. On the name Durgā, see the bhāṣya on Lalitā-sahasranāma, p. 66; Kāsikhaṇḍa 72-71-72; MB. Virāṭaparvan 20.9.

amalā (without blemishes) and niskalā (without kalās); she is extolled by the lord of the world (i. e. Viṣṇu); she is the source of pleasure in the whole world; her lotus-feet is kissed (i. e. touched with reverence) by the king of the gods (i. e. Indra).

The long compound in the first half contains two adjectival expressions qualifying Durgā; the first half ends in चरणाम्बुजा. The root ji (jayati) (intransitive) means 'existing with pre-eminence' (जयोऽत्र उत्कर्ष:, Kṣirataraṅgiṇi 1.374). The root ji may also mean sphuraṇa (arising, flashing; comm. on Saundaryalahari 93).

The two aspects $(sakal\bar{a} \text{ and } niskal\bar{a})$ of Devi is one of the fundamental doctrines of the Sakta philosophy. $(Kal\bar{a} \text{ may mean a body also, see Agni-p. 214.29})$. Mala may be taken in the general sense of blemishes. It may refer to the three kinds of malas, namely $\bar{a}nava$, $k\bar{a}rma$ and $m\bar{a}nava$.

The third food contains 13 matras. This metrical defect may be removed it we read वृन्द्या in the place of वृन्दिता

(Verse 12) The goddess Candī takes flesh and wine as food; she is adorned with the heads of human beings; she holds a broken sword inlaid with loathsome blood, ornaments, teeth and nails.

As the reading muṇḍita (shaved) in the third foot does not yield any suitable sense, it is proper to read maṇḍita (i. e. śobhita) in its place.

In the second foot, khadga (sword) is described as churita (inlaid, blended) (on account of vikṛtanakha-bhūṣaṇa-rudhira-vaṅa) and as kṣata (broken, damaged) (as a result of being struck by the weapons of the enemies). The meaning of this line is not quite satisfactory. The reading may be faulty as the second foot contains 19 mātrās.

(Verse 13) The goddess Mahālakṣmī is the superintending deity of the Siddhavaṭa; she is nacked; she is decorated with the moongem (Candrakāntamaṇi) tied in the dreadful matted hair, which has become illuminated on account of covering fire.

The reading of the first foot seems to be slightly corrupt. It is difficult to construe the word *udbala* (strong, powerful) with the preceding or the following word. We have however taken the word

in the sense of 'illuminated' to suit the context. The foot contains 13 mātrās, which shows the faulty character of the reading. Sikhin in sikhigaņa means fire.

Digambarabhūṣā—'digambaraṁ bhūṣā yasyāḥ'. The import of 'siddhavate'sā' is not clear. The Vaṭa tree in Prayāga or Gāyā may be regarded as a Siddhavaṭa, but it has no connection with the goddess. Though there is a tīrtha called Siddhavaṭa mentioned in the Purāṇas (Varāha-p. 151.7; Liṅga-p. 1.92. 153), yet we have no Puranic authority to connect this tīrtha with the goddess.

(Verse 14) The goddess Nandā⁶ holds a water-jar in the hand; she removes troubles of those who bow down to her. She is seated in the Padma posture; she has a lotus-like face; she looks gracious on account of holding a lotus in the hand.

(Verse 15) The goddess Kṣemaṅkarī is arrogant in nature; her body is dreadful; all the ten quarters are filled with the furious howling of the goddess; she is nacked and has a disfigured face.

If we read the name as Kṣemaṅkarī in the fourth foot, the metre becomes defective (there being $16 m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}s$). The name should be read as Kṣemakarī as is read in the verse enumerating the name (61.9).

As $udd\bar{a}ma$ is an adjective, its use in this foot does not seem to be proper. Can it be taken as an adverb and be construed with $p\bar{u}rita$? It is proper to take $udd\bar{a}ma$ as qualifying $phetk\bar{a}ra$. In $di\hat{s}augh\bar{a}$ the first word (stem) is $di\hat{s}\bar{a}$ and not dis. The latter will give rise to the form $digaugh\bar{a}$.

(Verse 16) The goddess Śivadūtî⁸ is the chief power of Śiva; in her womb exists the crying cosmic egg; Her *hum*-sound is naturally resonant; she is intoxicated; she holds a whale in the hand.

^{6.} On the name Nandā, see Devi-p. 37. 18 and Bhāṣya on Lalitāsahasranāma, p. 138.

^{7.} We may however explain the expression as फेत्कारेषु ये उद्दामाः; Cp. the Guptavatī on the expression भक्तजनोद्दाम-दत्तानन्दोदये in the well-known Argalāstotra (21).

^{8.} For Śivadūti, see Saptaśati 8.27; see also the Bhāṣya on Lalitā S. N. p. 107.

The first half consists of two epithets, the first being क्रोशितब्रह्माण्डोदरा. The reading सुखमुरखर is undoubtedly corrupt. We are in favour of the reading सुखमुखरित. Krošita—from the root क्रश आहाने रोदने च. The first foot has 13 moras.

We take $mad\bar{a}$ as an adjectival expression from the root mad with the suffix ac. $Mad\bar{a}timihast\bar{a}$ however does not seem to be the original reading, for no prominent goddess is described as holding a whale in her hand. Prathama here does not mean 'the first' but 'the chief, principal.' (प्रथमस्तु भवेदादौ प्रधानेऽपि च वाच्यवत्, Mediní, Mānta 47).

(Verse 17) The goddess Mahātuṇḍā is described as having ears adorned with the jem of the king of serpents. On account of her irrestible boisterous laughter the horizon is rendered terrible, formidable or unbearable, and trembling or shaking (through fear).

It is to be noted that the name read in the verses enumerating the names of nine Durgās is Mahārundā (runda, a headless body). Since the verse speaks of the boisterous laughter of the goddess, it is proper to take the name as Mahātundā.

The reading of the third foot is metrically defective as it contains $10 \ m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}s$. We prefer to read $\pi f \phi = 100$ in order to render the metre defectless.

Bhujagendra-maņi is the wellknown sarpamaņi described in Brhatsamhitā 82.5. The Agni-p. uses the term bhujangamamaņi in 246.6. It seems to be the same as 'the mahāmaņi in the nāgahāra' (Saptašatī 2.29-30).

(Verse 18) The goddess Bhrāmarī is the destroyer of demons; she assumes the form of a black-bee; her various limbs are made to dance on account of being incited by the murmuring sounds of sharp-sounding drums of various kinds and cymbals.

For Bhrāmarī, see Saptasatī 11.49-50. (भ्रमरस्येयम् आकृत्या भ्रामरी, Sāntanavī on Saptasatī 11.49). The goddess is mentioned in Devi-Bhāg. 7.38.7.

(Verse 19) The goddess Candramandalā has a body with four hands and has a digit of the moon (on the head); she is engrossed in meditation and concentration; she has chosen the lion (as her

mount); she is pacified and has a calm face. (The verse enumeraing the names of nine goddesses reads the name as Candramangala.)

The word simhavarā is to be analysed as सिहस्य वरा सिहवरा; वृणोतीति वरा (वृ+अच्). Some analyse as सिहेषु वरा सिहवरा (simha signifying a highly powerful being).

The expression $dhy\bar{a}nayogatannisth\bar{a}$ presents some difficulty as there is no necessity to use tat before $nisth\bar{a}$. Most probably the reading is corrupt; $dhy\bar{a}nayogasannisth\bar{a}$ may be taken as the original reading. $Candrakal\bar{a}$ is to be taken to mean 'one possessing $candrakal\bar{a}$.'—the suffix ac is added with the word $candrakal\bar{a}$.

(Verse 20) The goddess Revatī is beneficial to all; she is of multifarious forms; she holds a sharp śūla (spear or trident) in the hand; she has killed a host of enemies by blowing or hurting with the beak and wings.

Revatī is mentioned in Agni-p. 348. 190. Bhadrā also means the sthitišakti or rakṣaṇaṣakti (See the commentaries on Saptaśatī 5.7). Pakṣapuṭa literally means the hollow of the wings.

(Verse 21) The goddess named Harasiddhi is worshipped by siddhas (yogins possessing supernormal powers); she is the marvellous power of Siva; she with yoginis cheerfully roams in 'ancestor-groves' (cremation grounds).

Siddni is the name of one of the nine Durgās given in the Agni-p. 348-19. Harasiddhi may by identical with this goddess.

(Verse 22) The king of the other world (paradise) performed this most excellent eulogy of the nine forms of Durgā in the Aryā metre and prayed Her with the gods to save them from all fear.

Apararāt = Aparalokarāt. Trāhi—an irregular form in the place of $tr\bar{a}yasva$ (the root trai being ātmanepadin) often used in the Purāṇas (see Mārk. p. 15.68; Brahma-p. 78.64; D. Bhāg. 7.28.51).

^{9.} On Revati, see Devi-p. 37.41 (रेवा तु नर्मदा देवी देवी वा रेवती मता। अतिखण्डनरक्षा वा लोके देवी प्रकीर्तिता); the meaning of the verse is not fully intelligent. The L.B.S.K.S.V. ed. of the Purāṇa reads 'नदी वा रेवती' and अतिखण्डेन रक्षा वा (37.38b.39). The meaning is still not clear.

Āryābhiḥ—Āryā means the verse composed in the Āryā metre; for a similar use of this word see Sām. Kā 71 (आर्याभि: संक्षिमम्). The metre was deemed so helpful in memorizing verses that we find a good number of verses composed in this metre in the works on Āyurveda, Vyākaraṇa and Jyotiṣa. A verse in this metre is found in the Śābarabhāṣya also (4.4.24). There are a few verses composed in this metre in the Purāṇaṣ; vide Skanda-p. Revākhaṇḍa 11.2-4 and 181.44-45 (an eulogy of Śiva); Devibhāg. 8.10.13 and Garuḍa-p. 1.68.9-11; 1.71.14-18; 1.76.2-8; 2.1.2; 2.2542).

-R. S. Bhattacharya

MAHĀBHĀRATA REPETITIONS*

By

RAM KARAN SHARMA

It goes without saying that the Mahābhārata represents the most vital connecting link between the Vedic and classical traditions—literary, linguistic, mythological, religious and legal traditions. The wide range of the areas of its absorption and successive flow of transmissions renders this fifth Veda indispensable for a comprehensive insight into the multidimensional ancient Indian cultural tradition.

- 2. Its¹ textual parallelisms specially with the Rāmāyaṇa, Dharmaśāstras, Purāṇas and even the Vedas have already formed the subject matter of studies with several eminent scholars all over the world. Louis Renou's 'L'Hymne aux Aśvin de l'Adiparvan', V. S. Sukthankar's 'The Rāma Episode (Rāmopākhyāna) and the Rāmāyaṇa' and 'The Nala Episode and the Rāmāyaṇa', P. V. Kane's 'The Mahābhārata verses and very ancient Dharmaśāstras and other works', S. K. Belvalkar's 'The Cosmographic Episode in the Mahābhārata and Padmapurāṇa' may specially be metioned in this connection. E. W. Hopkins also lists quite a few parallel passages from the Rāmāyaṇa and the Mahābhārata representing typical epic similes. The Editor of the Anuśāsana Parvan—Dandekar refers to chapter sixtyfive of the Lingapurāṇa in the context of the Śivasahasranāma.
 - 3. Now that the Critical Edition of the Mahābhārata along with the Pāda Index is available with us, we could very conveniently think of bringing out a complete classified concordance so as to assess and appreciate the elements and magnitude of repetitions in it in terms of C. M. Bowra's technique of oral poetic compo-

^{*} The paper was read at the 3lst session of the International Congress of Human Sciences in Asia and North Africa held in Tokyo and Kyoto (Japan), 1983, and reported in its Proceedings.

^{1.} Cf. Introduction to the "Elements of Poetry in the Mahābhārata", referred to in para 4 of this paper.

sition and thereby fulfil the intellectual commitments implied in the following remarks made by Prof. Emenean in his learned article "Oral Poets of South India: The Todas" about twenty-five years ago: "Old as is writing in the history of the culture of India in its classical form, there is literature there that is even older than writing. The Vedas, the oldest religious texts of Hinduism, contain in their earliest layers, hymns and other ritual utterances, the beginning of which can be conservatively placed in the second millenium B. C. These texts present clear evidence that they are oral compositions. Perhaps the most striking kind of evidence is the extensive repeated use, in the verses, of traditional poetic units. Maurice Bloomfield in his intensive study of the phenomenon in the two volumes called Rigveda Repetitions found that in the Rgvedic collection of over a thousand hymns, approximately a fifth of the lines are involved in this repetitive use....The marks of oral composition and of a very early synthesis of numerous oral recitations into one unified text are clearly evident in both these epics (the Rāmāyana and the Mahābhārata) (as they are in Homer). The tradition of transmittal of the Mahabharata (and of the Rāmāyana too) even illustrates the postulate that in a living oral tradition and barring special conditions, no two oral recitations of what purports to be the same work are identical but each recitation is a fresh composition. For we are told in the Mahābhārata itself that its length is not always the same (Book I, adhyaya 1) and that the text as we have it is the third recitation in a succession of famous recitations of different lengths. This oral characteristic.... did not come to an end even after the Mahābhārata was written down, perhaps in the 4th century A. D., perhaps somewhat earlier. The copyists have never ceased to add more good, bad or indifferent passages or stories to their versions when they could do so. It is only recognition of the oral technique of composition and its implications that makes it possible to deal with the Sanskrit epic in any but the most fumbling way".2

4. The doctoral dissertation entitled "Elements of Poetry in the Mahābhārata" written out by the writer of this paper under the inspiration and esteemed guidance of Prof. Emenean and

^{2.} Journal of the American Folklore, LXXI (1958) pp. 313-4.

published as Vol. 20 of the University of California Publications in Classical Philology in 1964 represented just a modest beginning of the study of Mahābhārata repetitions in similes and other figures of speech including linkage chiasmus noun-adjective combinations and full verse or pāda repetitions. But the fact remains that no comprehensive Concordance of Mahābhārata repetitions has yet been undertaken. The purpose of the present paper is to draw the attention of scholars to the problem of a comprehensive and classified presentation of Mahābhārata repetitions followed by a similar concordance of the Rāmāyaṇa and the Purāṇas, culminating in the Encyclopaedia of Poetic Formulae in the Great Epics and Purāṇas.³

- 3. Repetitions (more or less verbatim passages) are so numerous in the Purāṇas that they may rightly be regarded as one of the characteristics of Puranic composition. There repetitions may be broadly divided into three classes:
 - (A) Passages occurring in the Purāṇas and the Epics. As for example the Yayāticarita is found in MB. Adi-p. 76-93 and in Matsya-p. 25-42; chapters dealing with Narasimha etc. in Harivamsa-p. Bhaviṣya 41-45 are found in Matsya-p. 161-163; a few chapters on Sāmkhyayoga in Sānti-p. are found in the last part of the Brahmapurāṇa in the dialogue of Vyāsa and the sages; most of the chapters on the life of Kṛṣṇa in the Viṣṇuparvan of Harivamsa are found in the Viṣṇu-p. (Sec. V) and the Brahma-p. (180-212); chapters on creation in Sānti-p. (182-183) are found in the Nāradīya-p. (I. 42-45).
 - (B) Passages occurring in more than one Purāṇa. As for example the chapters on Puruṣottama-māhātmya in Brahma-p. (41-51) are found in the Puruṣottama-māhātmya-khaṇḍa of the Skanda-p. Mastya-p. chapters on Tārakāsura, Siva's marriage, the birth Kārttikeya etc. (154-178) are found in Padma-p. 5. 37-42 (in a slightly condensed form); the chapters on the Khāṇḍikya-Keśidvaja-Janaka episode in Viṣṇu-p. vi. 6-7 are found in Nāradīya-p. I. 46-47; the Bhāgavata passages on Viṣṇu's incarnations (1, 3. 6-26) are found in Garuḍa I. 1. 14-34. The chapters on vamsa and bhuvanakośa are the capital examples of this class as is known to the students of ancient Indian history and geography.
 - (C) Passages occurring in the same Purāṇa. As for example a description of trividhā bhakti is found

- 5, On the basis of the preliminary studies referred to above and some other learned papers on the subject (e. g. Emenean's Bhagavadgitā Notes) we find that the oral technique of poetic composition reflects itself in the Great Epics in the repetitions of various types including similes and metaphors, linkage or concatenation, chiasmus, noun-adjective combinations, vocatives, the whole pāda of verse with of without modifications, formulaic passages or parts thereof found in other texts. Unlike the written poetic composition like later Kāvya literature, the oral tradition as represented in the Epics necessitates a critical examination of the repeated material as a whole rather than one single verse taken as a separate isolated unit for a proper textual appreciation.
- 6. For example, one of the repeated items of the Mahābhārata imagery is the "cattle afflicted with cold" which symbolises the weakness or bewilderment.

The following nine passages from the battle scenes of the Bhisma and Drona Parvans involved in the repeated use of this simile may be referred to:—

वीक्षां चकुः समन्तात्ते पाण्डवा भयपीडिताः । त्रातारं नाध्यगच्छन्त गावः शीतादिता इव ॥ 6.45.58

यथा हि शैशिरः कालो गवां मर्माणि कृत्ति । तथा पाण्डुसुतानां वै भोष्मो मर्माण्यकृत्तत ॥ 6.113.7

in both the Avantikhanda (7. 4-29) and the Prabhāsaknanda (10.7. 2-16) of the Skanda-purāņa and also in the Padma purāṇa (see IV. 85. 4-24 and V. 15. 176-192).

All these repeated passages occur in the chapters that are in dialogue form. It is remarkable to note that the names of speaker and hearer often vary in different Purāṇas, a fact which sometimes affords a clue in determing the chronological position of these chapters.

Besides these repetitions of śabda (passages), there are repetitions of artha (subjects, themes) in the Purāṇas, which are not of much importance in the field of textual criticism. Sometimes such repetitions are found in the same Purāṇa (as e.g. there is a repetition of the Vāmana legend in the Vāmana-purāṇa; see 23. 1. 31-97 and 73. 1-95. 84)—a problem which deserves to be studied seriously.

तत्कर्म प्रेक्ष्य बीभत्सोरितमानुषमद्भृतम् ।
संप्रावेपन्त कुरवो गावः शीर्तारिता इव ॥ 6.116.26.
तस्य हर्षप्रणादेन बाणवेगेन चाभिभो ।
प्राकम्पन्त रणे योद्धा गावः शीर्तारिता इव ॥ 7.7.117
तत्सैन्यमिषुभिस्तेन वध्यमानं समन्ततः ।
बभ्राम तत्र तत्रैव गावः शीर्तारिता इव ॥ 7.96.26
ते वध्यमाना द्रोणेन शक्रेणेव महासुराः ।
समकम्पन्त पाञ्चाला गावः शीर्तारिता इव ॥ 7.101.47
मन्येऽहं पाण्डवान् सर्वान् भरद्वाजशरादितान् ।
शिशिरं कम्पमाना वे कृशा गाव इवाभिभो ॥ 7.130 6.
ततस्ते व्याकुलीभूता राजानः कर्णपीडिताः ।
बभ्रमुस्तत्र तत्रैव गावः शीर्तारिता इव ॥ 7.134.25
त्रातारं नाध्यगच्छन्त गावः पङ्कगता इव ।
पिपीलिका इव क्षण्णा दूर्बला बलिना रणे ॥ 6.102.76

- 7. It will be seen that out of the nine passages cited above, eight passages have 'cold-afflicted cattle' imagery with the repetition of a full pāda as ' $g\bar{a}vah$ ' $\dot{s}\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}rdit\bar{a}$ iva' in the six of them; 'trembling with cold/fear/bewilderment/running here and there' also forms part of the imagery, besides the 'piercing in the vitals of the body' ($marm\bar{a}ni$).
- 8. Now let us look at the following two passages—one in the Bhiṣmaparvan and the other in the Śāntiparvan—with a repeated poetic unit 'māghamāse gavām iva' constituting the second and fourth pādas respectively:
 - (i) क्रन्तिन्ति मम गात्राणि माघमासे गवामिव। अर्जुनस्य इमे बाणा नेमे बाणाः शिखण्डिनः ॥ 6.114.60

These arrows, not of Sikhandin, but of Arjuna, pierce my (Bhisma's) limbs, as the cold pierces the vitals of cattle in the month of Māgha (Winter).

(ii) गृहस्नेहावबद्धानां नराणामल्पमेधसाम्। कुस्त्री खादति मांसानि [माघमासे गवाम्] इव 11 12.137.85

^{4. []} arrangement mine.

An evil wife eats up the flesh of men of small intelligence who are captivated by domestic affection as the cold pierces the vitals of cattle in the month of Magha (Winter).

- It may be noted that the learned Editor-Belvalkaraccepted the obvious reading maghamase gavam iva, though with a wavy line for the Bhismaparvan passage while the reading accepted for Santiparvan passage is different with a different arrangement as māghamā segavām iva.
- 10. In the footnote and the corresponding critical note under the Bhismaparvan passage, the Editor quoted the views of the commentators Devabodha, Arjunamiśra and Vādirāja and also discussed the textual problem as follows:

A. Footnote

- (i) Devabodha-अर्जनस्य धवलस्य चन्द्रस्येति यावत् । बणन्ति शब्दं कूर्वन्ति बणाः सिळळानि तेषामिमे विकारा बाणाः शरीराणि माघमासे शिशिरर्तुप्रथमभागे गवां सूर्यरक्मीनां गायत्रीव गात्राणि शरीरावयवान् कृन्तन्ति छिन्दन्ति । "अत्र चेदं विवक्षितम् । यथा सूर्यरङ्मीनां कारणभूतानां कार्यरिक्मभिश्चन्द्ररिक्मभिः कर्तनम । कार्यत्वं च रश्मीनां सूर्यरश्मीनामेव चन्द्रे अनुप्रवेशात् । तथा द्रोणाद्यध्यापकद्वारेण ग्राहितैरस्मत्कार्यभूतैरर्जुन-बाणैरस्मतकार्यभतैरस्मन्मर्मणां कारणभूतानां छेदनम् । अथवा बर्णान्त शब्दान् कुर्वन्तीति बाणाः पुत्राः । आसेगवौ [वां] कर्कटानां गात्रं कृन्तन्ति । माघं मघाभावो यथा भवन्ति [ति] । कर्कटानां मघाभावस्तियंक्त्वात् । अर्जुनस्य त् युद्धे नाततायिवधस्य विहितत्वात् ।
- (ii) Arjunamiśra—मागमा वृश्चिकी प्रोक्ता तदपत्यानि सेगवा । यथा मागमां वश्चिकीं यथा तदपत्यानि सेगवा वृश्चिकीं मातरं कुन्तन्ति । उदरस्थान्यपत्यानि पष्ठं विदार्यं बहि निगच्छन्तीत्यर्थः ।
- Vādirāja—माघमा सेगवां स्वमात्भतां कर्कटीमिव। सेगवा कर्कटी-(iii) सन्ततिः स्वमातृपृष्ठमेव निर्मिद्य जायत इति प्रसिद्धिः।

[The Editor left Nilakantha out of discussion. Nilakantha's version, however, is: "māghamām karkatīm segavās tada patyāni| karkatyā nāsahetur garbha eveti prasiddham"]

B. Cirtical note

"For Santiparvan passage....12.137.85 (B. maghama segava iva) the commentator's explanation is correct, but as the piercing effect of the autum on the vital parts of the cow is a constantly repeated idea in the epic (cf. 6. 113. 7) we need not reject the obvious interpretation."

So the Editor accepted the obvious reading māghamāse gavām iva in the Bhīṣmaparvan passage, in spite of numerous self-contradictory speculative interpretations by commentators such as māghamā segavām iva, māghamām segavām iva, māghamām segavām iva, māghamām segavā iva. The obvious reading has also the support from Devabodha, the oldest available commentator, partly at least.

- 12. But the same Editor while deading with the relevant Santiparvan passage (the fascicule containing this passage came out three years later in 1950), in spite of his unequivocal verdict in favour of the obvious correct reading corroborated by the repeated use of this poetic formula in the text, accepted Vādirāja's reading māghamāsegavām iva—that too without any footnote or explanatory note or even a cross reference.
- 13. This is just one example where grammatical or other considerations stand in the way of textual interpretations in the absence of a classified concordance.
- 14. It is the identification of the minimal poetic units in the great Epics that will facilitate a correct textual, linguistic, literary, philosophical, historical or comparative apprisal of Indian tradition. This will also help us in determing the common core and distinctive feature, not only of the two epics but also of the Purāṇas, Dharmaśāstra and other classical texts.

AJA EKAPĀD IN RETROSPECT

By U. N. Dhal

Our religion is polytheistic in form. In the early Vedic age, the natural phenomena, animate and inanimate beings etc., were deified to form the pantheon, but their number was limited to thirty three only (RV. 3.6.9; 8.35.3). And they were divided into three categories corresponding to the three divisions of the universe, viz., (1) celestial (dyusthāna), (2) atmospheric (antarikṣasthana) and (3) terrestrial (prthivisthana) regions. Like the other two regions, to the middle region or antariksasthana belong divinities like Indra, Mātariśvan, Rudra, Maruts, Ahibudhnya, Ajaekapad etc. Among these divinities, Ahibudhnya 'the dragon of the deep' and Aja ekapad 'he (unborn), who protects or drinks with one foot' seem to have different feature. In subsequent stage of development Aja ekapād (also Ahibudhnya) is included among the eleven Rudras and is accepted as an epithet of Siva. In view of the interesting features, Aja ekapad is taken up for study. The aim of the present discussion would limit to his iconographical representation as he emerges through different stages of development.

Aja ekapad—an atmospheric god.

Among the Vedic deities, Ajaekapād appears to be significant from different aspects. He occurs five times in juxtaposition with Ahibudhnya and one time alone (RV. 10.65.13) and is invoked for blessings. In the AV (13.1.6) he is said to have made firm the two worlds like heaven and earth. The TB (3.1.2.8) informs us about the rise of Aja ekapād from the east. In Grhya rites (P. Gr. S. 2.15.2) oblations are offerd to Aja ekapād together with Ahibudhnya, Indra etc., on the full-moon-day of Prausthapada. These texts simply recognise him as one of the deities of the Hindu pantheon. Besides the term is variously interpreted as

^{1.} For the close assortment of Abibudhnya and Ajaekapād refer to RV. 2.31.6; 6.50.14; 7.35.13; 10.64.4. and 10.66.11.

'the genius of the storm, the ruddy sun, the moon, the lightning, one-footed driver or stormer etc., but nothing can be ascertained as to his exact physical features. Yāska in his Nirukta (12.29) interprets Aja ekapād as 'the one-footed driver or he who protects with one foot, or who drinks with one foot, or who has only one foot' but the commentator, Durgācārya accepts him as the sun. On the other hand the theriomorphic or anthropomorphic features which played an important part in the evolution of some of the sectarian gods in the subsequent religious history of India, is not clear here.

Aja ekpad: Rudra-Siva

In the Vedic literature Aja ekapād is reckoned as one of the deities of the middle region along with Rudra. In the early stage of development Rudra is depicted as a ferocious deity to be feared at. But the epic and Puranic Rudra appears to be a combination of the Vedic and non-Vedic notions. In the new ideas, which have been ushered in this period we come across Harihara, the marriage of Siva and Parvati. Siva and the Moon, and Ganges, etc. Among the novel additions to Siva mythology, the concept of Trimurti, Astamurti etc., are significant, but among them the idea of the eleven manifestations of Rudra (ekādaša Rudra) is very important. Various stories are related as to the birth of Rudra and his other manifestations. This idea of eleven Rudras may have evolved out of the representation of Siva with eleven armlets in the Indus Valley period. The Mbh (12.201.18-19) states that Rudra was the son of Tvastr and details the eleven Rudras thus: (1) Aja ekapād. (2) Ahirbudhnya, (3) Virūpākṣa, (4) Raivata, (5) Hara, (6) Bahurūpa, (7) Tryambaka, (8) Sāvitra, (9) Jayanta, (10) Pināki and (11) Aparājita (cf. Mt. 5.29-30). Like the epic, the Purānas also record the hirth of eleven Rudras. Though the list varies but in majority of the texts. Aia ekapad is recognised as one among the eleven. According to Vavu (63, 69ff), the Brahmanda (2.3.71ff), the Linga (1.63.20ff) and the Siva (Satarudra Samhitā) (18.24ff) the eleven Rudras are the children of Kasyapa born of Surabhi. Being propitious in form they are born to serve the cause of the gods:

ekādāšaite Rudrās tu Surabhī-tanayā smṛtāḥ |
devakāryārtham utpannāḥ Śivarūpāḥ sukhāspadāḥ ||
Śiva P. 18.27.

The Bhāgavata (6.6.17ff) makes them the progeny of Bhuta and Sarūpā, whereas the Matsya (5.29ff) depicts the eleven Rudras as the Mind-born sons of Brahmā and each holding a trident in his hand—

eteṣām mānasānām tu trišūlavaradhārinām || 31a Among the list of eleven Rudras, Aja ekapād and Ahirbudhnya, the two gods of the atmospheric region, are also included.

As to the divinity of Aja ekapād along with others, the Mbh (12.201.18ff) pictures him as the lord of the three worlds. The wealth created by Agni, when the constellation Prausthapada is ascendant, is guarded by Aja ekapād together with Ahirbudhnya and Kuvera (Mbh 5.112.3-4). Besides being included among the eleven Rudras, Aja ekapād is reckoned as one of the thousand and eight names of Siva² (Mbh 13.17.100f).

But the question arises as to why Aja ekapād (also Ahirbudhnya) is accepted as one of the manifestations of Rudra-Śiva. Aja ekapād (unborn-one-footed or standing on one foot) appears to be an indicative of the image standing on one leg in the Indus Valley period. This ekapād posture has been adopted as a posture of penance. As Śiva is a Yogī per excellence, it is probable that he was naturally described as ekapād, a yogic posture. In view of this Śiva Cult in subsequent stage of development might have assimilated Aja ekapād to form one of the manifestations of ekādaša Rudras of the epic Purāṇic age.³

Thus during the age various concepts were assimilated with Siva and formed his epithet. Such further development provided

^{2.} Ekapād Bhairava or Aja ekapād is reckoned as one of the forms of Siva in sculptural representation. In addition to the emblems held in his hands, the two signs of Aja ekapād like his penis erectus (ūrdhvalingam) and the tiger skin characterise him as a manifestation of Siva. In order to trace the origin of the Jagannātha image, H. V. Stietencron has imagined the Ajaekapād icon of Siva to be at the root of development of the same. Cf. H. V. Stietencron, 'The Siva component in the Early Evolution of Jagannātha', The Cult of Jagannātha and the Regional Tradition of Orissa, Delhi, 1978, p. 120ff.

^{3.} A. P. Karmarkar, Religions of India, Vol. I, Lonavla (India), 1949, p. 77 ff.

ample opportunities to the artists of the pre-Gupta age and of later ages to depict the various forms of Siva in sculptures. The caves of Elephanta and the Badami seem to show such stage of transitional development.

Aja ekapād in Sculpture

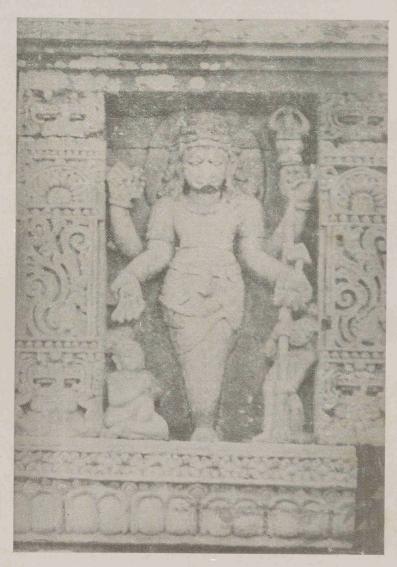
When numerous sculptural representation of Aja ekapād was found out, the authors of Silpasastra must have been very much tempted to depict the iconographical features of the image in their works for future guidance. Among the treatises on Silpasastra the Viśvakarmaśilpa and Rūpamandana4 seek to provide the direction for the construction of each of these eleven manifestations. The text records Aja and Ekapad as two distinct forms and describes both having sixteen arms. The Aja is said to have emblems like śūla, ankuśa, kapāla, damaru, sarpa, mudgara, akṣamālā and sudarsana (cakra) in the right hands, whereas in the left he carries gadā, khatvānga, pattīša ghantā, šakti, parašu, kamandalu but one is held in tarjani pose. On the other hand Ekapād holds khatvānga, bāna, cakra, damaru, mudgara, aksamāla, šūla along with one hand in varada pose in the left while the right hands keep dhanu, ghantā, kapāla, kaumudi, tarjani, ghata, parasu and cakra. On the other hand the dhyana⁵ at the end of such descriptions clearly speak of one image i.e., Aja ekapād instead of two (Aja and Ekapad). The right side of Sambhu is represented by Brahma with his emblems, while the left side represents Acyuta with his emblems and the deity is sculptured

^{4.} As quoted in T. A. G. Rao, Elements of Hindu Iconography, Vol. II, Part II, second edition, Delhi, 1968, p. 383ff.

^{5.} dhyāyet koţi-raviprabham trinayanam sitāmsugangādharam haste ṭaṅka-mṛgam varābhayakaram pādaikayuktam vibhum | Sambhor dakṣiṇa-vāmakakṣabhujayor Brahmācyutābhyām sthitam tat tat lakṣaṇam āyurdhaiḥ parivṛtam hastadvayāḍhyānjalim || As quoted in Vāstu Šāstra, Vol. II of D. N. Shukla, Gorakhpur, 1958, p. 184.



Ajaekapād, Śiśireśvara Temple, Bhubaneswar, Late 8th Century AD.



Ajaekapād, Tāleśvara Temple, Bhubaneswar, 8th Century A.D.

with one foot (ekapād) only. In the present sculpture, one can invariably trace Aja ekapad with four hands only.

For favour of illustration I have accepted two earlier images of Aja ekapād from Bhubaneswar belonging to the 8th century A.D. One is from Taleśvara temple and the other is from Śiśereśvara temple, both of them appear to be identical. The image consists of four hands and is shown with the penis erectus (urdhvalingam) and the snake as sacred thread stretches from the left shoulder. The god has a halo behind his head and holds a trisula and aksamālā in two upper hands, while one lower hand is in varadamudrā, the gesture of granting a wish, the emblem of the other hand is ghata or amrtaghata. The body with the snake as sacred thread and trisula in one of his hands resembles Siva. Aksamālā in the right hand is usually accepted as one of the emblems of Brahmā. And Amrtaghata 'the vase of nectar' appears as one of the emblems of Visnu in his Mohini form at the time of Amrtamanthana. Thus the icon represents to a greater extent the contents of the dhyana.

To sume up, Aja ekapād, a deity of the atmospheric region along with Rudra is, in course of time, fused with Rudra-Śiva and formed one of his manifestations. And the appellation was accepted as one of the thousand and eight names of Siva. In sculptural representations, he is also recognised as a form of Śiva.

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THE MOTHER GODDESSES ACCORDING TO THE $DEV\bar{I}PUR\bar{A}NA$

by

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Introduction

The cult of Mātṛkā or the Mothers is among the many fascinating topics discussed in the Dcvīpurāṇa (henceforth Devip.). One of the least studied of the Śākta upapurāṇas, Devip. is a rich and relatively early text of this genre. Hazra has persuasively demonstrated that the text was well known by the eleventh century and was compiled, in its present from, beetween the sixth and the tenth century. By a very detailed study of the peculiar hybrid language of the text and a comparison with Buddhist literature in hybrid Sanskrit, he has convincingly shown that parts of the purāṇa may go back to the early centuries of the Christian era, if not earlier. He has further demonstrated that the present text may have been redacted and compiled somewhere in Eastern India, probably in Bengal. It has certainly remained popular among the Śāktas of Bengal, but is also authoritative in the northwestern regions of the country and in the Himalayas.

In reaching his conclusions Hazra has relied mostly on textual evidence, as most scholars who work with texts are prone to do. However, in this paper attempts will be made to show that not infrequently both the relative date and the place of origin of a text can be determined with artistic or archaeological evidence. I have found this method very commendable in relation to the Viṣṇudharmottarapurāṇa. Most scholars are agreed that this

^{1.} R. C. Hazra, Studies in the Upapurāṇas, II (Calcutta, 1963), pp. 35-194. Hazra has given a fairly detailed summary of the contents of this upapurāṇa. The old Baṅgabāsī edition (in Bengali script) of the text with a translation by Panchanan Tarkaratna has recently been revised and reprinted by Navabharat Publishers in Calcutta (B. E. 1384). While I have used this work extensively, all quotations are from the Devanāgarī edition, by P. K. Sharma and entitled Devī Purāṇam (New Delhi, 1976).

purāṇa must have been compiled in the northwestern part of the Indian subcontinent, specifically Kashmir. In several articles I believe I have convincingly demonstrated with the help of the artistic remains of that region that this indeed is true. In this paper I will not only discuss both the concept and the cult of the goddesses known as Mātṛkā, as delineated in the Devip., but will also demonstrate how the iconographic data is useful in establishing a relative chronology of at least certain portions of the text.

The expressions matrka and matarah are very amorphous terms in the history of Indian religions. Apart from the fact that they are applied to specific groups of goddesses, who seem to have been brought together under this rubric, all goddesses may be addressed as "mother". A similarly broad use is made of the term janani, also meaning mother, by the Hindus, Buddhists and the Jainas alike. In the tantric tradition, despite the sexuality involved in vīrācāra or kulācāra rituals, all women are to be addressed as mother and the goddess is said to reside in them all. Thus, one's mother, wife, sister and daughter are all mothers. The psychological implications of the contradictions and ambiguities regarding the role of woman and of the goddess in Hindu mythology have recently been discussed by Wendy O'Flaherty.3 The book, however, does not specifically deal with the various groups of goddesses that are known as Mātrkā but interprets the aggressive and dominant role of the goddess and the mother in mythology. In writing about the Mothers in the Devip., I will not dare follow in the footsteps of my distinguished colleague. Rather, my purpose is simply to extract the fascinating material concerning the Mothers and their cult as contained in the text.

^{2.} P. Pal, "The Aiduko of the Visnudharmottarapurāna and certain aspects of stupa symbolism" in Journal of the Indian Society of Oriental Art, n.s. pp. 49-62; "Dhanada Kubera of the Visnudharmottarapurāna and Some Images from North-west India" in Lalit-Kalā, 18, pp. 13-26.

^{3.} W, D. O'Flaherty, Women, Androgynes and Other Mythical Beasts (Chicago, 1980).

Mothers of the World

The Mothers are introduced in the very first chapter of the *Devip*. where they are described as mothers of the people or of the worlds (*lokamātaraḥ*). Beneficial to all creatures, they are said to reside in different places for the good of all children. That they are universal mothers is repeatedly emphasized in the text. 5

The expression lokamātaraḥ is also used in the Mahābhārata to describe the Mothers who are said to speak different languages, thereby implying that they are regional or local deities who have different identities but reflect the same basic concept. Invariably associated with Kārttikeya, they are made to plead with him to gain the distinction of being his mothers. Moreover, as will be apparent from the following passage, there appears to have been a conflict between two groups of Mothers. The Kṛttikās or the Pleiades, who are the foster mothers of Kārttikeya, come to him and say:

Let ours be the estate of those who before had been fabricated as the Mothers of this world, and it shall be no more theirs. Let us be worshipful to the world, and let *them* be not so, but among Gods. They have robbed our progeny on your account, restore it to us!⁷

If is difficult to surmise what this conflict between the "old" and the "new" Mothers was all about. It may reflect a state of affairs during the expansion of Aryan culture resulting in some sort of hostility between the Vedic deities and indigenous goddesses.

A similar conflict is recorded in other puranic myths as well, the most elaborate version of which is given in the Matsyapurāṇa.8

- 4. hitāya sarvabhūtānām mātaro lokamātaraḥ sthitā lokavibhedena bālānām hitakāmyayā| 1.52
- 5. viśvaśya mātarah | 67.52; sarvalokasya mātarah | 87, 16. In some manuscripts of the Amarakośa, the goddess of prosperity Lakṣmī is characterized as lokamātā indirā lokamātā mā kṣīrābdhitanayā ramā ityapi pāṭho dṛṣyate|
- 6. For the epic reference see, S. Sorensen, An Index to the Names in the Mahābhārata (Delhi, 1978), p. 474.
- 7. J. A. B. van Buitnen, The Mahābhārata, 2 (Chicago, 1975), p. 657.
- 8. Chapter 179. More than a hudred Mātṛkās are named in this chapter, which knows of a group of seven, but none of the familiar Saptamātṛkās are included.

The Mothers were created by Siva to help him destroy the demon Andhaka. However, after Andhaka's impalement, the Mothers remained hungry and wanted to devour the universe. Unable to control them, Siva appealed to Narasimha, who then created thirty-two other Mothers from his own body. Witnessing the fury of these fire-breathing Mothers, the earlier host sought refuge in Narasimha. The lion-headed god then announced that these Sivaite Mothers will forever protect the world just as people and cattle protect their offspring. They were also instructed to worship both Siva and Narasimha, who then told his creations that they shall be his lovers and will receive worship from mankind.

Thus, as in the Mahābhārata, here also we see a conflict between two groups of Mothers, though the hostility has now been sectarianised by its association with the two major theistic religions of the Hindus. One group of Mothers is regarded as perennially hungry, but both groups are vicious and malignant, and certainly not maternal. It is interesting to note that although Narasimha is closely associated with the Mothers, I know of no shrine where they are represented together. On the other hand, most Saiva temples have shrines of the Mothers, usually of a group of seven, as it is specified in the Matsyapurāṇa. The introduction of Narasimha into this myth seems to reflect an obvious sectarian bias of the Vaiṣṇavas. In passing it may be mentioned that there are images showing a group of five Mothers, each with the head of a lioness, and one wonders if these are meant to be the Mothers of the Narasimha group. 10

It was customary in ancient India to offer bali to the Mothers at the crossroads. The most well-known allusion to this rite occurs in Mṛcchak aṭikā where the hero, Cārudatta, dispatches his friend to offer the bali at the crossroads [1] (gaccha tvam api catuspathe mātṛbhyo balim upāhara). These Mothers were not the later Saptamatṛkā, the personified šakti of the various gods, nor, as

^{9.} The iconographic chapter of the Matsya (261.24.3) knows of the Seven Mothers led by Viresvara playing the viņā.

^{10.} As we will see below, the *Devip*. also knows of a pentad of Mothers.

^{11.} As quoted in D.D. Kosambi, Myth and Reality (Bombay, 1962), p. 82.

Kosambi has suggested, 12 were they simple Aryan ancestresses like the Pitrs or Fathers. The rite referred to by Bhasa is much older. In the Satapatha Brahmana (2.6,2.9). Rudra is invited at a crossroads sacrifice to graciously accept the offering with Ambika. In the Srauta ritual of Tryambaka the offerings were suspended from trees, which were closely associated with Apsarases in particular, and the goddesses in general. 18 Elsewhere in the Devip. the term apsarā is frequently used to denote the celestial companions of the Goddess.14 The epithet Tryambaka accorded 10 Rudra in the Rgveda must be understood as one who has three mothers. Only much later did the expression come to signify one with three eves. The expressions amba and matarah are employed generally in the Rgveda to denote mothers and already we encounter the "seven" Mothers who are said to control the soma during its preparation (jajñanam sapta mataro vedhamasasata sriye IX, 102.4). This may well be the reason why later one of the groups of Mothers included seven goddesses.

What is clear is that the Mothers of the world, mentioned in the Devip. and the Mahabharata, are not the Saktis of the different gods who help the Goddess in her various battles. Rather, they are the bhutamatarah of early literature and represent the countless primitive goddesses who continue to be worshipped in village India, mostly by women during ehildbirth and for the protection of the family from diseases and misfortunes. Known vaguely as Mothers, these goddesses go back to a remote past and were represented mostly in terracotta figurines, either individually or in groups, and with or without a child. Also known as Jambhakas, Pūtanas, etc., they have a dual nature. If angered they eat children, but when propitiated they become benevolent. This is clearly evident when, in the Mahabharata, Skanda pleads with the Mothers: "Hail to ye-spare the offspring when they honour ye well."15

Ibid., p. 84. 12.

It is curious to note also that Tryambaka offerings were 13. made by girls of marriageable age who were seeking husbands. See R. N. Sharma, Culture and Civilization as Revealed in the Srautasūtras (Delhi, 1977), pp. 136-137.

In Chapter 93 while mentioning the attendants of the 14. Goddess Nanda, the terms kanyaka and apsara are interchanged,

van Buitnen, op, cit., p. 657. 15.

The malignant character of the Mothers is repeatedly stressed in the various purāṇas as well. In the Vāyupurāṇa a protective charm (rakṣā) is recommended so that no harm can come to children from the cruel and harmful Bālagraha, Bhūtas, Pūtanās and Mātṛkās.¹6 The Skandapurāṇa is another rich source for the study of the cult of the Primitive Mothers. The Mothers are described as beings who snatch the womb (mātaro jātahārikāḥ).¹7 An entire chapter in the Skanda (Prabhāsakhaṇḍa, Ch. 167) is devoted to the cult of a gc ddess called Bhūtamātā. She is supposed to protect children (sarvatraiṣā bhagavatī bālānāṁ hitakāriṇī) and is worshipped by different names at different times and with different rites (nāmabhedaiḥ kālabhedaiḥ kriyābhedaiśca pūjyate|| 71). Even if she lies broken below an old tree one should not neglect to bathe her with water.¹8

In the *Devip*. as well words such as *bhūta*, *pūtanā*, *mātaraḥ* are used to designate groups of malevolent deities rather than individual figures. In Chapter 6 (53-55) we are told that whoever reads the *Devīstotra* composed by Brahmā and Viṣṇu will never be afflicted by, among others, Piśācas, Bhūtas and Pūtanās. Elsewhere Śiva is entreated by the gods to devour all Cāmuṇḍās, Dākinīs, Bhūtas, Mātṛs and other Jambhakās. In Interestingly, here even Cāmuṇḍā is used as a common rather than a proper name. In the *Skanda* too the word cāmuṇḍā is used in the plural to signify a class of goddesses. In any event, that these are all goddesses is clear from the fact that Bhūtamātā is addressed as *bhagavatī*.

The demoness Pūtanā, who attempted to feed the infant Kṛṣṇa with her poisoned breasts, is therefore a representative

^{16.} arbhakagrahabhūtaiśca pūtanāmatṛbhiḥ sadā | abhyardditānām bālānam rakṣāmetām prayojayet || 9.97.

^{17.} Skandapurāņa, Prabhāsakhaṇḍa, 8. 18. No doubt this trait also underlies the name of the Buddhist goddess Hāritī.

^{18.} bhagnāmapi gatām cainām jarattarutale sthitām | secayiṣyantiṣye bhaktyā jalasampūrnagandukaiḥ | 167.73

^{19.} jambhakādyātha cāmuṇḍā ḍākinyo bhūtamātarah | ye ye dānavapaksaṣya tc te khāda mantaka | | 7.69. The Baṅgabāsī edition has khādaya mantike ||.

^{20.} navakotyastu cāmuṇḍāstasmin kṣetre sthitaḥ svayam || Prabhāsakhaṇḍa. 4. 118.

example of a class of malevolent deities who afflicted children. As the Mahabharata says:

They call Pūtanā a Rākṣasi—one should know that she is the Pūtanā Grasper; she 's an awful Stalker of the Night, evil in her ghastly shape. One horrifying Piśācī is called Sītapūtanā; this terrible shaped specter aborts the foetus of women.21

The Buddhist Hāritī was a goddess of the same type. Originally a raksast who devoured children, she became their benevolent, tutelary deity, after her conversion by the Buddha.

Such goddesses were obviously known by different names in different places just as they are said to speak different languages. For example, according to the Mahabharata,22 the goddess Jara was such a tutelary deity of Magadha and every house in the region displayed her picture. It was Jarā who put together the deformed child who thereafter came to be known as Jarasandha and subsequently became the king of Magadha, while Hariti served the same function in the northwest part of the subcontinent.

Accorning to the Devip., along with the Lokapalas and the Grahas, the Mothers are to be offered oblations during the homa ceremony performed in connection with an important rite known as vasudhārādāna, observed in honour of the Goddess and for general prosperity.28 The offerings are to be made in a pit or kunda that may be square, circular or shaped like a lotus. We have, however, no further information regarding these Mothers but they are very likely the ancient Mothers of the World. Interestingly, this homa should be performed according to Vedic rites following the Atharvaveda.24 It may be recalled that this veda is often considered to be a source of tantric rites and rituals.

Both Apsaras and Krityas are given much importance in the Atharvaveda, and many of the hymns are called matrnamani.25

- 21. van Buitnen, op. cit., p. 658.
- 22. ibid, pp. 64-65.
- 23. The entire Chapter 26 is devoted to this rite. Although this is a general rite for the Goddess, the Mothers are also included.
- 24. athavā sarvvasāmānyām vaidikāmapi kāravetl atharvva vidhinā vats 1 pūrvoktā vā yathā purā | 26.22.
- See N. J. Shende, The Religion and Philosophy of the 25. Atharvaveda (Poona, 1952), pp. 162-166.

Apsarases are said to reside in trees and water, are beautiful to look at and both they and their male counterparts are said to bear crests on their heads. Those who are familiar with early terracotta figurines found all over India will not be surprised by the fact that these figures are often shown with elaborate headdresses with one or more crests (fig. 1). Even more interesting are the charms and rites described in the Atharvaveda in connection with the Krtyas, who are generally considered to be witches. Of couese, one would expect the Vedic Aryans to consider them as witches, but that they were extremely important personages in popular religion and possibly even among the Aryans, is evident from the wealth of information provided in the Atharvaveda.26 These Krtyas and Yātudhanīs are hardly abstract concepts but are as concrete as the later Mothers and other goddesses of popular Hinduism. It also seems clear that they were actually represented in images. As N. J. Shende has observed:

The AV gives a very interesting account of the construction and working of Kṛtyā and Yātu. Kṛtyā may be fashioned by men or women or by a Brāhmaṇa, Kṣatriya (Rājan) or Śūdra (10.1.3). Like a bride decorated for the marriage procession, she is to be skilfully decorated. She has a head, nose, and ears, and has a variety of forms and is adorned with a crest (10.1.2.15). She has joints. The sorcerers bury her in the sacred grass (barhis), a field, cremation ground (śmaśāna) or in the household fire (10.1.18). She is capable of going to any distant place (10.1.2). She is sometimes sent with charms having her name while giving offerings to the Fathers or while offering oblations in the usual sacrifice (10.1.11). 27

This may well explain why countless terracotta figurines of females surviving from the Indus Valley days (2500 B.C. or earlier) appear in such excellent condition. They may well be images of Kṛtyās, as also of Apsarases, and are so well preserved because they were buried, as the text tells us We will have occasion to mention later that the early images of the Mothers were often

^{26.} The Skandapurāņa too contains copious material about the Kṛtyās and they are definitely regarded as goddesses.

^{27.} Shende, op. cit. p. 163.

made of clay, although in the neolithic age they were worshipped in numinous stones as well. It was only during the Gupta period, after their assimilation with the Saktis of the male deities, that we encounter images of Mothers made from stone.

There are various other allusions to the Mothers in the Devip. that seem to imply a group other than the standard Saptamatrkas to be discussed later. It knows of a mandala of the Sixteen Mothers, although they are not named.28 In the sections on medicine (ayurveda) the Mothers are said to be the chief antidote to the balagraha or afflictions of children (sivanusmaranam bhūtajvarāpaharāņam, mātaro bālagrahānām 110.3). Rather cutious are the six groups of Mothers mentioned in connection with the battle with Ruru. While trying to hide from the Goddess, the demon goes to six different netherworlds, in each of which he is confronted by groups of Mothers. In Kancanapura he encounters the Pātālamātara; in Talapuri he Śiva surrounded by the Yogamātaras and Atharvarudras; in Śūryavatī the mothers, known as Kapālamātara, are accompanied by Kimpurusas; in Vidyūnmatipuri the Utpalamataras are surrounded by Pingarudras; in Kantimatī the Bhaginyāmātṛs are accompanied by Ganarudras; and in Bhasmavati the Ucchusmamataras keep the compacy of Ucchusmas.29 Among these only the Kapalamataras and the Bhaginvamātaras are described with weapons

Not only are Mothers described in six groups, but it is clear that these groups are quite different from the Saptamatrkas. Obviously the purpose of this episode is once again to emphasize the pervasiveness of the Mothers, for Ruru cannot escape them

^{28.} The sixteen Mothers and the Rudras are mentioned in connection with writing a charm (parastham matrmadhyastham sodašanantu rudragam 70. 6)

^{86. 3-31,} Although only two groups of Mothers are described with weapons, others are characterized as 29. loud, cruel and malignant. Thus with regard to the Patālamataras, they are supposed to be jyāghoṣe ghora-mukharā tarjayantī purahsthitā. The Ucchuṣmamātaras are characterized as krūrālāpā mahākrūrā tarjayitvābravididam. In describing the Ucchuşmamātaras and their companions, the Devanagari edition has tatrosma-samanvitā while the Bengali edition has tatrocchuşmasamanvitā. I have accepted the second reading.

no matter where he flees. It is interesting that the Kapālamātaras are mentioned in the Skandapurāņa in connection with Mahiṣāsura. It seems that noting his arrogance, Śiva became very angry, and the Mothers with luminous faces emerged from the God's forehead which is why they are known as Kapālamātṛkā.³⁰ Elsewhere, in connection with the Kārttikeya legend, we are told that the Mothers emerged from the netherworld (pātāla), and Śiva named them according to their culinary preferences.³¹ Thus, those who eat the banyan tree are Vaṭamātara; those who like thin bread (carpaṭa, modern capāṭi) are Carpaṭamātara; and those who prefer paula (pauli), a kind of cake made from rice, are called Paulamātaras. Clearly the Mothers are here being classified according to the food offerings made at their shrines.

A Pentad of Mothers

Generally the Mothers are worshipped in a group of seven, but the *Devip*. also knows of a pentad of Mothers. Chapters 111 through 116 are devoted to the origin of Gajānana or Vināyaka and how he destroyed various demons with the help of the Mothers. In Chapter 116 (82-96) there is a digression about how the sage Māṇḍavya had saved Hariścandra by worshipping the Mothers. Bṛhaspati narrates the story as follows:

In those terrible times when the kingdom was threatened with disasters the sage Māṇḍavya came down to earth at the pilgrimage of Someśa on the bank of the Sarasvatī There he worshipped the five Mothers (mātṛpañcaka) who had been established by Brahmā. These five are Ambikā, Rudrāṇī, Cāmuṇḍā, Brāhmī and Vaiṣṇavī. Pleased with his worship, the Mothers appeared before Māṇḍavya and offered him a boon. The sage requested the Mothers to save Hariścandra. Curiously, Kaumārī is then made the spokeswoman of the Mothers, although she is not one of the five, unless Ambikā is her name as well. In any event, she instruc-

^{30.} Skandapurāņa (Āvantyakhaṇḍa), 9.15-17.
etasminnantare vyāsa tatkapālāt subhairavāḥ|
dīptāsyā mātataḥ sarvvāḥ pracaṇdāstrā mahābalāḥ|| 15
abhyadhāvaṁstamuddeśaṁ mahādevaṁ nivedya vai|
daityaṁ tā bhakṣayanti sma bhittvā bhittvā mahābalāḥ||
kapālamātarastasmāt khyātāḥ kṣetre mahābalāḥ|
mahākapālastasmadvai tāḍrśāḥ parikīrttitāḥ|| 17

^{31.} Skandapurāņa (Āvantyakhaņda) 54.80-83.

ted Māṇḍavya to go to Vindhyācala where there was a brahmamandala of Siva near which Visnu has established a Matrcakra. If one worships there with flesh and sacrifice, then all misfortunes disappear. Mandavya thereafter left the country known as pancakadesa and went to the Vindhya mountain. The Vindhya of course is one of the chief residences of the Goddess, but this is the only allusion known to me of a Matrcakra in that region. Obviously this is the story mentioned in the contents of the Devip. in Chapter 1 (17) where we are told to expect the table of Māṇḍavya's worship of Siva

If we forget for a moment the names of the Mothers, it seems to me that here we have the memories of an ancient cult of five goddesses, which was possibly different from the later cult of the heptad. This cult of the Five Mothers flourished on the bank of the Sarasvati in the land of Pancakadesa. The use of the term Pañcakadeśa is interesting for it is a survival of the well-known Rgvedic expression "the five lands" or "the five peoples." It may also be noted that the term pancajana occurs in Kautilya's Arthaśāstra, but is not generally used in the purānas. Significantly, the Sārasvatasatra was performed on the bank of the river Sarasvatī for the benefit of the five peoples (pañcajātā vardhyantī | Rgveda 6. 61. 12). The five peoples were Anu, Druhya, Puru, Turvaśa and Yadu; their priest was Atri (rsim pancajanayam Rgveda, 1. 117 3). What is even more interesting is the fact that on the southern bank of the river at Vinasana where Sarasvati disappeared the Vedic brahmins used to perform Sarasvata-satra on the sixth day (dakşine tire sarasvatyā vinašanasya dikseran sārasvatāya sasthyam paksasyeti gautamah).32 We may recall that the sixth day (sasthī) is particularly propitious to the Mothers, and the goddess Şaşthī is still worshipped on that day to protect children. Even more fascinating information is provided by the Sankhayana Śrautasūtra about the rituals involved in the Sārasvata-satra. The various structural components of the rite, such as the patnīšālā śāmitra, sadaḥśālā and āgnīdhra, were all of circular shape, and a ram was sacrificed to the goddess.88

Quoted from the Latyayana Śrautasūtra (10.15.1) by A. 32. C. Vidyabhushan, Sarasvatī, I (Calcutta, 1345 B. E.),

^{33.} Ibid, pp. 66-67.

It may not be insignificant that Mandavya worshipped the five Mothers at the pilgrimage of Somesa. The Mahabharata mentions a Somatirtha not very far from Kuruksetra.84 We also know that Sarasvatī as Vāc was closely associated with Soma. Both the Aitareya- and the Satapatha-Brahmana contain slightly different versions of the story of Vac being given to the sensual Gandharvas as the purchase price for soma. 85 Thus she went naked to the Gandharvas but returned to the gods and sages during their fire ritual. We may recall here the Rgvedic passage, mentioned earlier, in which the Seven Mothers are said to regulate the Soma. Atri, as we have already pointed out, was the priest of the five peoples, and his son Ugraśravas, who wanted to enjoy a prostitute on his deathbed, was cursed by Mandavya. And in the Devip. we find Mandavya being sent to Vindyacala from the lands of the five peoples to worship a different set of Mothers in a circle established by Visnu. Thus, it seems that this myth, although meant to be a simple digression, echoes the hostility between two groups of Mothers (Saiva and Vaisnava), as is also reflected in the Mahābharata noted earlier. We may further conclude that the legend is really much older than the generally accepted date of the Devip. and perhaps belongs to an early layer of the text. It certainly does not fit into the story of Vināyaka's battles with demons but rather concerns the legendary king Hariscandra. The reference to the pañcajana, the worship on the bank of the Sarasvati, and the involvement of ancient priests make this a genuine tale of yesteryear or purana. There seems little doubt that this story has preserved the memory of the Vedic Sarasvata-satra in which the five deities Indra, Agni, Mitra, Varuna and Sarasvatī were worshipped. In the Sakta context the five Vedic deities have become five Mothers, although it is possible that the worship involved five goddesses, one for each tribe or race

The practice of worshipping the Goddess on the bank of the Sarasvatī and the concept of a pentad of Mothers are encountered in other texts as well. In the Skandapurana we are told that an ancient sage named Candasarman had a wife named Sakambhari

van Buitnen, op. cit., pp. 382-383. Two other contiguous Tirthas mentioned in this connection are Kumārītī-34. rtha and Saptasārasvata.

See Vidyabhushan. op. cit., pp. 67-70. 35.

who built a temple of Durga on the bank of Sarasvati.36 Because Sakambhari established her, the Goddess came to be known as Śākambhari, which is a different explanation of this name than that given in the Devīmāhātmya and elsewhere. As to the pentad, in another section of the same purana, the five Gomatas, also called Gauris, are Nandā, Subhadrā, Surabhi, Susilā and Sumanā.37 They are further described as having tough tongues with which they can remove the flesh from dead bodies.88 It is interesting that like Camunda the Gauris are also mentioned in the plural. Gauri is included in a pentad of goddesses abiding in Candraparvata according to the Devip.89 Called Medha, Gauri, Yaksi, Jvala and Vindhyavāsini, they were worshipped by the demon Vairocana.

In passing, it may be pointed out that the Buddhist tantric tradition too knows of the worship of five Mothers. In connection with the cult of Mahākāla we are told that he is adored in the cremation ground by the Mothers (smasanavasimatrgananamaskrtaya) and that in his mandala he is followed by five Yoginis who are Kāli, Karāli, Varāli, Kankāli and Mahākāli (pascāt svarcimibhih kālī karālī varālī kankālī mahākālī pancayoginībhih).40

Thus, the Devip. knows of various groups and traditions of world Mothers who were conceptually related. These Mothers were ancient goddesses worshipped popularly like the Krtyas and Apsarases of the Atharvaveda as well as the early Yaksis and Pūtanās whose representatives survive in the Jarā of the Mahābhārata, Pūtanā of the Kṛṣṇa legends and Hāritī of the Buddhists. They were generally goddesses of dread who devoured everyone and everything. With great difficulty Karttikeya, Siva and Narasimha

^{36.} The Skandapurana (Nagarakhanda). 164. 39-48.

Skandapurāna (Prabhāsakhanda), 32, 44, nandā subhadrā surabhih susilā sumanāstathā | iti gomātarah pañca golokācca samāgatāh ||

^{38.} 32. 41-42.

vairocanena danuna kanyarddhai candraparvate | 39. pancamūrtigatā devī pūjitā sarvvakāmadā | 44.9 medhā gaurī yathā yaksī jvālāsyā vindhyavāsinī | pūjitā samstutā brahman sarvvakāma-phalapradā | 44.10

B. Bhattacharyya, Sādhanamālā, 2 (Baroda, 1968), pp. 40. 583-584.

succeeded in taming them on various occasions. These are Mothers to whom Cārudatta in Bhāsa's Mṛcchhakaṭikā sent offerings (bali) at the crossroads, a custom that was very old as shown by Kosambi. They were sometimes worshipped individually and at others in groups. We know from the Vedic expression Tryambaka that Rudra was associated once with three Mothers. It is also well-known that Kārttikeya came to be associated with six or seven Mothers. The Devip. further preserves memories of a pentad of mothers, and occasionally in art we come across reliefs showing five instead of the customary seven. In any event, it is clear that worship of feminine deities, and specifically the Mothers, was far more common during the early period than is generally admitted.

Mothers as Śaktis

Apart from these Lokamātaraḥ or the "mundane" Mothers, the Devip. also knows a group of goddesses who, though called Mātṛkā, represent the śakti (power or energy) of the important gods of the Hindu pantheon. Usually they are seven or eight in number and are called Sapta— or Aṣṭa-Mātṛikās. Both artistic and literary evidence seem to indicate that this concept and the cult could not have become popular much earlier than the Gupta period. The earlier Mothers of the crossroad mentioned by Bhāsa are different from those described by Kālidāsa (ca. 400 A. D.) in his Kumārasambhava.41

According to Kālidāsa these Mothers were present during Śiva's marriage and formed part of the groom's retinne. Amusingly, the Mothers served as Śiva's beauticians, and although he was in-

^{41. 7, 30-31} and 38-39: It is interesting to note that the Mātṛkās formed part of the groom's procession in the Matsyapurāṇa account of the wedding. (Ch. 154). As a matter of fact, there also the Mātṛkās are not named though Cāmuṇḍā alone is identified, as is the case with Kālidāsa. Furthermore, in the Matsya account Siva rejects all ornaments and cosmetics offered by Kubera and goes to the wedding in his regular attire (442-443). Kālidāsa must have been aware of the Matsya's account of the legend, although Raghavan considers Kālidāsa's to be the earlier work. For the relationship between the Matsya and Kālidāsa's works, see S. G. Kantawala, Cultural History from the Matsyapurāṇa (Baroda, 1964), pp. 7-8 and references cited therein.

different to such grooming, he did touch the cosmetics in deference to the goddesses. Even here the power of the Mothers is evident. Thereafter, with his characteristic brilliance, Kālidāsa gives us a rich and beautiful description of the wedding procession as the Mothers rode on their own mounts. The poet says that as the golden-complexioned Mothers were followed by the dark Kāli carrying a white skull-cup, it seemed as if a blue cloud was framed by a row of white geese and preceded by golden streaks of lightning.

That the assimilation of the World Mothers and the Saktis of the various gods was accomplished by 500 A. D. is also evident from the artistic evidence, for although there are groups of six or seven Mothers represented in Kuṣān period reliefs, they cannot be identified as the Śaktis (Fig. 2). Sometimes the Kushan Mothers have animal or bird heads; and occasionally they are shown with children but not as Saktis. It thus appears that sometime before 400 A. D. the brahmins adopted the older and popular cult of six or seven Mothers and by identifying them with the Saktis of the gods, killed several birds with one stone. It satisfied their male chauvinist attitude, it brought various non-Aryan goddesses within the Brahmanical fold and thus legitimatized their cults, and further, it converted these "proletarian" deities into sophisticated hierophanies of the Great Goddess. Finally, in the tantric tradition, their numer was standardized to eight to symbolize the eight directions, as is evident from Abhinavagupta's hymn to the Mothers in which the mystic homologizes the devotee's body with the cosmos through the eight Matrkas.42

The goddesses who constitute the Saptamātrkā group are thus relative latecomers in the Hindu pantheon and have different origins and functions than the Lokamatrs of mythology. The most commonly cited story of their origin is that which is narrated in the Devīmāhātmya, composed probably around the sixth century and for some unknown reason interpolated into the Markandeyapurana, which otherwise has nothing to do with the Sakta religion. Subsequently, the Devīmāhātmya became the Bible of the Śāktas, and modern scholars have depended more on this text for the understanding of the religion and iconography of the Goddess than any

L. Silburn, tr. Hymnes de Abhinavagupta (Paris, 1970), 42. pp. 85-97.

other. Neither in recounting the story of their origins nor in their names and numbers is the Devīmāhātmya consistent. 43 Although the Great Goddess herself is the embodiment of the collective energy or power of the gods, they had also to release their sakti to create individual goddesses, while Kāli or Cāmundā appeared in different contexts from the wrath of Durga's forehead. Moreover, there are two slightly variant lists in the text. The goddesses Brahmani, Māheśvarī, Vaisnavī, Kaumārī, Vārāhī, and Indrānī are common to both lists. Nārasimhi is the seventh goddess in the first list which excludes Cāmundā, who however replaces Nārasimhī in the second list. In any event, Nārasimhī is rarely included in representtions of the seven goddesses. As is well known each goddess symbolizes the power or energy of the god whose name she bears which is why she borrows his attributes and mount. If these seven or eight goddesses had simply been called Sakti instead of Mātṛkā, students of Indian iconography and religion would have been less confused. In order to distinguish them from the Lokamātrkās, therefore, we will refer to them as Sakti.

That there was some confusion among the puranic authors regarding the relationship of the Saktis with their male counterparts is evident from the Devip. (37.81-88). We are told that Brāhmani is so called because she is the mother or wife of Brahmā (brahmānī bhrahmajananī brahmasyevam ca vā matā). Rudrānī is either the Sakti of Rudra or she destroys what is raudra (rudrasyevam tu rudrānī raudram hanti karoti vā). A wider significance is attached to Maheśi or Māheśvari. Apart from the fact that she had emerged from Mahadeva, she is so named because one sees her at the time of death (mahādevāt samutpannā mahānti vikṣate yatah); or because her body occupies the universe mahe'svarayā tanuryasyā māheśī tena sā matā). Kaumārī is so called because she is a virgin, is the mother of Kumāra (kumārarūpadhārī ca kumāra-jananī tathā), or she destroys the enemies called kumāra (kumāraripuhantrī ca kaumārī tena sā smrtā). Vaisnavī is regarded as the mother of Viṣṇu (viṣnumātā), while Vārāhī is the

^{43.} In Chapter 8 (12ff), the Saktis are produced by the gods to help Durgā fight Raktabīja. In the battle with Sumbha, (Chapter 10), however, the Goddess reabsorbed them into herself when taunted by the demon. Kālī (or Cāmuṇḍā) is created in Chapter 7 during Durgā's fight with Caṇḍa and Muṇḍa.

mother of Varāha (varāhajananī). Indra is so called because she too is the mother of Indra (indrajananī), but she has two other names. She is named Śakrī because she has the strength of Śakra (sakraparākramā) or is as strong as Śakra, and she is called Vajrī because she holds the elephant-goad and the thunderbolt. Perhaps the most fascinating explanation is given for the name Cāmuṇḍā. As usual it is derived from caṇḍa and muṇḍa; the former signifies that which is terrifying while the latter the head of Brahmā (caṇḍam bībhatsamityāhur muṇḍam brahmasiro matam). Even more interesting is the alternative meaning of muṇḍa which is svāmī, meaning lord or husband (svāmī muṇḍamatañcānyai dhariṇī karaṇārtham vā). These attempts at explanation of the name Cāmuṇḍā not only differ from those given in other texts such as the Devīmāhātmya but clearly demonstrate how the ancient authors found the word puzzling.

Elsewhere in the purāṇa (82.26-34) the Śaktis are quite categorically said to emerge from the respective gods. Thus, Brahmāṇī is called Pitāmahasambhavā or born of Pitāmaha or Brahmā. Māheśvarī is given the epithet Pramathanāthadehodbhavā. Kaumārī is Guhasambhavā and Vaiṣṇavī is Ajitasambhavā. Ajita is an unusual through not inappropriate name for Viṣṇu. Vārāhī is referred to as Kṛtāntatanusambhavā which will be discussed presently. Gaṇanāyikā, included in this list, is also said to originate from the body of Pramathanātha (pramathanāthadehodbhavām). In this context the epithet refers to Gaṇeśa, but it is clear that he and Śiva are identified.

The Devip. frequently mentions the Saktis in many different contexts, and like the Devimāhātmya, is inconsistent about their numbers. However, the iconographic descriptions are far more detailed than in any other purāṇa and are of greater use for the art-historian. Moreover, a great deal of light is thrown on their cult and ritual which should be of interest to the historian of religion. In the Devimāhātmya the Saktis appear in the battle between the Goddess and a demon called Raktabīja and not in the major contest between her and Mahiṣāsura. In the Devip. (Chs. 84-88) as well the Saktis do not participate in the principal battle between the Goddess and Ghora, but are mentioned thrice in connection with the battle between the Goddess and a demon named Ruru, although the three lists differ from one another.

The story of the origins of the Saktis in Devip. varies somewhat from that given in the Devīmāhātmya. As already mentioned. in the latter Kālī is created separately from the forehead of the Goddess to slav Chanda and Munda. It was after her victory that Kāli was given the sobriquet Cāmundā by the Goddess. In the Devip., although Camunda is included in the stotra, she does not play any role in the battle with Ruru. Again in the Devimahatmva the Saktis are created quite abruptly during the battle with Sumbha, but the Devip. (84.21-26 and 85.1-11) provides a more rational explanation of their origin. As the gods approach the battlefied and watch Maheśvara struggling with Ruru, it is Brahmā who decides to help his colleague and releases his own Sakti who assumes his form. As soon as the demons see her they become nervous; the battle stops momentarily, and Siva too watches in amazement as he witnesses this terrifying act (ghorakarmāni) of Brahmā. Thereafter Śiva, Kumāra, Visnu, Yama and Indra follow suit and each creates his Sakti. Rudrānī holds the trident and the cot's leg; Kaumāri has the bow and arrow as well as the spear and the bell; Vaisnavi fights with the bow (kodanda) and the conch; Yami is equipped with the staff and the noose; and the thousand-eyed Indrani carries the thunderbolt and the elephantgoad. Accompained by these Saktis, Durga ultimately destroys Ruru. This second list of Saktis is different from the previous list given above.

When the battle was over the Saktis, along with the Rudras, Pramathas and Yoginis, danced for a long time and then stood before Siva. Pleased with their performance, Siva told them that they are the Mothers of all the people (sarvalokasya mātaraḥ) and that all gods (including Brahmā) and all men will worship them always. Created for the nourishment of the world, they will be worshipped on earth and will fulfill the desires of all devotees. In the final eulogy of the Goddess in the second last chapter of the book (126.129), the Mothers are identified with her (tvameva mātarah sarvā bhūtamātā tathaiva ca).

Iconographic descriptions of the Saktis

Before the battle with Ruru, when the gods approach Siva to save them from the demon, Brahmā and Viṣṇu sing a stotra in

honour of both Mahesvara and the Goddess. The seven Mothers are included in this stotra and there are brief iconographic descriptions of the goddesses (83.84-97).

Riding the gander, Brahmani has a crown of jata, three eyes and carries the trident, but Rudrāni or Māheśvari is described perfunctorily as riding the bull only. Kaumārī is a young girl ((balarupini) clad in red and with three chignons. Seated on the peacock, she carries a spear. Riding Garuda and clad in a yellow garment, Vaisnavi holds the conch, wheel and club. Vārāhi is ferocious with fangs and is of a black complexion (meghavarnā mahaghorā). Indrāni rides an elephant, has a thousand eyes and holds the thunderbolt. Cāmundā is described as emaciated and a lover of flesh; her attributes are the skull-cup and the cot's leg (khatvānga).

After the battle another eulogy is sung by the gods in which the Saktis are described elaborately and with some interesting variations (97.25-34).

Awesome and of terrifying appearance Mahābhairavī rides a bull. She holds the spear, kettledrum, a severed head and a cot's leg.

Seated on a white lotus Brahmani (pitamahasambhava) is carried by a huge, beautiful gander (rājahamsa). Bees hum around her face but nothing is said about her attributes.

Rudrāni (pramathanāthadehodbhavā) is seated on a bull with the trident as her attribute. Her complexion is white and the crescent moon adorns her chignon.

Kaumārī (guhasambhavā) rides a peacock and has the bell and the sharp spear as her attributes.

Vaisnavi (krtantatanusambhava) is black with the head of a sow and rides a buffalo. Her attributes are the sword, the iron bludgeon and the death noose.

Śakrajā or Indrāņī (surasamūhasampūjitā) has a complexion of gold and is variously ornamented. She rides an elephant and holds a thunderbolt.

The next Sakti is not named but is obviously Cāmuṇḍā. She is said to be seated on Śiva (śivasaṁsthitā), although one manuscript has śavasaṁsthitā. Her complexion is like a hundred suns and she has an angry face with tawny eyes but a beautiful body, adorned with a garland of skulls. Nothing is said about her attributes except that she holds terrible weapons. She is specially fond of blood, flesh and fat.

The last Sakti is the personified power of Ganesa. Called Gananāyikā (pramathanāthadehodbhavā), she has an elephant head and removes all obstacles. She is busy chasing with her ears the bees which gather attracted by the ichor that constantly drips from her forehead.

Thus in this list, we not only have nine Saktis, but two new names are introduced. Although Gananāyikā (or Vaināyakī) is included in other lists of the Saktis, Mahabhairavi is not generally encountered. This is very likely Anandabhairavi of Abhinavagupta's Dehārthadevatācakrastotra, where Mahālaksmī replaces Gananāyikā.44 The various epithets of the Saktis have already been discussed. It is rather strange that Camunda is not named at all and is said to be beautiful (varatanudhārīnīm). What is perhaps most significant about this eulogy is that Siva commends the Saktis for their service and declares that they will be worshipped forever as the Mothers of all the people (sarvalokasva matarah) whom they will nourish. Clearly in such statements attempts are being made to identify the lokamataras with the warrior-goddesses or the Saktis. The eulogy ends with the assertion that those who sing this praise of the Mothers not only receive immense wealth and fortune in this life but also find a place in the world of Mothers in the next life.45 Thus, like the realm of the fathers (pitrloka), there is also a matrlaka. It this connection it may be mentioned that Hindus perform a matrixaddha which is a part of the vrddisraddha.46

^{44.} See note 42.

^{45.} naro namati mātaram stavati sarvadevastutām, avāpya vipulam sukham vrajati mātrlokam param | | 87.34.

^{46.} See P. V. Kane, History of the Dharmasastra, IV (Poona, 1973), p. 529.

Apart from the battle with Ruru, the Saktis are mentioned on several other occasions, In a stotra (17.20) sung by Siva the following six are included: Brāhmāni, Kumāri, Māhendri (Indrāni), Māheśvari, Vaisnavi and Vārāhi. Yet on another occasion the Devip. (23.12-20) appears to mention the Saktis indirectly. In connection with the navarātra festival of the Goddess during the light half of the month of Aśvina, we are told that they should be worshipped by kings while depicted on flags riding different mounts. These mounts are the lion, monkey, bull, gander, peacock, Garuda, buffalo, elephant, lotus and a ghost (preta). Thus, altogether ten goddesses are to be venerated, reminding us of the ten Mahāvidyās of the tantric pantheon. Interestingly, seven of these mounts-excluding the lion, the mo key and the lotus-belong to the Seven goddesses: bull (Māheśvarī), gander (Brāhmī), peacock (Kumārī), Garuda (Vaisnavi), buffalo (Vārāhi), elephant (Indrāni) and preta (Cāmundā).

Although the text does not name the deities who ride these ten mounts, it tells us why they should be worshipped. The goddess riding the lion is said to destroy a king's enemies and the one riding the monkey all enemies. The bull-riding goddess grants all wishes; the one who has the gander grants knowledge, wealth and love. The goddess riding the peacock grants sons and welfare, while the one who rides the Garuda cures all diseases. The buffalo-riding goddess prevents all epidemics, and kings worship the trident-bearing goddess riding an elephant for all purposes. The goddess seated on the lotus grants good health, dharma, kāma, artha and moksa. And if the goddess riding a preta is worshipped with animal sacrifices, then she removes all fears. It is clear from this last description as well as that of the peacockriding goddess that the Saptamatrkas are intended here, although the group here consists of ten goddesses.

A few remarks may be relevant here as to why Kaumari, whose mount is the peacock, is considered to be a fertility goddess. Although we generally encounter Kumāra as the general of the gods in the puranic tradition, he was orginally a yakşa or bālagraha who tormented children. The Skanda-vaga described in the Atharvaveda-parisista is essentially a rite to ward off evil spiritis

and protect children. 47 In fact, Kumāras and Skandas, like Yaksas and Putanas, were a class of folk-deities who had to be appeased always. It was perhaps this original role of Kumāra which helped his identification with the South Indian Murugan, essentially a fertility deity. Moreover, Kumara is closely associated with the Mothers, and it appears that only from about the Gupta period Siva replaced Kumāra as their leader. In Kuṣān art Kumāra is often shown with a goddess identified as Şasthi, who is still worshipped for progeny and the protection of children. Like Kumāra, Sasthi is also represented with six heads.48 Obviously this sixheaded goddess further symbolizes the Krittikas who were his foster mothers. Likewise Siva originally was associated with three mothers (amba), one of whom first became his sister and ultimately his consort. We may recall that, according to the Devip., Kumari is the wife, mother and daughter of Kumara. Thus, in her role as Sasthi, it is perfectly appropriate for Kaumari or the goddess riding the peacock to be associated with fertility.

Finally, the *Devip*. knows of a group of sixty goddesses who are all hierophanies of the Devi. The entire Chapter 50 is devoted to these goddesses and their cult. Each goddess is to be worshipped for one year and the names of the sixty years are given. The sixty goddesses are also divided into three groups, $s\bar{a}ttvika$, $r\bar{a}jasa$ and $t\bar{a}masa$. Of the seven Saktis, none is included in the first group. Brahmāṇī and Indrāṇī are included in the $r\bar{a}jasa$ group, and the others (including Indrāṇī a second time) in the $t\bar{a}masa$ group. Their iconographic forms are also described as well as the benefits that accrue from each. Interestingly, some of the seven are given unusual names, but from their descriptions there seems no doubt that they are the conventional Saktis. Although the total number of goddessess is sixty, it is clear that the 64 Yoginīs are intended here.

The years associated with the seven Śāktis are as follows: Brāhmī—sarvajit; Māheśvarī—pingala; Kumārī—kālayukta; Vaiş-

^{47.} F. W. Clothey, *The Many Faces of Murukan* (The Hague, 1978), p. 50. Incidentally, the Mothers are already associated with Skanda in the Skanda-yāga.

^{48.} G. Larson, P. Pal and R. Gowan, In Her Image (Santa Barbara, 1980), p. 47. See also Clothey, op. cit., Skanda-Şaşthi, passim.

navī—siddhyartha; Suravarādhyakṣā (Indrāṇī)—raudra; Vaivasvatī (Vārāhī)—durmati; Carcikā (Cāmuṇḍā)—kṣaya. We must mention, however, that Indrāṇī seems to have been included twice in the list of sixty goddesses, for she is described as Śakrī in the rājasa group. The text further tells us in great detail how each of the sixty goddessess is to be worshipped, but an extensive discussion of this chapter must be postponed for another occasion. However, brief descriptions of the iconography of the seven must be given here.

Seated on a gander, Brāhmī wears a yogapatta and a girdle made of muñja grass. Her four faces are constantly uttering the vedas and she holds the staff, the waterpot, rosary and a ladle. Thus Brāhmī here is four-headed and four-armed (50.131-132).

Adorned with necklaces and other ornaments, Sakri is seated on an elephant and is surrounded by gandharvas, siddhas, caranas and ganas. Her attributes are a thunderbolt and an elephant-goad (50.141-142). Identical description is given when she is addressed as Suravarādhyakṣā or adored by the gods (50.207-208).

Anointed with sandal-paste and other unguents and adorned with various ornaments, Māheśvarī rides a bull. She has three eyes, but, apart from her usual trident, she also plays upon the vīṇā (vīṇā-vādanaśīlā). This is an unusual trait for Māheśvarī, and it is possible that she is represented as such only when included among the 64 Yoginīs (50.202-203). Is she a counterpart of Viṇā-dhara Śiva?

Kaumārī (here called Kumārī) is a young girl $(b\bar{a}lar\bar{u}p\bar{a})$, is dressed in a red garment and wears a red garland. She rides a peacock and carries a spear and a $tridan\bar{q}\bar{\iota}$. Curiously she is also said to be fond of meat and liquor $(m\bar{a}ms\bar{a}savapriy\bar{a} \mid 50.203-204)$.

Vaiṣṇavī wears a garland of wild flowers ($vanam\bar{a}l\bar{a}$), rides Garuḍa, and holds the conch and the wheel (50.205-26).

Vaivasvati or Vārāhi rides a buffalo, has the face of a sow and her hair is adorned with a garland of red flowers. She holds a staff and is engaged in drinking from a skull-cup (50.209-210).

Cāmuṇḍā, who is known as Carcikā, has flying hair, large arms, sunken eyes and is emaciated. She is adorned with a garland of skulls and snakes. She rides a ghost (preta) and carries the sword, the cot's leg, the chopper and a severed head (50.222-223).

The most interesting pieces of information furnished by this list concern Kaumārī and Vārāhī. Kāumārī is described as the Virgin or Kumārī and is dressed in red. The Virgin goddess of Nepal is also usually dressed in red and is identified with Kaumāri, for her necklace is adorned with the peacock motif. ting, however, is the name Vaivasvatī for Vārāhi. Vivasvān is a name of Yama whose mount is the buffalo and whose attribute is a staff. We have also seen that elsewhere Vārāhī is described as Krtantatanusambhava. Thus, there seems little doubt that Varahi is identified with Yami, or is considered to be the personified Sakti of Yama, the god of death. This explains why frequently in art she is given the buffalo as her mount. However, it is not clear whether she was given the buffalo because of her identity with Yama, or, because of the buffalo, she came to be regarded as the Sakti of Yama. As her name would imply she is the Sakti of Varāha and in fact does have the face of a sow. I know of no text where Varaha is identified with Yama.

Rites and Rituals

While we can distinguish between the Lokamātṛkās and the more specific group of Saptamātṛkās, who are the Śaktis of the various gods, it is more difficult to untangle the information about their cults and to determine whether in fact the earlier cult of the former was significantly different from that of the latter. In general, the Mothers are to be worshipped on all occasions, and, along with the Navagrahas and the Dikpālas, they are invoked and appeased during most rituals. The text is quite specific that the Mothers along with the Goddess should be worshipped at night (mātarānānca devīnām pūjā kāryyā tadā niši) 22.21).

We have already referred to the performance of homa in a kunda dedicated to the Mothers in the $vasudh\bar{a}r\bar{a}$ rite. Apart from the usual offerings of food, flowers and clothes, the Mothers should be provided with an umbrella during the rainy season, a

cool pool of water during the summer and a fire in the winter. 49 It is curious that not much is said about vāmācāra rites or esoteric practices. Occasionally, meat and wine are recommended for certain Mothers, particularly Kumārī and Carcikā, but by and large, little information is provided about specific tantric rituals, even though the Mothers and the Goddess are to be worshipped by people versed in tantric rites, as we will presently discuss. Rather, there is a good deal of emphasis on applying Vedic rites. The installation of the images of the Mothers should be acc ompanied by Vedic sounds, loud music and songs by women (90.12). In the evening one should offer sacrifice, and, after remaining awake through the night, worship early in the morning, which is different from the earlier assertion that they are to be worshipped at night. In any event, one must feed brahmins and virgins during the ceremony.

The Mothers are also associated with the gift of books to brahmins. An entire chapter (91), which is an interpolation according to Hazara, provides interesting information about the donation of books. In justifying the offering of books we are told that whatever else one gives diminishes in time, but knowledge can only increase. Once the manuscript is ready, one should invoke the Mothers by saying matarah privatam mama.

Chapter 117, which is quite short, highly recommends the worship of the Mothers. They should be worshipped even if one has nothing to offer them but one's devotion. A kingdom is rid of all fears if the four castes venerate them. If the Mothers are worshipped in hill forts (giridurga) then one gets a good harvest. If one lights a lamp in a circle of Siva (śivacakra) even once when the sun is in the sign of Virgo, then one gets everything in this life. One should offer the Mothers a butter-lamp in the evening, and by worshipping them one pleases of all the gods.

Chapter 90 begins with Indra's statement that among all the deities the Mothers are the best. The sage Agastya then repeats what Indra had learned from Brahma. Both for known and unknown goals, the Mothers should be worshipped in a city, a

Chapters 86 through 90 and 117 are devoted entirely to 49. the cult of the Mothers.

village, a town and in a shield. All one's desires are fulfilled if the Mothers are worshipped on a riverbank, below a tree, in the forest or on a mountain. One gains wealth and a son if the Mothers are venerated in a house, at a crossroad or in the market, while if worshipped at the city gate then they help to increase the kingdom's prosperity and wealth. All one's desires are fulfilled if they are invoked on the bank of the Gangā, on the Vindhya, Veda, Śriśaila and Kiṣkindhyā mountains.

Various kinds of wood, such as sandal, vilva, ašoka, etc., are prescribed for making images of the Mothers, but one can also use precious stones, ordinary stone, clay and gold. They should be established on a beautiful platform in a temple made of wood. brick or stone and should always face north. We may recall that according to the Matsya, their shrines are to be placed in the north. Their images may also be consecrated in a matha or monastery, and it may be pointed out that in his Rajataranging Kalhana (12th century) frequently mentions the Mothers in connection with the establishment of Saiva mathas. While performing the rite known as matrgrahalaksahoma (54), the Mothers are to be venerated along with the Grahas or Planets. Beginning with Carcika in the east, an image of a Mother should be placed on a golden pitha or altar which should be encrusted with various gems (vaidūrya and vajra). In the centre or the calyx (karnikā) should be placed Siva; thus, the altar is to be made circular like a lotus. If worshipped in this manner in different seasons, the Mothers remove all one's fears (54.1-4).

As to who are qualified to worship the Mothers the Devip. is quite explicit. Only those who are well versed in the scriptures of the Devi and are experts in mātṛmaṇḍala and those who are familiar with the bhūtatantra, graha-, vyāla- and garuḍa-śāstras are qualified to worship the Goddess and the Mothers. It is inauspicious to have others worship the Goddess. This is further emphasized in Chapter 51 (4-5) where we are told once more that only those who know the Devi-śāstras and the Māṭrmaṇḍala can worship the Goddess. However, a bad person, an actor, a naiṣṭhika (which is curious) and one who does not know the scriptures cannot worship the Goddess whether he is a brahmin, kṣatriya, vaiśya or a sudra. In the establishment and consecration of their

images one must follow the special rites of the Mothers. The Devip. thus corroborates what Varāhamihira (6th century A. D.) stated in his Brhatsamhita, that the Goddess must be worshipped by those who are versed in matrmandala.50

According to the text (88.1-2) those who desire liberation (mumuksu) will certainly be successful in all endeavours if they worship the Mothers with the rites prescribed in Saiva agamas, Garudatantra, Bhūtatantra and Kālatantra. Whether he is a Pāsanda, a Bauddha, an Antyaja or a Garudavādin, he will get the desired result by following his own rites. The Buddhists of Nepal are particularly fond of worshipping the Mothers whose iconographic descriptions are included in Dharanisamgrahas. We are further told in the Devip, that whether he be a brahmin or a candala (untouchable), he will get results according to how he worships the Mothers. 51 It is interesting that the candalas are permitted to worship the Mothers, and often in village India, a candala can offer worship only at the shrine of the village goddesses since he cannot enter more important Hindu temples. The Mothers are also venerated for auspicious marriages by the gods, gandharvas and kinnaras. Siva then tells Sakra (88.8-9) that everything in this universe originates from Sakti. All creatures including the gods are born from Sakti who is responsible for creation, preservation and final liberation. Just as a drop of ghee spreads in an entire bowl of water, so also Sakti permeates this universe.

The textual evidence seem to indicate that the early shrines of the Mothers were circular. The word most commonly used to describe such a shrine is mandala or cakra. While the former does not always mean a circle, the latter certainly does. It may be recalled that when Mandavya is sent to Vindhyacala he is instructed to worship the Mothers in a circle established by Visnu. In connection with the pilgrimage of Nanda in the Himalayas (95.13). the text further mentions a semi-circular (ardhacandrākrti) shrine of the Mothers. Elsewhere (50.225) the text refers to a matrcakra while describing the shrines of the sixty goddesses.

A. Mitra-sastri, India as seen in the Brhatsamhita of 50. Varāhamihira (Delhi, 1969), p. 155.

yena yena hi bhavena pujayanti manisinah || tena tena phalam dadyuh dvijanamantyajamapi | 88.3-4.

That it was customary to worship the Mothers in early times in a circle is evident from other textual sources. In his Rājataraṅ-giṇī Kalhaṇa repeatedly mentions various ancient shrines of the Mothers as mātṛcakra. 52 Some of these foundations, according to the author, went back to the Maurya period (3rd c. B. C.). Both Varāhamihira (6th C.) and Bāṇabhaṭṭa (7th) use the word maṇḍala in connection with the Mothers, but nothing is said about the shape of their shrines. In the Matsyapurāṇa (270.31) we are given the cryptic information that the sanctuaries of the Mothers (mātṛgṛha) should be placed on the north of the maṇḍapa.

However, a cakra does not necessarily mean a structural shrine. In the chapter on $Graham\bar{a}t_rk\bar{a}$ (53.9) we are told that cakras of the Mothers should be made with gold, silver or copper $(m\bar{a}tar\bar{a}m\bar{a}m\bar{m} \ sad\bar{a} \ cakram \ hemarajatat\bar{a}mrajam||.)$ These are evidently small metal discs, probably containing diagrams, that are known as yantra in $t\bar{a}$ ntric ritual and are used more often than the images. The ringstones of Maurya India, to be presently discussed, may fall into this class of cakra (fig. 3).

Restoration of old shrines

Much stress is laid on the merits of restoring old shrines of the Mothers along with those of Bhairava and Durgā.⁵³ In fact, renovation of old temples is considered to be more important than building new ones. If one removes the Mothers from their dilapidated habitats and reestablishes them in new temples built with burnt brick, wood or stone, then one gains much merit. The image of Durgā can be removed at any time of the year, but other images

^{52.} M. A. Stein, Kalhaṇa's Rājataraṅgiṇī I (Delhi, 1979), p. 23. With reference to Jalauka, a Kashmiri king of great antiquity, Kalhaṇa writes: "His noble queen Iśānadevī placed 'circles sacred to the Mothers' (mātṛcakra) which were distinguished by their spiritual power, at the 'Gates' (of Kashmir) and other places." We may recall that the Devip. (90.8) too states that if one worships the Mothers at the city gates then the entire kingdom prospers (nagaradvāra-pūrvādyā vṛddhirājya-sukhārthadāḥ). Elsewhere in the Rājataraṅgiṇī (p. 49). King Baka is said to have been sacrificed at a devīcakra.

^{53.} Chapter 118 is devoted entirely to such restorations and is entitled jīrņadevatāpratikāra. What follows is a brief summary of this chapter.

must be removed at specified times. Cāmuṇḍā, who is addressed as Rurughātinī and Kālikā, should be transferred with aghoramantra which is part of tantramantra. An image should be removed with a golden ploughshare, tied properly in a cart drawn by oxen; if it be made of wood, the image should be burnt; if made of stone then it should be thrown into deep water. Thereafter a new image should be established in the temple. Just as a human being leaves his old body and enters a new one, so also a god prefers a new house to an old one.

That the Devip. is correct about old stone images being thrown into deep waters has been amply demonstrated by Indian archaeological discoveries from tanks and rivers in the last century. One wonders how many millions of images are still lying at the bottom of the countless rivers in the country. This also makes it clear that images were not thrown into the rivers during times of trouble or during annual worship only. As to images made with wood, a popular medium since very early times, it is regrettable that the worshippers were instructed to burn them when they became old. This unfortunate practice does explain, however, why so few wooden images have survived. In this connection one may mention that the Chinese pilgrims frequently alluded to enormous images made of wood that were worshipped in Indian temples and monasteries. Thus this statement of the Devip. makes it clear that climate alone was not responsible for the disappearance of early wooden images.

With regard to the custom of restoring shrines, we have ample evidence both from archaeology and epigraphy that such a practice was common. Several inscriptions both in India and in Nepal tell us of such renovations or jirnoddhāra. Perhaps the most well known example of the restoration of a temple, though not of the Mothers, is recorded in the Mandasore inscription issued in the year 473-74 A. D. The inscription informs us that in the year 437-38, the guild of silk weavers of Dasapura (Mandasore) had built a "noble (and) unequalled temple" of the Sun-god. But in due course "under other kings, part of this temple fell into disrepair; so now, in order to increase their own fame, the whole of

^{54.} J. F. Fleet, Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, III, (Varanasi, 1970), p. [87.

this most noble house of the Sun has been repaired again by this munificent corporation...."

The most fascinating and relevant inscription about an early example of iīrnoddhāra occurs on the base of an Umā-Maheśvara image in Nepal.⁵⁵ Dated in the year 495, corresponding to A. D. 573, the inscription informs us that a certain Babhruvarmā died before he could undertake the repairs of a set of clay images of the Mothers. Therefore his brother's wife, Desa Bhattarika, was undertaking the task and replacing them with stone images so that they may be more permanent and thereby fulfil the wishes of her dead brother-in-law. It would seem that Desa Bhattarika was implicity following the instructions of the Devip. Both this inscription and the textual statement about replacing the earlier shrines of the Mothers with those made in burnt brick, wood or stone would indicate that prior to the Gupta period it was perhaps more customary to install clay images of the Mothers in simple shrines. This may be one reason why no sizeable images or temples of the Mothers earlier than the fourth century have been found, although from the textual evidence it is clear that there must have been impressive shrines all over the subcontinent.

The Mothers and the Artistic Evidence

At present no temple of the Mothers earlier than the fourth century A. D. has survived. Although countless terracotta figurines going back to prehistoric times have been discovered on the Indian subcontinent we have no way of telling if some of these represent the Lokamātṛkās of the Devip. or the Mahābhārata. In fact, there are no precise descriptions of these Mothers, and they are not described with children. Individual figures of goddesses with a child go back to an early period, but as a group they are found only in representations of the Kuṣān period. Of two such shrines that we are aware of, one was found in Mathura and the other is preserved in the Indian Museum in Calcutta. The Mathura specimen is partly damaged but once

^{55.} P. Pal, The Arts of Nepal, I (Leiden, 1974), p. 25, fig. 9.

^{56.} The Mathura votive shrine was excavated at Sonkh; see, H. Härtel, "Some Results of the Excavations at Sonkh" in German Scholars on India II (Bombay, 1967), Figs. 30-31. The circular shrine was discovered at Bhita and is now displayed in the terracotta gallery of the Indian Museum in Calcutta.

contained six figures of the goddesses, each carrying a child, seated in a rectangular shrine. The other too shows the same configuration of the child-bearing goddesses but in a circular enclosure. Made of terracotta, they are quite small and were very likely meant to grace a domestic altar or serve as votive offerings. A number of stone reliefs of the Kushān period have also been discovered, again at Mathura, where two or more goddesses bearing children are seated in a row.⁵⁷ In some instances they have animal or bird heads. Otherwise, however, in these reliefs and shrines, the Mothers are in no way distinguished from one another, as is the case with the Saptamātṛkā group.

Before we discuss the Saptamātṛkās, however, it may be pertinent to mention a group of stone rings with a hole in the middle which have been found in northern India and are assigned to the Maurya period (4th-2nd c. B. C.). Some of these are more elaborate than others, but most have a row of standing nude goddesses alternating with trees along the inner rim (fiig. 3).⁵⁸ Whether these goddesses are Lokamātṛkās or not, and they may well be, what is significant is that the objects are invariably circular and shaped like a cakra. Perhaps they were portable shrines, like the gau of the Tibetan Buddhists, and served as an amulet, or they may have been meant for domestic use. It is also possible that these ring stones, with their central aperture, may have been the prototype of the later Yogini temples which are invariably hypaethral.

As far as the artistic evidence goes, the Saptamātṛkā group, including Śiva and Gaṇeśa, made its appearance in the late Kuṣān period. By the fourth century, their individual shrines began to appear in Central India and they are shown with or without children. We may recall that in the *Mahābhārata* the Mothers are not the specific Śaktis and are mostly associated with Kārttikeya. In the Bihar stone pillar inscription of Skandagupta (ca. 450 A. D.) as well, the Mothers are led by Kārttikeya rather than Śiva. 59 And yet, Kālidāsa, who may have been an elder

^{57.} See Mitra Sastri, op. cit., pp. 154-155 and references cited therein for pieces in the Mathura museum.

^{58.} D. Desai, Erotic Sculpture of India, (New Delhi. 1975), p. 11.

^{59.} Fleet, op. cit., p. 51.

contemporary of Skandagupta, associates the Mothers with Siva and includes Cāmuṇḍā. It would thus seem that sometime before Kālidāsa, the concept of Śakti resulted in the creation of the personified powers of the gods and, as they were also called "mother", they came to be identified with the older and more mundane mother goddesses. This seem quite clear from the fact that although the Śaktis were conceived as warrior-goddesses to help the Great Goddess in her battles, in the earliest images they are shown seated with children and their militant nature is not emphasized.

The Devip, says nothing about the association of the Mothers with Karttikeya but emphasizes their relation with Siva or Bhairava as Tumburu playing the vīnā, with Umā-Maheśvara and with Ganesa. Clearly these allusions are to actual images which were in existence when the purana was being compiled. We have already seen that both Siva and Ganesa became associated with the Saptamātrkās by the late Kusān period. However, to my knowledge, no image earlier than the sixth century shows a Vinādhara Siva with the Mātrkās. One of the earliest representations in which both the Vinādhara Siva and Ganesa are included is the beautiful group in the Rameśvara Cave at Ellora. As to other texts. Tumburu, the celestial musician, is identified with Siva in the Visnudharmottarapurana whereas in the Matsya Vīnādhara Śiva is called Vīreśvara. 61 It may be pointed out that in the Mahābhārata (lower limit 400 A. D.) Tumburu is frequently mentioned as the celestial musician but is not identified with Siva.

vīṇāhastatriśūlī ca mātṛṇāmagrato bhavet ||.

^{60.} Obviously Siva began to replace Kārttikeya as the leader of the group sometime during the late Kuṣān period and thus by the time of Kālidāsa (ca. 400 A. D.) both traditions may have been concurrent. Skandagupta, like his father Kumāragupta, was a devotee of Kārttikeya and hence may have preferred the earlier tradition, even though by 450 A. D., all available evidence seems to indicate that Siva had triumphed over his son.

^{61.} P. Shah, (ed.) Viṣṇudharmottara-Purāṇa Third Khaṇḍa, II (Baroda, 1961), p. 152. The following couplet occurs in the Matsya (261.39):

vīreśvaraśca bhagavān vṛṣārūḍho jaṭādharaḥ |

As to the association of Umā-Maheśvara with the Mothers, this iconographic convention appears to have been more common in the Himalayas than in the plains. We have already mentioned that the Devip. too is familiar with this association while describing the pilgrimage of Nandā in the Himalayas. The earliest known instance where Umā-Maheśvara is represented with the Mothers is the sixth-century image of Deśa Bhaṭṭārikā in Nepal which has already been discussed. The images of the Mothers have now disappeared and only the Umā-Maheśvara remains. It may also be pointed out that the inscription does imply that the original shrine was much older, and if that too contained a representation of Umā-Maheśvara, then this iconographic convention may be pushed back to the Kuṣān period.

As has been discussed, the *Devip*. also knows of the Dancing Mothers. They began to dance in front of Siva after their victory over the demon Ruru. The gods became frightened on beholding the terrible, dancing forms of the Mothers and gathered around Siva. Siva instructed the gods to retrieve their own Saktis and depart immediately. Siva then himself took hold of the $v\bar{\imath}n\bar{a}$ with the seven strings and began dancing along with the other gods. The dancing Mothers are also briefly mentioned in the *Visnudharmottarapurāṇa*. 62

To date no representation of the dancing Mothers along with Siva has been found that can be dated earlier than the sixth century. The earliest depiction of a dancing Siva in the presence of the Mothers occurs in the Rāvaṇa Phāḍi Cave at Aihole in the Deccan. These magnificent figures are generally dated to the sixth century, and it may be noted that the Mothers are mere spectators in this remarkable tableau. Thus, at least so far as the artistic evidence is concerned, the theme of dancing Mothers became popular only after the sixth century.

Conclusion

This account of the Mothers and their cult as given in the Devip. is by no means exhaustive. Along with the other deities,

^{62.} Shah, op. cit., p. 167.

^{63.} A. Lippe, Indian Medieval Sculpture (Amsterdam, 1978), pls. 117-118.

the worship of the Mother is recommended for many different occasions. For example, in the very important chapters dealing with the puṣyābhiṣeka of monarchs the Mothers are said to reside in the middle of the water-pot used in the consecration (66.5). During the ceremony when the king offers oblations in the fire, among others he is to utter the following mantra in honour of Cāmuṇḍā: mātṛṇām varade mātre cāmuṇḍāyai svadheti | 67.60. Or again when a great calamity such as an earthquake, a flood or a hurricane befalls the nation one must worship the Mothers along with other deities. Thus, the presence of the Mothers in the text is ubiquitous, but we have mostly concentrated on those elements that describe the exclusive cult of the Mothers.

It is generally agreed that the *Devip*. was compiled in or near Bengal, as also were the three other Śākta *upapurāṇas*, the *Kālikā*, the *Mahābhāgavata* and the *Devībhāgavata*. Curiously, however, while the Mothers are given such importance in the *Devip*., they are hardly mentioned in the others. Since none of the others was compiled in its present form before the eleventh century and since all of them appear to have borrowed from the *Devip*., it seems evident that the cult of the Mothers had declined in Bengal after the eleventh century. This is corroborated by the artistic evidence from the region as well.

One of the most difficult tasks of a puranic scholar is to determine the date of a purāṇa. While it is impossible to suggest an absolute date for any purāṇa, one can sift both the internal and external evidence and suggest a relative chronological framework. Hazra has very compentently examined the linguistic peculiarities and other literary features of the Devip. and has reached the conclusion that the language has strong similarities with Buddhist hybrid Sanskrit. He has therefore suggested that parts of it may go back as early as the Kuṣān period, if not earlier. However, he has also concluded that in its present form the substantial portion of the text was redacted around the sixth or the seventh century. The iconographic and artistic evidence discussed above seems to corroborate both conclusions.

Like the Mahābhārata, the Devip. too knows of the old and the new Mothers and, in the myth of Māṇḍavya's worship of the Mothers, hints at some sort of conflict between the two groups.

Thus those portions covering the cult of the Lokamātrkās and the intrusive account of the cult of a pentad of Mothers on the bank of the Sarasvatī in the land of the five peoples (Chapter 116) probably belong to the earliest layer of the text. It seems incontestable that the expression Mother was used in pre-Kusan times to denote the popular goddesses worshipped in villages and cities, goddesses whose cults went back to the neolithic age. These early shrines of the Mother were very likely located at crossroads, as is mentioned by both our text and the Mrcchakatika and were circular in shape. They must have been made of clay and wood and hence none has survived. Another reason why such shrines and images have not survived is because of the custom of discarding the latter in water or burning them as the Devip. informs us. That such shrines were circular in pre-Kuṣān days is also corroborated by Kalhana. We may further note that everything about the cult of the Mothers cannot be laid at the doors of the non-Aryan population. Certainly the circle formed an integral part of the Vedic ritual of Sarasvatasatra, while the Devip. explicitly states that the Mothers should be worshipped according to the Vedic rites, especially the Atharvaveda. All too often the rites in this veda are considered to be non-Aryan because of their magical rituals. While it is true that sacrifice was of prime importance to the Aryans, we must not ignore other religious rituals and cults which were performed by them, even if they seem less exalted than sacrifices.

Originally the Mothers were cruel and malignant and had to be appeased constantly. These are the Kṛtyās, the Apsarases, the Pūtanās of older literature. Although known by different names, they are all lokamātṛkās. As the Devip. says, they abide in different regions for the protection of children (sthitā lokāvibhedena bālānām hitakāmyayā 1.52), or as the Mahābhārata states, they speak different languages. Such malignant goddesses are all too familiar in the Indian tribal world as well as in other ancient civilizations. These are the Mothers who, according to the Devip. must be worshipped by women who are barren. Such women

^{64.} gotirthe putrakāmāya dhanakāmāya saṅgame | matṛsthāneṣu saubhāgyaṁ śmaśāne mṛtaputrikām || 68.1 jīrṇe kūpe kākavandhyāṁ puṣkariṇītaṭe śubhe | nityaṁ vināyakasthāne snāpayet tu kumārikām || 68.2

should were a red dress and bathe in a river near a temple of Ganesa. Thereafter, they should draw the images of the Mothers on the western bank of the river, in the southeast corner of the sacrificial site, below a tree or at the crossroads. The concept of Saktis symbolizing the power inherent in a god does not appear to have gained prominence before the late Kuṣān period. By the Gupta Period, when most of the early purāṇas were given their present form, the "concrete" Mothers and the "abstract" Saktis became assimilated, and the term mātṛkā was applied to both groups. The mundane Mothers were thus elevated to a more exalted status.

It would appear that during the Kusan period the Mothers were associated with Skanda rather than Siva as is confirmed by the Mahābhārata, which is considered to have been compiled in its present form by the fourth century. The importance given to Skanda in the epic would indicate the strength of his cult at the time the material was incorporated into the text. However, parts of the Skanda legend must be much older, particularly his destruction of Mahisasura, for already by the second century A. D. at the latest, if not earlier, Skanda was replaced by the Goddess as the protogonist in the myth as far as the artistic evidence is concerned. That the sections on Skanda and the Mothers in the Mahābhārata were written sometime before the second century is further evident from the fact that Siva has little to do with the Mothers in the epic. Moreover, the epic knows of a conflict of some sort between the old and the new Mothers, whereas by the fourth century the Mothers and the Saktis had become quite indistinguishable in art. Curiously, however, some of these Saktis, who were created to fight and not to rear children, are portrayed in the earliest representations with children in their laps. Even the Devip., which gives them such prominence in the various iconographic descriptions, does not associate the Saktis with children, but the Matsya (maulinyo varadāstadvat kartavyā bālakānvitāh | 286.11) does.

The iconographic descriptions of the Saktis including Tumburu or dancing Bhairava and Umā-Maheśvara are so specific that

raktavāsottarīyāntu yasyā notpādyate naraḥ | nadyāstu paścime kūle lekhyastīrtheṣu cāgrataḥ || 68.3 mātṛṇāṁ vāmabhāge tu yajñasyāgneyatā diśi | tale tu eka vṛkṣasya madhye caiva catuṣpathe || 68.4.

one cannot but conclude that these portions of the text were written not earlier than the sixth century. Curiously also, despite the strong emphasis on the mātrmaṇḍala, most existing shrines of the Mothers from the Gupta period on are in point of fact rectangular. We can only conclude that these references to maṇḍalas and cakras are to the earlier shrines that were made with less durable material or were under trees and open to the skies. When the shrines were repaired or rebuilt with more permanent material, such as stone, the rectangular plan came to be preferred.

With regard to the Mothers as Saktis of the various gods, the Devip. throws considerable light on their origins, concepts and iconography. Like the Devīmāhātmya, it is not consistent about the number of Saktis. They appear in groups of seven, eight, nine and ten. In the list of seven Cāmuṇḍā, frequently called Cārcikā in the text, is dropped and Nārasimhī included. Both are included in the list of eight which agrees with one of the lists in the Devīmāhātmya. In the list of nine Nārasimhī is omitted, but two new goddesses, Mahābhairavī and Gaṇanāyikā, are added. Finally, in yet a fourth list, the goddesses are not named, but from the descriptions it is clear that ten are intended. Not only do these various lists demonstrate a fluid state in their groupings, but also illustrate that there were several different traditions about the number of these Saktis, probably for different ritualistic and symbolical reasons.

The Devip. also differs from the Devīmāhātmya in stating the origins of the Saktis and provides various explanations as to their functions and concepts which are much wider than those provided by other texts. As a matter of fact, the explanations offered by the Devip. are much more cogent and logical than the others, For instance, although like the Devīmāhātmya this list too derives the name Cāmuṇḍā from the words caṇḍa and muṇḍa, it does attempt to explain the two words, viz. chaṇḍa signifying that which is terrifying, and muṇḍa representing Brahmā's head or svāmi, which however is less easy to understand. The most important contribution of the Devip. is in its identification of Vārāhī with the personified Sakti of Yama, the god of death. Why one is so identified is not clear, but it helps to explain why her mount is the buffalo. In this regard it may be pointed out that the Buddhist goddess of light, Māricī, is also given a sow's head.



Fig. 1
An Image of Krityā (?), Uttar Pradesh, Mathura; c. 200 B. C.
Terra-cotta. H: 24.1 cm. Los Angeles County Museum of Art,
Gift of Mr. and Mrs. Subhash Kapoor.

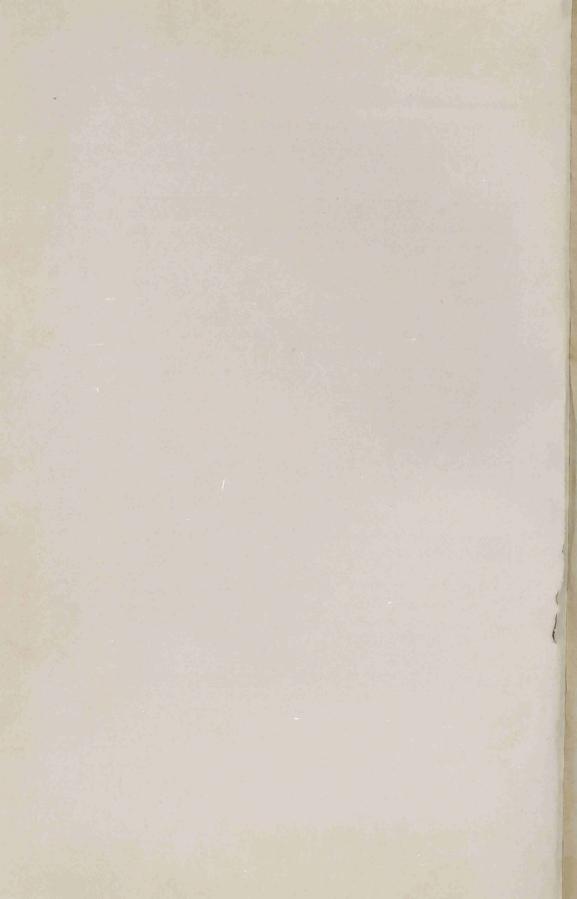


Fig. 2

Panel with Three Undifferentiated Mātṛkās, Uttar Pradesh, Mathura, 2nd c. A. D. Sandstone. H: 17.1 cm. Los Angeles County Museum of Art, Gift of Mr. and Mrs. Ramesh Kapoor.



Fig. 3
Ringstone, North India, 3rd c. B. C., Grey Schist, D. 8.9 cm. Los Angeles
County Museum of Art, Gift of Dr. and Mrs. Pratapaditya Pal.



Thus, the iconographic and cultic evidence, as far as the Mothers are concerned, seems to corroborate Hazra's conclusions that some of the information in the Devip. is as old as the Kuṣān period, but the material about the Saptamatrkas as saktis was compiled not much earlier than the sixth century. Although the text does specify that only those versed in tantras can worship the Mothers, it is remarkably restrained regarding the esoteric rites of tantric cults. While flesh, wine and music are mentioned, nothing sexual is implied about the cult of the Mothers. Like the Goddess herself, the saktis are to be especially venerated by kings. This is obviously an invention of the śāktas to curry favour with royalty, just as the Devimahatmya itself was recited for the benefit of a destitute merchant and a dethroned monarch. The earlier and mundane Mothers were far more proletarian and catered (and continue to do so today in village India) primarily to the needs of society in general. As the Devip. categorically states, these Mothers exist for the benefit of all (hitāya sarvabhūtānām mātaro lokamātarah).

MĀGHAMELĀ AT PRAYĀGA*

Ву D. P. **Dubby**

Prayaga (Allahabad) is picturesquely situated at the confluence of the rivers Ganga, Yamuna, and the invisible Sarasvati, in the heart of Gangā plain. It is famous as Tirtharāja and is believed to be the holiest place in the three worlds existing in space (heaven, earth and nether world) and time (past, present, and future). It is a tirtha par excellence, a centre of faith and devotion, where people realise that religious affair is a medium of cultural integration, and in India it is the best event to integrate man with environment, ethics and ethos. The greatness of Prayaga, celebrated since the vedic period, is expressed in the epics, the Puranic texts and the treatises on tirtha, and is attested by epigraphic records, foreign accounts, and Buddhist and Jain texts. Prayaga is one of the most frequented places of pilgrimage, where people come especially during the month of Magha for bathing in the purifying waves of the sister streams (sangama) and every twelfth year they come in hundreds of thousands to India's greatest melā, the Kumbha-melā. For many centuries this has been the place of the most amazing meetings of people, of religious fervour, and of sacred rites and rituals. The Māgha-melā, held on the vast open sacred sandy site of the rivers, is perhaps the most sanctifying attractive event in the cultural life of the country. It provides a traditional focus for a variety of sects and mendicant orders as well as commonalty. It is a colourful, unique aspect, both captivating and crushing. Here mythology is interwoven with history, true religious ignition with simple curiosity. This melā has not been studied in a comprehensive manner commensurate with its significance. In the present article an attempt has been made to present the multidimensional personality of this great affair in historical and cultural perspectives.

^{*} This article was presented at the annual conference (Dec. 1986) of Indian History and Culture Society (New Delhi) at Varanasi.

Māgha-Melā is so called because the fair is celebrated in the month of Magha (January-February). What distinguished this fair from the common run of religious fairs is its long duration, longer than a month, for it covers the month of Magha both by the lunar and solar calendars. It begins from the makara-sankranti, i.e., when the sun enters the sign of Capricorn. Thousands of pilgrims, belonging to all strata of society and speaking different languages, and ascetics of various religious orders from all regions of the country flock to Prayaga and dwell in tents and hutments on the sands for Kalpavāsa within the secred precincts. It is an annual feature that people perform their purificatory rites in the month of Māgha especially at Prayāga. What attracts them as a magnet, all at one time, to the same place, is the still vital strength of religious tradition. A miniature spiritual India is represented on the dry flood plain between the Ganga and Yamuna during the shivering cold of Magha. Only as an immediate witness of some of the melas it is possible to realise the depth and extent of the roots of this faith

The format of the melā is greately extended, mass-involving ritual. The pilgrims take their baths, make their offerings, observe religious vows, receive religious instructions, and pay visits to holy spots within the frame-work of scriptural authority. It is a con. vocation of scholars and saints who sojourn here for duration to engage in mutual discussions of momentous issues of this world and the next and in preaching to the classes as well as masses. It is perhaps only at the Maghamela that saints and laymen feel obliged to talk exclusively about religious subjects; at other places, the monk instructs the laity on all problems, religious and profane. As the mela goes on monastic and lay religious leaders, including the most famous pandits of the land, address gatherings of many sizes, ranging from 500 to 30,000 persons. Again, doctrinal topics are discussed by the holy ones. It is these meetings alone that coordinate the present state of Hindu theological and exegetical learning in a seemingly informal manner. In previous centuries it was at this melā that Indian learning was solidified and presented to a representative body of Brahmanical, Buddhist, and Jain religious opinon. The melā may thus be defined as a socio-religious gathering where trade flourished and wealth circulated.

The $mel\bar{a}$ is an old cultural institution. Along with the ritual activities associated with a particular festival come the sensory

delights of the fair; and the Māgha-melā is primarily a ritual bathing festival. The wide spreading plain, framed by the branches of the two rivers, is practically deserted most of the year; during the rainy season most of it is covered with mud. And yet when winter comes it becomes one of the beauty spots of the world. The surpassing beauty of the confluence where the melā assembles has caught the imagination of many, such of Kālidāsa (Circa 5th Century A. D.) who described the beautious tumult of waves and ripples at sangama in the following words:

Kvacit prabhālepibhir indranīlair muktāmayī yaṣṭir ivānuviddhā / anyatra mālā sitapaṅkajānām indīvarair utkhacitāntareva // (Raghu, XIII. 54).

"Look here, the stream of the Gangā mixed up with the waves of the Yamunā, looks at one place like the string of pearls interspersed with the lustre-imparting sapphires and, at other place, like a garland of white lotuses intertwined with the blue ones."

The land between the Gangā and the Yamunā was called Madhyadeśa, where the indigenous world attained its final fusion; and the confluence of the rivers at Prayāga was regarded as its visible symbol, which is depicted in the Varāha cave at Udaigiri around AD. 400. 'The natural importance of the life-giving rivers, the suggestive symbolism of their union, the majestic quiet and beauty of the surrounding nature with its colourplay with the river waves, paired with the tradition and fame of the place itself', gave rise to such a festival-fair in ancient times.

Māgha-melā owes its origin to ritual bath at the confluence of the rivers, the supreme bathing site in India since the later Vedic age. The Anusāsanaparvan² of the Mahābhārata refers to the

^{1.} सितासिते सरिते यत्र संगये तत्राष्ठुतासो दिवमुत्पतन्ति । ये वै तन्वं वि सृजन्ति धीरास्ते जनासो अमृतत्वं भजन्ते ।। Rgveda, Khila-sūkta, 21.1

^{2.} माघमासं प्रयागे तु नियतः संशितव्रतः । स्नात्वा तु भरतश्रेष्ठ निर्मलः स्वर्गमाप्नुयात् ।। Mbh, XIII. 26.36=TS, 32.

living institution of Magha-snana when it says that he who bathes with the restrained mind and observing rigid vows at Prayaga in the month of Magha is cleansed of all his sins and attains heaven. The Puranas²a also mention it when they wax eloquent over a bath taken thrice a day at Prayaga in the month of Magha that bears a reward equivalent to a gift of hundred thousand cows. The Matsya Purāna³ declares that he who bathes in the waters of the Gangā-Yamunā-sangama in the month of Māgha is freed from the cycle of rebirth for hundreds of crores of aeons (kalpas). The Nāradīya Purāņa4 says that even a person enveloped with hundreds of sins becomes liberated from rebirth by bathing at the confluence in the month of Magha when the sun is in capricornus. The same Purāṇa⁵ further states that only the blessed people reach Prayāga in the month of Magha since the waters of the joint stream lead to non-recurrence of birth. According to the Padma Purana6, it is the cherished desire of the gods to be present in Prayaga in the month of Magha. Men who take their holy dip there during those

- 2a. गवां कोटिप्रदानाद्यत् त्र्यहं स्नानस्य तत्फलम् ।।
 प्रयागे माघमासे तु एवमाहुर्मनीषिणः । Agni, 111. 10b-11a.
 गवां शतसहस्रस्य सम्यग्दत्तस्य यत्फलम् ।
 प्रयागे माघमासे तु त्र्यहं स्नातस्य तत्फलम् ।।
 MP. 106 8; PdP, III. 44.1; KPI, 36.2; NP, II.63. 74b-75a
- सितासितेसु यत्स्नानं माघमासे युजिष्ठिर ।
 न तेषां पुनरावृत्तिः कल्पकोटिशतैरिप ।
 MP Q. in TVK, 152=TS, 30. TC, 26 & TP, 334 ascribe it to Mbh.
- सितासिते तु यो मज्जेदिप पापशतावृतः।
 मकरस्थे रवौ माघे न स भूयस्तु गर्भगः।।
 NP, II. 63. 60b-61a; PdP, VI (i). 126.33 = TS, 31 = TP, 334. TC. 25 ascribes it to MP.
- माघस्तु प्राप्यते घन्यैः प्रयागे विधिनन्दिनि । अपुनर्भवदं तत्र सितासितजलं यतः ।।
 NP. II. 63.36; PdP, VI (i). 127.146 = TC, 21 = TS, 31 = TP, 333.
- 6. गायन्ति देवा सततं दिविष्ठा माघः प्रयागे किल नो भविष्यति । स्नानान्नरा यत्र न गर्भवेदनां पश्यन्ति तिष्ठन्ति च विष्णुसन्निधौ ॥ PdP, VI (i). 127.147 = TC, 21 = TS, 31 = TP, 333; NP, II, 63.37.

days do not experience the pain of being in a womb. They stay in Visnuloka. It is said that a regular bathing for a period of one month coupled with a continent life at Prayaga washes away all sins. The Skanda Purana states that the sins like brahmanicide roar in the body so long as the man does not bathe in the sindestroying waters at Prayaga in the month of Magha. In the month of Magha, by bathing in the veni every day, one obtains that benefit which accrues from gifting away a thousand gold pieces at Kuruksetra at the time of a solar eclipse. Bathing at Prayaga in the month of Magha is most efficacious as an incalculable number of holy places, sacred streams, gods, mountains, etc., are believed to assemble on the sands of the Ganga and the Yamuna 10. Possibly this is one of the factors that makes a bath in the month of Magha especially purifying and merit-giving at Prayaga. The origin of Māgha-melā seems to lie in the miraculous virtues of bath at Prayaga.

The Purāṇic texts stress the need of undertaking pilgrimage to Prayāga and prescribe the rules about staying there. Going to and remaining in the land of tapas and Yajñas for some days is extremely meritorious. The Padma Purāṇall assures immunity from all sins to those who reside with senses restrained for a month in Prayāga, and the Matsya Purāṇall says: 'those who maintain their sexual purity for a month in that sacred place and offer oblations of water to the manes and gods, always attain what they desire, wherever they are born'. Tradition has so much exalted the necessity of remaining one month at Prayāga that living there for such a period is described as giving the same merits as those acquired by Brahmā in his entire life (= Kalpa). It is then natural

^{7.} MP. 107.14.

ब्रह्महत्यादिपापानि तावद् गर्जन्ति देहिषु । यावन्मज्जन्ति नो माघे प्रयागे पापहारिणि ।। SKP, IV (i). 7.62.

^{9.} NP, II.33. 73b-74a; PdP, VI (i). 126.40,

^{10.} Mbh XIII. 26.35 = TS, 37; MP, 106.7 = TVK, 14; KP, I. 36.1 = TS, 30; PdP, III. 44. 7b-1a, VI (i). 126.43, 53-56 = TC, 18-19 = TS, 31 = TP, 330; NP, II.63. 7-11; SKP, IV (i), 7.57.

^{11.} PdP, III, 45.13b-14a.

^{12.} MP. 103.14; Pd P, III, 41,19.

that Prayaga was chosen as the right place for residing the month of Magha, thereby attracting people to gather there, thus giving birth to a fair.

Since the fifteenth day of the dark half $(am\bar{a}vasy\bar{a})$ of the month of Māgha is regarded as the mouth of the year¹³, it may be suggested that a popular fair of a catholic character came into existence gradually at the site of the most sacred confluence of rivers in the month of Māgha in ancient times. The view that Kali Era started from the full moon day $(p\bar{u}rn\bar{m}\bar{a})$ of Māgha¹⁴ also seems to have moved persons to hold a popular fair there.

The antiquity of the Māgha-melā can be traced back to the Gupta period (C. A.D. 300-600), when most of the Puranas were composed15 and the final redaction of the Anusasanaparvan of the Mahābhārata was completed16. It may even claim a date as early as the second century A.D. when the principles of zodiacal signs were established in India.17 An unequivocal reference to the congregation of people in the month of Magha at Prayaga, however, occurs in the Narasimha Purana,18 placed by Hazra19 beweent A. D. 400-500. This Purana narrates that once, in the month of Māgha, some Veda-knowing sages from different parts of India (viz. Himālaya, Naimiṣāranya, Arbudāranya, Puṣkarāranya, Mahendra mountain, Vindhya mountain, Dharmaranya, Dandakāranya, Śrīśaila, Kuruksetra, Kaumāra-parvata, Pampā, etc.), along with their disciples went to Prayaga, took their bath in the holy sangama, offered oblations to the manes, worshipped Lord Mādhava, and saw Bharadvāja in his hermitage. When, after

- 13. Bhattacharya, 8.
- 14. माघस्य पोर्णमास्यां च घोरं किलयुगं तथा ।
 युगारम्भास्तु तिथयो युगाद्यास्तेन विश्वताः ॥
 Brahma-P. O. in Purusartha-cintamani, 506.
 भाद्रे त्रयोदशी कृष्णा द्वापरेण समा तु सा ।
 माघे पञ्चदशी राजन्किकालसमा तु सा ॥
 Bhavisya-P. Q. in Purusartha-cintamani, 506.
- 15. Jaiswal, 16-17.
- 16. Ibid., 13.
- 17. Hazra, 23.
- 18. NrP, 1. 1-24.
- 19. Hazra, I. 242.

mutual greetings, they were engaged in talks about Kṛṣṇa there arrived a sūta named Lomaharṣaṇa who was a disciple of Vyāsa and was well-versed in the Purāṇic lore. After Lomaharṣaṇa had been duly received by the sages, Bharadvāja thanked him for having narrated to them the Samhitā named Varāha (i. e. Varāha Purāṇa) during the great sacrifice instituted by Śaunaka and wished to hear from him the Purāṇa-samhitā named Narasimha. The sūta consented and narrated the Narasimha Purāṇa to the assembled sages.

The first historical reference to the religious festivities at Prayaga is supplied by the Chinese Pilgrim-traveller Hsuan Tsang who attended the sixth quinquennial assembly organised by King Harsavardhana and was an eye-witness to a gathering of half a million pilgrims at Prayaga in the month of Magha in A. D. 643. He gives a vivid description of the sacred occasion in his travel accounts and says that this was an 'age-long festival' held at the confluence of the rivers to the west of which there was a level plain about 15 li (23 miles) wide covered with white sands. He mentions that King Harsavardhana with his retinue visited Prayaga every fifth year and bestowed gifts lavishly on people of different religious orders and gave alms to the poor and the infirm; so generous was he that after 75 days he no longer possessed a single personal jewel and returned to his metropolis clad only in a piece of borrowed cloth.20 Laksmidhara, Vācaspati Miśra. Nārāyaņabhatta, Mitra Misra, and other medieval digest writers have referred to the efficacy of magha-snana at Prayaga. Tulasidasa (A. D. 1532-1623) has praised it in eloquent terms. He says that all the sacred places, gods, demons, semi-divinities, and pious men assemble in Prayaga and take bath at Triveni when the sun enters the sign of Capricorn.21 They bathe in the waters of the confluence throughout the month of Magha and return to their respective abodes. There is thus a great rejoicing every year at Prayaga in

^{20.} Beal. 90, 184-187.

^{21.} माघ मकरगत रिव जब होई। तीरथपितिह आव सब कोई।। देव दनुज किंनर नर श्रेनी। सादर मज्जींह सकल त्रिवेनी।। Rāma, I, 43.3-4

Māgha.22 The 'Ain-i-Akbari of Abul Fazl (16th century A. D.) has recorded: "Throughout the year it (Prayaga) is considered holy, but especially so during the month of Magha.23 Theyenot,24 a European traveller, observed in A. D. 1666-67:

"They (faquirs) are many times to be seen in troops at Halabas (Allāhābād), where they assemble for celebrating some feasts (for which they are obliged to wash themselves in the Ganges) and to perform certain ceremonies. Such of them as do not hurt, and shew signs of piety are extremely honoured by the Gentiles, and the rich think they draw down blessings upon themselves. Their penance consists in forbearing to eat for many days; to keep constantly standing upon a stone for several weeks or several months; to hold their arms across behind their head, as long as they live; or to bury themselves in pits for a certain space of time. But if some of these faquirs be good men, there are also very rouges amongst them; and the Mughal princes are not troubled when such of them as commit violence are killed".

The reference here is clearly to the Magha-mela which attracts many ascetics devoted to austere vows. The Khulāṣt-ut-Tawarikh, composed in A. D. 1693-1695, says: "In winter, when the sun enters the sign of capricorn, crowds of people assemble together at Prayaga from all sides of the world and, staying there for one month, daily engage in ceremonial ablutions, and everyone gives alms to the poor and indignant, as far as he can' 6.25 There are several accounts of the Melā from the pen of the European travellers who visited the place during the 18th-19th centuries.26 Thus, there is a continuous history of the fair from at least the Gupta period to the present day. The traditional scene of the melā has remained almost unchanged; the ascetics' exhibitions of

^{22,} एहि प्रकार भरि माघ नहाहीं। पनि सब निज-निज आश्रम जाहि। प्रति संबत अति होइ अनंदा । मकर मिज गवनिंह मुनिवृन्दा ।। Rāma, I. 44. 1-2.

^{23.} Ain, III. 355.

^{24.} Sen. 93-94.

^{25.} khulās, 37b; Sarkar, 27.

^{26.} Fanny, I. 227, 257-262; Leopold, II. 118; Caine, 375-377.

yogic performance, the recitation of religious texts, discourses on socio-religious problems and sectarian propaganda continue to be the main attractions of the fair. With the passage of time the $mel\bar{a}$ seems to be growing in popularity, and the Hindus throughout India observe this occasion with great sanctity.

ABBREVIATIONS

KP. = Kūrma purāņa (Ed. A. S. Gupta)

Mbh = Mahābhārata (Cr. ed.)

MP = Matsya Purāṇa (Gurumaṇḍala Granthamālā no. XIII.)

NP = Nāradiya Purāņa (Ven. Press) Nr. P = Nrsimha Purāņa (Bombay)

PdP = Padma Purāņa (Gurumaṇḍala Granthamālā) Rāma = Ramacaritamānasa of Tulasīdāsa (Gītā Press).

Rg = Rgveda Samhita

SKP = Skanda Purāņa (Nag Publishers, New Delhi)

TC = Tîrtha Cintāmaņi of Vācaspatimiśra (Bibliotheca Indica)

TP = Tirthaprakāśa of Mitramiśra (Clowkhamba)

TVK = Tîrthavivecanakānda of Laksmidhara (G. O. Series)

TS = Tristhlisetu of Nārāyanabhatta (Anandasram)

ACTIVITIES OF THE ALL-INDIA KASHIRAJ TRUST

(July-December 1987)

Garuda Purāna

Collation of the remaining portion of the Bengali manuscript was completed during this period as also of a Devanagari MS. of the Brahmakāṇḍa. The latter was procured from the Adyar Library. Forty chapters (Chapters 11 to 50) of the Ācārakāṇḍa were critically edited. Further chapters are being edited. The preparation of the Subject Concordance is also in progress.

Critical edition of the Manasakhanda

Chapters 76-85 (ten chapters) were critically edited and the Critical Apparatus is being prepared.

Śivadharma and Śivadharmottara Purāņa-s

The Trust is in contact with Libraries and Institutions with a view to getting some manuscripts of these Purāṇa-s.

Veda-Pārāyaņa

The Kṛṣṇayajurveda Taittirīya Samhitā was recited from Āṣāḍha Śukla 12 to Śrāvaṇa Kṛṣṇa 5 (8 July to 15 July) at the Siva Mandira at Sivala Palace of the Trust. Paṇḍita Lakṣmīnārāyaṇa Avadham (Andhra Pradesh) was the reciter and Paṇḍita Śrī Rāma Ganpat was the Śrotā. On the completion of the recitation, customary Dakṣiṇā and food were offered to the reciter and the Śrotā. A certificate of appreciation was also awarded to the reciter.

Purāņa-gosthī

The Vyāsa-pūrņimā celebrations and Purāṇa Goṣṭhī were held on 10 July 1987 at the Sivala Palace of the All-India Kashiraj Trust. The celebration was presided over by His Highness Kashinaresh Maharaja Dr. Vibhuti Narain Singh Bahadur. The function started with Vedic Vasanta Pūjā in which sixteen Vedic Brāhmāṇa-s recited mantra-s from all the four Vedas. Maharaj-Kumar Sri Anant Narain Singh distributed Dakṣiṇā and sweets to the Brāhm-

ana-s. This was followed by Purana-gosthi. Dr Ramshankar Bhattacharya recited the hymns and invocations paying obeisance to gods and Vyāsa. His Highness Maharaja Dr Vibhuti Narain Singh gave the Varṣāśana (annual stipend) to Sri Krishnamurti Srauti who has committed to memory the whole of the Samaveda. Dr Gangasagar Rai presented the annual report on the work of the Trust. A discussion on the importance and significant aspects of the Puranas followed in which Professor Rewa Prasad Dwivedi, Prof. Raghunath Giri, Prof. Visvanath Sastri Datar, Prof. Rammurti Tripathi, Dr. Ram Chandra Pandeya and others participated. The suggested holding of lectures and discourses on Purāna-s and also bringing out of popular books containing stories and teachings of the Purana-s to attract both the elite and the masses to the study of this ancient branch of literature. His Highness Kashinaresh thanked the scholars for their active participation in the discussions and cooperation and suggestions. His Highness reminded the scholars that the All-India Kashiraj Trust had made sincere efforts to popularize the Purana s and it had arranged Purāņa Pātha-s and Pravacaņa-s from time to time. Eminent scholars like Mahamahopadhyaya Pandit Narayana Shastri, Pandita Devanayakacarya, Pandita Badarinath Shukla, Pandita Baladeva Upadhyaya and a host of other scholars had delivered Pravacana-s under this programme. The Trust would be happy to resume these activities provided there was encouraging response from all.

Among the distinguished persons two attended the Gosthi were: Sri S. L. Dar, former Registrar of the Banaras Hindu University, Dr. Raghunath Singh, a Trustee of the All-India Kashiraj Trust, Sri Udayakrishna Nagar, Sccretary, Sangaveda Vidyalaya, Sri Visvesvara Shastri Dravid, Principal, Sangaveda Vidyalaya, Sri Kapildeva Tripathi of the Sampurnananda Sanskrit University.

At the end prasada and refreshments were served to the participants and guests.

Function of the Hanuman Trust

As in the past years, a function of the Hanuman Trust, Calcutta was organized at the same venue immediately after the Vasanta Pūjā and Purāṇa Goṣṭhī under the Chairmanship of His Highness Kashinaresh Maharaja Dr. Vibhuti Narain Singh Bahadur, who is also the the President of the Hanuman Trust. Sri Gyanendra Nath Khanna, son of the late Sri Damodarlal Khanna, Founder of the Trust, welcomed the guests and His Highness and gave a brief report of the Trust's activities. Professor Praboth Narain Singh of the Calcutta University and Professor Rammurti Tripathi of the Vikram University, Ujjain, spoke on the noteworthy work done by Srimati Ila Singh on an ancient inscription and the book published by her deciphering and elaborating this inscription. His Highness presented an award of the Hanuman Trust to Srimati Singh for her work and congratulated her on the excellent study.

Visitors to the Purana Department

During the period under review, the following distinguished scholars visited the Purana Department and acquainted themselves with the work of the Department:

- 1. Dr. Parameshwar Aithal, South Asia Institute, University of Heidelberg, Federal Republic of Germany—7 September 1987. Dr. Aithal writes in the Visitors' Book: "I am very glad to be here. Though I have known the impressive work of the Trust, this is the first time I visit the place. I wish further and greater success in the work of the Trust."
- 2. His Holiness Sri Svami Shankarodya.
- 3. Dr. Ramkaran Sharma, formerly Vice-Chancellor of the Sampurnanand Saskrit University, Varanasi.

Ramalila:

The world-famous Ramalila of Ramnagar was celebrated from 6 September to 6 October 1987. As the onset of the monsoon was delayed, heavy rains disrupted the performance of the Ramalila initially for a few days. The "Phulvadi" and "Dhanuryajna" lila-s were the only ones which had to be postponed. However, the lost days were made up in the course of the subsequent performances. As in the past, Sadhus and saints were given free supplies of foodgrains and provisions for the duration of the Ramalila spread over a month. They numbered about one thousand a day on an average. Every day of the performance was attended by a large number of devotees and Ramalila enthusiasts.

Their numbers keep on increasing year by year and especially on the days of Dhanuryajna, Vijayadasami, Bharat Milap and Raj Gaddi more than a hundred thousand participate. His Highness Maharaja Dr Vibhuti Narain Singn and Maharaj Kumar Sri Anant Narain Singh attended the Ramalila on all days and watched the performances from their elephants.

The University of California, Berkeley, U.S.A., has formulated a project for documentation of temporary lightweight architecture as used in the Ramalila of Ramnagar and sent Miss Sarah Bonnemaison and Miss Christine Macy, architects to make apreliminary study) of the Ramalila. They spent the whole month of the Ramalila performance in Ramnagar and all facilities were given to them for their study.

Rasalila:

The Rasalila was celebrated this year from 28 July 1987 to 6 August. The troupe of players came from Vrindavana (Mathura) as in the past years. The performances were staged in the Prasidha Udyan of Ramnagar. His Highness Maharaja Dr Vibhuti Narain Singh witnessed the Rasalila every night during the festival along with members of the Royal Family. The attendance at the Rasalila was very good as in the past years.

ACTIVITIES OF THE SISTER TRUSTS Maharaja Benares Vidya Mandir Trust

(1) Museum: The museum of the Vidya Mandir Trust continues to attract visitors in increasing numbers. The collection displayed represents the phase of history of the subcontinent for the last three centuries. The exhibits displayed help the onlookers have a general idea of the rituals, customs and culture of North India, unique among them being the palanquins, elephant-howdahs, ivory carvings, antique arms and the grand old clock, "Dharma-Ghati". With the shifting of the vehicle museum to the spacious hall on the Vijaya Dasami Day has brought this section of the museum to the original museum complex and the whole complex has new become compact. The vehicle museum traces the evolution of vehicular transport from the days of Ratha-s and the bullock cart through the centuries.

During this period (July to December 1987) the following dignitaries visited the museum:

- His Excellency Sri B. Tilakaratna, High Commissioner for Republic of Sri Lanka in India accompanied by Srimati P. Tilakaratna and Kumari K. Tilakaratna.— 18.7.'87
- 2. Sri C. K. Tikku, Chairman, Central Board of Direct Taxes.—22.8.'87
- 3. Sri David Goodall, the British High Commissioner and Lady Goodall—25.10.87.
- (2) Vedic Balaka Vasanta Puja: A Vedic Balaka Vasanta Puja was performed in the Devi Temple of the Fort on 26 November 1987 in which 16 Vedic students under the age of 16 participated. After recitation of Vedic Mantras from all the Vedas, Daksina and food were offered to the Vedic students.
- (3) Painting competition: A painting competition for the boys and girls of the local schools was organized on 27 November 1987. The young artists assembled in the Diwan Khana of the Fort from the morning and created beautiful works of art. These were later judged by Prof. A. P. Gajjar of the Faculty of Visual Arts of the Banaras Hindu University and Dr. R. N. Misra of the Faculty. Prizes were awarded to the best three paintings. Sweets were distributed to all the participants.

A mural painting competition was also organized for the local folk artists who belong to the Potter community. Their works will adorn the outer walls of the Vidya Mandir Museum till the next competition a year hence. These paintings are the scences from the Purana-s and the epics. Prof. A. P. Gajjar and Dr. R. N. Misra of the Faculty of Visual Arts of the B. H. U. adjudged the paintings and prizes were awarded to the best three painters and consolation prizes to the others.

MAHARAJA PRABHU NARAIN SINGH PHYSICAL CULTURAL TRUST

Sports competition for schools

On 26 November 1987 a sports competition was held for boys of the Primary and Junior High Schools of Ramnagar in

which the games of Khokho and Kabbadi were included. Maharaj Kumar Sri Anant Narain Singh personally supervised the games. Sri V. K. Sharma, Principal of the Maharaja Balwant Singh Degree College and his colleagues umpired the games. Maharaj Kumar Bahadur distributed prizes to the winning teams and participants. All the boys and umpires and guests present were treated to sweets and tea on the conclusion of the games. His Highness Maharaja Dr Vibhuti Narain Singh Bahadur sat through the games and encouraged the young competitors.

MAHARANI KASHIRAJ DHARMAKARYA NIDHI

Distribution of sweets and clothes to children

On 27 November 1987 sweets were distributed to children of all the local primary and Junior High Schools. School children in their colourful uniforms assembled in the inner Court Yard of the Fort from noon. Some of them came with their schools' musical bands and some holding banners. They were all given sweets as they moved on in orderly manner. Sweets and clothes were also distributed to children of poor families who were under five years of age. On 28 November 1987 sweets and clothes were distributed to poor children of the tribal belt of Bairat in Chakia Tehsil. The total number of boys who got sweets was 6485.

Hari Kirtana:

On 26 November 1987, a Hari Kirtana was held by the Trust in the evening. Reputed Kirtankars from Varanasi took part in the Kirtana consisting of Bhajans and recitation of the sacred names of God.

MAHARAJA KASHIRAJ DHARMA KARYA NIDHI

Educational Institutions

The educational institutions being run by the Maharaja Kashiraj Dharmakarya Nidhi are making steady progress.

In the Arts faculty of Maharaja Balwant Singh Degree College, Gangapur the number of Students in this year is 225. In the Maharaja Manasaram Law faculty the number of Students last year was 189. The result of this college is always good.

From last 21 years Maharani Ratna Kunwar Sanskrit Pāṭha-śālā is publishing the Vidya-mandir magazine. In last November its 21 st issue was published. The teachers of Gangapur Degree college also contributed to this magazine.

The rituals and religious functions were conducted by this Trust keeping with the traditions and customs.

Manasa Prachara Nidhi

Besides organising Kathas, and Pravachanas on Ramacharita Manasa of Goswami Tulasidasa, this Trust is running a kindergarten (Shishuvihar) in Samastipur town of Bihat.

Death Centenary of King Wajid Ali Shah of Avadh

Maharaja Dr Vibhuti Narain Singh Bahadur presided over a function to mark the 100th anniversary of the death of King Wajid Ali Shah at Calcutta on 10 November 1987. At a solemn function organized at the mausoleum of the last King of Avadh in the Metiaburj locality of the thickly populated Garden Reach quarter of the City a number of distinguished persons were present, prominent among them being His Excellency Prof Nurul Hasan, Governor of West Bengal, Sri Khushwant Singh, well-known author and journalist, Dr A. R. Kidwai, Chancellor of the Aligarh Muslim University, Maulana Abdullah Bukhari, Shahi Imam of the Jama Masjid, Delhi, Prince Anjum Quder, a descendant of the King of Avadh and Chairman of the King of Oudh's Trust, Calcutta. A number of poets and intellectuals of the City were also present.

The function held in the carpeted verandah of the house overlooking the mausoleum was a tribute to the memory of one of the most beloved kings of India who after being hounded out of his native Lucknow, capital of the Kingdom of Oudh, in 1956 by the British, came to Calcutta and lived until his death at Metiaburj. It was recalled that the King on his long journey from Lucknow to Calcutta stopped at Benares at the invitation of Maharaja Ishwari Prasad Narain Singh and stayed at the historic Nandesar Palace. The King was so greatly impressed by the brotherly affection shown to him by the Maharaja that he remarked "After Lucknow, we were comfortable in Benares only".

His Highness Maharaja Bahadur was received at the function by Prince Anjum Quder, great-grandson of King Wajid Ali Shah. His Highness in his brief speech emphasized the need for harmony between Hindus and Muslims and said that King Wajid Ali Shah was a symbol of this harmony and unity throught his life. His Highness pointed out that unity and understanding could only be nurtured by the people of the two communities who inherited the great traditions and culture of India and that tolerance was an integral part of our culture. A Kasida (eulogy) in Urdu was recited in honour of His Highness at the function. Prince Anjum Quder, Chairman of the King of Oudh's Trust, proposed a vote of thinks to His Highness and other dignitaries.

पुराणम्

(भागः-३०; ग्रङ्गः-१)

PURĀNA

(Vol. XXX. 1)

संस्कृत-खण्डः

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

आङ्गलभाषानिबद्धानां लेखानां संक्षेपाः

महाभारतीयाः पुनक्तत्रयः

MAHĀBHĀRATA REPETITIONS
R. K. SHARMA

प्राचीनभारतीयसंस्कृतिपरिज्ञानार्थं महाभारतस्याध्ययनमावश्यकमिति प्रसिद्ध मेव । अस्ति सादृश्यं महाभारत-वननानां रामायणपुराणधर्मशास्त्रवेद-वचनैः सह । सादृश्यमिदं विषयीकृत्य केचन ग्रन्थाः प्रणीताः पाश्चात्त्यैर्भारतीयैश्च विद्धद्भिः रेणु-सुक्थन्कर-काणे-बेल्वलकर-हप्किन्स्-दाण्डेकरप्रभृतिभिः ।

महाभारतस्य पाठसमोक्षितसंस्करणेन सह महाभारतपादसूच्यिप प्रका-शिता । इमां सूचीमाश्रित्य ग्रन्थान्तरगतानां महाभारतवचनसदृशवचनानाम् अध्ययनमनायासेन कर्तुं शक्यते । पुनरुक्तवचनाध्ययनिवषये काचित् पद्धतिरिप चिन्तिता पाश्चात्त्यविद्वद्विशेषण । इमेनियन्महोदयेनापि भाषितम् अस्ति भारते लिखितसाहित्याद् अपि प्राचीनं साहित्यम् । प्राचीनतमं यद् वैदिकं वाङ्मयं खीष्टपूर्वद्वितीयसहस्राब्दोभवम्, तदिप मूलतो वाचिकरचनामयम्, न लिपिबद्धम् । एतद्वाङ्मयगतानां भूयसां पुनरुक्तवचनानां सत्ता मतमिदम् अनुमापयित । ब्लुमफील्डमहोदयकृते 'वैदिकपुनरुक्ति'-नामधेये ग्रन्थेऽपि मतिमदं समिथतं प्रमाणैः । रामायणे महाभारते च यानि पुनरुक्तवचनानि, तान्यिप वाचिकपरम्परायाः सत्तां विज्ञापयित ।

इदमत्र विज्ञेयं यद् वाचिकपरम्परायां यद् रचितं भवति, तत् परम्पराभेदाद् भिद्यते—यावत्यः परम्पराः, तावन्तो ग्रन्था इति । परम्पराभेदादेव महाभारतस्य त्रीणि रूपाणि संजातानि, यानि परिमाणभेदभिन्नानि । महाभारते लिपिबद्धे संजातेऽपि आख्यानानां संयोजनं विहितं परवर्तिनि काले यथासंप्रदाय-मिति प्रसिद्धमेव ।

निबन्धलेखकेन विरिचिते 'महाभारते काव्यतत्त्वम्' इति नामधेये आङ्गल-भाषामये शोधनिबन्धे महाभारतपद्यानाम् अलङ्कारगिभतानां पुनरुक्तिमाश्चित्य विचारो विहितः । महाभारतरामायणादिगतानां पुनरुक्तवचसां न काचित् सूची अद्यापि निर्मितेति दूयते चेतः ।

वाचिकपरम्परारीतेः प्रभावो महाभारतप्रयुक्तोपमाप्रयोगेऽवलोक्यते । तथाहि—'शीर्तादिता गावः' इत्यर्थका केचित् पुनरुक्तसन्दर्भा इह विचार्यन्ते ।

महाभारते नवसु स्थलेषु उपमेयं दृश्यते भोष्मपर्वणि द्रोणपर्वणि च । अत्र 'गावः शीतार्दिता इव' 'यथा हि शेशिरः कालो गवां कर्माणि क्रन्तति', 'शिशिरे कम्पमाना वे कृशा गाव इव', 'गावः पङ्कादिता इव' इति च वचांसि पठ्यन्ते (प्रथममुदाहरणम् अनेकत्रोक्तम्) । भोष्मपर्वणि स्थलान्तरे 'क्रुन्तन्ति मम् गात्राणि माघमासे गवामिव' इति, शान्तिपर्वणः स्थलान्तरे च 'कुस्त्री खादित मांसानि माघमासे गवामिव' इति च पठ्यते । 'माघमासे गवामिव' 'माघम आसेगवामिव' 'मागमां सेगवा इव' 'माघमा सेवगाम् इव' 'माघमां सेगवा इव' इति च पाठा विभिन्नटीकाकुद्भिव्यालाः।

संपादकेन बेल्वलकरमहोदयेन भोष्मपर्वणि 'माघमासे गवामिव' इत्येव मूलपाठरूपेण दर्शितः; तेनैव पुनः शान्तिपर्वणि 'माघमा सेगवामिव' इति मूल-पाठरूपेण निर्धारितः, पाठस्यास्य औचित्यविषये नोक्तं किमपि ।

सदृशवचनसंग्रहात्मकसूचीसाहाय्येन एतादृशस्थले मुख्यपाठस्य (अत्र 'माघमासे गवामिवेत्यस्य) निर्णयः कर्तुं शक्यते । पुराणादिग्रन्थपाठानामपि निर्णयः पुनरुक्तवचनाधारेण सुष्ठु कर्तुं शक्यत इति निश्चप्रचम् ।

'अज एकपाद्' इत्यस्य सिंहावलोकनम् AJA EKAPAD IN RETROSPECT U. N. DHAL

जडारचेतनाश्च पदार्था देवतारूपेणाभ्युपगताः। ताश्च देवताः पृथिवी-स्थाना अन्तरिक्षस्थाना द्युस्थानाश्च । अन्तरिक्षस्थानासु देवतासु इन्द्रो मातरिश्चा अहिबुष्न्योऽजएकपाद् रुद्रोऽन्ये च गण्यन्ते । परवितिन काले अज एकपाद् एका-दशसु रुद्रेषु परिगणितः; शब्दोऽयं शिवविशेषणरूपेणापि प्रयुक्तः ।

ऋग्वेदेऽज एकपाद् एकलः, अहिबुघ्न्येन च सह स्तुतः। अथर्वेवेदादिषु देवतेयं विणता। पारस्करगृह्ये एनां देवतां प्रति हिवःप्रदानं विहितम्। यास्केन निरुक्ते 'अज एकपाद्' इति-शब्दो निरुक्तः। सूर्यरूपिणीयं देवतेति दुर्गाचार्यः।

हद्रेण सहायमजएकपात् स्त्यते । घोरो हद्र इति हद्रस्य प्राचीनतमं वर्णनम् । परवितिनि काले हद्रस्य रूपान्तरं जातम्—स पार्वत्याः पितः, गङ्गाया धारकः, चन्द्रं मूह्निं धत्ते, मूर्तित्रययुतः, मूर्त्यष्टकयुतो वा । हद्ररूपेषु एकादश् हद्रात्मकं रूपमितिप्रसिद्धम् । सिन्धुसभ्यताकालेऽपि रूपिमदं प्रसिद्धमासीत् । त्वष्टुः सुतो हद्र इति महाभारत उक्तम्, एकदश हद्रनामानि अज एकपाद्-अहि-बुध्न्यादीनि चोकानि । पुराणान्यिष एकादशानां हद्राणां जन्म कीर्तयन्ति । वायु-

ब्रह्माण्डादिपुराणमतानुसारेण एकादश रुद्राः कश्यप-सुरभी-तनयाः; शिवरूपा एते देवकार्यार्थम् उत्पन्नाः। भागवते त्वेते भूत-सरूपासुतत्वेन स्मृताः, त्रिशूलधारि-त्वेन विणताश्च।

महाभारतमतेनाज एकपात् त्रिलोकाधीशः । अनेन अहिर्बुध्न्यादिद्वितीयेन अग्निसृष्टा संपत् संरक्ष्यते । स्मर्यते चास्य नाम शिवसहस्रनामसु । अजैकपादो मूर्तिः ऊर्ध्वलङ्ग्ववती वैयाद्मचर्मधारिणीति दृश्यते । जगन्नाथमूर्तिरिप एतद्देवसंबद्धेति प्रतिपादयित स्टाइटेट्कनंमहोदयः । कथं छद्रशिवमूर्तिभेदरूपेण अजैकपात् कल्प्यते—इति जायते विचारणा । सिन्धुसभ्यताकाले य एकपादस्थितो देवः, तस्य सूचकोऽयमज एकपादिति प्रतिभाति । एकपादस्थिति स्तपोविशेष इति विज्ञायते । यतः शिवो योगी, अतः स एकपादूपेणोपवण्यंते । एकपाद्रख्पस्य योगसंबद्धत्वेन एकादशसु छद्रेषु अजएकपाद् अन्तर्भ्तो भवतीत्यनुमीयते ।

विश्वकर्मशिल्पशास्त्रे रूपमण्डने च एकदशानां रुद्रमूर्तीनां वर्णनमुपलभ्यते अजश्च एकपाच्चेति द्वे देवते अनयोर्ग्रन्थयो दृंश्येते । प्रत्येकं चानयोः षोडश हस्ताः । अजस्य दक्षिणे हस्ते शूलाङ्कुशकपालादयः, वामहस्ते च गदाखट्वाङ्गादयः । तथैव एकपादो वामे हस्ते खट्वाङ्गाबणचक्रादयः, दक्षिणे हस्ते तु धनुर्घण्टाकपालादयः । वास्तुशास्त्रेऽजैकपादो यो ध्यानिवशेष उक्तः, ततो गम्यते—एकयं देवतेति । एकपाद्देवस्य दक्षिणो भागो ब्रह्मणो रूपं प्रकटयित, वामो भागश्च अच्युतस्य । अत्राजैकपाच् चतुर्भु जधारीति वण्यंते ।

अजैकपादो द्वे मूर्ती मया समाहृते भुवनेश्वरतः; इमे मूर्ती अष्टादशशताब्दी-भवै, सर्वथा समानरूपे च । मूर्तिरियं चतुर्हस्ता, ऊर्ध्विङङ्गधारिणी, नागयज्ञोपवी-तिनी च; त्रिशूलाक्षमाले ऊर्ध्वहस्तयोः, वरदमुद्रामृतघटौ च अधोहस्तयोः । मूर्ति-रियं ध्यानगतवर्णानानुरूपैव ।

देवोपुराणानुसारि मातृकावर्णनम्

THE MOTHER GODDESSES ACCORDING TO THE DEVĪPURĀŅA

PRATAPADITYA PAL

देवीपुराणे मातृकाः (देव्यो मातरः) विशेषेण वर्णिताः । पुराणिमदम् स्त्रीष्टीयैकादशशतके विरिचतिमिति हाजरामहोदयस्य मतम् । अस्यांशिवशेष इतोऽपि प्राचीनः । इदं भारतस्य पूर्वभागे विरिचतम्; वङ्गोष्ठवदं प्रणीतिमिति

संभाव्यते । वङ्गीयशाक्तेषु प्रसिद्धमिदम् । पश्चिमोत्तरप्रदेशे हिमवत्-प्रदेशे चापीदं प्रमाणभूतरूपेण गण्यते ।

मातृ-मातृकाशब्दाभ्यां काश्चन देवीविशेषा एव गृह्यन्ते, यद्यपि देवीसामान्य-वाचकरूपेणापि शब्दौ इमौ प्रयुज्येते पुराणेषु । जननीशब्दोऽपि ईदृश एव दृश्यते । सर्वाः स्त्रियो मातृबुद्धचा अवलोकनीया इति तान्त्रिकी दृष्टिः ।

पुराणेऽस्मिन् इमा मातरो लोकमातर इति विश्वमातर इति वोच्यन्ते। बहुभाषाभाषिण्यो लोकमातर इति महाभारत उक्तम्। काश्चन मातरो कार्त्तिकेयेन संबद्धाः। आभिः सहान्यासां मातृकानां विरोधोऽपि प्रदर्शितः। मत्स्यपुराणेऽपि मातृकाविषये विरोधो दिश्वतः। अन्धकवधार्थं शिवसृष्टा या मातरस्ता अन्धकवधानन्तरं बुभुक्षिताः सत्यो जगद् भक्षयितुमुद्यताः। एतिन्नवारणाय नरसिहेण दात्रिश्वनमातृकाः सृष्टाः, याभिः सह पूर्वोक्तानां मातृकाणां विरोधो जातः। शिवनरसिहप्रसादाद् उभयीषु मातृषु प्रोतिर्जाता, ताश्च सर्वा मनुष्यैष्पास्या बभूवुः।

चतुष्पथेषु मातृभ्यो बिलप्रदानं प्रसिद्ध मासीत् प्राचीने भारते । मृच्छकिट-कादिषु नाटकेषु कर्मेदं विणतम् । अम्बिकया सह रुद्र आहूतो दृश्यते शतपथे । त्र्यम्बकोऽपि देवीभिः संबद्धो दृश्यते (तिसृभिर्देवीभि र्युक्तः = त्र्यम्बकः; अम्बा = माता) । ऋग्वेदे सप्त मातरः श्र्यन्ते । सप्तमातृकावर्गः मातृकासु प्रसिद्धो जातः परवितिन काले ।

देवीपुराण-महाभारतोक्ता मातरो न देशिवशेषशिक्तस्पाः, प्रत्युत स्वप्रितिष्ठा भूतमातरो ग्रामदेवतारूपाः प्रायेण स्त्रीभिः संपूजिता रोगादिनाशार्थम् । आसां पकमृन्मूर्तय उपलभ्यन्ते । जम्भकपुतनादिशब्दवाच्या इमा घोराश्च सौम्याश्च । वाय्वादिपुराणेषु आसां घोररूपत्वं बहुधा प्रपञ्चितम् । घोररूपा देव्यो देवीपुराणे बाहुल्येनोपर्वाणताः । पिशाचपूतनाभूतादिभ्यो रक्षणाय ब्रह्मणा देवीस्तोत्रविशेष उक्त इत्युक्तमत्र । अपकारकारिण्यो देव्यः पूतनाः । हारितीति नाम्नी काचिद् देवी बौद्धसंप्रदाये पूज्यते घोराघोररूपा । महाभारतीया जरादेव्यपि हिंसा ।

लोकपालैग्रंहैः सह मातृकाः पूज्यन्ते वसुधारादानकर्मणीति पुराणेऽस्मिन्तुक्तम् । अथवंवेदेऽप्सरः-कृत्यानां प्रामुख्यमस्तिः; कानिचनाथवंवेदीयानि सूक्तानि मातृदेवताकानि । कृत्याया विषयेऽस्मिन् वेदे विशिष्टं कथनम् उपलभ्यते । सिन्धु-सभ्यताकालीना या मूर्त्यस्ताः कृत्यामूर्त्यो भवितुमर्हन्ति । मातृकाणां पक्कमृन्-मूर्त्योऽपि सन्तिः; शिलानिर्मितमूर्त्योऽपि प्राचीनतरकालीनाः ।

देवीपुराणे मातृकाविषये केचन वर्गा दृश्यन्ते, यथा सप्तमातृकाः, षोडश-मातृकाश्च । काश्चन मातृका बालग्रहनाशिकाः । कपाल-उत्पल-पातालादिमातरोऽपि स्मर्यन्तेऽस्मिन् पुराणे, पुराणान्तरेऽपि । वटमातृ-चर्पटमातृवटखादिकादि-मातृ-नामानि भोज्यपदार्थनामानुसारेण कल्पितानीति विज्ञेयम् । पञ्चमातृकागणस्य विशेषेणोल्लेखो दृश्यते । एतत्साहाय्यमाश्चित्य गजाननोऽसुरान् जघानेत्युक्तम् । एतन्मातृकाः संपूज्य माण्डव्यो हरिश्चन्द्रं रक्षितवानिति कथाऽत्र विस्तरेणोक्ता । पञ्चमातृकातत्त्वस्य मूलं वेदेऽस्तीति लेखकेन दिशतम् । मातृकाश्च शैव-वैष्णव-भेदेन द्विधा । यदस्मिन् पुराणे सरस्वतीतीरे पञ्चमातृकापूजनमुक्तं तत् स्कान्देऽपि दृश्यते । बौद्धतन्त्रसंप्रदायेऽपि पञ्चमातृकासत्तास्तीति साधनामालाग्रन्थतो विज्ञायते ।

देविवशेषशक्तिरूपा अपि सन्ति मातृका इत्युक्तमस्मिन् पुराणे । प्रायेणेमाः सप्ताष्टमातृकागणयोः स्मर्यन्ते । गुप्तकालात् प्राचीने काले नेदं मतं प्ररूढं जातमिति प्रतिभाति । देवशक्तिरूपा इमा मातृकाः शिवविवाहकाले उपस्थिताः; इमा शिवं शोभान्वितं चक्र्रिति दिशतमत्र । कालिदासेनापि स्मृता इमाः कुमारसंभवं । प्रागुक्ता लोकमातरः, देवशक्तिरूपा मात्ररुचेत्यनयोद्वयोः संमेलनं ५०० स्त्रीष्टाब्दकाले संजातमिति कलानिदर्शनतः सिध्यति । सहेतुकिमदं मेलनम् । तान्त्रिकन्परस्परायामासां मातृणां संख्या अष्टेति उक्तम्, तिददमभिनवगुप्तकृते स्तोत्रेऽपि कथितम् । मार्कण्डेयपुराणान्तर्गते देवीमाहात्म्यप्रकरणे मातृकाणां रूपाणि कर्माणि च विणतानि । आसु काश्वन देवशक्तिरूपाः, काश्वन च देवीरूपाः ।

देवैः सहैतेषां शक्तीनां यः संबन्धः, तिस्मन् विषये पुराणकतृ णां मनिस् कल्पनासांकर्यमासीदिति देवीपुराणतो विज्ञायते । कचिदस्मिन् पुराणे देवेभ्यः शक्तीनामुत्पित्तः स्पष्टमेवोक्ता । देवीपुराणे शक्तीणां संख्या नोक्ता । शक्तीनामुत्पित्ति-विषये यद् देवीपुराणस्य मतं तन्न देवीमाहात्म्यमतेन सह सर्वथा संवदतीति दृश्यते ।

देवीपुराणीय-सप्तमातृस्तोत्रे मातॄणां विश्वदं वर्णनं प्रदत्तम्, यथा ब्रह्माणी जटात्रिशूलधारिणीति । शक्तीनामिष ईदृशं वर्णनं रुरुवधप्रसंगे दृश्यते । पितृलोक इव मातृलोकोऽप्यस्तीत्युक्तम् । शक्तीणां प्रसंगे तासां वाहनानामप्युल्लेखो दृश्यते । देवीपरिचर्याकारिणः षष्टिर्मातृका देवीपुराण उक्ताः । प्रत्येकं वर्षेषु एकैव मातृका पूजिता भवतीति कृत्वा पष्टि वर्षाणि यावदासां मातृणां पूजा भवति । इमा मातरः सात्त्विकराजसतामस-भेदेन त्रिधा भिन्नाः । आसु मातृकासु चतुःषष्टियोगिनीना-मन्तर्भावो भवति ।

मातृणां पूजा नवग्रहैर्दिक्पालैः सह क्रियते प्रायेण; होमोऽपि विधीयते वसुवाराकर्मणि । ऋतुभेदेन बिलप्रदानेऽपि भेदो भवति; काश्चित्मातरो मद्येन मांसेन वार्च्यन्ते । मातृमूर्तीनां प्रतिष्ठायां वैदिकमन्त्रा उच्चार्यन्ते, कुमारी-

ब्राह्मणाश्च भोज्यन्ते, पुस्तकानि च दीयन्ते ब्राह्मणेभ्यः । ग्राम-नगर-गिरिदुर्गादिषु मातृणां पूजा विहिता धूपदीपाद्युपचारैः सह ।

मातृमूर्तीनां निर्माणे बिल्वाशोकादिवृक्षा उपयुज्यन्ते । प्रायेणोत्तरस्यां दिशि मातृदेवीमण्डणः स्थाप्यते । मठेषु, विशेषेण शैवमठेषु, मातृणां स्थापनं प्रशस्यते । किवत् सुवर्णपीठस्योपिर आसां स्थापनमुक्तम् । देवीशास्त्रमातृमण्डलादिविशेषज्ञैरेव मातृपूजकैर्भवितव्यम्, शैवागमादिप्रतिपादितविधिना मुमुक्षुभिरिप मात्र उपास्या इत्युक्तमत्र । नेपालस्था बौद्धा अपि मातृकाः पूजयन्ति; आसां मूर्तयोऽप्युप्लभ्यन्ते । चण्डाला अपि मातृकापूजनेऽधिकारिणः । गन्धर्वादिभिरिप एताः पूज्यन्ते । मातृमूर्तिपीठाः प्रायेण मण्डलाकृतयः; क्रचिच् चक्रार्थचन्द्राकृतयोऽपि । मातृचक्रमातृमण्डलशब्दौ राजतरिङ्गण्यादिषु प्रयुक्तौ । मातृचक्राणि हेमरूप्यादिभिर्नितानि दृश्यन्ते ।

देवीपुराणे जीर्णमूर्तिप्रतिकारिविधिष्ठकः । अत्र मातृका-भैरवादिमूर्तीनां भग्नानां जीर्णानां वा प्रतिकारपद्धतयो विस्तरेण विणताः । पुरातनिशलामूर्तीनां जले निक्षेपो विहितः, काष्ठम्तींनां दहनं च । शिलालेखा अपि पौराणिक-पद्धत्या सह संवदन्ति । चतुर्थशताब्दीतः प्राङ्निर्मितं मातृमन्दिरं नोपलभ्यते । पुराणविणत-रूपानुरूपा मूर्तयः प्राप्यन्ते बहुषु स्थानेषु । गुहाचित्रेष्विप पुराणोक्ता मातर-श्चित्रिता दृश्यन्ते ।

देवीपुराणे मातृकाणां विवरणं विस्तरेण प्रदत्तम् । देवीसंबद्धेषु कालिका-महाभागवत-देवौभागवतेषु पुनरेतासां विषये न किमपि वर्णनमुपलभ्यते— आसामुल्लेखोऽपि कचिदेव दृश्यते ।

प्रयागस्था माघमेला

MĀGHAMELĀ AT PRAYĀGA

D. P. DUBEY

गङ्गायमुनयोरदृश्यसरस्वत्याश्च संगमेऽविस्थितः प्रयागस्तीर्थरूपेण स्तुतः, लोकत्रये पिवत्रतमस्थलरूपेण संगानितश्च । धर्मस्य संस्कृतेश्च मेलनमत्र संजातम् । वेदे, इतिहासे, पुराणे, शिलालेखादिषु च प्रयागस्य महिमा विणितः । माघमासे संगमे स्नानार्थमत्रजनानां समागमो भवति । प्रत्येकं द्वादशाब्देषु प्रयागस्थे कुम्भ-पर्वणि सहस्रशो जनानामागमनं भवति – इति दृश्यते । धार्मिककृत्यकरणं पर्वणोऽस्य मुख्यं वैशिष्टचम् । इयमेत्र माघमेला देशस्य सांस्कृतिके जोवने परमपावनभूता

परमार्काषका च संजाता । सर्वेषां धर्मसम्प्रदायानां संन्यासिनां साधारणजनानां च परम्परागतमिदं पर्व । एतत्-पर्वविषये इतिवृत्तेन सह पुराणकथानां संमिश्रणं जातम् । अत्र ऐतिहासिकसांस्कृतिकदृष्ट्या पर्वणोऽस्य स्वरूपं विविवयते ।

मेलेयं माघमासेऽनुष्ठीयते, अत माघमेलेत्युच्यते । मासाधिककालं व्याप्य मेलेयं विराजते, प्रवर्तते च मकरसंक्रान्तितः । बालुकामये तीरे निवासं कृत्वा कल्पवासम् अनुतिष्ठन्ति धर्मपरायणा जना अत्र । भारते ये संप्रदायाः सन्ति तेषां सर्वेषां किमपि लघुरूपं गङ्गायमुनयोर्मध्ये दृश्यते—इति कथनं साध्वेव । अत्र तीर्थवासिनः स्नान-पूजा-व्रतादीन्यनुतिष्ठन्तिः; श्रुण्वन्ति चोपदेशान् व्याख्यानानि च साधभ्यो विद्वद्भ्यश्चः पश्यन्ति च शास्त्रोक्तानि पवित्राणि स्थलानि । बौद्धा जैनाश्चात्र समागच्छन्ति, एतेषामाचार्या अपि धर्मोपदशं कुर्वन्ति । अस्मिन् सामाज्ञिक-धार्मिक-समावेशे वाणिज्यस्य संपदश्च विकासो जायते । मूलत इयं माघमेला धार्मिकस्नानोत्सवरूपा । शीतकाले मेलाश्रयभूतं संगमस्थलं सौन्दर्यमण्डितं जायते । संगमस्थलस्य सुषमोपवर्णिता कविभिः ।

गङ्गायमुनयोर्मध्यं मध्यदेश इत्युक्तम् । भारते अनुशासनपर्वणि, मत्स्यादिषु पुराणेषु च माघस्नानस्य संगमस्य च मिहमा विस्तरेणोपर्वणिता । सर्वेषां देव-तीर्थादीनां प्रयागसंगमेऽवस्थानं भवतीत्युद्घोषितमेषु पुराणेषु । अनयैव दृष्ट्या माघस्नानं प्रवर्तित मिति प्रतिभाति । संगमस्नानमेव माघमेलायाः प्रारम्भिकं रूपमिति विज्ञायते । कालक्रमानुसारेण प्रारम्भिकरूपस्यास्य पूर्णमासन्यापिनी स्थितिः प्रचिलता जाता । ईद्शी स्थितिरेव मेलाया हेतुः । यतो माघीयामावस्या वर्षस्य मुखरूपेणाभ्युपगता, अतो माघमास एव अस्या मेलाया बहुजनसंमदंरूपाया प्रादुर्भावो जातः । माघपूर्णिमायां कलेरारम्भ इति मतमपि माघमासे मेलां विधातुं जनान् प्रवर्तयामास—इति प्रतिभाति ।

माघमेलेयं गुप्तराज्यकाल आसीदिति विज्ञायते। खीष्टीय-द्वितीयशब्द्या-मस्याः प्रसिद्धिर्जाता। नर्रासहपुराणे एतन्मेलाविषये विशिष्टं कथनमुपलभ्यते। धार्मिकोत्सवस्यास्य ऐतिहासिक उल्लेखः प्राथम्येन कृतो युवान्-च्वाङ्-महोदयेन चीनदेशीयेन। अनेन ६४३ तमे खोष्टाब्दे प्रयागस्थितानां तीर्थयात्रिणां समूहो दृष्टः। अस्य विशदं विवरणमपि तेन प्रदत्तम्। अत्रैव हर्षवर्धनेन राज्ञा सर्वंस्वदानं विहितम्। लक्ष्मीधरादिभिनिबन्धकारादिभिः प्रयागोयमाघस्नानस्य माहात्म्यं प्रतिपादितम्। आबुल फजलेति नाम्ना विदुषापि प्रयागीया मेला वणिता। कैश्चिद् यूरोपीयै यीत्रिकरिपि मेलेयं दृष्टा वणिता च। यवनभाषा-निबद्धेषु केषुचिद् ग्रन्थेष्विप अस्या मेलाया विवरणम्पलभ्यते।

सर्वभारतीयकाशिराजन्यासस्य कार्य-विवरणम्

गरुडपुराणसम्पादनम्

अस्मिन् कार्यावधौ गरुडपुराणाचारकाण्डस्य वङ्गिलिपिहस्तलेखस्याविधाःनामंशानां ब्रह्मकाण्डस्यैकस्य देवनागरीलिपिहस्तलेखस्य च पाठसंवादकार्यं पूर्णतां जातम्। ब्रह्मकाण्डस्य देवनागरीलिपिहस्तलेखः आड्यार-लाइब्रेरीति संस्थातः प्राप्त आसीत्। अस्मिन् अवधौ आचारकाण्डस्य चत्वारिशदध्यायानां (१०-५०) पाठसंपादनं विहितम्। अग्रिमाध्यायानां संपादनं क्रियमाणं वर्तते। विषयसंवाद-कार्यमिपि क्रियमाणं वर्तते।

मानसखण्डस्य पाठसमोक्षितं संस्करणम्

स्कन्दपुराणान्तर्गतमानसखण्डस्य दशाऽध्यायाः (७६-८५) संपादिताः। पाठसमीक्षोपकरणस्य रचना क्रियते।

शिवधर्मपुराणस्य शिवधर्मोत्तरपुराणस्य च संपादनम्

अनयोः पुराणयोः हस्तलेखानामवाप्तये न्यासः संस्थाभिः पुस्तकालयैश्व सह संपर्कं स्थापयित ।

वेदपारायणम्

२०४४ विक्रमान्दस्य आषाढशुक्लद्वादशीं तिथिमारभ्य श्रावणकृष्णपञ्चमीं तिथि यावत् (८ जुलाई १९८७ दिनाङ्कमारभ्य १५ जुलाई १९८७ दिनाङ्कमारभ्य १५ जुलाई १९८७ दिनाङ्कं यावत्) कृष्णयजुर्वेदतैत्तिरीयसंहितायाः पारायणं न्यासस्य शिवालाप्रासादस्थिते शिवमन्दिरे पण्डितलक्ष्मीनारायण अवधानी-महोदयेन (आन्ध्रप्रदेशीयेन) कृतम् । वाराणसेयः पण्डितरामघनपाठिमहाभागः श्रोता आसीत् । पारायणसमाप्तौ पारायणकर्त्रे श्रोत्रे च दक्षिणा, भोजनं मार्गव्ययादिकं च प्रदत्तानि पारायणकर्त्रे प्रमाणपत्रं च प्रदत्तम् ।

पुराणगोष्ठी

व्यासपूर्णिमोत्सवः पुराणगोष्ठो च सर्वभारतीयकाशिराजन्यासस्य शिवाला-प्रासादे १० जुलाई १०८७ दिनाङ्के सुसम्पन्ना । उत्सवस्याध्यक्षता तत्रभवद्भिः काशिनरेशैः महाराजैः डा० विभूतिनारायणसिंह-शर्ममहाभागैः कृता । उत्सवस्या-रम्भः वैदिकवसन्तपूजया जातः । वैदिकवसन्तपूजायां षोडशवैदिकब्राह्मणैः चतुर्णा वेदानां मन्त्राणां पाठः कृतः । वैदिकब्राह्मणेभ्यः महाराजकुमारेः

श्रीअनन्तनारायणसिंहशर्म-महाभागैः दक्षिणा मिष्ठान्नं च प्रदत्ते । वसन्तपूजा-नन्तरं पुराणगोष्ठी प्रारब्धा। डा० रामशङ्करभट्टाचार्यमहोदयेन मङ्गलाचरणं व्यासवन्दना च विहिता। तत्रभवद्भिः काशिनरेशैः डा० विभितनारायणसिह-शर्ममहाभागैः श्रोकृष्णमूर्तिश्रौतिमहाभागाय वर्षाशनं (वार्षिकी वृत्तिः) प्रदत्ता । श्रीकृष्णमूर्तिमहाभागेन संपूर्णः सामवेदः कण्ठस्थीकृतः। डा० गङ्गासागरराय-महोदयेन न्यासस्य पुराणविभागस्य च वार्षिकं कार्यविवरणं प्रस्तूतम् । तदनन्तरं पुराणानां महत्त्वविषये विद्वद्भिः विशिष्टविषयेषु विवेचनं प्रारब्धम् । अस्मिन् विचारविमर्शे प्राध्यापकरेवाप्रसाद-द्विवेदी, प्राध्यापकरचुनाथगिरिः, प्राध्यापक-विश्वनाथशास्त्रिदातारः, प्राध्यापकराममूर्तित्रिपाठी, प्राध्यापकरामचन्द्रपाण्डेयः, अन्ये च केचन विद्वांसः स्व-स्वविचारान् प्रकटितवन्तः। एषां विदुषां विचारा-नुसारतः पौराणिकाख्यानानां सिद्धान्तानां च परिचयः प्रदेयः येन सामान्या जना विद्वांसश्च इदं साहित्यं प्रति आकृष्टा भवेयुः। तत्रभविद्भः काशिनरेशैः विदुषः प्रति तेषां सहयोगाय, विचारविमर्शाय च धन्यवादः वितरितः। तत्रभविद्धः काशिनरेशैरुक्तं यत् सर्वभारतीयकाशिराजन्यासेन पुराणानां प्रचारार्थं प्रचुरः प्रयासः कृतः । न्यासेन पुराणपाठस्य प्रवचनस्य च व्यवस्था विहिताऽऽसीत् । अस्यां योजनायां महामहोपाध्यायेन पण्डितनारायणशास्त्रिखिस्तेमहाभागेन, पण्डितदेव-नायकाचार्यमहाभागेन, महामहोपाध्यायपण्डितगिरिधरशर्मचतूर्वेदि - महाभागेन. पण्डितनीलमेघाचार्यमहाभागेन, पण्डितबलदेवउपाध्याय-महाभागेन, पण्डितबदरी-नाथशुक्लमहाभागेन अन्यैश्च विविधेविश्वतै विद्विद्भः पुराणविषयकं प्रवचनं कृतम्। यदि सर्वे रिस्मन् कार्य उत्साह प्रदिशतो भवेत्, न्यासः पूनरपि अस्यारमभं कर्तुमोहते। अस्यां गोष्ट्याम् उपस्थिता इमे विद्वांस आसन् —हिन्दूविश्वविद्या-लयस्य पूर्वकुलसचिवः श्रीशिवनन्दनलालदरः, सर्वभारतीयकाशिराजन्यासस्य न्यासी डा॰ रघुनाथसिंहः, साङ्गवेदविद्यालयस्य सचिवः श्रीउदयकृष्णनागरः, साङ्गवेदविद्यालयस्य प्राचार्यः पण्डितविश्वेश्वरद्राविडः, संपूर्णानन्दसंस्कृतविश्व-विद्यालयस्य प्राध्यापकः श्रोकपिलदेवित्रपाठी च । गोष्ठी-समाप्तौ सर्वेभ्यः प्रसादः अल्पाहारक्च समपितौ।

हनुमानमन्दिर-न्यासस्य उत्सवः

पूर्ववर्षानुसारतोऽस्मिन्नपि वर्षे पुराणगोष्ठया अनन्तरं तस्मिन् एव स्थले तत्रभवतां काशिनरेशानां डा॰ विभूतिनारायणसिंहशर्ममहाभागानामध्यक्षतायां कलकत्तानगरस्थितस्य हनुमानमन्दिरन्यासस्यौक उत्सवः संपन्नः। तत्रभवन्तः काशिनरेशा हनुमानमन्दिरन्यासस्यापि अध्यक्षाः सन्ति। हनुमानमन्दिरन्यासस्य संस्थापकस्य श्रोदामोदरलालखन्नामहाभागस्य पुत्रः श्रोज्ञानेन्द्रखन्नामहाभागः स्वागतं चकार। तेन न्यासस्य कार्याणामपि परिचयः प्रदत्तः। कलकत्ताविश्व-

विद्यालय-प्राध्यापकः डा॰ प्रबोधनारायणसिंहमहाभागः, विक्रमविश्वविद्यालयस्य प्राध्यापकः डा॰ राममूर्तित्रिपाठोमहाभागश्च इलासिंहमहोदयाया शिलालेख-विषयकपुस्तकस्य महत्त्वं प्रदर्शितवन्तौ । इलासिंहमहाभागा शिलालेखस्याध्ययनं कृत्वा कमपि ग्रन्थं लिखितवती यं ग्रन्थमधिकृत्य तस्यै न्यासेन पुरस्कारः प्रदत्तः । तत्रभवद्भिः काशिनरेशमहाभागैः हनुमानमन्दिरन्यासस्य पुरस्कारः इलासिंहमहोदयायै प्रदत्तः ।

पुराणविभागे आगता विशिष्टा विद्वांसः

अस्मिन्नवधौ अधोनिर्दिष्टा विद्वांसः पुराणविभागे आगताः, अत्रत्यकार्य-जातेन परिचायिताश्चः।

- १. डा० परमेश्वरएथल, साउथएशिया इन्स्टीच्यूट, यूनिवर्सिटी आफ हाइडेलबर्ग, जर्मनी—डा० ऐथलमहाभागो दर्शकपुस्तिकायां लिखित—अत्रागत्या-हमतीवानिन्दितोऽस्मि यद्यप्यहं न्यासस्य प्रमाणपूर्णप्रकाशनैः पूर्वपरिचितोऽस्मि किन्त्वत्रागमनं मम प्रथमम् । अहं न्यासस्य अधिकं बृहत्तरं च साफल्यं कामये।
 - २. पूज्यश्रीशङ्करोदयमहाभागः।
- ३. डा० रामकरणशर्ममहाभागः, संपूर्णानन्दसंस्कृतविश्वविद्यालयस्य कुलपतिचरः।

रामलीला

रामनगरस्य विश्वविश्रुता रामलीला अस्मिन्वर्षे ६ सितम्बर १९८७ दिनाङ्कमारभ्य ६ अक्टूबर १९८७ दिनाङ्कं यावत् संपन्ना । यतोऽस्मिन् वर्षे प्रावृद्प्रवेशः विलिम्बत आसीत्, अतः प्रारम्भिकदिनेषु रामलीला मेघवर्षणेन प्रभाविता जाता । फुलवारीलीला धनुर्यंज्ञलीला च स्थगिते आस्ताम् । किन्त्विमे लीले परर्वातषु दिनेषु पूर्णे जाते । पूर्ववत् साधुभ्यः साधकेभ्यश्च समस्तलीलादिनेषु मासं यावत् निःशुल्कभोजनसामग्रीवितरणं जातम् । सामान्यत एतादृशानां साधूनां संख्या प्रतिदिनं सहस्रपरिमितमासीत् । रामलीलादर्शकानां भक्तानां च संख्या अनुदिनं वृद्धि गता वर्तते । धनुर्यंज्ञ-विजयदशमी-भरतिमलापराज्याभिषेकदिनेषु प्रेक्षकाणां भक्तानां च संख्या अत्यधिका वर्तते । तत्रभवन्तः काशिनरेशा महाराजाः डा० विभूतिनारायणसिंहशर्ममहाभागाः, महाराजकुमाराः श्री अनन्तनारा-यणसिंहशर्ममहाभागाः कृत्वा रामलीलां वृष्टवन्तः ।

अमेरिकादेशस्य यूनिर्वासटी आफ कैलिफोर्निया, (बर्कले) संस्था रामनगर-स्थरामलोलायां निर्मितानां तात्कालिक लघुभारिनिमितीनां छायाङ्कनस्य व्यवस्थां कृतवती । एतन्निमित्तं कुमारी सनह बौने मैसन, कुमारी क्रिस्टोन मैसी इति द्वे वास्तुशिल्पिन्यौ अस्य प्रारम्भिकज्ञानार्थं रामनगरं प्रेषिते । ते मासं यावत् रामनगरे स्थिते आस्ताम्, ताभ्यां सर्वं सौविष्यं च प्रदत्तम् ।

रासलीला

अस्मिन् वर्षे २८ जुलाई १९८७ दिनाङ्कमारभ्य ६ अगस्त १९८७ दिनाङ्कं यावत् रासलीला आयोजिता आसीत् । पूर्ववर्षाणामनुसारतो रासलीलाप्रदर्शंका वृन्दावनाद् आगताः । रासलीला रामनगरस्थिते प्रसिद्धोद्याने संपन्ना जाता । तत्रभवन्तः काशिनरेशा महाराजा डा० विभूतिनारायणिसहशर्मदेवा राजपरिवारेण सह प्रतिदिनं रासलीलां दृष्टवन्तः । पूर्ववर्षेष्विवास्मिन्नि वर्षे रासलीलाप्रेक्ष-काणां संख्या विपुला आसीत् ।

सहयोगिन्यासानां कार्यविवरणम् महाराजबनारसविद्यामन्दिरन्यासः संग्रहालयः

संग्रहालये दर्शकानां संख्याऽनुदिनं वर्धमाना वर्तते । संग्रहालये प्रदर्शितानि वस्तूनि अस्य प्रदेशस्य विगतित्रशतवर्षाणामितिहासस्य प्रख्यापकानि सन्ति । पर्यटका दर्शका एषां वस्तूनां, विशेषतः शिबकानां हस्तिनां 'हौदा' इत्येषां, हस्तिदन्तिर्मितवस्तूनां, प्राचीनशस्त्राणां 'धर्मघटो' इति समयसूचकयन्त्रस्य च दर्शनेन उत्तरभारतीयपरम्परायाः संस्कृतेः कृत्यानां च परिचयं प्राप्नुवन्ति । विगते विजयदशमीदिने यानसंग्रहालयोऽपि संग्रहालयस्य समीपर्वातिन विस्तृते प्रशाले व्यवस्थापितः, अतः समग्रः संग्रहालयोऽतितरां संघटितो दृश्यते । यानसंग्रहालयो मार्गवाहनानां विकासस्य परिचायको वर्तते; अनेन रथकालात् शकटकालाञ्च कथं वाहनानां विकासो जात इत्यनुमातुं शक्यते ।

अस्मिन् अवधौ (जुलाई-दिसम्बर १९८७) अधोर्निर्दिष्टा विशिष्टा दर्शकाः संग्रहालयं दृष्टवन्तः—

१. श्रीलङ्कादेशस्य भारतस्थित उच्चायुक्तः श्री बी० गुणितलकमहा-भागः श्रीमत्या पी० तिलकरत्नमहाभागया कुमार्या के• तिलकरत्नमहाभागया च सह (१८-७-८७ दिनाङ्के)।

- २. केन्द्रीयप्रत्यक्षकरविभागाध्यक्षः श्री सी० के० टिक्क्महाभाग (२२.८. '८७ दिनाङ्के)।
- ३. ब्रिटेनदेशस्य भारतस्थित उच्चायुक्तः सर डेविड गुडाल महाभागः स्वपत्न्या सह (२५.१०.८७ दिनाङ्के)।

वैदिकबालकवसन्तपूजा

२६ नवम्बर १९८७ दिनाङ्को रामनगरदुर्गस्थिते देवीमन्दिरे वैदिक-बालकवसन्तपूजा संपन्ना । अस्यां पूजायाम्नषोडशवर्षीयाः बोडशवैदिकबालकाः सम्मिलिता आसन् । वेदमन्त्राणां पाठानन्तरं सर्वभ्यो वैदिकबालकेभ्यो दक्षिणा भोजनं च प्रदत्ते।

चित्रकला-प्रतियोगिता

२७ नवम्बर १९८७ दिनाङ्के अनेन न्यासेन स्थानीयविद्यालयानां बाल-कानां बालिकानां च कृते चित्रप्रतियोगिता आयोजिता आसीत्। बालका बालिकाश्च प्रातःकालादेव रामनगरदुर्गस्य 'दीवानखाना' इति स्थानमागत्य स्विचत्राणि निरमिमत। एषां चित्राणां परोक्षणं हिन्दूविश्वविद्यालय-दृश्यकला-विभागस्याध्यापकाभ्यां ए.पी. गज्जर—डा. आर.एन. मिश्र-महोदयाभ्यां कृतम्। प्रथमत्रयचित्रेभ्यः पुरस्काराः प्रदत्ताः। प्रतियोगितायां समाविष्टेभ्यः सर्वभ्यः छात्रेभ्यो मिष्ठान्नानि वितरितानि ।

स्थानीयकुम्भकाराणां कृते भित्तिचित्रप्रतियोगिताया आयोजनमस्मिन्नेव दिने आसीत् । अस्मात् कालादारभ्य तेषां निर्मितयो महाराजबनारसिवद्यामिन्दर-न्यासस्य बाह्यभित्तिषु वर्षं यावत् प्रदर्शिता भविष्यन्ति । इमानि चित्राणि पौराणिकानि ऐतिहासिकानि च सन्ति । इमान्यपि चित्राणि प्रो० गज्जर—डा० मिश्रमहोदयाभ्यां परोक्षितानि । प्रथमत्रयचित्राणां कृते विशिष्टपुरस्काराः, अन्येभ्यश्च सान्वनापुरस्काराः प्रदत्ताः।

महाराजप्रभुनारायणींसहिफिजिकलकल्चरलट्स्ट विद्यालयानां क्रीडाप्रतियोगिता

२६ नवम्बर १९८७ दिनाङ्के रामनगरस्थितानां प्राथमिक-लघुमाध्यमिकः विद्यालयानां क्रीडाप्रतियोगिता संपादिता। अस्यां क्रोडाप्रतियोगितायां खो खो इति कबड्डो इति च क्रीडे अपि समाविष्टे आस्ताम्। महाराजकुमारः श्री अनन्तनारायणसिंहः क्रीडानां स्वयं निर्देशनं चकार। महाराजबलवन्तसिंह-महाविद्यालयस्य प्राचार्यः श्रीवीरेन्द्रकुमारशर्ममहोदय, तस्य सहयोगिनश्च प्रतियोगिताया निर्णायका आसन् । महाराजकुमारः विजेतृछात्रेभ्यो विद्यालयेभ्यश्च

पुरस्कारान् अददात् । क्रीडासमाप्ती सर्वेभ्यः छात्रेभ्यो निर्णायकेभ्यो विशिष्टा-गन्तुकेभ्यश्च मिष्ठासं चायपानं च समर्पितम् । प्रतियोगितासमये तत्रभवन्तः काशिनरेशा महाराजा डा० विभृतिनारायणसिंहशर्मदेवा उपस्थिता आसन् प्रतियोगितायाम् उत्साहसंवर्धनं च चकुः।

महारानी-काशिराज-धर्मकार्यनिधिः

२७ नवम्बर १९८७ दिनाङ्के स्थानीयप्राथमिक-लघुमाध्यमिकविद्यालयानां सर्वेभ्यः छात्रेभ्यो मिष्ठान्नानि वितरितानि । मध्याह्नोत्तरकाले विद्यालयीया बालका नानावर्णपरिधानै रामनगरदुर्गस्य अन्तःप्राङ्गण एकत्र स्थिता अभूवन् । केचन बालका वाद्यं वादयन्त आगताः, केचन च ध्वजान् संगृह्य आगताः। पङ्क्तिबद्धेभ्यः सर्वभ्यः छात्रेभ्यो मिष्ठान्नानि प्रदत्तानि। ऊनपञ्चवर्षीयेभ्यो निर्धनेभ्यो बालकेभ्यो बालिकाभ्यश्च मिष्ठान्नेन सह वस्त्राणि अपि प्रदत्तानि । २८ नवम्बर १९८७ दिनाङ्के चिकयानगरसमीपवर्ति-वैराट-क्षेत्रस्य जनजाति-बालकेभ्यो वस्त्राणि मिष्ठान्नानि च वितरितानि । रामनगरदुर्गे येभ्यो बालकेभ्यो मिष्ठान्नानि प्रदत्तानि तेषां संख्या ६४८५ आसीत्।

हरिकोर्तनम

२६ नवम्बर १९८७ दिनाङ्के अनेन न्यासेन राननगरदुर्गे हरिकीतैनस्या-योजनं कृतम् । वाराणस्या यशस्विनः कीर्तनकारा भक्तिपदानां हरिनाम्नां च सङ्गीर्तनं चकः।

महाराज-काशिराज-धर्मकार्यनिधिः

अनेन न्यासेन संचालितानि विद्यासंस्थानानि सम्यक् प्रचलिति । अनेन न्यासेन संचालिते महाराज-बलवन्तिसहमहाविद्यालये अस्मिन् वर्षे कलासंकाये छात्राणां संख्या २२५ वर्तते । महाराज मनसाराम विधिसंकाये विगते वर्षे छात्राणां संख्या १८९ आसीत्। अस्य महाविद्यालयस्य परीक्षाफलं सदैव वेशिष्ट्ययुक्तं भवति ।

महारानी-रामरत्नकुँवर-संस्कृतपाठशाला

इयं विगतेभ्य एकविंशतिवर्षेभ्यः विद्यामन्दिर-पत्रिकायाः प्रकाशनं करोति । अस्मिन् वर्षे नवम्बर १९८७ मासे पत्रिकाया एकविशतितमोऽङ्कः प्रकाशितो जातः, यस्मै गङ्गापुरमहाविद्यालयस्य अध्यापका अपि स्वलेखान् प्रकाशानार्थं ददुः ।

अनेन न्यासेन प्रयागस्थिते यमुनामहलप्राङ्गणे योगप्रशिक्षणसंस्थानस्यापि संचालनं क्रियते, यस्मिन् योगविद्याजिज्ञासवः प्रशिक्षणं प्राप्नुवन्ति ।

अनेन न्यासेन परम्परानुसारतः सर्वेषां धार्मिककृत्यानामनुष्ठानमपि विधिवत् निर्वाहितम् ।

मानसप्रचारनिधिः

अनेन न्यासेन रामचरितमानमस्य कथाप्रवाचनातिरिक्तं विहारप्रान्तस्य समस्तीपुरनगरे एकस्य शिशुविहारस्य संचालनं क्रियते ।

अवधप्रान्तान्तिमशासक-श्रीवाजिद अलोशाहमृत्युशताब्दी

१० नवम्बर १९८७ दिनाङ्के सायं समये कलकत्तानगरे तत्रभवन्तः काशिनरेशा महाराजा डा० विभूतिनारायणसिंहशर्माणः अवधप्रान्त-शासकस्य श्रीवाजिद अलीशाहमहोदयस्य निर्वाणस्य शतवाधिकितिथिसमारोहस्याध्यक्षतां चकुः । कलकत्तानगरस्य मेटियावुर्जनामके 'इमामवारा' इति स्थाने विशिष्टजनानां समुपस्थितौ एष समारोहः सम्पन्नः । अस्मिन् समारोहे वङ्ग-प्रदेशस्य राज्यपालो महामहिम-तूरूल हसनमहोदयः, विशिष्टो वार्ताहरः (पत्रकारः) श्रीखुशवन्तसिंहः, अलीगढिवश्वविद्यालयस्य कुलाधिपितः डा० ए० आर० किदवइमहाभागः, दिल्लीनगरस्थितस्य जामामस्जिद इत्यस्य शाही इमाम अब्दुल्ला बोखरी, वाजिदअलीशाहन्यासस्य अध्यक्षस्तथा वाजिद अलोशाहस्य प्रपौतः अन्जुमकदर महाभागः, अन्ये च विशिष्टा जना उपस्थिता आसन् । कलकत्तानगरस्य अनेके कवयो विद्वांसश्च उपस्थिता अत्र ।

एष समारोहः मिटयाबुर्जं इमामवारा इत्यस्य सम्मुखे स्थिते कुथास्तीर्णे प्रकोष्ठे सम्पन्नः। स्वलखनऊनगराद् अन्नैवागत्य अवधनरेशः स्थितो मृतश्च। १९५६ स्त्रीष्टाब्दे निर्वासितः। समारोहे इदमिप स्मारितं यल् लखनऊनगराद् आगच्छन् वाजिदअलीशाहमहोदयो वाराणस्यां तत्कालोनकाशीनरेशैः महाराज ईश्वरीप्रसाद-नारायणसिंहशर्मभरामिन्त्रतः काशोनरेशानामैतिहासिके नन्देश्वरप्रासादे अवात्सीत्। महाराजानामातिथ्येन वाजिदअलीशाहमहोदय एवं प्रभावित श्वमत्कृतश्चासीत् यत् तेनोक्तम्—लखनऊनगरं विहाय वयं वाराणस्यामेव सुखेन अवसाम।

समारोहे तत्र भवतां काशिनरेशानां स्वागतं वाजिदअलीशाहमहोदयस्य प्रपौत्रेण कुमार अञ्जुम कदरमहोदयेन कृतम्। तत्रभवन्तः काशिनरेशाः डा॰ विभूतिनारायणसिंहशर्माणः स्वसंक्षिप्ते भाषणे हिन्दू मुस्लिम सौहार्दस्योपयोगित्वं व्याहृतवन्तः। वाजिदअलीशाहमहोदयो हिन्दू-मुस्लिम-सद्भावस्य प्रतीक आसीत्। महाराजे भंणितं यद् एष सद्भाव उभयोः सम्प्रदाययोः परम्परायां दीक्षितैः जनै रेव संभाव्यते, अयम् एव सद्भावोऽस्माकं सभ्यतायाः प्रधानमङ्गमस्ति। महाराजानां स्वागते उद्दं भाषायां 'कसीदा' (प्रशस्तिपत्रम्) व्याहृता। अवधनरेशन्यासस्याध्यक्षः प्रिस अञ्जुमकदरमहाशये मंहाराजान् प्रति अन्यान् विशिष्टाहृतान् प्रति च धन्यवादा ज्ञापिताः।

d. m. one of the eleven Rudras; reference to Brahmā anointing him as the chief among the Rudras 1.58.7; being requested to dispel one's sins I. 82.40.

Nilādriśikhara

a type of temple; benefit of worshipping Siva in I. 77. 16.

Nrga

k. s. r. One of the nine sons of Manu, referred to as Nabhaga I. 65. 18; was cursed by a bramin to become a chameleon I. 66. 45.

Nrsimha d. m.

the man-lion form of Visnu; referred to as a form of Siva I. 96.112; description of the form of I. 95. 20; description of how the demon Hiranyakasipu was killed by 1. 95.1: 95.15; 95.52; reference to his victory over Hiranyakasipu II. 27.276; the whole world was frightened by the roar of I. 95.15; Siva was requested to put down the fire in the form of the wrath of I.96.13; felt angry on hearing the words of Virabhadra I. 96.25: words spoken by Virabhadra to I. 96.60; the resolve of Siva to subdue I. 96.3; was subdued by Sarabha form of Siva I. 85.61: sang the glory of Siva I. 96.76; requested Siva to dispel ignorance and ego in him as and when they arise I.96.95; Siva addressed as the appeaser of I. 96.83; devotion to whom is not liked by Alaksmi II. 6.22; merits of the hymn in praise of I. 95.30.

Naigameya

d. m. denotes Skanda; son of Siva and Pārvatī I. 101.29; 82.16; his abode is said to be as the north I. 49.40; the linga is spoken as the support for II. 46.18.

Naidhṛta Naidhruva-s Naidhruva k. denotes Daśārha, son of Nidhṛti I. 58.42. one of the three clans of Kasyapa I. 63.54.

m. born of Vatsara I. 63.61; husband of Sumedhas, daughter of Cyavana I. 63.52.63; father of Kundapāyins I. 63.53.

Naimisa

f. name of a place reached by Nārada after visiting several other places I. 1.4; the manifestation of Siva as Sūlin at I. 24.112; the merits of bathing at I. 92.46; one of those that resort to the Ganges to get rid of the sins I. 92.128-129; obeisance to Siva made by the sages of II. 65.37-8.

Nairrti

d.w. one of the eight worshipped in the first enclosure of the Bhadravyūha II. 27.70; worshipped linga made of wood I. 74.7

Naisadha

name of the region ruled by Hari, son of Agnidhra I. 47.7.

Nyagrodha

f. abode of the serpents I. 49.64.

Pakṣirāja

d. one of the Garudas; being requested to dispel one's sins I. 82.62.

Pankti

the name of the chandas for the Pañcākṣara mantra I. 86.41.

Pancama

name of a kalpa I. 4.47.

Pancamukha

d.m. an epithet of Brahmā; attained perfection and imparted mantra to his sons I, 86.17.

Pañcavaktra

d.m. an epithet of Brahmā, born of the navellotus of Nārāyaṇa I. 85.11.

Pancavaktradhara d.

d. denotes Siva; imparted the five syllables to Brahmā I. 85.14.

Pancasikha

- s. a disciple of Dadhivāhana (eighth manifestation of Śiva) I. 7.41; 24.41.
- d. an attendant of Siva that accompanied Siva I. 72.80.

Pañcāśaila

mt. I. 49.47.

Pañcākṣa

d. an attendant of Siva that accompanied Siva I. 72.79; came to attend the marriage of Siva I. 104.26.

Pancāksetra

the five sacred syllables narrated by Siva to Brahmā I. 85.14-23; greatness of I. 85. 5-6; 27.36; an expression of Siva I. 85.16; reference to its narration I. 85,230-231.

Pancakṣarī mantra for Siva; to be repeated I. 85.1.2-

(vidyā);

glory of I. 24.136.

Pañcārcis denotes planet Budha I. 61.46.

Pañcāśatkoțimūrti an epithet of Śiva I. 72.123.

Pañcāsya a gene who came to participate in the

marriage of Siva I. 103.38.

Pañcāsyarudrarudra an epithet of Siva, I. 72.123.

Patanjali a serpent; one of the 26 most important among the

the progeny of Kadrū and Kasyapa I. 63.37.

Patākā d. w. one of the 16 worshipped in the 2nd enclosure of the Śākunāvyūha II. 27.193.

sure of the Sakunavyuna 11. 2

Patin denotes Siva I. 95.51.

Patrini d. w. one of the 16 worshipped in the 2nd enclosure of the Candavyūha, II. 27.142.

Padma m. a dvija who fed Kauśika a dvija who sang the glory of Viṣṇu II. 1.13; was bent on hearing the singing of Kauśika II. 1.5;

a serpent; one of the 26 most important among the progeny of Kadrū and Kaśyapa

1. 63.35.

Padma mudrā used in connection with Jayābhiṣeka

II. 27.65;

used in the worship of Bhāskara II. 22.48.

Padmaja d. m. denotes Brahmā as an interloculor I. 72.169;

Haranyakasipu's words to Prahlāda questioning the strength of I. 95.7; words addressed to other gods I. 102.48; the vimāna made

of ruby for I. 48.23.

Padmanābha an epithet of Visnu;

being requested for protection II. 5.141; anointed lord Siva before the marriage I. 103.46.

Padmayoni denoted Brahmā, reference to Pañcākṣara

expounded to I. 85.14;

Sanatkumāra addressed as son of II. 14.4.

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Padmarāga gem linga made of which was worshipped by

Sakra I. 74.2;

drawing of a lotus having the colour of I. 77.68.

Padmavana f. I. 49.64.

Padmasambhava denotes Brahmā as an interlocutor I. 72.

170; 73.1;

requested Siva to shed anger I. 100.39; went to the place where Pārvatī was doing

penance I. 102.3.

Padmā denotes goddess Lakṣmī; creation of II. 6.7;

was created after the creation of Alaksmi

by Visnu II. 6.5.

Padmākṣa denotes Viṣṇu; the cause of being known as

I. 98.177.

Padmākṣa (Padmākhya) name of a brahmin; fed the disciple of

Kauśika also II. 1.17; was blessed by

Viṣṇu II. 1.58;

the guards uttering the name of II. 1.38; by plaing a host to Kausika earned bene-

fits II. 1.66;

siddhi granted by Hari to II. 2.4; merits of counting the Pañcākṣarī with I. 85.111.

Padmāvatī w. mother of Ambarīşa, devotee of Viṣṇu II.

Padmodbhava denotes Brahmā; hailed Gaņeśa I. 72.73;

hailed Siva I. 93.10;

Siva worshipped by; merits of worshipping I. 77.4; fled away on seeing the form of Kālī

I. 106.16.

Pannaga serpents; the dwelling place of I. 50.14.

Pannagā d. w. one of the 16 worshipped in the 2nd enclosure of the Paitāmahavyūha II. 27. 223.

Payasvini d. w. one of the 16 energies worshipped in the

vāgišavyūha II. 27.88.

Payonidhi ocean as lord of water. I. 58.9.

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Parāśara created the Purāṇasamhita by the grace of I. 64. 120-121; dwells in the Sun in the months of Madhu and Mādhaya I. 55.45;

as a form of Siva II. 11.16.

Pulaha

s. I. 55.26; created by Brahmā I. 5.10; 38.12; 70.181; was created from Vyāna I. 70.187; married Kṣamā, daughter of Dakṣa I. 5.24;

had two sons—Kardama and Sahiṣṇu and a daughter—Kanakapītā through Kṣamā I. 5.41-2;
married Prīti, daughter of Dakṣa I. 70.288, 290;
dwells in Sun in the months of Madhu and Mādhava I. 55.45;
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Pulindāḥ Pulomā

d. w. one of those who attended the marriage of Siva. I. 103.4.

Pullajvālā

d. w. one of the sixteen worshipped in the second encloure of the Śākunavyūha II. 27.190.

Puskara

cloud I. 75.11; became the top and banner of the chariot of Siva I. 72.16; 72.16; conceived as the hair of Siva. I.75.11.

one of the seven continents I. 46.2; the only mt in I. 53.19; 53.30; surrounded by Svādūdaka I. 53.27;

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t. as a sacred place I. 91.128; merits of death at I. 77.40.

Puṣṭa d. m. a Cāraṇa being requested to destroy one's sins I. 82.49.

Puṣṭi w. one of the twentyfour daughters of Prasūti and Dakṣa I. 5.20; married by Dharma Prajāpati I. 5.23; 70.284; birth of Lobha to I. 70.294.

Puṣṭikari d. w. one of the sixteen worshipped in the second enclosure of the Manmathavyūha II. 27.

Puspakośa mt. on the north of Mahābhadra tank I. 49.55.

a serpent, one of the most prominent among Puspadamstra the progeny of Kadrū and Kasyapa I. 63. 36. one of the eight worshipped in the first Puspadanta d. m. enclosure of the Prākāmyavyūha II. 27.113 Puspamālini d. w. one of the sixteen worshipped in the second enclosure of the Pitāmahvyaūha II. 27.228. Puspita mt. in Kuśadvipa I. 53.8. Puspotkatā daughter of Malyavat; was married by W. Viśravas I. 63.60; sons of I. 63.63-4. an asterism; being requested to destroy Pusya one's sins I. 82.78. month; vrata to be observed in I. 83.14-19; Pusya mode of practising Umāmaheśvaravrata in I. 84.26. Putanā d. w. one of the sixteen worshipped in the second enclosure of the Nandavyūha II. 27.217. Pūtanā W. a spell against the affliction due to I. 70. 343. one of the three sons of Sarmistha and Püru k. l. r. Yayāti I. 66.66 Pūrnabhadra d. m. a gene who came to witness the marriage of Siva I. 103.23. a yakşa being requested to destroy one's Pūrnabhadd. m. reśvara sins I. 82.53. son of Marici and Prabhūti I. 5.40 Pūrnamāsa m. Pūrnimā d. w. one of the eight worshipped in the first enclosure of the Nandavyūha II. 27.215. Pūrvacitti d. w. an apsaras I. 55.33; dwells in Sun in the months of Saha and Sahasya I. 55.60. Pürvaphālguni an asterism; Brhaspati originated in I. 61. 44: being requested to destroy one's sins. I. 82.78. Pūrvabhadrā an asterism; being requested to destroy one's sins I. 82.80.

Pūsā

Pūrvasadha an asterism; Angaraka originated from I. 61. 44-45. being requested to destroy one's sins I. 82.79.

d. one of the twelve Adityas I. 55.25; 63.26; dwells in Sun in the months of Urja and Isa 55.55; the number of rays in executing Sun's job I. 59.37.; his teeth were broken by Virabhadra I. 82.101; pulled down by Virabhadra I. 100.17; remained with the teeth on seeing Siva as child I. 102.38.

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k. l. r. son of Paravrt I. 68.33; became subordinate Prthurukma to Rukmesu. I. 68.34.

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Prsadhra m. one of the nine sons of Manu I. 65.19.

Prsita k. s. r. son of Krta I. 66.51.

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