SRĪ BHĀSHYAM Vol. II—Chaps. II—IV

SRĪ BHĀSHYAM

TRANSLATED INTO ENGLISH

BY

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Vol. II—Chaps. II—IV

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	PAGE
Inference impossible on the saugata's	
theory	538, para 4
Santrāntika's view that objects may be known,	
though non-existent at the moment for	
knowing them refuted	$538,s\bar{\boldsymbol{u}}tra25$
Conclusion - efforts would be fruitles .	540 , $s\bar{u}tra~26$
Sub-section 4. Upalabdhi $adhi$ — $yog\bar{a}$ -	
chāra's theory described—his reply to	
objections	540
Refutation of the same	542 , $s\overline{u}tra$ 27
Perceptions of external world not like dream	
perceptions	$543, s\bar{u}tra~28$
SUB-SECTION 5. Sarvathā anupapatti adhi-	
$Mar{a}dhyamika$'s theory described	544
Refutation of the same	546 , $sar{u}tra~30$
SUB-SECTION 6. Ekasmin asambhava adhi.	
Arhata's theory described	546
Criticism of the theory—possession of con-	
tradictory qualities disproved	548 , $s\bar{u}tra~31$
Refutation of the view that jiva is of middle	
size · सत्यमेव जयते ·	550, sūtras
Chapter of California and Salt.	32 to 34
Sub-section 7. Pasupati adhi-Pasupati's	
āgama briefly described	551, sū $tra~35$
Condemnation of the $\bar{a}gama$	554
$N\bar{a}r\bar{a}yana$ the highest $devat\bar{a}$ —contemplated	
by texts enjoining meditation-precedent	
from $p\bar{u}r_{C}a$ $m\bar{v}m\bar{a}ms\bar{a}$	555, para 2
Proof of Paşupati as operative cause only by	
inference-futile	556, sūtras
	36 to 38

	PAGE
Sub-section 8. Utpatti asambhava adhi—	
objections to acceptance of pānch rātra	
$ar{a}gams$ as authority	558
Inconsistencies with veda explained .	559 , $s\bar{u}tra~41$
Vedic texts elucidated by the agama .	560
Origination of jiva denied in the agama itself	561, sūtra 42
Further objection answered—Sandilya got	
from the agama what could not be got	
from the $veda$	561, paras
	1 & 2
Criticism of interpretation of the $s\bar{u}tras$ of this	
sub-section by others	563, para 3
Objection that the $\bar{a}gama$ is on a par with the	
$s\bar{a}nkhya\ smriti$ and the rest answered .	564, paras
	4 & 5
SECTION 3	
Introduction	56 7
Sub-section 1. Viyad adhi—first view—	
ether $(\bar{a}k\bar{a}sa)$ is not made	567, $s\bar{u}tra~1$
Final decision . REMEINED	$568, sar{u}tra~2$
Objection by opponent	569 , $s\bar{u}tras$
	3 & 4
Reply to the same $aaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaa$	570 , $s\bar{u}tras$
	5, 6 & 7
No substance merely produced; it always	
exists, and only changes its condition .	571, note (1)
SUB-SECTION 2. Tejo adhi—subject .	57 2
First view-fire and the rest came forth from	
the next preceding substance	5 73
Anna in the chāndogya text denotes earth .	573 , $s\bar{u}tra~13$

	PAGE
Final decision-Brahma the direct cause of	
every product—every word denoting Him	574
It is used in its primary sense :	577, sūtra 17
Sub-section 3. Ātmā adhi—first view—	
jiva a product like ether	578
Final decision—not a product like ether .	579
A thing may be a product, and yet eternal .	580, para 3
Reconciliation of texts	581, para 4
Existence of one thing only before evolution	
explained—superiority of this explanation	
over the explanations of others .	582, para 5
Erroneous views regarding the jiva.	582, note (2)
SUB-SECTION 4. Ina adhi-first view .	584
Sānkhya's-jiva not a knower	584
Vaiseshika's—He is jada, and not a knower by	
nature	584
Jiva—Omnipresent	584, para 3
Final decision—jiva a knower	585
Jiva not omnipresent	586, sūtras
	20 & 21
Vedic text cited refers to Brahma	587 , $sar{u}tra~22$
He is stated to be ayu in size \cdot .	$588, s\bar{u}tra~23$
Opponent's objection answeredHe perceives	
with his attribute jnana what goes on in	
the body—he himself abides in the heart	589, $s\bar{u}tras$
	24 & 25
Explanation of texts quoted by opponent .	590 , $s \overline{u} tras$
	27 to 30
Existence of $jn\bar{a}na$ in deep sleep explained .	$592,s\bar{u}tra31$
Absurdity of the view that the iiva is omni-	
present	593, $s\bar{u}tra$ 32

	PAGE
Sub-section 5. Kartri $adhi$ —first $view$ —	
The jiva does not act	594
Final decision—He does act	595
Absurdities in the $\mathit{first\ view}$	597, $s\bar{u}tras$
	36 to 38
${\tt SUB\text{-}SECTION} 6. \textit{Parayatta} adhi-\textit{first} \ \textit{view}$	
and final decision—jiva's doership de-	
pends upon Brahma	599
He awaits the jiva's effort—why—expla-	
nation by analogy	600, $s\bar{u}tra$ 41
In what sense the $jiva$'s doership depends upon	
Brahma explained	600, note (1)
Kaushītaki text, seeming to contradict this,	
explained	601, para 2
Giving assent to the doing of what is in-	
jurious does not imply want of mercy .	601, note (1)
Does not highest $\widehat{A}tm\overline{a}$ bind by giving a body	
and placing in an environmentreply .	602, note (1)
SUB-SECTION 7. Amşa adhi-need for the	
sub-section	6 03
First view -vaiseshika's ARRESES	604, paras
	1 & 2
" Şankara's	604, para 3
,, $Bh\bar{a}skara's$,	605, para 4
Final decision—Jiva an amṣa of highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$	
—difference between them not $anyathar{a}$	
siddha	606, para 2
Sankara's explanation unsound	606, para 3
Also $Bh\tilde{u}skara's$	607, para 4
Other reasons	607, sūtras
	43 & 44

	PAGE
Relation of $jiva$ to highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ similar to	
relation of light to a luminous substance	$608, sar{u}tra~45$
Difference of treatment among jivas due to	
	610, sūtra 47
	610, sūtras
	48 to 52
SECTION 4	
SUB-SECTION 1. Pranotpatti adhi—The sen-	
ses are products like ether	613
Explanation of the term pranas—plural ending	
should be ignored	615 , $s\bar{u}tras$
	2 & 3
Sub-section 2. Sapta gati adhi - First view.	616
Final decision—They are eleven	617
Chitta, buddhi and ahamkāra names of the	
mind	618
SUB-SECTION 3. Prāṇa aṇutea adhi—The	
senses are atomic in size	618
$Pr\bar{a}\eta a$ also is produced	619
Difference between jiva and senses in the	
matter of size	619, note (1)
SUB-SECTION 4. $V\bar{a}yu\ kriy\bar{a}\ adhi-Pr\bar{a}na$ is	
neither air, nor its movement—air by a	
change of condition becomes $pr\bar{a}na$.	620
It is like eye and the rest	$621,sar{u}tra9$
And serves the jiva by supporting the body	
and senses	621, sūtra 10
It is one with five functions	622, $s\bar{u}$ tra 11
SUB-SECTION 5. Șreshțha anutva adhi—Prāna	
is anu	62 3

lix

	PAGE
Apūrva not denoted by the termination of the	
verb	692
Objection regarding need of $ap\bar{u}rva$ answered.	692, note (1)
SECTION 3	
Introduction	695
Sub-section 1. Sarva vedānta pratyaya adhi.	695
First view. A $vidy\bar{a}$ of the same name enjoined	
in two or more upanishads cannot be	
identical	696
Final decision-It is identical under certain	
conditions	697
Replies to the opponent's objections .	697 , $sar{u}tra$ 2
Confirmation in the upanishads	699 , $sar{u}tra$ 4
Practical effect of the decision	700 , $s\bar{u}tra$ 5
SUB-SECTION 2. Anyathātva adhi. The udgītha	
$vidy \overline{a}s$ in the $ch \overline{a}ndogya$ and $brihad$	
āraņyaka are different	700
SUB-SECTION 3. Sarvābheda adhi - The prāņa	
vidyās in the brihad āranyaka and	
kaushītaki are one	705
SUB-SECTION 4. Ānandādi adhi—Ānanda	
and the other attributes, without which	
no conception of Brahma can be formed,	
should enter into all $brahma\ vidy ar{a}s$.	706
But not having priya for the head and the rest.	708, s $\bar{u}tra$ 12
Nor the power to control, generosity and the like	709 , $sar{u}tra~13$
Reason for representing Brahma as having	
priya for the head and the rest .	709, $s\bar{u}tra$ 14
Another reason—use of the word atma	710. sūtra 15

	PAGE
Sub-section 6. Jyotirādi adhishthāna adhi—	
The control of jivas' instruments by	
devatās subject to control of highest	
$ar{A}tmar{a}$	623
SUB-SECTION 7. Indriya adhi—The senses	
denoted by the term $indriya$, but not $pr\bar{a}na$	625
SUB-SECTION 8. Samjnā mūrti kļipti adhi—	
$vyastshti$ evolution by highest $\widetilde{A}tm\overline{u}$,	
but in the form of the four-faced being .	627
First view-Interpretations of the text anena	
$jivena\ ar{a}tmanar{a}$ —rejected	627
Final decision—Compounding of elements and	
making of names and forms done by the	
same being.	629
Correct interpretation of the text anena	
jivena ātmanā	630, &
<i>YMY V</i> 4.3	note (2)
Compounding not the work of the four-faced	
one .	631
स त्यमेन जय ने	
CHAPTER III, SECTION 1	
TuA . Durat's	004
Introduction	634
SUB-SECTION 1. Tadantara pratipatti adhi—	
In going from one body to another, the jiva	
goes forth enveloped in the elements in a subtle condition	635
Reference is made to water in the <i>vedic</i> text,	บออ
•	e a e
as it is a compound of the elements .	636

	PAGE
Further reason, and reply to an objection	
arising from it	637, &
	$s\bar{u}tras~3~\&~4$
Replies to other objections—	
(1) No mention of water is made in	
the first offering	638 , $sar{u}tra~5$
(2) No mention of the $jiva$ is made .	$639, s\bar{u}tra~6$
(3) The jivas are said to be food of the	
devas	$640, sar{u}tra~7$
SUB-SECTION 2. Kṛitātyaya adhi—The jiva,	
descending from svarga, returns with a	
remnant of karma	641
Charana in the vedic text indicates not mere-	
ly general conduct, but also karma.	643 , $s\bar{u}tras$
	9 & 10
A better viewIt denotes karma alone .	645, sūtra 11
SUB-SECTION 3. Anishtadikari adhi—Per-	
sons of evil deeds do not ascend to the	
moon—first view	646
Final decision	647, sūtra 17
The fifth offering not necessary in their case .	649, sūtras
	18 to 20
SUB-SECTION 4. Tatsvābhāvya ā patti adhi—	
The descending jiva is merely in contact	
with ether, air, watery-vapour, cloud and	
rain-cloud	650
SUB-SECTION 5. Natichira adhi—He does not	
remain long in these stages	651
SUB-SECTION 6. Anyādhishtita adhi—He is	
also in contact with grain, food and	
semen, until he reaches a woman's womb.	652

lvii

	PAGE
The karma, that took him to svarga, is not mixed with sin	653, sūtra 2 5
Opponent's reply to explanations that the	,
offering of a goat to a $devat\bar{a}$ is no \sin .	659 names
onering of a goat to a derund is no sin .	
	1 & 2
Final decision on the point	655
SECTION 2	
DECITOR 2	
Introduction	657
SUB-SECTION 1. Sandhyā adhi—Things seen	
in dreams created by the dreamer .	658
Correct view—they are created by the highest	
$ar{A}tmar{a}$.	659 , $s\bar{u}tra$ 3
Reasons (1) the $jiva$'s omnipotence is pre-	,
vented from appearing	660, sūtras
	4 & 5
(2) Dreams indicate coming evil also	
	001, <i>saira</i> 0
SUB-SECTION 2. Tadabhāra adhi—In deep	
sleep the jiva rests directly in the highest	
Atmā . सद्यमेन जपने .	661, sūtra 7
Sub-section 3. Karma anusmriti sabda vidhi	
adhi—The same person goes to sleep	
and awakes	663
SUB-SECTION 4. Mugdha adhi—Trance is	
a half-way house on the road to death .	665
SUB-SECTION 5. Ubhaya linga adhi-subject	
first view. Brahma is affected by the	
places in which He abides	666
Final decision—No; being stated to be the	
seat of two-fold marks	667
e	

lviii

	PAGE
Objections answered—	
(1) He exists in two conditions—in one	
He has the two-fold marks; in	
the other He is affected.	668
(2) Having bodies with names and	
forms, He is subject to karma .	670
(3) Being $jn\bar{a}na$, He can have no attri-	
butes	6 71
(4) The analogy of the sun and his	
reflection does not prove freedom	
from imperfections	673 , $sar{u}tra$ 19
Nearness of three kinds needed for	
pollution .	675
The text 'not so; not so' explained .	676
Conclusion	678
SUB-SECTION 6. $Ahikundala$ $adhi$ —relation	
of matter to $Brahma$ considered .	679
First alternative.	$680, s\bar{u}tra~26$
Second alternative	$680. s\overline{u}tra 27$
Final decision—It is an amṣa of Brahma .	681 , $s \overline{u} tra$ 28
SUB-SECTION 7. Para adhi-first view-There	
is a Being higher than Brahma .	683
Final decision—first argument refuted .	684
Second argument refuted	685
Third argument refuted	686
Last argument rejected	686, $s\bar{u}tra$ 35
Conclusion	688, $s\bar{u}tra$ 36
SUB-SECTION 8. Phala adhi—All fruits	
yielded by Brahma	689
Jaimini's objection	690
Renly	691. sūtra 40

	rage.
Reply to objection suggested by this latter	
reason	710, $s\bar{u}tra$ 16
SUB-SECTION 5. Kāryākhyāna adhi. In the	
prāņa vidyā the water sipped in āchamana	
to be meditated on as the clothing of	
$prar{a}$ na ·	712
SUB-SECTION 6. Samāna adhi. The sāndilya	
vidyā in agnirahasya and brihad āraņyaka	
are one	714
SUB-SECTION 7. Sambandha adhi—The	
vyāhriti vidyās in the brihad āranyaka are	
different	715
SUB-SECTION 8. Sambhriti adhi The attribute	
of pervading heaven to be meditated on	
only in some vidyas—not in all	717
SUB-SECTION 9. Purusha vidyā adhi—The	
purusha vidyās in chāndogya and taittirīya	
are different	719
SUB-SECTION 10. Vedhādi adhiCertain	
mantras and karmas specified are not	
angas of vidyās, though included in	
upanishads	722
SUB-SECTION 11. Hāni adhi. The abandonment	
of karmas and their going to friends and	
foes to be meditated on in all brahma	
$vidyar{a}s$	725
Sub-section 12. Sümparüya adhi—All karmas	
are abandoned at death	729
The kaushitaki text to the contrary to be	
understood in accordance with this	
view	731, sūtra 28

PAGE
Objection. In this view there will be no
subtle body to take the jiva on the
$devayar{a}na$
Reply. The subtle body is retained by the
$vidy ar{u}$ for the journey
All karmas abandoned by those only that
depart from the body to enter on the
devayān a
SUB-SECTION 13. Aniyama adhi. Journey on
the devayūna common to those that do all
$brahma\ vidyar{a}s$
SUB-SECTION 14. Aksharadhi adki. Freedom
of Brahma from imperfections (amalatva)
to be meditated on in every $brahma\ vidy\bar{u}$. 736
Attributes inseparably connected with their
seat—illustration. The principal followed
by what is subsidiary—pūrva mīmāmsā
(III-3-2) . 737, & note (1)
on page 738
SUB-SECTION 15. Antaratva adhi—The $vidy\bar{a}s$
taught to Ushasta and Kahola are one-
Brahma to be meditated on as the inner
ruler of all in both
Brahma differentiated from the jiva by the
replies
In the $sad\ vidy\bar{a}$ too the same $vidy\bar{a}$ is dealt with. 744, $s\bar{u}tra$ 37
Criticism of other interpretations of sūtras
36 and 37
SUB-SECTION 16. Kāmādi adhi. The dahara
$vidyar{a}s$ taught in the $char{a}ndogya$ and $brihad$
$ar{a}ranyaka$ are one

lxii

	PAGE
Texts affirming oneness and denying difference	
explained	748
Fruits mentioned in certain $ch\bar{a}ndogya$ texts	
to be reaped by freed $jivas$	752, sūtra 40
SUB-SECTION 17. Tad nirdhāraņa aniyama adhi	
—meditation on $udgitha$ not an essential	
part of a kratu	753
Mention of fruit in the text 'He, whose $juh\bar{u}$	
is made of parna wood, etc.,' is $arthav\bar{a}da$.	755, note (1)
SUB-SECTION 18. Pradāna adhi—In the medi-	
tation on each quality in the $dahara\ vidyar{a}$	
meditation on the $ar{A}tmar{a}$ to be repeated .	75 6
SUB-SECTION 19. Linga bhūyastva adhi—The	
eleventh anuvāka of nārāyaņa connected	
with all brahma vidy is	757
SUE SECTION 20. Pūrva vikalpa adhi—The	
$vidy\bar{a}$ taught in the $agnirahasya$ is of the	
nature of $vidy\bar{u}$ by entering into a $kratu$	
consisting of thoughts only	75 9
SUB-SECTION 21. Sarire bhava adhi—In a	
brahma vidyā how should the meditator	
meditate on himself—first view.	7 66
Final decision. In the aspect to be attained	
	767, sūtra 52
SUB-SECTION 22. Anga avabaddha adhi—Medi-	
tations connected with subsidiary parts of	
kratus not limited to the sākha, in which	
they are taught	768
SUB-SECTION 23. Bhūma jyāyastva adhi—In	
the vaisvānara vidyā the meditation is on	and and an
the whole; not on the parts	771

lxiii

	P AGE
Sub-section 24. Şabdādi bheda adhi—vidyās	
different from one another	774
$Ny\bar{a}sa\ vidy\bar{a}\ { m different\ from\ other\ }vidy\bar{a}s$.	775, note (1)
SUB-SECTION 25. Vikalpa adhi—Any one	
brahma vidyā to be taken up; not all .	776
SUB-SECTION 26. Yathasraya bhava adhi-	
The decision in sub-section 17 re-examined	
and confirmed	77 8
SECTION 4	
SUB-SECTION 1. Purushārtha adhi—the high-	
est goal comes from $vidy\bar{a}$	784
Jaimini's objection	785, <i>sūtra</i> 2
Quotations in support thereof	786, sūtras
	3 to 7
Reply to the objection	788
Correct interpretation of the texts quoted .	790, sūtras
	9 to 14
Further reasons for the final decision .	793, $s\bar{u}tras$
सन्यमेन जयने	15 to 17
Jaimin's objection that no stage of life exists	
other than the house-houlder's.	795, $s\bar{u}tra$ 18
Reply to the above	796, sūtras
	19 & 20
Sub-section 2. Stuti $m\bar{a}tra~adhi$ — $ch\bar{a}ndogya$	
I-1-3 enjoins meditation on udgitha as the	
best of essences; it is not mere praise .	800
SUB-SECTION 3. $P\overline{a}riplav\overline{a}rtha$ $adhi$ —The	
narratives in upanishads are not for pāri-	
nlana sastra	80 3

lxiv

	PAGE
SUB-SECTION 4. Agnindhana adhi—Those	
that have taken the vow of life-long celi-	
bacy are competent for $brahma\ vidy\bar{a}$: .	805
SUB-SECTION 5. Sarvāpeksha adhi—all karmas	
are needed by the house-holder	806
$Karmas$ impeding $jn\bar{a}na$ are good and bad	
deeds. Prescribed karmas done as worship	
of the highest $ar{A}tmar{u}$ help	808, para 4
Support by the author of the $v\bar{a}kya$ —the seven	
helps	809, paras
	6 & 7
The view that karmas create a desire to know	
is untenable	811, para 8
	& note (1)
SUB-SECTION 6. Samadamādi adhi—Control	
of mind and the rest needed -no conflict	
between the two kinds of help.	812
SUB-SECTION 7. Sarvānna anumati adhi—	
Permission to take any food only in cases	
of necessity.	813
SUB-SECTION 8. Vihitatva adhi - The duties	
prescribed should be done, even if brahma	
$vidyar{a}$ be not done	815
SUB-SECTION 9. Vidhura adhione outside	
the $ar{a}$ sramas too competent for $brahma\ vidyar{a}$	818
SUB-SECTION 10. Tadbhūta adhi-one fallen	
from any stage of life other than the	
house-holder's not competent	820
No expiation possible for him	821, $s\bar{u}tra$ 41
Objection and reply thereto	821, $s\bar{u}tras$
	42 & 43

lxix

	PAGE
Final decision—His own form emerges .	896
It is not an undesirable thing	898
Sub-section 2. Avibhūgena drishatva adhi—	
He sees himself as not separate from	
Brahma	899
SUB-SECTION 3. Brahma adhi-Jaimini's	
view-The meditator appears with the	
qualities pertaining to Brahma.	900
Audulomi's view—He is mere perception .	901
Bādarāyaṇa's view	901
Explanation of Audulomi's text	902
SUB-SECTION 4. Samkalpa adhi-On reach-	
ing Brahma the freed jiva by mere will	
does what he pleases—no other effort	
needed	903
He is no longer subject to any ruler-sub-	
jection to Brahma remains unaffected .	904
SUB-SECTION 5. $Abh\bar{a}va$ $adhi$ —possession of	
body and senses or non-possession de-	
pends on his will	904
He has enjoyment like the dreamer, when he	
does not make a body for himself .	906
As in the waking condition, when he makes	
a body	906
He pervades all bodies with his attribute $jn\overline{a}na$	907
Refutation of the view that he loses con-	
sciousness	909
SUB-SECTION 6. Jagat vyāpāra varja adhi—	
The freed jiva has no part in world-	
activities	910
Reply to objection—explanation of text quoted	911, sūtra 18

lxv

	PAGE
SUB-SECTION 11. Svāmi adhi—Meditation on	
the $udgitha$ to be done by the $ritvik$.	823
Sub-section 12. Sohakāryanatara vidhi adhi	
-Mauna enjoined as help like pāṇḍitya	
and $balya$	825
Replies to objection	828, sūtras
	47 & 48
SUB-SECTION 13. Anāvishkurva adhi—bālya	
means not parading learning	828
SUB-SECTION 14. Aihika adhi—fruits of this	
world mature, if no obstruction exists .	830
SUB-SECTION 15. Muktiphala adhi—This is	
true of release also	831
CHAPTER IV-SECTION I	
7// 1/4/4/4/	
SUB-SECTION 1. Avritti adhi-first view-	
vedana to be done but once	833
Final decision—should be repeated more than	
once, being synonymous with dhyāna and	
$upar{a}sana$	834
It should be continuous and vivid	836, para 3
It should be loving also	837, para 4
Criticism of Ṣankara's view—vedana is not	
mere knowledge of texts	838, para 5
SUB-SECTION 2. Ātmatva upāsana adhi—	
$Brahma$ to be meditated on as $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ of the	
meditator	840
SUB-SECTION 3. Pratika adhi—This does not	
apply to meditation on pratika.	843
d	

lxvi

	PAGE
SUB-SECTION 4. Ādityādi mati adhi—medita-	
tions on parts of a kratu to be as the su	n
and other $devatar{u}s$	844
SUB-SECTION 5. $\bar{A}sina$ $adhi$ —meditation to	
be done in the sitting posture	845
SUB-SECTION 6. Āprayāņa adhi—vedana to	
be done till departure from the world .	847
SUB-SECTION 7. Tad adhigama adhi-on the	
attainment of meditation past evil karma	
is destroyed, and future evil karma does	
not stick	848
SUB-SECTION 8. Itara adhi extention of this	
to good deeds	851
SUB-SECTION 9. Anārabdha kārya adhi—des-	
truction of past karma is only as to what	
has not begun to yield its fruit.	852
SUB-SECTION 10. Agnihotrādi adhi—Agni-	
hotra and other duties of the asrama to	
be done	8 53
SUB-SECTION 11. Itara kshapana adhi—prā-	
rabdha to be fully expended, whether	
this needs bodies other than that in	
which meditation becomes established	
or not	855
SECTION 2	
SUB-SECTION 1. Vāk adhi—The senses unite	
with the mind in death	857
SUB-SECTION 2. Mano adhiThe mind unites	
with prāna.	859

lxvii

	PAGE
SUB-SECTION 3. Adhyaksha adhi—prāņa unites	
with the $m{ji}va$	860
SUB-SECTION 4. Bhūta adhi—With the jiva	
prāņa unites with the elements .	861
With all of them at the same time	862, sūtra 6
SUB-SECTION 5. Asriti upakrama adhi—the	
mode of departure the same for all, till	
this point is reached	8 63
The meditator rises from the body-expla-	
nation of the text relied on in the first view.	864, para 2
Other reasons for the conclusion	864 sūtras
	8 to 11
The theory of jivan-mukti refuted	865, note (2)
Explanation of two other texts quoted by	
opponent	867
SUB-SECTION 6. Para sampatti adhi—The	
elements unite with the highest $ar{A}tmar{u}$.	870
SUB-SECTION 7. Aribhāga adhi—This union	
is one, in which the united things cannot	
be separated	871
SUB-SECTION 8. Tadoko adhi—The meditator	
goes up through the blood vessel going	
to the top of the head	872
Sub-section 9. Rașmi anusăra adhi—He	
goes to the sun along his rays	873
SUB-SECTION 10. Niṣādhi -dying at night	
is no obstacle to his reaching the highest	
$ar{A}tmar{a}$	874
SUB-SECTION 11. Dakshināyana adhi—nor	
dying in the six months of the sun's	
southward journey	875

lxviii

	PAGE
Explanation of verses of the bhagavad $gtt ilde{u}$.	877
SECTION 3	
SUB-SECTION 1. Archirādi adhi—The path	
beginning with archis (light) the only path- SUB-SECTION 2. $V\bar{a}yu$ adhi $-V\bar{a}yu$ comes	879
after year—He is denoted by the term	
devaloka	881
SUB-SECTION 3. Varuna adhi—Varuna comes	
after lightning—Indra and Prajāpati at	009
the end Sub-section 4. $\bar{A}tiv\bar{a}hika$ $adhi$ —light, day	883
and the rest are carriers	884
SUB-SECTION 5. $K\bar{a}rya$ $adhi$ -First $view$ —	
The meditator goes to the four-faced	0.0.4
being	886
Replies to objections	887, sūtras 8 & 9
Another view-Jaimini's criticism of the	
other view . GRANT THE	889, $s\bar{u}tras$
Final decision. He goes to the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$	11 to 13
Final decision. He goes to the highest Aima	0.91
SECTION 4	
Sub-section 1. Sampadyaāvirbhāva adhi—	
First view-The meditator is united to a	
newly-made body	893
Criticism of two other views	893, paras 2 & 3

lxx

		PAGE
Reply to further objection.		912, sūtra 19
Support for the replies from texts		913, sūtra 20
Utmost likeness to Brahma only in	enjoyment	914
He does not return to $samsar{a}ra$		915
Glossary		919



xlix

	PAGE
Criticism of the view of Ṣankara and Bhāskara	515
Sub-section 2. Mahat dīrgha adhi—Vaișe-	
shika's theory described	516
Refutation of evolution from parama anus-	
parama anus being indivisible	518, $s\bar{u}tra$ 10
Parama anus, that are indivisible, do not exist	519, para 2
Opponent's question answered	520, para 3
No motion of atoms towards one another $\ \ .$	521 , $s\bar{u}tra~11$
Assumption of samaväya unsound	523 , $s\bar{u}tras$
	12 & 13
Possession of colour and other attributes by	
parama anus unsound	525 , $s\bar{u}tras$
	14 & 15
Conclusion	526
Sub-section 3. Samudāya adhi—Saugata's	
theory described	526
Momentary character of external objects dis-	
	528 , $s\bar{u}tra~17$
Saugata's explanation untenable	529 , $s\bar{u}tra$ 18
Creation of objects out of nothing disproved .	530, sütras
सन्यम्ब जयन	19 & 20
Complete destruction of objects impossible .	$532, s \overline{u} tra~21$
Absurd results would flow from creation of	
objects out of nothing and their complete	
	533 , $s \overline{u} tra~22$
Existence of ether $(\bar{a}k\bar{a}sa)$ proved	$533,s\bar{u}tra23$
Momentariness disproved by facts of recogni-	
tion	534 , $s\bar{u}tra~24$
Proofs by sense perception and inference put	
forward by the saugata	535, para 2
Proofs unsound	536, para 3
\boldsymbol{b}	

SRĪ BHĀSHYAM

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER II

SECTION I-OBJECTIONS ANSWERED

	PAGE
Introduction ,	441
SUB-SECTION 1. Smriti adhi—Kapila's smriti.	,
should not be ignored—reply	442
His perception was due to misapprehension .	445 , $s\overline{u}tra$ 2
SUB-SECTION 2. Yoga pratyukti adhi—appli-	
cation of conclusion in preceding sub-	
section to yoga smriti	446
SUB-SECTION 3. Vilakshanatva adhi. Brahma	
not the world-cause, as He and the world	
are dissimilar	447
Importance of tarka emphasised	447, note (1)
Objections answered: (i) Universe possesses	
intelligence, and is similar to $Brahma$.	448, para ² (i)
(ii) Similarity cannot be defined	449, para 2
	(ii)
(iii) Relation of cause and product found be-	
tween dissimilar things	450, para 2 (iii)
In speaking of earth, water and the like as	
seeing and doing, reference made to deva-	
	450, sūtra 5
Reply to opponent	451, sūtra 6

xlvi

	PAGE
His objections answered: (i) theory that	
products exist in their cause abandoned-	
reply	452, $s\bar{u}tra$ 7
(ii) Impurity of matter and misery of jivas	
would be found in Brahma	453 , $s\bar{u}tra~8$
(iii) Matter and jivas cannot be bodies of	
Brahma	454, para 2
Other definitions of body criticism by opponen	
	3, 4, & 5
Reply to opponent's objection (ii)	456 , <i>sūtra</i> 9
" " (iii)	457, para 2
Criticism of definitions of body	458, para 3
Proper definition of the term	459, para 4
Opponent's theory faulty	460, sūtras
	10 to 12
SUB-SECTION 4. Sishta aparigraha adhi-	
Condemnation of other theories not based	
on the $veda$	463, $s\bar{u}tra$ 13
SUB-SECTION 5. Bhoktrāpatti adhi—Brahma	
would be bhokta like a jiva, if he had a	
body . सन्त्रमेव जयने	463
Reply to objection	463, para 2
Reply—There IS difference between the natures	
of $Brahma$ and $jiva$	464, sūtra 14
Criticism of other interpretations of the sūtra	465
SUB-SECTION 6. Ārambhaṇa adhi. Brahma	
cannot become the universe, as cause and	
product differ	466
Objections answered	468, para 2
Reply to opponent—Brahma and universe do	
not differ—proved by chandown texts	469 sūtra 15

xlvii

	PAGE
Opponent's objections answered	471, para 2
Replies to opponent's further questions .	471, para 3
Other vedic texts to prove the point .	473, paras
	4 to 6
Criticism of other interpretations of sūtra 15.	476
Other reasons for the conclusion-replies to	
questions	478, sūtras
	16 & 17
Objection—universe is stated to have been	
non-existent before—reply	480, sūtra 18
Conclusion	482
SUB-SECTION 7. Itara vyapadesa adhi-If	
Brahma were stated to be jiva, he did not	
do what was good for Himself	483
Bhāskara's and Ṣankara's explanations rejected	484
Reply to opponent—Brahma other than jiva .	
	486, sūtra 23
Mode of evolution explained	487
Criticism of interpretation of satra 22 by	
others	487
Sub-section 8. Upasamhāra darşana adhi-	
The world-maker had no instruments-	
•	488, sūtra 24
SUB-SECTION 9. Kritsna prasakti adhi-	
Brahma must have been wholly expended,	
	490, sūtra-26
Objection answered	491, para 2
Reply to opponent—what is stated by the	-
veda should be accepted as stated .	491, sũtra 27
Different powers possessed by different things.	
Opponent's theory open to the objection raised	

xlviii

					PAGE	
Conclusion		•			494,	sūtras
					3	0 & 31
SUB-SECTION	10.	Prayojan	avatva	adhi—		
Brahma	had no j	purpose fo	r the eve	olution.	495, 8	ūtra 32
Reply to opp	onent—e	volution	for mere	amuse-		
ment	•		٠		496, s	ūtra 33
No charge of	partiali	ty or crue	lty .		496, s	ūtra 34
Objection-n	o karma	of jivas e	xisted	reply .	497, si	ūtra 35
Conclusion	to repl	ies to op	ponents'	obje c-		
tions	•	•	•	•	499, s	ūtra 36
SECTIO	ON 2C	RITICISM	OF OTE	ER THE	CORIES	
Introduction	•	ARR			500	
SUB-SECTION	1. R		nupapat	ti adhi		
		describe	CB3HB2HS/08		501	
Proof of evol	ution of	universe	from <i>pra</i>	$d h ar{a} n a$.	503,	para 3
Refutation o	f oppo n e	nt's argu r	nent—n	o evolu-		
tion with	hout dire	ction			505,	sūtra 1
Cases of ev	olution	without d	irection	cited-		
reply	•				506,	sūtra 2
Condition of	rest ca	nnot be	reached	without		
direction	ı .		•		507,	sūtra 3
Evolution ma	y be bro	ought abou	it by kar	mano		
controlle	r needed	-reply-	nature o	f karma		
explaine	d.	•	•		50 8	
Further exam	mples of	change w	rithout d	irection		
cited re	ejected v	vith reaso	ns .		510,	$sar{u}tras$
						4 & 5
Other reasons	3.	•	•		512,	$s \bar{u} t r a s$
						6 to 8
Theory full o	f contrac	dictions		_	513.	sũtra 9

ERRATA—SRĪ BHĀSHYAM

CHAPTERS II, III & IV

Reference	For	Read
PAGE		
452, under $s\bar{u}tra$	7, If you recognise,	Delete comma
line 4	${f that}$	
457, line 7	sub-section 1	sub-section 2
486, line 5 from	the atme is	the atma is,
the bottom		
554, line 8	pa supata	$par{a}$ ș u p a t a
579, line 7	views	view
586, line 3	chando	$ch\bar{a}ndo$
601, line 8	$s\bar{u}tra$, (II-2-3)	Delete brackets
604, line 15	2 (i)	2
607, line 6	The opponent, expla-	The opponent's ex-
	nation	planation
660, line 5	पराभिध्यानात्त	पराभिध्यानात्तु ।
687, 1921	I meditate on the great Purusha, Who shines like the sun, and Who has a body made of a substance other than matter. Meditating on Him one	meditating here on that great <i>Purusha</i> alone, who shines like the sun, and

Reference PAGE 707, line

707, line 4
766, line 7
787, line 4
798, line 9
817, note, line 4
865, note (2),
line 2
872, last line
but 4

884, line 6

For

meditated
in (IV—1-3)
mritya
heaven (see
prayāgas
in his body

vessels appear

Read

meditated on Remove the brackets mrityu heaven see ($pray\bar{a}jas$ insert a comma after body

vessel appears



भगवते भाष्यकाराय महादेशिकाय नम:।

CHAPTER II

SECTION I

In the first chapter it was established that the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ was the only cause of the evolution of the universe. The purpose of the second chapter is to refute the objections which are or may be urged against this conclusion. The first section deals with the objections of those outside the vedic fold; the second demolishes the theories of evolution put forward by them; and the last two sections remove the doubts felt by those within the vedic fold. The first two sections deal with the question from the point of view of the cause, while the remainder deals with it from the point of view of the products, and show that they have evolved in response to the will of the highest $Atm\bar{a}$, omitting of course those things which the upanishads state to be eternal. In the first two subsections the objection is answered that the theory of evolution is inconsistent with the sānkhya and yoga

systems. The remaining eight sub-sections reply to the arguments urged.

SUB-SECTION 1

स्मृत्यनवकाशदोषप्रसङ्गः इतिचेन्नान्यस्मृत्यनवकाशदोष-प्रसङ्गतः।

If it be contended "This will result in the charge of ignoring the *smriti* of *Kapila*," the reply is "No; it will result in the charge of ignoring other *smritis*."

The vedāntin raises an objection: He argues thus: It was decided in the pūrva mīmāmsā that a smriti opposed to the veda should be ignored (Intro... The sankhua replies: This conclusion holds, para 10). when a text of the veda is capable of itself of conveying its meaning. But in the vedanta the matter is difficult to understand; and it cannot be stated for certain that this is the meaning in a particular place. To rely on the smriti of the great seer, and in case of conflict with the veda, to treat the latter as meaning something else is not objectionable. Kapila fully accepts the various karmas taught in the earlier part of the veda as the means to one's advancement, like agnihotra, darsa pūrnamāsa, agnishtoma and the like; and he is described in all sacred literature as our best friend. His smriti has been written with the special object of pointing out the highest good, and its means. Without its help we, who have read but little, and are of dull intelligence, cannot ascertain the meaning of the vedānta; if we take the superficial meaning, we shall have to ignore the whole of that smriti. Objection. By following this smriti the smritis of Manu and others, which state the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ as the only cause of the evolution of the world, will have to be ignored. Reply. Those smritis elucidate the earlier portion of the veda treating of dharma, and will serve their purpose; but this smriti treats only of truth; and if it be not accepted, it will become wholly useless. This is stated in the first half of the $s\bar{u}tra$.

The second half of the $s\bar{u}tra$ gives the reply. The other smritis are the smriti of Manu, $bhagavad-git\bar{a}$: $mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata$, vishnu $pur\bar{a}na$, and $\bar{a}pastamba$ dharma (1).

(1) These smritis teach the following:

Manu.—He begins with the statement 'This was in the condition of tamas'; and then observes 'When the time for creation came, $Bhagav\bar{u}n$, who exists of himself, appeared in the form of avykta; and in order to make the universe of diversity appear, He moved tamas and willed to appear as mahat, $ahamk\bar{u}ra$, and the great elements. He considered; and desiring to create diverse products from His own body, He created first the materials for making the egg-shaped universe, and gave them the capacity for its formation (I-5, 6 and 8).

Bhagavad-gītā.—I am the place from which all the worlds go forth; the place in which all the worlds dissolve (VII-6). I am the place from which everything goes forth; and everything acts as directed by Me (X-8).

 $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata$.—The question is put 'All this world consisting of movables and immovables—from whom was it created; and at the time of rest to whom does it go; tell me this, grandfather'. The reply was—" $N\bar{a}r\bar{a}yana$, with the world as His body, without limitations, and eternal."

The authors were our best friends, and their works follow the teaching of the veda, and were written to elucidate its meaning. The ignoring of them will result, if we follow the smriti of Kapila, which conflicts with vedic teaching. And this will be a very serious offence. Elucidation means to bring home the meaning conveyed; and this cannot be done by a work which conflicts with it.

2. The remark that these works serve another purpose cannot be admitted. They enjoin *dharmas* as the worship of the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ (1); but unless they describe the highest $Atm\bar{a}$, who is to be worshipped, their injunctions will serve no purpose. Even the

 $Par\bar{a}$ sara.—The world came forth from Vishnu; it rests on Him alone; He sustains and destroys this world; He is the world (I-1-32).

 $\bar{A}pastamba$.—All living beings are the bodies of Him, who abides in the cavity of the heart, who cannot be injuriously affected, and who is free from blemishes;... from Him all bodies come forth; He, the root, ever exists, and undergoes no destruction.

(1) This is stated as follows:

Man reaches the goal, worshipping with his own karma (work) that Being, from whom all that lives comes forth, and by whom all this world is pervaded (bhagavad- $g\bar{\imath}t\bar{\imath}$, XVIII-46): Meditate on Deva $N\bar{a}r\bar{a}ya\bar{\imath}a$ in bathing and in other actions; by doing so one attains the world of Brahma; and he does not return here (i.e., to sams $\bar{a}ra$) (daksha smriti). Those men, that intent on doing their karma, worship you in order to be released, overcome all this $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$, (vish $\bar{u}u$, V-30-16).

[&]quot;From Him avykta with the three gunas came forth"; avykta is dissolved in Brahma, known as Purusha and without action."

karmas, that yield fruits to be gathered by men of the world here, or in svarga, are His worship (1).

3. The praise of *Kapila* in sacred literature does not count for much. *Brihaspati* is cited in sacred literature as an example in referring to those that possess extraordinary learning; and if the opponent's argument were valid, the *veda* should be elucidated by the athiestical *lokāyata* written by him.

Opponent. Kapila saw by the merit of his yoga things as they are: The next sutra replies:

2. इतरेषांचानुपलब्धेः।

But because it (what Kapila saw) was not seen by others.

Many like Manu, who by the merit of their yoga perceived the true nature of tatvas, high and low, and who are well known in the veda as the authors of works that serve as medicine for the ills of all the world, did not see truth as he saw it. His perception being opposed

⁽¹⁾ Those that worship other beings with love and fervour, they too worship Me alone; but not in the manner directed by the veda. For, I am the Being worshipped in all the yajnas; I alone give the fruits; but they do not know me as I am; they therefore lose the full benefit of the worship (bhagavad-gitā, IX-23 and 24); Achyuta! you who are in the forms of all devas, you are ever worshipped with yajnas; you alone receive what is offered to devas and pitris; you who bear the forms of the pitris and devas (vishnu, V-20-95).

to the *veda*, was due to misapprehension. The conclusion as to its teaching arrived at cannot be shaken.

SUB-SECTION 2

3. एतेन योगः प्रत्युक्तः ।

By this the objection to the rejection of the yoga smriti is answered.

The reason for adding a sūtra on this point is thus explained: Yoga smriti recognises the existence of an allcontrolling Being; it enjoins meditation taught in the upanishads as the means to release; and its author is the four-faced one, whose special function is to spread the knowledge of the whole of the veda in the world-It may be presumed therefore that his smriti should be followed. The reply is that it teaches that matter evolves without being directed by the highest Atma from within; that it regards Him as only the operative cause; and that in the meditation, which it teaches, and which is differentiated from other meditations by the objects on which the mind dwells, the jiva is not regarded as ruled by Him from within, and Brahma is not regarded as being the material cause of the world and as the seat of all good qualities. The teaching is therefore opposed to the veda; and it may be presumed that the four-faced one also, being a jiva in bondage, was influenced by the gunas-rajas and tamas. His yoga smriti should therefore be rejected like his purana. which labours under the same defect.

Sub-section 3

4. न विलक्षणत्वादस्य तथात्वं च शब्दात्।

No; because this (the world) is dissimilar; and this is taught in the upanishads.

The opponent, having failed, now resorts to argument. The conclusion that the world is a product that has evolved from the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ is not sound. This world, consisting of matter and jivas, is perceived to be non-intelligent, impure, subject to another's control and full of suffering. The highest $Atm\bar{a}$, on the other hand, is described by you as all-knowing, as opposed to all evil, as the ruler of all, and as full of bliss. The world is thus entirely dissimilar to Him. How can it then come forth from Him? On this point one need not depend upon sense-perception only; the dissimilarity is seen from the veda also—

The intelligent and the non-intelligent $(\bar{u}na., VI-3)$; So those $bh\bar{u}tas$ (including the organs) rest on the jivas, and the jivas on prana (the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$) $(kaush\bar{u}., II-6)$; On the same tree man, immersed, grieves, bewildered with the attraction of worldly objects. When he sees the other, the ruler of all, pleased with his actions, and sees His greatness to be such and such, his grief passes away (munda., III-1-2); The $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$, who is ruled, is bound from his desire for enjoyment $(svet\bar{a}., I-8)$.

It is observed that a product is not dissimilar to its cause. Examples. A jar is similar to the lump of earth from which it is made (1), and a ring is similar to the

⁽¹⁾ In support of the contention that the world-cause should be similar to the world, and that $pradh\bar{a}na$ should be that cause in accordance with Kapila's smriti, the need of

piece of gold, that is its cause. Hence, the world, that is dissimilar to *Brahma*, cannot be a product made from Him, and *pradhāna*, which is similar to the world, should be accepted as the cause in accordance with the *smriti* of *Kapila*.

- 2. Here three objections are raised, which the opponent answers:
- (i) When it is decided from the *veda* that *Brahma* is the only cause of the universe, it should be accepted that the universe too, which has come forth from Him, possesses intelligence. It exists in jars and the like, but is dormant, as the attribute *jnāna* of a *jiva* is dormant, when he sleeps or falls into a trance. This is the distinction between intelligent beings and non-intelligent objects. Hence, the universe is not dissimilar

tarka is emphasised by the opponent. He observes: Though the veda is independent authority, and deals with matters beyond our senses, it should nevertheless use tarka; for all sources of knowledge (pramana), only when helped by tarka, enable one to arrive at a decision in some matters. Tarka is a help to a source of knowledge, and determines that it shows a particular thing, by discussing either its nature or the materials, from which that thing is known. It is known also as $\bar{u}ha$. Its utility is common to all sources of knowledge; but testimony needs it specially in all cases, as its meaning depends upon certain conditionsviz., (i) The sentence must be complete, and should not need another word to convey its meaning; (ii) the words that make up the sentence should be spoken at the same time; and (iii) it must not state what is impossible. points out its value thus-'One that examines with the help of tarka knows dharma; but not others.' The veda also, when it enjoins manana (thinking), refers to fixing its teaching in the mind with the help of tarka.

to Brahma. Reply. This is not a sound view. Intelligence is never observed in jars and other objects; and this proves that it does not exist at all. For the same reason it cannot be contended that they have the capacity to possess intelligence. For, when a capacity does not produce an effect at any place and at any time, how can it be said to exist? Further, when it is known that the veda shows Brahma to be the material cause of the universe, one may state that jars and other objects possess intelligence in a dormant condition, or that they have the capacity for it. When this fact is known for certain, one may state that the veda shows Brahma to be the material cause of the universe. This will be arguing in a circle.

(ii) What is meant by similarity between the cause and the product, by the absence of which you state that Brahma cannot be the material cause of the universe. Does it refer to agreement in all respects or in any one respect? The former alternative will not do; for then the relation of cause and product cannot subsist. In a jar made of a lump of earth, the lump condition does not continue. The latter alternative also should be given up; for the universe and the highest Âtmā agree in being substances that exist. Reply. They must agree in that respect, by which the cause is distinguished from other substances. The character, by which a piece of gold is distinguished from a lump of earth, continues in the ornaments made of it. Here the highest Ātmā is opposed to all evil, is

all-knowing, is full of bliss, and controls all; while the world is just the reverse.

(iii) The relation of cause and product is found between things, that are dissimilar: from the intelligent jiva hair, nails and teeth, which are non-intelligent, come forth; from a lump of non-intelligent cow-dung the intelligent scorpion is generated; from the intelligent spider the non-intelligent web issues forth. Reply. In all these cases the relation of cause and product is found in the non-intelligent element only.

A by-stander offers an explanation. What is regarded as non-intelligent does possess intelligence. The *veda* says "To him the earth said"; "water desired." "These *prāṇas*, quarrelling as to who was the greatest among them, went to the four-faced *Brahmā*." Those, that read the *purāṇas*, speak of rivers, seas and hills also as possessing intelligence. The opponent replies:

5. अभिमानिज्यपदेशस्तु विशेषानुगतिभ्याम् ।

But here reference is made to controlling beings (devatūs). This is known from the epithet applied, and from the entry of these beings into them.

Every material thing is under the control of an intelligent being known as $devat\bar{a}$; and the words 'earth,' and 'water' refer to the beings that control them. In the $ch\bar{a}ndogya$ reference is made to fire, water and earth in the words, "These three $devat\bar{a}s$ "

(VI-3-2). The epithet devatās shows that the term 'earth' denotes not merely earth, but also the being that controls it. 'All devatās quarrelled as to who was the greatest among them.' 'Those devas knowing greatness to be in prāṇa.' Also, "Agni, becoming speech, entered the mouth; the sun, becoming the sense of sight, entered the eyes; vāyu, becoming prāna, entered the nostrils" (aitareya, 1-2-4). Hence by the use of the epithet and by the statement of entry of beings into what they control, it should be decided that reference is made to these beings in the texts quoted.

The objection raised in the first $s\bar{u}tra$ therefore remains.

These two $s\bar{u}tras$ state the objection of the $s\bar{a}nkhya$. The next $s\bar{u}tra$ is the reply of the author of the $s\bar{u}tras$:

6. दश्यते तु

But it is seen (the relation of cause and product is seen in things entirely dissimilar).

A worm springs from a fly, which is dissimilar.

Sankhya.—Have I not stated that the relation of cause and product appears in the non-intelligent element only; and that there is therefore similarity. Reply. True, you did say so; but the similarity which you have in your mind, does not exist. You apprehended that if similarity in any particular were accepted, everything would be similar to everything else, and that everything could be made of everything else. You therefore

stated that there must be similarity in a character by which the cause is distinguished from other things. This restriction is not found in the example given. For a common character, such as is seen in a lump of earth and a jar, or in a piece of gold and a crown, is not found in the fly and worm, or in the cow-dung and scorpion. Hence, the universe may evolve from *Brahma*, though it is dissimilar to Him.

On the receipt of this reply, the opponent raises two objections, which are stated and refuted in the next three $s\bar{u}tras$.

7. असदितिचेत्र प्रतिषेधमात्रत्वात् ।

If it be contended "The product was previously non-existent," the reply is—"No; because the need for similarity only is denied."

The first objection is this: If you recognise, that the world may evolve from Brahma, who is dissimilar, then the cause and the product being different substances, the world did not exist in Brahma; and you give up your theory that a product exists in its cause. Reply. It is not so; what was denied in the preceding sūtra is merely the view that the cause and product should invariably be similar; but it was not stated that the product is a substance different from the cause. The view that Brahma, the cause, becomes by evolution the world, which is not similar to Him, has not been abandoned. In the instance given, though the fly and

worm are dissimilar, they are one substance, as are an ear-ring and the piece of gold of which it is made.

The second objection is stated:

8. अपीतौ तद्दतप्रसङ्गाद्समञ्जसम् ।

If your view be accepted, in dissolution and evolution, (1) undesirable things must result as in the world. The *veda* will become mere prattle.

The meaning is: if the cause and the product be admitted to be one substance, then *Brahma* becomes the world in evolution, and the world becomes *Brahma* in dissolution; and all the conditions belong to Him alone. The impurity of matter and the misery of the *jivas* must be found in *Brahma*; as the character of the earring is found in the piece of gold. *Vedic* texts, which in one place state that *Brahma* is ever pure and bliss, and in another place that He is not so (2), cannot be regarded as anything but absurd.

⁽¹⁾ Though the $s\bar{u}tra$ refers to dissolution only, the intention is to refer to evolution too; for it is preceded by dissolution; for in the texts Before creation, my dear, this was Sat only $(ch\bar{u}ndo., VI-2-1)$; Before creation this was $\bar{u}tm\bar{u}$; one only (aitareya, I-1-1); we see that dissolution is first described and then evolution.

⁽²⁾ Who knows everything and every (attribute) of everything (munda., I-1-10); He is free from karma, and free from old age and death $(ch\bar{a}ndo., VIII-1-5)$; He has no body or senses; His equal or superior is not seen (sveta., VI-8); of them one eats the ripe fruit (munda., III-1-1); The $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$, who is ruled, is bound from his desire for enjoyment (sveta., I-8); grieves, bewildered with the attraction of worldly objects (munda., III-1-2).

Objection. As Brahma is the cause and the 2. product only as clothed in the matter and jiva elements, which form His body, the faults pointed out pertain only to these elements, but do not affect Brahma in either condition. Reply. The relation of body and ātmā does not subsist between the universe and Brahma; for the matter and jiva elements cannot be the body of Brahma. A body is the means for experiencing the fruits of karma-pleasure or pain; it is the seat of the senses, and is supported by prāna with its fivefold activity; and it is an aggregate of earth and the other elements. A body of this description only is well-known to be a body in worldly usage and in the veda. Brahma has no karma (1) and has not to experience its fruits; His enjoyment does not depend upon the help of the senses; and He has no prana. Hence the matter and jiva elements cannot form His body. Among these elements there are many things that do not come within the definition of body. Straw and wood, among the unintelligent products formed out of the compounded five elements, and the finest forms of the uncompounded elements are not the seat of the senses; and the latter are not aggregates of earth and the other elements; in the case of the jiva, who is only jnana (shining

⁽¹⁾ He is free from karma, and free from old age $(ch\bar{a}ndo., viii-1-5)$; The other does not eat, but shines on all sides (munda., III-1-1); He sees, but has no eye; He hears, but has no ear; He goes and He takes; but has no hands or feet (sveta, III-19); He is indeed without $pr\bar{a}na$ and without mind $(mund\bar{a}., II-1-2)$.

substance) none of these things is possible; much less his being a body.

- Here the objector puts forward other definitions 3. of body. First, a body is the place, in which one has experience (bhoga). Reply. A house is a place, in which one experiences pleasure and pain; this would be a body under your definition: but it is not known to be a body worldly usage. Objector. That place is a body. remaining in which alone one has experience of pleasure and pain. Reply. When one enters the body of another. and experiences pleasure and pain, that body is the seat of his experience; but it is not known to be his body. In regard to Brahma, whose bliss exists of itself, and is eternal and unlimited, the matter and jiva elements cannot be the invariable seat of His enjoyment. The same objection holds to the definition of body as the mere means of experience.
- 4. Another definition. That is a body of a person, on whose will its existence as an object, its continuance and movements depend. As on the will of Brahma the existence of all objects as objects, their continuance and movements depend, they form His bodies. Reply. Even this is not sound. Objects known as bodies do not depend for their existence as objects on the will of their owners; the movements of a body affected by illness do not depend upon the will of its owner; the continued existence of a dead body does not depend upon the will of the departing ātmā; an image depends upon the will of an intelligent person for its coming into existence, for its continuance and movements; but it is not known as

his body; and finally the jiva being eternal, his existence as a jiva does not depend upon the will of Brahma; and he cannot be His body.

5. Objector. That is a body of a person, which is supported and controlled by him alone, and which exists for his service only. Reply. Action answers this description; but it is not a body. Further, it is stated that Brahma has no body. Without a body, He dwells in bodies; enduring He is present in perishable things (katha., 1-2-22); He is without hands or feet; but he goes and takes' (sveta., 3-19). Hence, the relation of body and ātmā between the universe and Brahma is impossible, and even if it be possible, the imperfections resulting from connection with a body cannot be escaped from. If therefore the upanishads state Him to be the material cause of the universe, they will become absurd.

To this objection the next sūtra replies.

9. नतुदृष्टान्तभावात् । जपन

But no; because an analogy exists in explanation.

The same Being may exist in two conditions; and yet the elements, to which good and evil pertain, may be different; and an analogy in explanation of this may be pointed out. Jivas dwell in material vehicles; and the changes that take place, as they grow—youth, manhood, old-age—relate to the vehicle, not to the ātmā within; perception of things, and experience of pleasure and pain pertain to the ātmā, but

not to the body. And the expressions 'He is born a deva; he is born a man; and the same man was a baby; he is now a youth; and hereafter he will be old' have their primary meanings. For the ātmā clothed in a material vehicle is called a deva or man. This will be explained in chapter III, section 1, sub-section 1. Similarly, though Brahma changes from one condition to another, the existence of good or evil in one or another element is fixed. Brahma has matter and jivas as His bodies, and He is their ātma. Expansion and contraction of consciousness take place in the jiva element; and the changes from the subtle to the gross condition and back again to the subtle condition occur in the matter-element. But these defects of the body do not touch Brahma, the ātmā. And omniscience and bliss belong to Him and not to His vehicles.

2. The objection stated by the opponent in paras. 2 to 5 under the preceding sūtra is not sound. All the upanishads state everything to be the body of the highest Atmā, whether it be a material product or a jiva; and whether it be in the subtle or gross condition. See the antaryāmi brāhmaṇa (brihad., V-7). This mentions material products and jivas one by one, and states them to be the bodies of Brahma (1). The

⁽¹⁾ Who stands in earth; . . . whose body the earth is; . . . who stands in $vijn\bar{u}na$ (jiva); whose body $vijn\bar{u}na$ is; . . . who stands in $\bar{u}tm\bar{u}$; whose body the $\bar{u}tm\bar{u}$ is.

subāla upanishad follows the same course, and closes with the remark 'He, the inner ruler of all beings, is free from karma, etc., (1). The same teaching is given by the smritis (2). In the world also the term 'body' (sarīra) is not confined, like the term jar, to objects possessing the same form; but it is used to denote objects entirely different from one another in form, like insects, flies, snakes, men, beasts and the like; and it cannot be said that it is used in a secondary sense. Hence the connotation of the term should be determined, so as to cover all the cases, in which the term 'body' has been used either in the world or in the veda.

- 3. The definitions given by you do not satisfy this condition, as shown below:
- (i) A body is that, which helps one to enjoy the fruits of past karma. This definition has been framed so as to cover the cases of jivas, that are bound; but it is not applicable to Brahma or freed jivas; for their bodies are taken up at their mere pleasure, but not for working out karma; and they have no karma. That freed jivas take up bodies at their mere pleasure is

⁽¹⁾ Who moves within earth; whose body the earth is; . . . he, the inner ruler of all beings, is free from karma, dwells in the highest heaven; has a shining body; has no equal or superior. He is $N\bar{a}r\bar{a}yana$.

⁽²⁾ All the world is your body $(r\bar{a}m\bar{a}yana)$; which water is the body of Vishnu (vishnu, II-12-37); all that is indeed the body of Hari (Ibid., I-22-38); all those are His body (Ibid., I-22-86); He considered, and desiring to create diverse products from His body (manu., I-8); 'His body' means subtle matter, which forms His body.

known from texts like 'He becomes one' (chāndo., vii-26-2).

- (ii) A body is a compound of earth and other elements. This does not cover the case of *Brahma*, the bodies taken up by whom in *avatāra* are not so made (1).
- (iii) A body is what is supported by $pr\bar{a}na$ in a five-fold form. This does not cover the case of the vegetable kingdom; for though $pr\bar{a}na$ does exist in vegetables, yet it does not assume a five-fold form in them. If the definition be merely that which is supported by $pr\bar{a}na$, it will leave out the jivas and prakriti, with its products mahat, $ahamk\bar{a}ra$, ether, air, fire, water and earth, which are all bodies of Brahma.
- (iv) A body is the support of the senses. If this means the possession of senses or motor organs capable of producing sensation or action, the definition does not include the case of $Ahaly\bar{a}$, and others, who were turned into stones or logs of wood as punishment for past sins. If it means merely the possession of the senses, or motor organs, it will exclude the bodies of Brahma referred to under the preceding head.
- 4. A proper definition, which will cover all cases, is the following: A body is that substance, which an intelligent person in every way supports, controls and uses for his own purposes, and which exists only to serve him. To this definition a few objections have been raised. First, it will not apply to a diseased body,

⁽¹⁾ The body of the highest $\widehat{A}tm\overline{a}$ is not an aggregate of the elements $(mah\overline{a}bh\overline{a}rata)$.

which its owner is unable to control? Reply. The power to control exists; but it is for the time being obstructed. Example. Fire has the power to burn but owing to obstruction this may not be observed sometimes. Secondly, the definition does not cover a dead body. Reply. On the departure of the jiva the body begins to decompose, and will soon disappear. Because a portion of what was previously a body remains, it is referred to as a body.

5. Hence, as everything in the universe is in every way supported and controlled by *Brhama* for His own purposes, and as it exists only to serve Him, it forms His body. The text "Without a body . . . in perishable bodies" (*katha.*, I-2-22) denies the existence of a body brought about by *karma*; but it has no reference to the body formed of the universe; for everything is stated to be His body in the *upanishads* referred to above. This will be explained in the subsections that follow. These two *sūtras* state what will be proved in sub-section 7 of this section.

10. स्वपक्षदीषाच ग्रायमेव जयसे

And because the opponent's theory is faulty.

The theory of evolution of the universe from *Brahma* should be accepted, not merely because it is free from defect; but also because evolution from *pradhāna* is objectionable.

According to this theory evolution cannot take place. In this theory the jiva is not subject to change, and is mere $jn\bar{a}na$ (a shining substance); but by the near presence of matter, he regards its attributes as

belonging to himself; and this delusion brings about evolution. What is this near presence of matter? Does it mean its mere existence, or some change in it, or some change in the jiva? The last alternative must be ruled out, as the jiva does not change. The second alternative is equally untenable; because the change is the effect of the jiva's delusion, and cannot therefore be its cause. The first alternative, if admitted, would mean that even the freed jiva will be deluded. This matter will be explained more fully under chapter II, section 2, sūtra 8. Hence the sānkhya's theory must be abandoned in favour of the theory of the upanishads.

11. तर्काप्रतिष्टानादपि।

Also for the reason that no final conclusion can be reached by mere argument.

The buddhist, the nyāya, the jaina, the sānkhya and the yoya schools, depending on mere argument, demolish one another. It may therefore be concluded that it is profitless to depend upon mere argument.

12. अन्यथानुमेयमिति चेदेवमध्यनिर्मोक्षप्रसङ्गः ।

If it be stated "the theory can be maintained with fresh arguments not open to the criticisms levelled against it," the reply is "even so there will be no escape."

It may be presumed that persons may exist in other places or at other times, who are cleverer in argument; and that they will demolish his pet theory easily. Hence, in matters which are beyond the senses, one must depend on testimony alone; and resort to argument merely for its elucidation. This is stated by *Manu*

'He who examines the teaching of *dharma* given in the *veda* and in the *smritis* with arguments (*tarka*) which are not opposed to the *ṣāstra* in the form of the *veda*, knows *dharma*, but not another who does not do so (XII-106).

SUB-SECTION 4

13. एतेन शिष्टापरिप्रहा अपि व्याख्याता: ।

By this (refutation of the sānkhya theory) the arguments of the remaining schools also, which are not based upon the veda, are refuted.

The need for this additional sūtra arose from the a number of schools that atoms agreement among (parama anu) are the ultimate cause, and from the possible contention that the argument relating to it cannot be so easily dismissed. The reply is that in spite of agreement on this one point there are irreconcilable differences as to the nature of the atoms. For instance, are the following views: that they do exist, they do not exist; that they are jnana and that (shining things), and that they are jada (not shining things); that they exist only for a minute and then perish, and that they are permanent; that they are of one character, and that they combine inconsistent characters; and that they are real, and that they are unreal. The remark that it is futile to rely on mere argument is fully justified.

SUB-SECTION 5

The $s\bar{a}nkhya$ appears again and pleads: In $s\bar{u}tra$ 9 of this section it was stated that Brahma has bodies made of matter and jivas; that He is the cause, when the elements of His body are in a subtle condition; and that he becomes the universe, when they come into a gross condition. If Brahma had bodies, he must, as the jiva does, experience pleasure and pain, that are caused by the possession of a body, and this cannot be avoided.

2. He anticipates an objection. This question was settled in sūtra, I-2-8. He replies—no. What was settled in that sūtra was that Brahma does not become liable to suffering on the ground that He resides within the body of another for the purpose of being meditated on; but here Brahma has a body of His own like a jiva; and the possession of a body must subject its owner to the experience of pleasure and pain. The changes undergone by the body may not touch the ātmā within it; but every one has seen that a jiva experiences pleasure, when the elements of his body are well-balanced, and pain when they are out of gear. And this is confirmed by the veda.

From one in a body welcome and unwelcome things do not depart; and one that is without a body they do not touch $(ch\bar{u}ndo., VIII-12-1)$.

Hence on the theory that *Brahma* in a body formed of matter and *jivas* is the world-cause, there will be no distinction between His nature and the nature of the *jiva*. On the theory that *Brahma* alone is the cause, like

the lump of earth and the piece of gold, all the undesirable results that attend on the world must be found in Him. The $s\bar{a}nkhya$'s theory is therefore preferable. This is stated in the first half of the $s\bar{u}tra$:

14. भोक्त्रापत्तेरविभागश्चेत्स्याल्लोकवत् ।

If it be said "By Brahma's becoming liable to the experiencing of pleasure and pain, there will be no distinction."

And the reply is stated in the second part:

There is distinction, as in the world.

Reply. There is difference between the natures of Brahma and of the jiva. The possession of a body by a jiva does not of itself carry with it a liability to suffering, that is brought about by disturbance in the elements of his body. It is a consequence of karma in the form of good or evil deeds. The text quoted refers to a body brought about by karma. There are other texts, which state that a freed jiva "appears as one; appears as three" (chāndo., VII-26).

If he desires to see those that were his fathers (in previous births), by his mere will the fathers come up (Ibid., VIII-2-1). There he enjoys Him all round, eating, playing and amusing himself ($ch\bar{a}ndo.$, VIII-12-3).

These texts mean that he may take one or three bodies, or as many as he may desire; and yet this is not accounted as an evil. Similarly, *Brahma* being without good or evil, possession of the universe for His body brings with it no liability. In the world those that obey the king's commands are

in his good grace and are happy; and those that disobey them incur his displeasure and suffer. But the king himself, though he dwells in a body, is not like the one set or the other; for he is not subject to any one's command. Similarly here. The jiva is subject to Brahma's commands, and is happy or the reverse, according as he is in harmony with them or not. But Brahma is not subject to any such liability.

Compare with what *Dramida* states "When a king stays in an unpleasant place abounding in mosquitoes, and full of trouble, as he is fanned by some one, he is not touched by any inconvenience; he protects his country; and has enjoyments with fragrant substances not available to others. Similarly the Lord of all the worlds, with fans in the form of His power whirling round Him, is not touched by imperfections; He protects the world of *Brahmā* and other worlds, and has enjoyments not available to any other." Evolution of *Brahma* in His substance, like the lump of earth and the piece of gold, is not admitted; and the remark on this point needs no reply. Our authority is the texts stating that He does not change, and that He is free from imperfections.

Criticism.—This $s\bar{u}tra$ has been interpreted differently by others. They say 'If Brahma be the material cause of the universe, this doubt will arise, viz., the person who enjoys $(bhokt\bar{a})$ will not differ from what is enjoyed (bhogya). They proceed to show by the analogy of the sea appearing as waves and foam, that they do differ. This interpretation is unsound. Brahma becomes the

universe under the influence of avidyā (ignorance) in the view of one of them; by contact with an upādhi in the view of another; and owing to an innate capacity (sakti) in the view of the last. In their views the first view will not arise; for Brahma affected in any one of the three ways is bhoktā, and the avidyā, upādhi or innate sakti is the bhogya; and these being different from one another, one cannot be the other. None of them states that Brahma changes in His substance; for they accept the view stated in sūtra, II-1-35, that the jiva and his karma have had no beginning. If His change in substance be accepted, the doubt cannot occur to any one; for a lump of earth differs from the jar made out of it; and a piece of gold differs from a bracelet made out of it; similarly, the bhoktā and bhogya may appropriately differ. If the substance changes, the objection stated in sūtra 8 of this section will remain; for Brahma Himself will be the bhoktā and bhogya; and the reply given in the succeeding sūtra will not apply.

4144 | 444

SUB-SECTION 6

1. In sūtra II-1-7 it was assumed that Brahma, the cause, was not different from the universe, the product. This point is now taken up and proved. This is known as the sat-kārya theory. The opponent is the vaiṣeshika. He recognises the lump of earth as cause, and the jars and other vessels as products; but he regards the products as different from the lump of earth.

His arguments are as follows: (i) Consider a lump of earth and a jar, or a piece of cloth and the threads, of which it is made. There is first difference in perception. The perception of the cause and the perception of the products are not alike. (ii) There is difference in the names by which they are known; for the threads are not spoken of as the piece of cloth; nor is the piece of cloth spoken of as threads. (iii) There is difference in the uses to which they are put; for the lump of earth is not utilised to fetch water; nor is a wall built with the (iv) There is difference in time: the cause exists first, and the products come subsequently. (v) There is difference in form; the cause is in the form of a lump; and the product has a large body and bottom. Similarly, while the lump of earth remains, the jar is spoken of as having been destroyed. (vi) Difference in number is also seen; for the threads are many and the piece of cloth is one. (vii) As everything exists under the satkārya theory at all times, the division into permanent and impermanent will disappear. (viii) And finally, the activity of the person, who makes the jar, will be fruitless; for if the cause itself be the product, what is there to be produced with his activity? The reply may be given that though the product exists, the activity of the maker is necessary to help the product to do its work. Then the activity of the maker should never It may be explained next that the product cease. existed before; but was not manifest; and that it is made manifest through the activity of the maker. Then the activity would be fruitful; and the division into

permanent and non-permanent becomes intelligible. This explanation cannot be accepted. Has this manifestation (abhivuakti) always existed, or did it exist, but was non-manifest, or is it newly made? In the first alternative the product under consideration must ever be manifest. In the second alternative another manifestation is required to make abhivuakti manifest, and this needs another manifestation, and so on ad infinitum. In the last alternative the theory, that a thing exists but merely changes its condition, is abandoned. Further, if the activity of the maker makes the product manifest, the activity for making a jar manifest should make other products also manifest. For, in things that are admitted to be the means of making other objects manifest, as a light, no limitation is seen as to the objects to be made manifest. Does not a lamp lighted for the sake of the jar show other objects as well? Hence the activity of the maker becomes useful only by originating a product, which did not previously exist. For these reasons the theory put forward fails.

2. The vaiseshika, having thus made out his case to his own satisfaction, next answers the objections that may be raised from the other point of view. First, a lump of earth is taken to make a jar; and a piece of gold to make an ornament. Thus a definite cause produces a definite effect; and does not this prove the sat-kārya theory? Reply: no; for the definiteness of the cause may be explained as due to the capacity of each cause to produce its own product. Next, on your own theory the purpose of the activity of the maker cannot

be explained. Is the activity applied to the product, or to something else? The first alternative does not hold, as the product does not exist before it is made. In the second alternative, the activity applied to threads may be expected to produce a jar; for so far as the product is concerned, it makes no difference, where the activity is applied—to a lump of earth or to threads; both being different from the product. Reply. The activity of the maker is applied to that cause, which has the capacity to produce the desired product; it is not therefore wasted.¹

This view of the opponent is refuted in the sūtra:

15. तदनन्यत्वमारम्भणशब्दादिभ्यः ।

That the universe is not different from Brahma is shown by the text containing the term ārambhaṇa and other texts.

These texts show that the universe consisting of the matter and jiva elements does not differ from Brahma. In the chāndogya, chapter VI, the father taught his son what is stated in the sūtra. Bearing in mind the fact that the whole world evolved from Brahma alone, and that the product is not different from the cause, he asked him whether he had been instructed in the knowledge of that Ruler, by knowing whom every thing would be

Here the original brings in Sankara to criticise the opponent. This gives a loophole to $V\overline{a}chaspati$ to come in and state his own theory, viz., that he who is under the influence of $avidy\overline{a}$ is not Brahma, but the jiva, and that the jiva is a condition of Brahma Himself. This theory is criticised by Sankara, and his criticism is criticised by the opponent. All this as not relevant to the sub is omitted here. But it is embedied

known. The son, not knowing the fact, asked how by knowing one thing another thing could be known. To explain his meaning the father gave three illustrations, which men in the world perceive. Of these the first was this 'My dear, by knowing one lump of earth all that is made of it is known'. The meaning is that the various vessels made of the lump of earth, being of the same substance as the lump, by knowing that lump they are all known. As the vaiseshika holds the view that a product is a different substance from the cause, to refute this view he appealed to ordinary perception in these words.

For facility of speech (and handling) the lump of earth assumes different forms and receives different names; but the truth is only that all this is earth. (VI-1-4).

So is it seen by all; and the vessels are not perceived to have been made of another substance (1).

⁽¹⁾ The first four words in the text are— $v\bar{u}ch\bar{u}$ arambhanam, $vik\bar{u}ro$ nāmadheyam. The first term means for speech'; the termination shows purpose; and the other part of the word indicates not merely speech, but also action following it. When it is said with the jar bring water, the action stated follows. The root in the second word means to touch; and the termination refers to the object of the action. The meaning therefore is—the earth, which was in the condition of a lump, appears in a new form with a large body and a large bottom; this change and the name jar' arising from this change, are touched, i.e., attained by the lump.

¹ The original here quotes the texts of t! e chāndogya, that bear on the point, and adds that similar texts also in other upanishads, are intended by the author. The quotation is omitted, as they are considered further on one after another.

- The objection of the vaiseshika may be replied to thus: The differences in perceptions, names and the like may be referred to the different conditions of the same substance. A person, say A, B, is one, and referring to the conditions, through which he passes, it is said 'he was a boy; he is now a man; and he will become old", and all the differences apply to his condi-It was stated that while the earth remains, we speak of the jar as being destroyed, and that therefore the product is different from the cause. objection is removed by admitting that origination and destruction mean that the same substance that is the cause comes into particular conditions. Thus when two halves of a jar are first made of a lump of earth, and they are then joined together to form the jar, the condition of the halfjar is its origination and the destruction of the lumpcondition; the condition of the jar is its origination and the destruction of the half-jar condition, and so on. As objects assume their new conditions through the activity of the maker, that has its use. The objections in regard to manifestation do not call for a reply, as the theory of manifestation is not put forward.
- 3. Vaiseshika. When you say that a condition appears in an object, that was not there before, you admit origination of a non-existing thing. Does not this amount to the abandonment of your theory?

Reply. Though we accept the origination of conditions, there is no conflict with the sat- $k\bar{a}rya$ theory; for what exists originates.

Vaiseshika. You say what is contradictory, when you state that what previously existed comes into existence.

Reply. This objections arises from ignorance of the nature of origination and destruction. The attainment by a substance of a new condition is the destruction of the substance in the previous condition; and the origination of the substance in the new condition. As the substance, that comes into all the conditions, exists, the sat-kārya theory is not affected.

Vaiseshika. If the conditions, that did not previously exist, newly come into existence, you accept my theory.

Reply. In your theory, does origination originate or not? If it does not, but previously existed, you accept the sat-kārya theory. If it originates, you will need a second origination to account for the first, and so on ad infinitum. Under the sat-kārya theory the conditions cannot be perceived separately from the object, of which they are the conditions, nor can they act apart from it. Hence origination, destruction and the like relate to an object in a particular condition. The theory does assume the origination and destruction of the conditions, and only affirms the permanency of the object. As the half-jar condition is abandoned and the jar-condition is attained, the condition of oneness is abandoned, and the condition of manifoldness is attained. This condition is abandoned and the condition of oneness is re-attained.

- 4. The same teaching is conveyed by other texts:
- (i) Before creation, my dear, this was Sat only; one only; without a second (VI-2-1).

The term 'this' refers to the world now seen to possess different forms and to bear different names. It was one only before creation; because it was without name and form; and being omnipotent, *Brahma*, who evolved as the world, could not suffer another to direct the evolution. There was therefore no second then. This text also establishes the identity of the cause and the product.

(ii) He willed 'I will become many, and to that end I will evolve' (VI-2-3).

First He became fire, water and earth, and then by mixing them in different ways, He became the many things—movable and immovable—which constitute the universe. Hence the universe, the product, is none other than *Brahma*, the ultimate cause.

5. Here a doubt may arise—how all that has been stated (1) could have happened.

It is therefore added:

(iii) That same $devat\bar{a}$ willed, I will enter these three $devat\bar{a}s$ as the inner ruler of this jiva, and make diverse names and forms. I will make each of them a triple compound (VI-3-2 and 3).

⁽¹⁾ All that has been stated—Brahma, denoted by the term sat, is all-knowing, the possessor of an unfailing will and without any imperfection; how could He be the

By the term "these three devatās" reference is made to the whole of non-intelligent matter, beginning with the three elements—fire, water and earth. Into this Brahma entered along with the jivas as their inner ruler. 'Making names and forms' means making the products of evolution assume diverse forms and receive This work resulted from the entrance diverse names. into the products of evolution of both Brahma and the jivas. That Brahma entered the jivas and the universe as the ātmā is clear from the ānandavalli text 'Having created it. He entered into the same; having entered, He became jivas and material products (VI-2). Hence every thing, composed of matter and a jiva, whether in the subtle condition known as the cause, or in the gross condition known as the product, is the body of Brahma and He is its inner ruler. This fact stated in the antaryāmi brāhmana (brihad., V-7) is recalled here. The doubt stated will disappear with this explanation.

Brahma remaining as the ātmā of the jivas and material products, and names and forms being formed as stated, Brahma Himself with the intelligent and non-intelligent objects forming His body is denoted by

universe, which is fit to be referred to as this in the text. "This was sat only." How could the universe denoted by the same word sat be one by the absence of names and forms; and how could it dispense with the help of another to direct its evolution? How could the very same will to become many as the universe in the form of diverse movable and immovable objects? and how could He create as He willed?

the term 'universe'. Hence the texts quoted in para 4 state what is very appropriate. The changes of substance that take place in the matter element and the unwelcome experiences of the *jiva* element-pertain to the bodies; that *Brahma* remains free from imperfections, and the seat of good qualities is fully settled. This will be stated presently in $s\bar{u}tra$, II-1-22.

6. Finally, (iv) 'All this is identical with that (Sat) (chāndo., VI-8-7). This states that all the world composed of matter and jivas is identical with Brahma; and the upanishad concludes with the injunction "That thou art". In other places in the same upanishad and in other upanishads also oneness of Brahma and the universe is stated (1), and the perception of difference is condemned (2). The text, that the ignorant man perceives more than one thing, and that the wise man sees one thing only, shows that the truth is that Brahma and the universe are one (3).

⁽¹⁾ The texts are: All this indeed is Brahma ($ch\bar{u}ndo$., III-14-1); when the $\bar{A}tm\bar{u}$, dear, is seen, heard about, thought on and meditated on, all this is known (brihad., VI-5-6); All this is the $\bar{A}tm\bar{u}$ (Ibid., VI-5-7); Brahma Himself is all this: $\bar{A}tm\bar{u}$ alone is all this ($ch\bar{u}ndo$., VII-25-2).

⁽²⁾ All this will overcome him, who sees all this elsewhere than in $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ (brihad., VI-5-7); Here there is no difference whatever; he attains $sams\bar{a}ra$ after $sams\bar{a}ra$, who perceives difference as it were (brihad., VI-4-19); Where one perceives difference as it were, then one sees another; but when everything is $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ alone to him, then whom will he see with what (brahad., VI-5-15).

⁽³⁾ Here the original gives a summary, which is as follows—Brahma Himself, having the jivas and material

Criticism—Others explain the sūtra differently: They observe 'The product does not differ from the cause; for in truth there is no such thing as product different from the cause; all objects are perceived and spoken about owing to avidyā. In the products—jars and plates formed from a lump of earth, the cause—we see only the earth; nothing more than this. The products serve only for speech and action, and are unreal; the earth alone, which forms the cause, is real. Similarly, the whole world other than Brahma, the cause, who is nir-viṣesha and mere chit, viz., ahamkāra and the rest serves only for speech and action, and is unreal. Brahma alone, the cause, who is merely sat, is real. Hence, as no product exists other than the cause, the product is not different from the cause. This view is

products as His bodies, and appearing for that reason as the jivas and material products, is at all times denoted by every word. At one time His body (matter and iivas) becomes so subtle, that it cannot be stated to be different from Him even as His body. Brahma in this body is Brahma in the causal condition. At another time the same body becomes so gross, as to be fit to appear in diverse forms, bear diverse names and to be dealt with indiverse ways. Brahma in this body is Brahma in the evolved condition. Hence the universe, the product, is not different from Brahma, the The natures of the jivas and material products forming His body and of Brahma, the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$, differ from one another, as taught by a hundred upanishads, whether the condition be the causal or evolved condition; hence imperfections and good qualities pertain each to their own element in the aggregate. This has been stated in sūtra 9, supra.

unsound. For what is real and what is unreal cannot be identical. If they were, *Brahma* would be unreal, or the universe would be real.

Another view on the same subject is thus stated: The product also is real; Brahma and jivas are not really different; the apparent difference has been about by upādhi. The difference and nobrought difference between Brahma and matter—both are real. This view also is unsound: for in this theory there is no object other than Brahma and upādhi; Brahma has no parts, that can be separated one from another. Hence the upādhi must contact Brahma Himself, and His substance itself assumes by a change undesirable aspects. It may be urged that there is a capacity in Brahma which changes, but not His substance. Assuming that this is so, as the capacity and Brahma are not different. there will be conflict with the texts that state the jiva to be subject to karma and Brahma to be free from it. and also with the texts that state matter to be subject to change and Brahma to be free from this liability.1

The opponent asks. The differences in perceptions and the rest appear to relate to different conditions of the same object in the case of childhood, youth and the like. In the case of earth, wood, gold and the like they appear to relate to differences in substances. In

¹ Here the original criticises the theory of $Y\bar{a}dava\ prak\bar{a}sa$ in detail. This is omitted here, but is embodied in the 'Three Tatvas'.

regard to a lump of earth and a jar, which are respectively cause and product, how is it decided that they relate only to differences in the conditions of the same object. The next $s\bar{u}tra$ replies:

16. भावेचोपलब्धे:।

And because in the product the cause is perceived.

For, the perception is in this form—"This ear-ring is gold"; and no other material is so perceived in it. Hence, as the same person is now a child and then a young man, the material, that is the cause, changes its condition and is said to be a product. Even the vaiṣeshika, who regards the product as a different substance from the cause, does recognise changes of condition; and if the perception of different forms, the calling by different names, and the differences in the uses to which the products are put, can be explained with reference to change of conditions, the assumption of a different substance, which is not perceived, cannot be justified. Assumption will be very necessary, when no explanation is available; but as pointed out, an explanation is possible here.

2. An objection is raised. When one sees a cow and says "This cow is that," referring to another cow seen before, it is the $j\bar{a}ti$ (common character) that is recalled; and the same may be the case here. Reply. A second article possessing the $j\bar{a}ti$ is not seen here. What is perceived is a single article of the class gold existing as cause and as effect.

- 3. A further objection: The ear-ring is different from the gold; which as the samavāyi cause (that of which a thing is made) continues in the product; and it is therefore recalled. Reply. If the gold were different from the ear-ring, the perception would be—'There is gold in this article,' as one says, 'there is water in this jar'. The perception is, however, 'this ear-ring is gold'.
- 4. A still further objection: In the generation of a scorpion from a lump of cow-dung, no one sees the cow-dung in the scorpion. Reply. Even there earth, which has become the cow-dung, is perceived. The vaiṣeshika must admit that earth continues as the samavāyi cause in the scorpion, and this explanation we will accept.
- 5. In smoke, the effect of fire, the fire is not perceived. Reply. Be it so; but this is no objection; for there fire is only the operative cause; and the smoke comes forth from the undried fuel put into the fire; and this is confirmed by the fact that the smell of the fuel and of the smoke is the same. The conclusion is that as the cause is perceived in the product thus 'This is that alone,' the differences in perceptions and the rest are due to differences in conditions only, and that therefore the product is not different from the cause.

17. सत्वाञ्चापरस्य ।

And because in the cause the other, the product, exists.

'Exists in the cause' means exists in the causal condition. Thus, in the world it is usual to say "All these—jars and other products—were in the forenoon merely a lump of earth." And in the *veda* it is stated "Before creation, my dear, this was *Sat* only; one only; without a second" (*chāndo*., VI-2-1).

18. असद्वयपदेशान्नेतिचेन्नधर्मान्तरेण बाक्यशेषाचुक्तेश्शब्दान्त-राच ।

If it be contended "No; because it is said to have been non-existent then," the reply is "no. Because reference is made to the existence in another form. This is seen from the remainder of the sentence, from arguments and from other statements".

The opponent disputes the statement made in the preceding $s\bar{u}tra$, and points to the following statements:

First in the veda. Before creation this was only $asat\ (ch\bar{a}ndo.,\, VI-2-1)$; Before creation this was indeed $asat\ (satapatha\ br\bar{a}hmana,\, VI-1-1)$; Before creation this was indeed nothing whatever $(yajur,\, 2nd\ ashtaka,\, 2-50)$.

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In the world also "all these—jars and other products—did not exist in the forenoon". Reply. The objection is not sound. The term asat (non-existent) and these statements have reference to the absence from the products of the forms, in which they are now seen. They existed in other forms; they do not mean that the objects did not exist as you think. The terms sat and asat refer to the attributes of a substance. The attribute satva (sat-ness) is name and form. Asatva (asat-ness) is the reverse, the subtle condition without name and

form. Hence, the statements mean that what is now seen with diverse names and forms did exist before, but in a subtle condition, without names and forms.

Question. How is this known? Reply. First, from what follows the third of the texts quoted; which is this "That, existing indeed as asat, resolved' I will become." This indication of resolving shows that the term asat did not refer to non-existence, and that the thing did exist. As all the texts should agree, the term asat has the same meaning in the other texts also. Secondly, a lump of earth is shaped in a particular manner with a large bottom and body; and the new form assumed helps us to speak of it as a jar. Before this shape was given, the material did exist, but in another form. When the jar is broken into two pieces, the material is in a different condition; and it is said that the jar does not exist. This broken condition of the material is the non-existence of the jar; and there is no such thing as non-existence (1) of a thing as alleged by the vaiseshika. For such a thing is not perceived, and it need not be assumed for facility of

⁽¹⁾ No such thing as non-existence. The vaiseshika classifies all nameable things into seven groups, one of which is $abh\bar{u}va$ (non-existence). Of this there are four varieties, one of which is $pr\bar{u}k$ (previous) $abh\bar{u}va$, which is the non-existence of a product before it is made, and another is dhvamsa (destruction) $abh\bar{u}va$, its non-existence after it is destroyed. The text denies that these varieties exist. The previous $abh\bar{u}va$ of a jar is the lump of earth, and the dhvamsa $abh\bar{u}va$ of the lump is the jar.

speech; as the condition of the broken jar is sufficient for the purpose. And lastly, there is the statement already quoted "Before creation, my dear, this was sat only; one only; without a second" (chāndo., VI-2-1). There non-existence was objected to in these words 'But my dear, how could this be so;' and it was decided 'But this was sat alone, dear, before'. This is very clearly stated in the text 'Then this was indeed avyākrita (without name and form); the same by itself was made into the universe possessing diverse names and forms' (brihad., III-4-7).

This sub-section closes with two illustrations as to the conclusion—that the product is not different from the cause:

19. पटवच ।

And like a piece of cloth.

Threads arranged in a particular manner form the product known as cloth, and in this new condition they serve particular purposes. Similarly *Brahma* coming into a gross condition is called the universe.

20. यथाचप्राणादिः।

And like prāņa and its modifications.

An atom of air $(v\bar{a}yu)$ enters the body, and performing different functions is known by the names $pr\bar{a}na$, $ap\bar{a}na$, $vy\bar{a}na$, $sam\bar{a}na$, and $ud\bar{a}na$. In the same way one and the same being is Brahma in the subtle

condition, and is the universe in the gross condition, appearing as diverse things movable and immovable (1).

SUB-SECTION 7

21. इतरव्यपदेशाद्धिताकरणादिदोषप्रसक्तिः ।

If Brahma be stated to be the other (i.e.), the jivane He will be open to the charge of not having done what was good for Himself, and the like.

This sūtra states an objection raised by the opponent. It was stated in the preceding sub-section that Brahma and the world are one. From this he argues that Brahma and the jiva must be one, as stated by the texts "That thou art (chāndo., VI-8-7); This ātmā is Brahma (brihad, VI-4-5). But as the jiva is known to be the seat of endless sufferings of various kinds (2), it follows that Brahma has made misery for Himself. If He were ignorant or impotent, one can understand the position; but he is stated to be both omniscient and omnipotent. How does it happen that He has not made a world full of bliss, and that on the other hand He has created a world, which is the reverse? It cannot be

⁽¹⁾ The first illustration is from the world; and shows that many things assume the condition of oneness; while the second is from the *veda*, and shows that one thing exists in the condition of many.

⁽²⁾ Sufferings of various kinds. Those arising from the body $(\bar{a}dhy\bar{a}tmika)$, those arising from devas $(\bar{a}dhidaivika)$ and those arising from the elements $(\bar{a}dhibhautika)$.

maintained that He has done so for mere pleasure; for no one in his senses will cut off his own hand even in play. The $ved\bar{a}ntin$, who asserts that the world and Brahma are one, throws overboard the texts showing the jiva to be other than Brahma; for if difference be true, then one-ness of Brahma and the world cannot also be true.

- 2. Bhāskara comes forward with an explanation. The texts affirming difference refer to difference created by upādhi; the texts affirming oneness refer to the natural no-difference. The opponent replies. You should explain whether Brahma, the world-cause, uncontacted by upādhi, knows the jiva to be not different from Himself by nature or not? If He does not, His omniscience disappears; if He knows, as the jiva is not different from Himself, he must know his suffering to be His own suffering; and the charge that knowing this he did not make what was good for Himself, and that He made what was not good cannot be escaped from.
- 3. Ṣankara next explains. The difference between the jiva and Brahma is made by avidyā; and the texts affirming difference relate to it. The opponent replies. If the avidyā be in the jiva, the alternatives mentioned in the criticism of Vāchaspati's theory hold; (see the Three Tatvas); as also the inferences that follow therefrom. If the avidyā be in Brahma, as He shows Himself without help, He cannot perceive avidyā; nor evolve the world, which can happen only under avidyā. Ṣankara.—The light is prevented by avidyā from appearing.

Reply. This will mean that the light disappears; hence, as light alone is Brahma, He will disappear.

4. Hence the theory that *Brahma* is the world-cause is absurd.

The next sūtra replies:

22. अधिकं तु भेदनिर्देशात्।

But Brahma is other than the jiva; because difference from the jiva is expressly stated.

Difference from the jiva, who is fit to experience suffering arising from the body and the rest. The following are the statements:

Who stands in the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$, who is within the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$, whom the $\bar{a}tm\bar{u}$ does not know, whose body the $\bar{a}tm\bar{u}$ is, and who rules the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ from within. He, the inner ruler, is your immortal ātmā (brihad., V-7-26); meditating on the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ and the Ruler as being separate, one secures the grace of the Ruler, and by this means becomes immortal (svetā., I-6). He is the ultimate cause who is the lord of the jivas, who are the lords of the mind and the senses (Ibid., VI-9); Of them one eats the ripe fruit; the other does not eat, but shines on all sides (Ibid., IV-8); Both are unborn; but they are respectively all-knowing, and ignorant; ruler and ruled (Ibid., I-9); Embraced by the all-knowing Atmū (brihad., VI-3-21); The all-knowing Atmā, having mounted, on him (*Ibid.*, VI-3-35); From this the owner of $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ universe; and in it another is bound, creates this deluded by $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ (svet \bar{a} ., IV-9); He is the lord of matter. and of the dwellers in bodies, and the controller of the gunas (Ibid., VI-16); Who, being Himself eternal, intelligent, and one, gives what is desired by those, that are eternal, intelligent, and many (Ibid., VI-13); Who moves within avykta, whose body avykta is, whom avykta does not know; who moves within akshara, whose body akshara is, whom akshara does not know. He, the inner Ruler of all beings, is free from karma, dwells in the highest heaven, has a shining body, and has no equal or superior, He is $N\bar{a}r\bar{a}ya\eta a$ (sub \bar{a}).

2.3 अश्मादिवच तदनुपपत्ति: |

It is inappropriate for the jiva to be Brahma; as inappropriate as for a stone and the like to be Brahma.

A stone, a bit of fuel, a pot-shred, a blade of grass and other non-intelligent objects can never be identical with Brahma; for they are very inferior things, and the seats of ever-occurring changes; while Brahma is without change of substance, the enemy of all blemishes, the one seat of good qualities, different from everything else, the possessor of unlimited jnana and bliss and the lord of diverse and endless objects under His control. The inappropriateness is equally great in the case of the jiva too, who is fit to experience endless misery and is like a glow-worm; while Brahma is as stated above the enemy of all blemishes and is the seat of endless good qualities immeasurably high. Wherever a word denoting a jiva is put in apposition with the term Brahma, the identity should be explained as in sūtra, I-4-22. The jiva is a body of Brahma as stated by the text 'Whose body the ātmā is, and Brahma is his ātmā for that Hence the words in apposition denote Brahma appearing as the jiva. Hence there is no conflict with the statement of difference; on the other hand it explains The conclusion reached in the preceding sub-section it.

refers to the oneness of Brahma and the world, understanding each of these terms to mean an aggregate made of Brahma, the jivas and matter. The aggregate in a subtle condition is Brahma, and the same in the gross condition is the world; and as the former evolves as the latter, Brahma, the cause, and the world, the product, are said to be one. The nature of matter is to change; of the jiva to suffer; and of Brahma to be the seat of good qualities; they remain without being confounded. In this view conflict with any vedic text is avoided. Even in the condition of oneness stated in 'Before creation, my dear, this was Sat only; one only' matter and jivas existed as the body of Brahma, but in a subtle form. This must be admitted on the authority of sutras 34 and 35 infra. The absence of diversity is explained by the absence of names and forms.

Criticism. Others explain sūtra 22 differently, as referring to the condition of the jiva himself, when he is freed from avidyā. Nothing stated here will fit in with their view; for in the jiva in that condition the following attributes do not exist—omniscience; being the highest ruler; being the cause of all objects; being the ātmā of all; the controlling of all; and the like. It was by this feature that the difference of Brahma from the jiva was proved by the texts quoted. But in the view of these commentators all these are made by avidyā. Sankara—Īṣwara under the influence of avidyā differs from the jiva, as the shell-silver differs from silver, and this is proved. Reply. This is not what the author of

the sūtras proves by this sūtra; for at the outset he announced that enquiry into Brahma should be made; he has shown that the upanishads prove Him to be the cause of the world's evolution and the rest; and what he does in this place is to answer the objections that the conclusion established conflicts with smritis and is opposed to valid arguments. The sūtra therefore does not deal with difference made by avidyā.

Sūtras 8 and 9 of this section (sub-section 3 supra) repeat what is settled in this sub-section; what was done in that sub-section was merely to show that the relation of cause and product may subsist between dissimilar things. The seventh sūtra repeats what was settled in sub-section 6; the reconciliation of texts affirming difference and no-difference is made in this sub-section.

SUB-SECTION 8

24. उपसंहारदर्शनानेतिचेन्न क्षीरवद्धि ।

If it be contended, "No; as a maker is seen to work with instruments," the reply is "No. He evolves like milk."

It has been established that the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ may be the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ of all, and at the same time different from every thing else. It will now be shown that by mere will He may create the world of diversity; for He has an unfailing will.

In the world persons, capable of making this thing or that, are seen to require the necessary instruments. Though they have the capacity, they utilise some instruments, and only then are they seen to make products. Those, that have not the capacity, are unable to make them, though they have all the instruments. Those, that are capable, make them utilising the instruments. This is the only difference. This fact must apply to Brahma also. Though omnipotent, he could not have created the universe for want of the necessary instruments (1). That He was without them follows from the statement that before creation there was only Sat? The second part of the sūtra furnishes a reply. Every thing, capable of producing another thing, does not require instruments. Milk, for instance, becomes curd, and water freezes; and no instrument is needed by either. Similarly, Brahma can evolve as the world without any help; because He is omnipotent. Question. Is not a drop of buttermilk dropped into the milk to convert it to curd? Reply. It is not necessary. It is done merely to quicken the change, and to bring about a particular taste. The sūtra has the particle hi, which draws attention to a well-known fact. It has been put in to show that the objection is frivolous.

⁽¹⁾ Question. How can this doubt arise? The need for instruments is perceived in persons of limited capacities. How can this be put forward in the case of the omnipotent Brahma? Reply. The doubt may be felt by some person of dull intelligence; and it is removed by the sūtra.

25. देवादिवदपि लोके ।

And like the devas in their world.

The devas in their world by mere will create what they require. Similarly Brahma creates the whole world by mere will. That the devas have got this power is known from the veda; and the same authority shows that Brahma can create by mere will. mention of devas is to serve as an illustration, so that the point may be easily grasped.

The following are other illustrations: a piece of magnet attracts iron by mere proximity; the spider weaves its web; and seers possessing abnormal powers do what they like. Finally-and this the opponent must admit—the jiva by mere will moves his limbs. Brahma, of whom the universe is a body, can likewise bring about what He pleases by mere will.

REPORTED FOR

26. क्रतस्त्रप्रसित्तिनिरवयवत्वशब्दकोपो वा ।

The whole of Brahma must be expended; or the texts teaching His indivisibility must be ignored.

Before creation Brahma was one only, that is, He did not consist of separable parts (1); and could not be

⁽¹⁾ Before creation, my dear, this was Sat only (chāndo., VI-2-1); Before creation, this was indeed nothing whatever (vajur, ashtaka, II-2-50); Before creation this was $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ only; one only.

divided into Brahma, the jivas and matter. When He became many in evolution, it is stated that He became ether, air and other non-intelligent products, and also sentient beings from the four-faced one to the lowest Then one of two things must have happenwhole of Brahma ed—either the was creation of products; and nothing remains. Or He consisted of elements, of which the intelligent element evolved into the beings mentioned; the non-intelligent element into ether, air, But this will be opposed to the teaching of etc. indivisibility.

2. The following explanation may be given. The cause was Brahma with the jivas and matter in a subtle condition as His body; and the product is the same Brahma with the same elements in a gross condition. This explanation will not do. The ātmā element also, i.e., Brahma, is admitted to have evolved; and there is no escape from the objection. Being indivisible, when He became the inner ruler of one product, there would be no inner ruler of other products. Nor can it be maintained that Brahma not expended in the evolution remains. Hence, the theory of evolution of Brahma as the world is absurd.

The next $s\bar{u}tra$ gives a reply:

27. श्रुनेस्तु शब्दमूलत्वात् ।

But because the *veda* teaches so; and because this is a matter to be known only from testimony.

There is no absurdity as alleged. The *veda* teaches that *Brahma* is indivisible, and that from Him this world of diversity comes forth. In a matter to be learnt from the *veda* facts must be accepted as stated. *Question*. How can even the *veda* state what cannot co-exist, like the statement 'one wets with fire'. The second part of the *sūtra* meets this objection. *Brahma*, being known only from the *veda*, is unlike everything else; and one may believe that He possesses unique powers; He should not be tested by any co-existence that may be observed in the world.

28. आत्मिन चैवं विचित्राश्च हि ।

Similarly in regard to the jiva too. The powers of different things are, as is well-known, different.

The opponent seeks to fasten on one thing the peculiarities observed in an entirely different thing. this attempt be permitted, then the attributes observed in matter, a jar for instance, may be looked for in the jiva, who is of an entirely different nature, and who is eternal; and it may be stated that like the jar he is also perishable. But this is not so; because their natures are different. This is stated in the second part of the sūtra. Fire and water differ from one another: and their attributes—heat and cold—are peculiar Similarly, in *Brahma* who is to them. different from things seen in the world, powers not observed in them exist by thousands. This is stated by Parasara---

Brahma being without the qualities satva, rajas, and tamas, being full of everything that one may need, not being subject to karma, and being unfit to be connected therewith, how is it admitted that He created the world and the like.

This question being put from what is seen in the world, the following reply was given—

The capacities of all objects cannot be perceived from the sources from which they are known. Hence Brahma has capacities pertaining to His nature, that are utilised in creation, as fire has the capacity to heat (vishnu, I-3-1. 2 and 3).

The veda too has this text—

Where was the forest, what was the tree from which Brahma made heaven and earth? Oh, wise men, what was the instrument which He, who supports the worlds. used; ask, considering with your mind.

The reply was

Brahma was the forest, Brahma was the wood, from which He made heaven and earth; you wise men, I say this to you having decided with my mind; Brahma bearing the worlds used Brahma (i.e., Himself) (yajur, ashṭaka, 8-76 and 77).

The objection made from what is seen in the world cannot come down on *Brahma*, who is an unique Being.

29. स्वपक्षदोषाच ।

And because the opponent's theory is faulty.

Pradhāna (matter), which is the final cause on the opponent's theory, is not different from things seen in the world; and the arguments drawn from observation may be applied to it. Pradhāna is indivisible; how can

it evolve into mahat and other products and begin to make the world of diversity? $S\bar{a}nkhy\bar{a}$ —It consists of three elements—satva, rajas and tamas. Question. Is pradhāna a group of the three elements, or a product made of them? In the latter alternative, there will be conflict with your theory that pradhāna is the ultimate cause; and conflict with the number of the tatvas that you accept. In the former alternative, as the three elements are indivisible, and as products are formed by the accretion of a portion of one thing to a portion of another, they cannot by coming together produce any gross substance. The same impossibility will be found on the other theory, that atoms are the final cause; for, they are indivisible, and have no sides like finite things, to which they can attach themselves. The union may take place either by one atom attaching itself to one side of another atom or by becoming one with the other completely. The former is not possible as the atoms are not many-sided. In the latter case the coming out of a gross thing is impossible.

30. सर्वोपेता च तद्दर्शनात्।

And Brahma possesses every power. And this the veda teaches.

His power is said to be superior, to be of many kinds, and to pertain to His nature; also His capacity to know $(jn\bar{a}na)$, to support and to create and destroy (sveta., VI-8); He is free from karma, free from old age, death, grief, hunger and thirst. Showing thus that He is an unique Being, the upanishad states that He has an unfailing will $(ch\bar{a}ndo)$, VII-1-5); see also lbid. III-14-2.

31. विकरणत्वानेति चेत्तदुक्तम् ।

If it be contended "No; because He is without senses or organs of action," the reply is "This has been answered."

The following objection is raised: There is a text that states that Brahma has no senses or organs of action. "He has no body and no organs" (sveta., VI-8). Though He is an unique being and omnipotent, yet for want of the organs of action He cannot begin any work. The second part of the sūtra states that the answer to this objection was given in sūtras 27 and 28; and this is also what the upanishads say—

He sees, but has no eye; He hears, but has no ear; He goes and he takes, but has no hands or feet (sveta, III-19).

The unique Being known only from the *veda* is competent to do everything even in the absence of the necessary instruments.

संयमन जवन Sub-section 10

32. न प्रयोजनवत्त्वात ।

No; because there must be a purpose for the evolution.

Though *Brahma*, being an unique Being, has the capacity to do everything, and can therefore Himself create the world of diversity, yet He cannot be the cause; for there must be a purpose for such creation. A person consciously begins a work

either for himself or for another. Now, Brahma cannot work for Himself; for He has by nature whatever one may desire; and there is nothing, which He has not and which He has to gain by the evolution. Nor can He be said to work for others. Being Himself full, He must work for others merely from a desire to benefit them. How can He, being full of mercy, create a world so full of endless misery of many kinds arising from residence in a womb, with old age, death, and hell. On the other hand one, that is actuated by mercy would make a world full of happiness alone. Hence, having no purpose to serve, Brahma could not have been the world-cause.

To this objection the next sūtra replies:

33. लोकवत्तु लीलाकैवल्यम्।

But mere amusement as in the world.

In the world kings, who rule over earth consisting of the seven islands, and who possess power in full, are seen to play with balls for mere amusement. So does *Brahma* for no purpose other than amusement only create, sustain and destroy the world with His mere will. He is said to be full of objects of desire. This means that when He wishes a thing, it is attained; not that everything is ever present.

34. वैषम्यनैर्घृण्ये न सापेक्षत्वात्तथाहि दर्शयति ।

No partiality or cruelty; because reference was made (to the *karma* of individuals); and it is so stated.

The world contains numerous differences. There is first the broad distinction of jivas into devas, men, brute creation and the vegetable kingdom. Next, among men themselves some are high; others are low; and others still occupy a middle position. This reveals partiality. Because intense suffering is caused to most persons, Brahma must be devoid of mercy. To this objection the sūtra replies—no; there is neither partiality nor cruelty. Brahma is the common cause; but the differences are due to the karmas of the individuals. And this is stated by the upanishads.

One that did good deeds attains a good body; one that did evil deeds attains a bad body. One does good deeds, having done good deeds in the past; one does evil deeds, having done evil deeds in the past (brihad., VI-4-5). This is also stated in the vishau purana. In the creation of products He is only the nimitta; for the principal cause is the karmas of those that are created. Leaving out the mere nimitta, nothing whatever is needed; each object becomes an object from its karma (I-4-52).

35. नकर्माविभागादिति चेन्नानादित्वादुपपद्यते चाप्युपलभ्यतेच।

If it be contended "No karma; because Brahma alone existed then," the reply is "No; because the jivas and their karmas have had no beginning; And the existence of one being only (in spite of this fact) can be explained; and their pre-existence is taught."

It was stated in the preceding $s\bar{u}tra$ that in the creation of differences reference was made to the karmas of individuals. The opponent states that before evolution commenced there were no jivas; for the text

'Before creation, my dear, this was Sat only' states that there was no division and therefore there were no pre-existing karmas. How can it be said that the differences in creation were due to karmas? This objection is stated in the first part of the sūtra, and is refuted in the second part. If jivas existed at the beginning, how can this fact be reconciled with the remark that only Sat remained then? Thus—the jivas were then without name and form, and were so subtle that they could not be described as separate from Brahma even as His body. If this explanation be not accepted, this undesirable result will happen. Some persons would lose the benefit of what they have done, and others would reap what they have not sown. That jivas have had no beginning is known from the following text:

He, who is fit to become all-knowing, is not born, nor does he die (katha, II-18).

That evolutions follow one another in a stream, and that this stream has had no beginning is stated in the text. "The creator made the sun and the moon, as before" (nārā., 1-38). The text—"Then this was avyākrita indeed; the same by itself was made into the universe possessing diverse names and forms" (brihad., III-4-7) teaches that merely the making of names and forms took place, and that the jivas themselves were not made. This is also stated in the bhagavad-gita. Matter and the jiva—know both to have been without a beginning (13-19). Hence Brahma alone was the world-cause; for He is an unique Being; He is

omnipotent; His purpose is mere amusement; and He created differences in accordance with the jivas' karmas.

36. सर्वधर्मीपपत्तेश्च ।

And because all the attributes would be appropriate (only on the theory that *Brahma* is the cause).

All the attributes pertaining to the world-cause described already and to be described as inapplicable to the *pradhāna* of the *sānkhya* and to the atoms of the *vaiṣeshika* and others are applicable to *Brahma*. He alone is therefore the world-cause. This *sūtra* concludes the reply to the opponents' objections.

भगवते भाष्यकाराय महादेशिकाय नमः ।



भगवते भाष्यकाराय महादेशिकाय नमः।

CHAPTER II

SECTION II

WE have established Brahma as the cause of the evolution, sustenance and dissolution of the universe: also answered the objections raised by opponents. In order to strengthen the theory of evolution from Brahma, rival theories not based on the veda will now be examined, and refuted. Otherwise, persons of dull intelligence, not knowing that they are based on specious arguments, might regard them as supported by proper authority, and their regard for the theory based on the veda might suffer diminution. Hence, for the purpose of refuting those theories this section is begun. The sankhya's theory of evolution is first taken up; for it accepts the sat-kārya theory, and enumerates twentyfour tatvas or substances, as the upanishads do; and there is therefore greater risk of its being mistaken for one of the accepted systems.

SUB-SECTION 1

From sub-section 5 of chapter I, section 1, the sānkhya has been with us; but it was only shown

hitherto that vedic texts do not state his theory. That theory is now examined. There is therefore no room for thinking that there is repetition.

is connected with the name of the sage Kapila, and enumerates twenty-five tatvas or substances. The first is mūla-prakṛiti or pradhāna, consisting of three substances known as satva, rajas and tamas. They are so subtle that they cannot be perceived by the senses; but they can be described and distinguished one from another only from the effects which they produce. Satva is light, enables one to see correctly, and conduces to pleasure. Rajas is ever restless, supports things and leads to pain. And tamas is heavy, conceals the true nature of things and brings about misconception. These three are substances, but not qualities, as taught by the upanishads. In the cosmic condition of general rest the three substances were well-balanced, no one of them being more or less than the others; and in this condition the aggregate was known as prakriti. It is described as being one, all-pervading, and eternal, and as devoid of intelligence. It is ever changing and exists for the enjoyment of jivas, and helps them to obtain release from bondage. It is the final cause of the universe; for it is not itself evolved from anything From this prakriti twenty-three substances came forth by evolution, seven of which in their turn produced other substances. They are known as mahat, ahamkāra, and the five tanmatras connected with the five elements known, for want of better terms, as ether, air, fire, water and earth. Ahamkāra exists in three forms.

which are respectively known as satva, rajas, and tamas. The five senses of perception, the five organs of action, mind came forth from the satva variety; and the five tanmatras, which produced the five elements, from the tamas variety, the third variety co-operating with the others in the formation of their products. From these sixteen products nothing else comes forth. The twenty-four substances enumerated constituted matter in its various forms. The twentyfifth is the group of jivas, who are not subject to any change. They are not evolved from anything else, and nothing else evolves from them. They are eternal and all-pervading; and the jiva in one body differs from the jivas in other bodies. They are mere chit, which means that they are shining substances. An earthen jar, for instance, standing in a dark place, cannot make itself known; and it needs a light to show its existence. On the other hand a light needs no such help. Similarly, the jiva makes himself known without the intervention of anything else. He is therefore said to be jnana. The term 'mere' in the expression 'mere chit' conveys the idea that he is not a knower, i.e., that he is not the seat of the attribute known as jnana. He is also devoid of the capacity to act, and does not experience pleasure or pain. Yet owing to the presence of the body in proximity to himself, the jiva from ignorance of the real nature of things mistakes the activity of the matter in the form of his body as his own, and fancies that he himself is the actor or enjoyer, as one perceives the red colour of a japā flower in a crystal

placed by its side. From this misconception results his bondage; and release is obtained from the perception of the truth. The sānkhya denies the existence of an allcontrolling being.

- 2. These things the sankhya proves by sense perception, inference and agama (Kapila's smriti). In regard to the tatvas, which he proves by sense perception, there is not much room for difference of opinion (1). As to the agama it may be taken to have been rejected by the first chapter of the pūrva mīmāmsā (Intro., para 10); for it is based on the knowledge of one that was not all-knowing. The inference that pradhana alone is the world-cause is refuted here. This will be in effect the refutation of the whole of the sankya's theory.
- 3. This is what the sankhya states: The whole of the universe must have had a single cause. This view must be accepted. To assume that it has come forth from several causes would never lead to a definite result. Take, for instance, a piece of cloth. It is made up of a number of threads, each thread being contacted on one side by one side of another. Each of these threads was similarly produced from its parts; and

⁽¹⁾ There is difference of opinion on one point only. In the teaching of the upanishads each element evolves from the preceding one through an intermediate condition known as $tanm\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$. Earth comes forth from water through the gandha tanmātrā; water from fire through the rasa $tanm\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$; fire from air through the $r\bar{u}pa$ $tanm\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$; air from ether through the sparsa tanmātrā; and ether from ahamkāra through the sabda tanmātrā. In the sānkhya's theory all the tanmātrās come directly from ahamkāra.

each of these parts again form its component elements. Arguing in this manner, one arrives at the atoms (parama anu); as he should proceed from the known to the unknown, he must presume that the atoms themselves are made up of parts; and that each part of each atom is similarly made up of its own parts. To assume that atoms do not consist of parts would not be correct; for then one atom should be in contact with the whole of another atom; and a thing possessing extension would not emerge. Thus no finality can be reached. It must therefore be assumed that the universe has come forth from a single cause, which is capable of endless transformations, without at the same time losing its own svarūpa. This single cause is pradhāna, in which satva, rajas and tamas are in the same proportion. This result is reached as shown below: The universe is constituted of parts, each differing from the others and is therefore a product. Being a product. it must have come forth from a cause possessing the same nature as itself. This is what is seen in the world. Every product comes forth from a cause similar in nature to itself, and it is dissolved in the same. An earthen jar has been made from a lump of clay, and a crown from gold. Now the universe is full of pleasure, pain and misconception, which are the effects respectively of satva, rajas and tamas. These three elements must therefore have produced the world. In the causal condition, or the condition of rest, is no activity; and in the active or manifested condition, one or another of these three

elements ever predominates over the others. It may therefore be inferred that in the former condition the three causes were in equipoise. The three elements in equipoise are known as $pradh\bar{a}na$, which is therefore the ultimate cause. It is appropriate that this should be so; for it exists in every place and at all times. Its products like mahat and $ahamk\bar{a}ra$, being limited, cannot transform themselves into the universe. This theory is refuted in the next $s\bar{u}tra$.

1. रचनानुपपत्तेश्च नानुमानं प्रवृत्तेश्च ।

Pradhana is not the cause; because creation is not possible; and action being possible (only under direction).

The theory of evolution is not sound; for pradhāna is non-intelligent, and is not directed by one, that knows its nature. Whatever answers this description produces no effect, like mere timber in the making of a car or of a palace; and this is seen in the world. On the other hand, it is perceived that non-intelligent matter, when directed by one that knows its nature, begins to produce a product.

2. Sānkhya.—What is found in a product is seen to be the cause, like the earth found in a jar. Similarly, satva, rajas and tamas are found in the products of evolution through the effects, which they produce; and they must be the cause of evolution. Reply. The argument is faulty. Put in logical form the argument is this—satva and the rest are the world-cause; for they are found in the products. This hetu-being found in a product—is seen in the quality white and the jāti cow

in an animal of this class, which is a product; but they are not causes. Hence, the hetu is not found only where the $s\bar{a}dhya$ exists.

- 3. The opponent replies.—Reference was made not to a quality or $j\bar{a}ti$, but to a substance; and gold, which is found in an ear-ring, is its cause. Satva and the rest are substances, and being found in products, must be the cause. Reply. This explanation does not help; for satva, rajas and tamas are attributes of substances, but are not themselves substances. They are the attributes of earth and other elements and make them appear light or heavy and the like; nor are they seen in products as substances as gold is so found. They are well-known as attributes alone.
- 4. The argument, that to attain finality a single cause should be found, also fails; for satva and the rest are not one, but many; and it was stated that when equally balanced they constituted pradhāna. It will be futile to look for finality by assuming that they are unlimited; for then they would be all-pervading, and no one of them could predominate over the others, and no evolution could take place. To bring about evolution they must be limited.

The opponent cites cases in which direction by an intelligent person is not clearly perceived:

2. पयोम्बुवचेत्ततापि ।

If it be said 'like milk and water,' the reply is 'there also' (the question is under consideration).

The conclusion reached in the preceding sūtra is not sound. Milk, for instance, changing into curd, does not require any help from anyone from the first motion to the completion of the product through the intermediate changes; and rain water, which is of one taste, is of itself converted into the juices of cocoanut, palmyra, mango, woodapple, margosa and tamarind fruits. Similarly, pradhāna, being an ever-changing substance, and undergoing like transformations in the condition of rest, undergoes unlike changes in evolution brought about by the predominence of one or another of the quas; but never needs any direction. This argument is stated in the sūtra and is refuted. In sūtra 24 of the preceding section the example of milk was cited; but the object was to show that there was no need for any instrument to produce the change; but not to deny the need for direction. For Brahma is present in it as stated in the text 'Who stands in water' (brihad., V-7-8).

3. व्यतिरेकानवस्थितेश्वानपेक्षत्वात् ।

And because if direction be not needed, the condition of rest cannot be reached.

If pradhāna is directed by Brahma, it is possible for it to be successively in the conditions of rest and activity, and to evolve into diverse products; but not otherwise; for He has an unfailing will. The opponent states that on the theory of direction also there are difficulties. Why does Brahma direct the evolution of pradhāna? He has everything that one may desire; He is full; His bliss is infinite; He is free from imperfections;

⁽¹⁾ This is stated by Dramida—'In order to attain fruits men wish to please \overline{Atmi} with karmas; He being

There can be no charge of partiality, if the facts be The highest $Atm\bar{a}$ has divided karma into two varieties—good and bad: He gives to all jivas bodies and instruments suitable to doing them and power to use them at pleasure; He gives them the veda to know His will; and to enable them to carry it out, He enters into them as their inner ruler, and co-operates with them. The jivas, having received their bodies and instruments and therewith the power to control them and being supported by Him, of their own choice do good and bad deeds; and are rewarded or punished according to their deserts. There is therefore no room to object that the jiva has no free-will. Nor can the highest Atmā be charged with being devoid of mercy, Mercy means inability to see another suffering, and a desire to remove the suffering without an eye to one's own good. If it be shown to one, that is determined to disobey Him, it will not be a merit; on the other hand it will be regarded as impotency. To punish such a person—

pleased is competent to yield the fruits. This is the arrangement stated by the veda.' Similarly, the veda states—'The supporter of the universe receives as His own worship the deeds of many kinds done or being done under the injunctions of the veda and smritis' (nārā., I-1-6); bhagavad-gītā. 'He reaches the goal, who worships with his own karma that Being, from whom all that exists comes forth, by whom they exist and by whom they act, and by whom all this world is pervaded'; "I ever throw into the wombs of persons of asura nature those that hate me, those that put forward specious arguments to show that I do not exist, those that knowing me do not yet approach me and those that do not know that I exist" (XVIII-46, and XVI-19).

AFAILE GUE

this alone is a good thing; otherwise to put down an enemy must be treated as a fault. When an offender gives up the idea of disobedience, with this alone the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ is pleased, excuses the numberless sins committed by him in countless world-ages, and of such a nature as cannot be put up with, and Himself makes efforts to bestow on him indescribable bliss (1).

In sūtra 2 an example given to show that pradhāna could evolve without direction was rejected. In the next two sūtras other examples are similarly treated: First, the grass consumed and the water drunk by a cow change of themselves into milk. Pradhāna may evolve likewise. Here there is no question of direction by a person that wills. Mere proximity to a jiva suffices; for even when the cow sleeps, the conversion of the grass and water into milk goes on uninterruptedly. It cannot be urged that this case also is included in the enquiry; for when the effect can be produced without conscious direction, to assume its existence is not legitimate. To this the sūtra replies:

4. अन्यत्राभावाच न तृणादिवत्।

Not like grass and water; because it does not occur elsewhere.

⁽¹⁾ This is stated in the bhagavad-gītā—'To those, that wishing to be ever with me meditate on me, I give with love that buddhi, with which they will reach Me. To favour them I remain as the subject of their thoughts and with the bright lamp of knowledge I destroy the darkness born of past karma' (X-10 and 11).

This example does not apply; for grass and water undirected by an intelligent Being do not change into milk. This is seen in the case of a bull. If the opponent's contention were valid, the grass and water too consumed by the bull or rejected by it would be converted to milk; but this conversion does not take place. Hence, it is the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ that wills the conversion in the case of the cow. What was stated in $s\bar{u}tra~2~supra$ is further explained here; the object being to point out a case in which a change does not take place when it is not directed.

5. पुरुषाश्मवदिति चेत्तथापि ।

If it be said "Like a person or a magnet," the reply is "(Not) even there".

Two other examples are stated here. Helped by a lame man, who is able to see, a blind man, who can walk, acts. By proximity to a magnet a piece of iron is moved. Similarly by the co-operation of pradhāna and jiva the world evolves. The jiva is jnāna, but does not act; while pradhāna cannot see, but can act. To this contention the sūtra replies. These examples do not help. The lame man sees the road and directs; and the blind man understands his directions and acts. But the jiva of the sānkhya cannot act and cannot therefore direct pradhāna. And pradhāna, being non-intelligent, cannot receive any direction and act. Nor does the jiva approach pradhāna like the magnet; for as already stated he does not act. If it be said that being present everywhere, he need not

approach, then by his proximity, which ever exists, evolution must be eternal, and there will be no period of rest. The *jiva*, being ever free, there will be no bondage and no release.

6. अङ्गित्वानुपपत्तेश्च ।

And because it is not possible to attain predominence.

In the condition of cosmic rest all the three substances—satva, rajas and tamas—are in equipoise; and unless this is disturbed, and one or another of them predominates, there can be no evolution; for so states the sānkhya. If the disturbance could take place without direction from an intelligent being, evolution would be eternal (1).

7. अन्यथानुमितौ च ज्ञशक्तिवियोगात्।

In inferring differently too; the capacity to know being wanting.

If the opponent should say—'I will give up these arguments, which are shown to be unsound, and adopt another and better inference, and prove that *pradhāna* can evolve without guidance,' the reply is that the same faults must recur; for *pradhāna* has not the capacity to know.

8. अभ्युपगमेप्यर्थाभावात् ।

Because even admitting its possibility, there will be no use.

⁽¹⁾ Taking this $s\bar{u}tra$ and the third $s\bar{u}tra$ together, it will be seen that $pradh\bar{u}na$ left to itself must be either in the condition of change or in the condition of rest, and will be powerless to go from one condition to another.

Assume that you can establish your point as proposed. Even then it will serve no purpose. According to your theory pradhāna serves for the enjoyment of the jiva and helps his release. But the jiva is mere chit; he does not act; he does not undergo any change; he is pure, and for that very reason he is ever free. It is not possible for him to see pradhāna and derive enjoyment; and as there is no bondage, there is no need for release. If nevertheless he experiences pleasure and pain by the proximity of pradhāna, as this proximity ever exists, he can never be released.

9. विप्रतिषेधाचासमञ्जसम्।

And because it is full of inconsistencies, it is not a sound theory.

The sānkhya states that prakriti (matter) exists for another, i.e., for the jiva; it must therefore be an object that can be seen, and that can yield enjoyment; and the jiva must be one that sees, directs and derives enjoyment. In the same breath he states that he is ever without change, and that he is mere chit; hence he cannot act; for action is change of condition; and he cannot see, direct and enjoy. Here is a contradiction.

Sānkhya. There is really no contradiction. Prakṛiti being in the presence (sannidhi) of the jiva, there is mutual adhyāsa that is, the activity of matter is perceived in the jiva, and his intelligence in matter; and this is misconception. Hence the jiva sees, directs and enjoys, though in reality he is without change and does not act.

Reply. This explanation is untenable. Adhyāsa is the perception by an intelligent person of the attribute of one object in a different object. This perception is a change of condition, and is not possible in one that never changes. Nor is it possible in matter; for this perception is an attribute of an intelligent person; and matter possesses no intelligence.

Sānkhya. The mere existence of matter in the presence of the jiva will suffice. He need not see it.

Reply. This also is untenable, for the same reason, i.e., as he never changes. If nevertheless adhyāsa can take place, it must ever occur. That presence (sannidhi) cannot help has been already stated (vide sūtra 10 of the preceding section).

- 2. Another contradiction. The sānkhya states that matter is the means by which the jiva attains release; and also that he is ever free. Hence what is bound, adopts the means to release and attains release is matter alone. If the latter statement be correct, how can matter be said to serve the jiva?
- 3. A still further contradiction. Matter is said to withdraw from sight the moment it is seen by a jiva in its true nature, thinking 'I have been seen'. This is unsound. The jiva being ever free, and never changing, never sees matter; nor can matter see itself, being without intelligence; and cannot think 'I have been seen'.

Sānkhya. Mere presence (sannidhi) is perception.

Reply. As the presence ever exists, matter must be ever perceived; and it cannot be said to withdraw from sight.

Sānkhya. There is a presence (sannidhi) other than the substance of matter, which newly comes into existence.

Reply. Even this is not possible in one that never changes. Further, if perception in the form of presence be the means to release, the same must be the means to bondage also; and bondage and release will ever happen.

Sānkhya. Misperception is the means to bondage; the perception of an object as it is is the means to release.

Reply. Both kinds of perception do not differ from the presence; and both bondage and release will ever happen. If the presence be not permanent, but newly comes into existence, we ask what is its cause. If you mention something as the cause, we ask again what is the cause of that cause; and this will lead to the ad infinitum difficulty.

Sānkhya. The mere existence of matter is the presence.

Reply. Then as matter is eternal, bondage and release will ever occur. Hence owing to these and other contradictions, the sānkhya's theory is unsound.

Criticism. The objections urged apply with greater force to Ṣankara's theory; for his Brahma, like the jiva of the sānkhya, is kūṭastha, i.e., He never changes; He is ever nir-viṣesha, self-proved and mere chit. Hence he cannot see avidyā, and adhyāsa will not be possible. There is this difference. In order to limit birth and

death to particular individuals, the sānkhya accepts the view that the jivas are many; but this is not accepted by Ṣankara. Hence if one person dies, all others must cease to exist at the same time; but this is not in accordance with facts.

Sankara. In the sankhya's theory prakriti and bodies made of it, are real; but in my theory prakriti and the bodies made of it are all unreal. Hence one jiva will suffice.

Reply. Whether prakriti be real or not, a Being that never changes, that is mere chit and shines without help, cannot see anything other than himself. If matter be unreal, its first perception and the subsequent nullification of the perception being accepted, the absurdity is still greater. In the theory of Bhāskara too contact of Brahma with upādhis will be impossible, as He is of this nature (1) and the theory is therefore unsound.

SUB-SECTION 2

We stated that the *sānkhya's* theory was untenable, as it is based on specious arguments, and as it is full of contradictions. We proceed to show in this sub-section that the *vaiṣeshika's* theory of evolution from atoms is also untenable.

This is based on the *sūtras* of *Kanāda*. It recognises the existence of the five elements, earth, water, fire, air

⁽¹⁾ Is of this nature—is ever without change. To contact an upādhi is a change, and it is therefore impossible.

and ether, all of which except the last are formed each from its own atoms (parama anu). Ether is one and indivisible; it is eternal and pervades all space. mind is atomic, and is eternal, each jiva being furnished with a mind to serve him as an instrument of know-The senses of perception—those perceiving smell, taste, colour and touch—are products respectively of the four elements, earth, water, fire and air; and they do not come from the subtlest variety of ahamkāra as in the sankhya's theory. The sense of hearing is the ether itself limited by one's ear. The vaiseshika does not recognise the existence of mahat, ahamkāra, the five tanmātras and the organs of action. The evolution of earth, water, fire and air from their atoms proceeds on this plan. Two atoms unite and form two-atom compounds; and three of these compounds unite together to form what is known as tryanuka (three two-atom compounds). From these secondary compounds the elements are formed by aggregation. The atoms move towards one another and form compounds prompted by adrishtam. The jivas do karmas (action) to procure fruits of various kinds. And as the karmas disappear quickly, something relatively permanent is needed to intervene between them and the fruits. and to wait till the time for yielding them arrives. something is known as adrishtam (unseen); and it is recognised by the mimāmsaka also under the designation of apūrva (new). The same need does not arise in the vedānta, as there is *Īsvara*, who sees the karma of each and gives him its fruit. Now, as evolution is for the

benefit of the *jiva*, his *adrishtams* move the atoms to form compounds of various kinds and furnish him with a body. The *sānkhya's* criticism of the evolution of the universe from atoms is recognised; and to avoid the difficulty pointed out, it is assumed that the atoms are eternal, indivisible and without parts.

This theory is criticised in the next sūtra:

10. महदीर्घवद्वा हस्वपरिमण्डलाभ्याम् ।

Like the evolution of tryanuka from dvyanuka and of dvyanuka from paramānu, the rest of the theory is unsound.

The sūtra assumes that this theory is untenable, and proceeds to state that other minor items of this theory are also untenable. First, as to the theory of evolution itself. It is seen in the world that a number of threads uniting with one another yield the product—a piece of cloth. This union is brought about by one side of a thread being joined to one side of another thread, and in this it is implied that each thread has six sides. The formation of compounds from atoms must proceed on the same plan, and it must be assumed that atoms also have six sides. Otherwise, being indivisible, one cannot be united to another to form a compound of any size; and from even a thousand atoms a compound exceeding one atom in size cannot emerge (1)

⁽¹⁾ This needs explanation. When several parts are put together to form a whole, each part is in contact with another, the place of contact being a portion of the part. If atoms unite to form compounds, one atom must contact another at a portion of its surface. But being indivisible, it

Hence, evolution would be impossible. If it be admitted that atoms also have six sides, they must consist of parts, each of which is made up of similar parts; and these again must be similarly produced. Proceeding in this manner, there will be no end. The theory therefore fails.

2. The subject of atoms should be examined a little further. Both the mimāmsaka and the vedāntin recognise the existence of atoms as the smallest unit of extension; and their atoms are the small specks of dust seen flying about in a bundle of sun-beams, which stream into a dark room through a window. The vaiseshika goes further and sub-divides each of these atoms into dvyanuka or two-atom compounds, and each of these again into parama anus. This sub-division rests on this inference, viz., the atom seen in the sun's rays is made up of parts; for it is a substance seen by the eye, like a jar. He requires an ultimate cause, that does not consist of parts. His parama anu is not made up of parts and is indivisible; but this has nowhere been seen. In making an assumption one should be guided by what one actually sees. As a theory of atoms this is cumbersome, as it assumes two kinds of smaller atoms.

cannot do so; and must contact it throughout its surface. Then the two atoms will cover the same space as one atom. This objection is disregarded in cases in which the contact of an indivisible object with objects consisting of parts is accepted on proper authority. But when the vaiseshika puts forward a theory based on mere speculation, the objection may be legitimately urged. His assumption of the existence of parama anu is of this character.

while the atoms seen in the sunbeams suffice for all purposes.

Vaiseshika. A mustard seed and a hill differ from 3. each other by the small or large number of their parts; and if the smallest atom should consist of numberless parts, there would be no difference between the seed and hill, as each will consist of numberless parts. Hence, some limit to the smallness of size must be accepted. Reply. If the smallest atoms do not consist of parts, there will be no objects exceeding the smallest atom in size; and the mustard seed and hill will not exist. Further, though the mustard seed and hill consist of numberless parts, there is a difference between them. The mustard seed has numberless parts no doubt; but the hill consists of numberless parts of the size of the mustard seed, each of which consists of endless parts. Again, a fortnight and a month consist each of numberless parts; and yet even you must admit that they differ. You recognise jati as being found in all the individuals of a class; and though the members of each class are numberless, yet you recognise a higher and a lower jāti, the jāti in jars being the lower and the jāti in the element earth being the higher; and these jātis are therefore different.

Vaiseshika. What shall we do? Reply. Accept the theory taught in the upanishads.

Criticism. This sūtra has been interpreted by others as refuting an objection to the theory of evolution of the world from Brahma. This is unsound, and will be a repetition. The objections raised by several opponents

were answered in the preceding section; and their theories are now refuted in this section. That evolution of the world from an intelligent Being is possible was proved in sub-section 3 of that section.

What are the other things that are unsound in this theory? The author proceeds to point them out.

11. उभयथाऽपि न कर्मातस्तद्भावः।

In either view there will be no motion of atoms (towards one another); hence no formation of compounds of atoms.

In this theory the atoms should move towards one another; this motion leads to the union of two atoms; these compounds form other compounds; in this manner the world is formed. The question is—how is the first motion in each atom caused. The vaiṣeshika states that this is caused by adrishtam. Now the adrishtam must be in the atom or in the jiva; and the sūtra states that in neither case will there be motion.

2. Being generated by the *jivas*' good and bad deeds, the *adrishtams* cannot be in *parama anu*. If they were, they must ever lead to creation. The *adrishtams* in the *jiva* cannot bring about motion in the *parama anu*. If the *adrishtams* in the *jiva* move the *parama anus* through the *jiva*, who contacts them, then the stream of *adrishtams* being permanent, there must be creation at all times.

Vaiseshika. Adrishtams must mature before they yield their fruits. Now some adrishtams yield their fruits at once; some in another life; and some in another kalpa (world-age). Hence there is no risk of eternal creation. Reply. To bring about the creation of the world at the same time, it must be assumed that all the adrishtams of all the jivas mature at the same moment, and that this maturing is of the same kind. This is, however, an impossible task. The jivas are numberless; each produces numerous adrishtams by actions of various kinds; and they do not act in concert or at the same moment. It cannot therefore be imagined that all these adrishtams mature at the same moment. and that the matured fruits all tend to creation. the same reason the dissolution of the world at the same time, and the waiting of the adrishtams to mature till the life-time of Brahmā, the creative agent, comes to end are also out of the question.

Vaiseshika. $\bar{I}svara$'s will gives a capacity to the adrishtams, and they join together and cause motion in the parama anus. Reply. The existence of $\bar{I}svara$ in your theory rests on mere inference. It has been shown in chapter I, section 1, sub-section 3 that the inference fails. Hence your theory of evolution of the world from the motion in parama anus fails (1).

⁽¹⁾ If the adrishtam can create the world, there is no need for an *Īṣvara*; and the attempt to prove His existence by inference will be useless. Vaiṣeshika. The adrishtams, being non-intelligent, must be moved by an effort of *Īṣvara*. Reply. This effort being non-intelligent,

12. समवायाभ्युपगमाच साम्यादनवस्थिते: ।

And because $samav\bar{a}ya$ is accepted; as the same reason applies; and as there will be want of finality.

The *vaiṣeshika* states that *samavāya* (1) exists and that it is eternal. It is the relation of the whole to its parts, of a substance to its attributes or actions, of an individual of a class to the generic character. Its

another effort will be needed to move it; this will need another and so on ad infinitum. Vaiseshika. The first effort of Isvara will suffice. Reply. We plead that similarly the adrishtams of the jiva will suffice, though non-intelligent; an Isvara is not needed.

⁽¹⁾ The vaiseshika enumerates six things in addition to substances (dravya), viz., guna (quality), karma (action), jūti, samavūya, visesha and abhūva (non-existence). Of these $j\bar{a}ti$ is stated to be one, to be eternal and to be found in all the members of a class; such is the peculiar feature of the class; but $j\bar{a}ti$ is considered to be different from it. criticising Sankara's theory in the 'Three Tatvas' it is shown that the assumption of jati, which is not perceived by any one, is unnecessary, and that whatever purpose is to be served by $j\bar{u}ti$ will be served by the peculiar feature of the class. Samavāya is dealt with here. Visesha is an attribute that is found in the parama anus and serves to distinguish one parama anu from another. It is not perceived; and the assumption of its existence rests on the same ground as the assumption of $samav\bar{a}ya$. It fails for the same reason. $Abh\bar{a}va$ was referred to under $s\bar{u}tra$ 18 of chapter II, section 1 (page 481), and it was shown that such a thing as abhava does not exist. The result is that there are only three classes—dravya, guna and karma; as the last two are aspects of dravya, the only proper division is into dravya and what is not dravya. This is the division adopted by Sri Desika in the nyāya siddhānjana.

existence is assumed in order to explain why two particular things are always found together, one resting on the other and qualifying it. The same need exists for explaining why this samavāya is found in the things to which it is related; and a second samavāya must be assumed to satisfy this need; this will lead to a third one and so on ad infinitum.

Vaiseshika. It is the nature of samavāya to be always found with another; there is therefore no need for a second samavāya. Reply. It is the nature of qualities and actions to be always found with substances, and of jūti to be always found in individuals of a class. Why should the existence of an unknown thing as samavāya be assumed, and why should it be then stated that such and such is its nature? The assumption of a new thing is cumbersome and unwarranted.

The objection pointed out is found in $samav\bar{a}ya$ whether it is eternal or not. If it be eternal, there is another objection, which is stated in the next $s\bar{u}tra$:

13. नित्यमेवच भावात्।

And because (what is connected with $samav\bar{a}ya$) must be eternal alone.

Samavāya being a relation, if it were eternal as alleged, the things with which it is connected, *i.e.*, the world, must be eternal also; and there would be no need to prove the existence of *Īsvara* or to assume that atoms exist and form the world.

14. रूपादिमत्ताच विपर्ययो दर्शनात् ।

And because atoms are said to possess colour and other attributes; the reverse of what is intended; being so seen.

The atoms (parama anu) are of four classes corresponding to the elements earth, water, fire and air, and are said to possess the attributes smell, taste, colour and touch. They are at the same time described as being eternal, subtle, and indivisible. But this description cannot be correct; for whatever has colour and the other attributes is seen to be perishable and to have been made, like a jar, from causes that are similar; and as already stated in making an assumption one should proceed on what is seen. Hence it is not possible to assume a thing as possessing a particular character that appeals to one.

To ward off this attack it may be stated that the view that atoms possess colour and other attributes will be abandoned. The next *sūtra* replies:

15. उभयथाच दोषात्।

And because in both ways it is faulty.

It has been pointed out that the possession of colour and other attributes by atoms conflicts with the view that they are eternal. Their being devoid of the attributes will conflict with the other view that the colour and other attributes of products come from similar attributes of the cause, and the earth and other elements will be without smell, taste, colour and touch. Thus, in either way the theory is faulty.

16. अपरिग्रहाचात्यन्तमनपेक्षा ।

And because it has not been accepted, it should be completely ignored.

In the $s\bar{a}nkhya$ theory one or two elements are acceptable, like the sat- $k\bar{a}rya$ theory; but in this theory of the vaiseshika there is nothing, which those that follow the veda can accept (1).

SUB-SECTION 3

We have refuted the theory of the vaiseshika that the universe comes forth from parama anus. We pass on to the saugata, who holds the same theory of evolution. There are four schools, which together go by the name saugata. The first school, that of the vaibhāshika, recognised the reality of the external world, consisting of the four elements—earth, water, fire and air—and of their compounds. Both the elements and their compounds are aggregates of atoms. The reality of the inner world also was recognised, and it consisted of streams of perceptions, feelings, or thoughts, in which each perception, feeling or thought is followed by a like

⁽¹⁾ The vaiseshika's views regarding the jiva are opposed to the teaching of the upanishads. He regards him as jada, i.e., as not capable of showing himself without help. He is a knower; but his knowledge comes, only when he contacts the mind; $jn\bar{a}na$ is not his inseparable attribute. These views are refuted in the next section.

perception, feeling or thought. The existence of both the worlds might be proved by sense perception and by inference. The second school, that of the soutrantika. held the view that the external world was not capable of direct perception, and that its existence was inferred from the perceptions which it produced. The third school, that of the yogāchāra, denied reality to the external world. There was nothing outside corresponding to perceptions; what was perceived by the senses was unreal like dream perceptions. All the three schools agreed in teaching that everything, which they recognised, existed only for a moment, and that it was replaced by another thing exactly alike. They denied the existence of ether, of the jivas, and of \bar{I} svara. last school, that of the madhyamika, denied the existence of everything.

Vaibhāshika and soutrāntika schools. To deal first with the two schools which recognised the reality of the external world. The following is what they stated: The earth-atoms possess colour, taste, touch and smell: the water-atoms exhibit colour, taste and touch; the fire-atoms have only colour and touch; while touch is the only quality of the air-atoms. Each group of atoms coming together produces its own element. From these elements other aggregates are formed, known as the senses, and objects of sense enjoyment. body. the Within each body is a stream of perceptions, feelings or thoughts, which stream is an apprehending entity. and which is the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ of the body. With the agencies described all operations in the world proceed.

 $S\bar{u}tras$ 17 to 26 demolish the momentary character of external objects alleged by the first two schools of saugatas:

17. समुदाय उभयहेतुकेऽपि तदप्राप्तिः।

In the aggregates formed by both classes the production of the world does not result.

It is stated that atoms form by aggregation earth and other elements; and that these elements similarly form the bodies of jivas, their instruments, and objects of sense enjoyment. The sūtra states that by the aggregates of both kinds the aggregate known as the world cannot be formed. For the atoms and the elements are held to have a momentary existence only. The following questions rise to one's lips. The atoms and the elements, which perish in a moment-when do they begin to unite; when do they unite; when do they become objects of perception; and when do they become fit to be taken up or thrown away? Which knower-ātmā touches what object; what object does he know and when; and who takes up what object perceived, and when? On this theory he that has touched an object has disappeared; and the object touched has gone; similarly, he that has seen an object is no more, as also what has been seen. How can one know what has been touched by another; and how can one take up what another has known? The saugata explains: Each stream of momentary objects is one. Reply. will not help, so long as you do not admit that there is some one other than the streams, who is permanent and connected with each of the streams. Also, perceptions—individual perceptions or streams of perceptions—are not the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$. The $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ is the 'I' and is the knower.

18. इतरेतरप्रत्ययत्वादुपयन्निमिति चेन्न संघातभावानिमित्तत्वात् ।

529

If it be said "As each produces another, what has been stated is appropriate," the reply is 'No; because they are not the cause of aggregation.'

The saugata offers an explanation. Though all objects are momentary, yet avidyā will show all this to be appropriate. $Avidy\bar{a}$ is misconception, i.e., the thought that a thing is permanent, eternal, and pleasant, while it is momentary, perishable and This produces desire unpleasant. and aversion: from this the shining of the chitta (mind) takes from this again come thoughts and their place: products and earth and other products possessing colour; from them mind and the five senses; from them bodies; from them experience of pleasure and pain and the rest. Then follow avidyā and the rest in the same order, like a wheel turning round and round, and this has had no beginning. What has been described cannot take place without the aggregates—the elements and their products. The sūtra states this explanation, and then replies: Avidyā and the rest cannot keep the elements and their products in the condition of aggregation. The notion that shell-silver is silver does not make two pieces of shell-silver aggregate. Further. as he, that has the $avidy\bar{a}$, and regards a momentary thing as permanent, perishes that moment, who is it that is the seat of desire and aversion? So long as you do not accept a permanent being, who is the seat of desire and aversion, as long will you be unable to maintain that these feelings continue.

19. उत्तरोत्पादे च पूर्वनिरोधात् ।

And because when the succeeding thing comes into existence, the preceding one disappears.

This is another reason for the universe not coming into existence on the saugata's theory. In a stream of jars, each of which exists for one moment only, when the jar of one moment appears, the jar of the preceding moment has gone; and it cannot be the cause of the appearance of that jar. What is its cause? It cannot be non-existence (abhāva); for then everything may appear at every place and at every moment. Next, it cannot be existence of the jar in the preceding moment; for then the jar of the preceding moment may cause the appearance in the succeeding moment of objects in the three worlds, as a cow, a buffalo, a horse, a wall, a stone and the like. Next, it cannot be the existence of a like object in the preceding moment: for then the jar of one moment may cause the of all the jars in all places. appearance Next. it cannot be maintained that the existence of a jar of one moment causes the appearance of one jar only; for then it cannot be known which appears out of those in all places. If the reply be—the jar that appears in the place, where the jar of the preceding moment stood, is produced by the jar, it will be an admission that that place is not momentary. Further, it cannot be known that a jar stood at a particular place; for after the eye is turned to the jar, it disappears before it can be known.

20. असति प्रतिज्ञोपरोघो यौगपद्ममन्यथा।

In the absence of the preceding thing there would be conflict with (the saugata's) statement; otherwise both would be seen at the same time.

In the preceding sūtra one absurdity was pointed out, and here others are mentioned. It was stated that in the absence of the preceding thing the succeeding one cannot appear. If it appeared in the absence of a cause, everything may be produced everywhere and at This is not the only difficulty. every moment. saugata states that four things are necessary for perception, of which the object to be perceived is one; and this implies that the object remains for one moment after the eye is turned towards it. If it does not (and it cannot remain on this theory), then there will be conflict with the statement. To ward off this attack. if it be assumed that, while the jar of one moment remains, the jar of the next moment appears, then both the jars, one of which is the cause and the other is the product, should appear at the same time; but this is not theory of momentariness will be And the seen. To obviate this last objection, if it be abandoned. stated that an object is seen at the same moment at which the eve is turned towards it, the relation of cause and effect will cease, as the effect should follow the cause.

21. प्रतिसंख्याप्रतिसंख्यानिरोधाप्राप्तिरविच्छेदात् ।

Neither variety of destruction can happen; because the substance remains.

In the two preceding sūtras the creation of an object out of nothing was disproved; and in this sūtra it is shown that an existing object cannot be completely annihilated. The saugata distinguishes between two kinds of destruction—the gross one, which all can see, when a jar is destroyed by the fall of a hammer upon it; and in which the stream of like substances comes to an end; and the subtle one alleged by him, which takes place every moment in a stream of like substances, and which cannot be seen. The sūtra states that neither of them can happen; for an existing object cannot be completely annihilated. The creation and destruction of an object mean only change of condition of an existing substance; and the substance itself, capable of this change, is one and is indestructible. This was established in chapter II, section 1, sub-section 6.

Saugata. When a lamp is extinguished, complete destruction is observed; and it may be presumed that the same thing happens in other cases also. Reply. In jars and cups, which are broken, and cease to exist as jars and cups, the earth, of which they were made, is perceived to continue; and it is decided that the destruction of an existing substance is merely a change of its condition. This conclusion is extended to the case of the lamp; and it is inferred that the flame of the lamp has assumed another condition, which being subtle cannot

be perceived by the naked eye. In the case of the jars and cups the recognition of the continuance of the earth not being nullified, its suppression is not legitimate. For one should proceed from the known to the assumption of what is unknown, and not ignore the known.

22. उभयथा च दोषात् ।

And because in both ways the theory is faulty.

The saugata's position disproved in the last three sūtras is that creation is possible out of nothing, and that what has been created may become nothing. From this position absurd results follow. What is made out of nothing must be nothing; for the cause and product should be similar, like a jar and a lump of earth, or a crown and a piece of gold. The universe should therefore be nothing; but this is not perceived by any one, nor is it admitted by the saugata himself. Next, after one moment the whole world would be nothing; and if it comes into existence again, it would be nothing as just stated.

23. आकाशे चाविशेषात्।

And in regard to the element ether (the theory is faulty; for) no difference (in perception).

This question of the existence of the element ether comes in incidentally; for it is regarded as non-existent by the *saugata* along with the others; and this view is now refuted. Like earth and other elements, which are admitted to be positive substances, the element ether

(ākāṣa) is perceived, and this perception is not subsequently nullified. And it is thus perceived—'There the hawk falls: here the vulture'; and ether is the place where these birds fall. The existence of the element ether is thus recognised. Objection. Ether is the non-existence (abhāva) of the elements—earth, water, fire and air. Reply. This view is incorrect. Non-existence is of four kinds. When an object is made, there was its non-existence before that moment, and when it is destroyed, there is after that moment non-existence of another kind. After the object is made and before it is destroyed, neither variety can exist. Neither can therefore be predicated of ether, while these elements exist; and the world will be without ether. The third variety occurs when it is said 'A is not B'; and non-existence of A is in B, and non-existence of B is in A. Similarly. if ether be not the others, this non-existence must be in each of the other elements; but not elsewhere; but it is seen in the interspaces among them. The last variety is utter non-existence, which cannot be stated while the other elements exist. Hence, the element ether is a positive substance. As abhāva (non-existence) is only change of condition of an existing substance, the element ether cannot be mere negation. Though in itself it has no colour of its own, and though it is not perceptible to the eye, both are facts, as what is seen is the element compounded with the others.

24. अनुस्मृतेश्व।

And because of recognition.

An object seen before is thus recognised—'This is that only.' Its existence in two different moments proves its permanency. Saugata. The perception of oneness is a misconception engendered by likeness between two different objects as in the case of the flames of a lamp. Reply. This explanation is untenable; for the oneness of the perceiver, who is duped by the likeness, is not admitted. It will be no explanation to reply that one sees an object to be the object or like the object seen by another. The opponent, who refers to misconception engendered by likeness, unwittingly admits that the same person perceives the object on both the occasions. In regard to the flames of a lamp there is reason to hold that they are different; but in the case of a jar there is no authority to hold that the jar of one moment is different from the jar of the next moment. If such an authority existed, you may assume that the jars of two different moments are recognised as one owing to their likeness.

2. Saugata. I will prove by sense perception and inference that jars exist only for a moment. First as to sense perception. Here is a jar existing at the present moment. Sense perception distinguishes it from the jar of the preceding moment and from the jar of the succeeding moment, in the same way as it distinguishes a blue thing from a yellow thing. In other words the jar of this moment is a different substance from the jar of the preceding moment and from the jar of the next moment. Next, inference is as follows: A jar exists only for a moment; for it has existence, and is capable of doing an

action. What is non-momentary, as the horn of a hare, has no existence and is incapable of doing an action. Here no example is given of the co-existence of the hetu and the sādhya; but a negative example is stated in which the absence of the sādhya is accompanied by the absence of the hetu. This raises a presumption that where the hetu exists, there the sādhya also is present. The example selected is the horn of a hare, which has no existence, and which may be said to be anythingmomentary or non-momentary, and it suits the saugata to take the latter view. Again, in a jar which is destroyed by the fall of a hammer, its existence at the moment is seen and along with it perishability. Therefore, the jars of the moments preceding the moment of destruction were also perishable; for they were jars existing at the moment.

3. The attempts to prove the momentariness of objects in the external world (1) are futile. The differentiation effected by sense perception of an object of the present moment from the objects of other moments does

⁽¹⁾ The saugata appears to have caught the idea of momentariness of things from a burning lamp. It is admitted on all hands that though the flame appears to be one, it is really a quick succession of many flames, each flame being started by the contact of fire with a portion of the wick, and going out by the burning up of that portion and the consequent cessation of that contact. Owing to the rapidity with which each flame is replaced by another, the flames of the lamp appear to be one. The saugata's contention would be that as momentary coming into and going out of existence is seen in this case, it may be assumed to exist in other cases also.

not prove it to be a different object. It shows only its connection with the present moment, and does not preclude its connection with other moments also. Two facts were proof by inference fares no better. adduced in proof of the momentariness of a jar. will use them to show that it is relatively permanent. Thus, the jar is permanent; for it exists, and is capable of doing an action. What is not permanent does not exist, and is incapable of doing an action, as the horn of a hare. The fact that an object is capable of doing an action proves of itself that it does not exist merely for one moment. For a thing that comes into existence and disappears the next moment can never do any work. It may be noted that the hetu proves the reverse of what is intended. The second proof by inference must share the same fate. When the jar is destroyed by the fall of a hammer, the destruction is brought about by a visible cause, and it may be affirmed that the jars of the moments preceding the moment of destruction remained in the absence of a similar cause of destruction. Saugata. The fall of the hammer was not the cause of destruction, but it merely started a stream of unlike existences in the form of broken pieces. Reply. To reach the condition of broken pieces is itself the destruction of the jar, as has been shown in sub-section 6 of chapter II, section 1. Saugata. Destruction is other than coming into the condition of broken pieces. Reply. The fall of the hammer is the cause of destruction, as it follows immediately on the fall of the hammer. This is appropriate.

4. Hence, by recognition objects are shown to be relatively permanent; and this cannot by any means be ignored. It shows that an object connected with two points of time is one; to say that it shows something else is to assert that the perception of the blue colour, for instance, relates to some other colour. Those, that assert the existence for a moment only of a person who perceives and of the thing perceived, cannot accept inference as a source of authority; for to draw an inference one must have perceived the co-existence of the hetu and the sādhya and must remember it when he sees the hetu in a place; and these things will be impossible in their view. Similarly, they cannot say 'This exists for only a moment' and then adduce the hetu; for at the very moment, in which he makes the statement, he ceases to exist. It is not possible for one to complete what another began; for he does not know it.

25. नासतोऽदृष्टस्वात् ।

What is non-existent cannot be the cause; for this has not been seen.

Under (1) sūtra 19 at the end of the explanation it was pointed out that after one's eye is turned to an object, if it disappears, it cannot be known. The soutrāntika comes forward to dispute the statement. This is what

⁽¹⁾ Hitherto the views of the $vaibh\bar{a}shika$ and $soutr\bar{a}n-tika$, who recognise the existence of the external world, were criticised; and the criticism applies equally to both. In this $s\bar{u}tra$ the view of the latter that the external world can be known only from inference is dealt with.

he states. The non-existence of an object at the moment for knowing it does not prevent its being known. the object of knowing is merely to be the means of knowing. Objection. The eye and other senses are the means of knowing. Are they the objects known. Saugata. An object bestows its character on cognition, and thus causes knowledge of itself. This is what I meant. Hence, when the object disappears, its previous existence and what it was are inferred from its character imparted to the knowledge. Here, the yoqāchāra of the third school comes forward with an objection. An outside object is not necessary; for one knowledge imparts its character to the next one. The soutrantika replies. In a stream of perceptions marked by the blue colour a perception marked by the yellow colour cannot find a place without the intervention of an yellow object. Hence differences in perceptions are brought about by the differences in objects themselves. This contention of the soutrantika is refuted in the sutra. The particular character of a perception cannot be the character of an object that has disappeared and has ceased to exist. For, such a thing has not been seen. When an object disappears, its attribute cannot be seen in another object. A reflection on a mirror subsists only so long as an object is present before it; but not after it has moved off. Even there it is not the attribute only that appears; the object too is reflected. Hence the peculiar character of a perception imparted to it by an object needs the existence of the object at the moment of knowing it.

26. उदासीनानामि चैवं सिद्धिः ।

And even to those that sit still fruits will come on this theory.

This sūtra points out one more flaw in the theory of both schools. In the world one makes efforts to procure a good or avert an evil; but if everything exists only for a moment, and if objects, the efficacy imparted to persons, and meditations do not continue in succeeding moments, there is nothing to be sought by effort. Hence, fruits must come without a cause; and those that sit still may reap the fruits of this world or of the next, or even attain final release.

SUB-SECTION 4

In this sub-section the view of the third school of the saugatas, known as the yogāchāra, is dealt with. The tenets of this school are that outside objects have no existence, and that perceptions alone are real. To these remarks certain objections are raised, which the yogāchāra meets. First objection. One perception is distinguished from another by the objects perceived; how can they be denied? Reply. Perceptions have forms of their own, as objects are said to have, and distinguish themselves from one another without any outside help. The difference among perceptions depends upon vāsanā, which means that one perception perfumes another similar perception that follows it, so as to form a

stream; and the perfume of one stream is different from that of another. Hence there are streams of perceptions differing from one another. Second objection. How does the perception of a different kind arise? Reply. The last perception in a stream of perceptions gives rise to a different perception; and it is capable of doing so. Third objection. Why is it said that the characters of a mustard seed and hill, which are outside, appear in the perceptions that are inside? Reply. Objects become fit to be spoken about by the shining of perceptions. This must be admitted: otherwise the distinction between what shines without help and what needs help will disappear, and in order to shine it must have a form; without a form it cannot shine. There is but one form that is seen; and it belongs to perception. Its appearance as the form of an outside object is illusion. This is proved also by the fact that perception and the object are invariably perceived together. Hence, the object is not different from the perception (1).

2. Further the assumption of the existence of outside objects is not legitimate. One, that recognises their existence, must admit that in the perception of a jar the perception has the form of the jar. Forms in perceptions being admitted by both sides, while all speech is possible with reference to them alone, why should outside objects be assumed to exist?

⁽¹⁾ When one sees two moons owing to a defect in the eye, the two moons are always seen together; and for this reason the second moon does not differ from the other.

This view is refuted in the next sūtra:

27. नाभाव उपलब्धे: ।

No non-existence: because it is seen.

To deny the existence of objects other than perceptions is not possible; for perception is seen as possessing this character—to make it possible for a knower-ātmā to speak about a particular object. Every one, as is well-known, perceives thus—'I see a jar'. This act of perception is connected with a person as perceiver and with a thing as its object; and it is vivid perception, of which all the world is witness. For one with this very evidence to allege that perception alone is real must expose him to the derision of the whole world.

- 2. The opponent's argument, that perception and object being invariably perceived together, the quality blue and its perception do not differ, is untenable. It conflicts with his own statement; for being together in the perception must result from difference in the objects seen. The perception makes an object fit to be spoken about; how can it be identical with the object?
- 3. Again, *vāsanā* cannot be alleged in regard to perceptions, which completely disappear every moment, and which therefore do not possess a permanent form that may continue in all the perceptions in a stream. How can a perception be perfumed by another that has disappeared?
- 4. Hence, differences in perceptions are due to differences in objects; and they are brought about by the connection of the attribute *jnāna* with objects; and

this connection is in the form of contact, as $jn\bar{a}na$ is a substance, being an inseparable attribute of a jiva, as light is an inseparable attribute of a flame.

The opponent cites the case of dream perceptions, and contends that like them the perceptions of the waking condition, which perceptions of the outside world are, do not rest on anything. This is refuted in the next $s\bar{u}tra$:

28. वैधर्म्याच न स्वप्नादिवत् ।

And not like dream perceptions; for there is a difference.

Dream perceptions are caused by a drowsy mind, and are nullified, when one rises from sleep; while perceptions of the waking condition are the reverse. Your attempt to prove that knowledge of all kinds is without any foundation is futile. For the inference, by which this is to be proved, would be of this form-'knowledge' is without foundation; because it has the character of knowledge. Now, the knowledge to be obtained from this inference, being covered by the general term 'knowledge,' must also be without foundation, and would serve no purpose. If to obviate this defect, it be thought that it rests on a solid basis, then the hetu would be found in this knowledge, and the sādhya would be absent from it. Hence, the argument would be faulty, as the co-existence of the hetu and the sadhyā is not invariable. The attempt therefore fails.

29. न भावोऽनुपलब्धे: ।

No existence; because it is not seen.

Knowledge, not resting on a thing as its object, does not exist; for it is nowhere seen, *i.e.*, knowledge without a person that knows, and an object known. Even dream perceptions do not rest on nothing. What is seen in dreams is created by the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ so as to be experienced only by the dreamer and that only for the time being. This will be explained in chapter III, section 2, $s\bar{u}tra$ 3.

SUB-SECTION 5

This sub-section deals with the last school of saugatas, that of the madhyamika, whose argument is as follows: That the world is a void is the final decision of the saugata system. The teaching had to be suited to the capacity of students; and external objects were accepted, and the theory of momentariness was added: but as a matter of fact neither knowledge nor the external world exists. 'There is nothing' is the truth, and to become nothing is release. Such was the view of Buddha. And that is proper; for nothingness does not need any cause to produce it; for it exists of itself. It is only for sat (what exists) that a cause should be Now, how is sat caused? The cause cannot searched. be anything that exists; for a jar does not come from a lump of earth, as it is, i.e., without its being worked up. It cannot be anything that does not exist. When

the lump of earth disappears, the jar that comes out of nothing must be nothing. Next is sat (what exists) made by itself or by another? It cannot be the former alternative; for then the product would depend upon itself as cause; and it would serve no purpose, as it already exists. The latter alternative too will not do; for if another can make it, then anything can come out of anything else, there being no difference in the matter of being another. As nothingness has no origin, it is not liable to destruction. Hence nothingness is the truth; and the notion of origination, destruction, existence, non-existence and the rest is mere illusion.

Here an objection is raised by Sankara. can be no illusion without a real base on which it rests. Hence something must be accepted as real. You accept an illusive world, though the avidya, which causes the illusion, its resting on Brahma, and His perception of it are all unreal, and though it is opposed to what happens in cases of illusion (1). Similarly with an unreal base illusion may happen.

⁽¹⁾ In the typical case of illusion—the mistaking of shell-silver for silver—the cause is twilight; it affects the shell-silver, and prevents its being clearly seen; and there is also a person who sees and is deluded. In Sankara's theory the cause is avidya, which is unreal; it cannot affect Brahma as alleged, as He is light (prakāṣa) and can shine without any heip; and being destitute of attributes. He cannot see. Nevertheless he states that Brahma sees an unreal world. It is open to the madhyamika to retort that if Sankara may disregard the necessary conditions, he may also do the same.

This theory is refuted in the next sūtra:

30. सर्वथाऽनुपपत्तेश्च ।

And because in every way it is inappropriate.

The nothingness, which you have in view, cannot established, whether we consider the sources of authority or what they prove. First, the terms 'exist' and 'does not exist' and the perceptions which thev are connected refer only to with particular conditions of an object that exists. (See final decision in chap. II, sec. 1, sub-sec. 6.) Hence, when it is stated that nothing exists, it amounts to saying that everything exists; but in a particular condition. Next, the statement that nothing exists is made on some authority; and the reality of that authority is admitted. If this be not so, there is no proof; and everything is real.

SUB-SECTION 6

In this sub-section the theory of the arhata or jaina is examined; for he too states that the world has evolved from atoms. The jaina states that this world, consisting of jivas and what are not jivas, is without a superior Being who controls and guides it. There are six classes of substances: (i) Pudgala 1—substances possessing colour, smell, taste and touch, and consisting of atoms (parama anu) and of their aggregates—earth, water, fire and air,

¹ The matter in the original is re-arranged and is presented in a form in which it can be easily understood.

the bodies of living creatures, and places of enjoyment. The atoms are not of four classes as in the vaiseshika and saugata theories; they are of one class only, and the other elements are formed by change of condition. (ii) Ether, which is one and is of infinite extent. Time, which is an atomic substance, helping us to speak of the past, the present and the future. (iv) Dharma and (v) adharma, which are substances extending everywhere, and which are respectively the cause of motion and of immobility. (vi) The jivas, who see, know and experience pleasure, and are capable. They are of three classes; first, there are those that are bound. What bind them are of eight classes. Four of them obstruct the appearance of the four qualities that pertain to the jivas by nature. The remaining four bring about the formation of their bodies, help their continuance, attach the jivas to them, and make them experience pleasure and pain or feel indifference. Next, there are those that do yoga (meditation) and have succeeded in their efforts. Lastly, there are those that have become free by the disappearance of desire and aversion and have attained their true nature. Of the six substances, the atoms occupy the smallest extent of space, and ether is of infinite extent. The remaining occupy an intermediate position, this remark applying to the jivas also. is another classification from the point of view of the jiva's release; (i) jivas; (ii) whatever serves for their enjoyment; (iii) the senses serving as instruments of enjoyment; (iv) what binds them; this has been already explained; (v) ascetic practices helping to bring about

moksha (release) and to be learnt from the teaching of arhat; (vi) meditation with the senses reduced to inactivity; and (vii) moksha.

The peculiar feature of this theory is that every substance is said to possess contradictory qualities—existence and non-existence, permanency and impermanency, oneness and separateness (1). To explain that such a thing is possible it is further stated that each substance has two aspects—the aspect as substance, and the aspect as condition. In the former aspect all objects are real, permanent, and one, and in the latter aspect, they are the reverse—i.e., they are unreal, impermanent and many. The conditions are said to be existing and non-existing.

This theory is criticised in the next sūtra.

31. नकस्मिन्नसंभवान् ।

Because they are impossible in the same thing.

It is not possible for contradictory qualities like existence and non-existence to co-exist in one and the same object, as impossible as for light and shade to co-exist. An object, which is in the condition denoted by the term exists, cannot at the same time be in the reverse condition denoted by the term 'does not exist'.

⁽¹⁾ The possession of contradictory qualities is justified, on the plea that all objects exist in seven forms: (i) they exist; (ii) they do not exist; (iii) they exist and do not exist; (iv) they cannot be described. This last feature is added to the first three forms, and we have three more classes.

For a substance to be the seat of changes known as origination and destruction is to be perishable. How can the reverse—to be eternal—be found in it? Being the seat of incompatible attributes, like the peculiar characters of a horse and of a buffalo, constitutes difference between two objects; and oneness is the reverse. How can difference and oneness co-exist in the same thing?

- 2. Time appears as an aspect of substances; and it is unnecessary therefore to speak of its separate existence or non-existence and the like or to answer any objections that may be urged. Question. If time be not a separate substance, how shall we explain the following statements—'Time exists; time does not exist.' Reply. Jāti (the peculiar feature of a class) has no separate existence; and yet we are able to explain the statements 'jāti exists; jāti does not exist'. The same method may be followed.
- 3. Question. You reject our view; yet you state that Brahma is one only, and that yet He is everything also. Reply. He is all material products and all jivas, as they form His bodies; and this is possible, as He is all-knowing, and omnipotent, has an unfailing will, and is an unique Being. The bodies are entirely different from the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$; and their attributes also differ.
- 4. The *jivas* and the other substances that you mention are not the conditions of one substance; you cannot therefore state that they are one as substance, and separate as conditions. *Jaina*: Each of these six substances is one in its own nature as substance, and separate in regard to its own conditions. *Reply*. Then

this will conflict with your statement that everything is everything else; for no one substance is identical with another. The criticism stated in sub-section 2 of the evolution of atoms undirected by an all-Ruler applies here also.

In the next three *sūtras* the view that the *jiva* is neither infinite nor atomic, but that he is of middle size is refuted:

32. एवंचात्माकात्स्न्यं।

And on this theory no fullness of the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$.

It is stated that the jiva is of the size of his body. When one, that was in an elephant's body, leaves it to enter the body of an ant, only a portion can go in, and what is in the ant's body will not be the full $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$.

The *jaina* tries to get over this difficulty by assuming that the *jiva* is capable of contraction and expansion, and that by a change of condition the whole of him goes in. This explanation is next criticised:

33. न च पर्यायादप्यविरोधो विकासादिभ्य: ।

And the difficulty does not disappear even by alteration of condition; because change and the rest will result.

By the term 'change' reference is made here to origination and destruction; and these carry with them existence for a limited period of time and incapacity to know, and to benefit by one's knowledge. The *jiva* would then be reduced to the condition of an earthen jar.

34. अन्यावस्थितेश्वोभयनियत्वादविशेष: ।

Because the last size remains and both the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ and the size are eternal; there is no difference.

The first portion of the $s\bar{u}tra$ repeats the jaina's explanation, which is that the natural size of the jiva is the last size, i.e., that attained in final release; that this remains, as no more body is taken up; and that both the jiva and his size in the condition of release are eternal. The second portion of the $s\bar{u}tra$ replies. Then this eternal size must have existed before; and the view that the jiva is of the size of his body is abandoned.

SUB-SECTION 7

म्याधित नगर्न

We have stated that the theories of Kapila, Kanāda, Sugata and ārhata should be ignored by those that aspire for release, as they are unsound, and as they are not based on the veda. In this sub-section it is stated that the āgama of Paṣupati is opposed to the veda, that it is unsound, and that it should therefore be ignored:

35. पत्युरसामञ्जस्यात् ।

The $\bar{a}gama$ of Pasupati should not be regarded with respect; because it is unsound.

There are four schools that follow this agama, and all of them describe tatvas and the means for attaining the fruits of this world, enjoyment in the other world, and final release differently from the veda. distinguish between the material and operative causes of the universe, and regard Pasupati as the operative cause only. And the practices which they recommend conflict with one another and are opposed to the veda. The four schools are; kāpālas, kālāmukhas, pāsupatas. and saivas. Of them, kāpālas observe 'One, that knows nature of the six mudrikas, and also what paramudrā is, and meditates on the ātmā seated in bhaga posture, attain bliss'. A necklace, finger-ring, ear-ring, a bead worn on the tuft of hair on the head. ashes and the holy thread -- these are said to be the six mudrikas. "One whose body wears these is not reborn here." The $k\bar{a}l\bar{a}mukhas$ state the following to be the means to the attainment of all fruits here or in the other world: To eat out of a human skull, to bathe with the ashes obtained by cremating corpses, to put it into the mouth, to bear a stick, to fill a jar with toddy and to worship a devatā in it, and the like. The pāsupatas state that five things should be known for release from bondage: (i) kārya—the five elements and their attributes—colour and the rest—thus ten tatvas; (ii) karana, the five senses, the five organs of actions, three inner senses in the form of the mind, buddhi, and ahamkāra. thirteen tatvas; (iii) yoga or meditation; (iv) vidhi. which includes the following—to bathe in ashes; to lie down on ashes; to laugh aloud; to sing and dance as

one pleases without reference to the rules laid down for them; to make a sound like the bellowing of a bull; (the last four practices should be gone through away from the resort of worldly men); to recite mantras; to prostrate before a superior being; to appear like one asleep, while being wide awake; to shake the body as if suffering from disease; to walk limping; to indicate on seeing a young and pretty woman that one is in love with her; to act like one without discrimination, and do what the world will condemn; and to speak incoherently, and (v) complete disappearance of suffering; and the acquisition of the following capacities—to see or hear or touch things that are subtle, that are at a distance and that are separated by intervening objects; to go with extreme quickness; to direct all bodies and senses by mere will and without any bodily action; and to control everything even though the body and senses are inactive (1). In the āgama of the saivas the following things appear: to wear a bracelet of rudrāksha round the wrist; to mat the hair on the head with a cohesive substance: to use a skull; to bathe in ashes; and the like. It is also stated that a member of any caste may by a particular action become a brahmana, and may attain the status of the last stage of life—'By mere entry into dīkshā, one becomes a brāhmaņa in a moment; by doing the $k\bar{a}p\bar{a}la$ -vrata one becomes yati' (one that has renounced the world).

⁽¹⁾ The $p\bar{a}supata$'s statement has been added from the naya may $\bar{u}kha$ malik \bar{u} of Appaya $D\bar{\iota}kshitar$.

The sūtra condemns this āgama. From sūtra 31 na meaning no is brought down. word meaning of the sūtra is that the view of Pasupati should not be respected; for it is unsound. This arises from the fact that each school condemns the others. One instance will suffice. Though ashes are used by all, one school uses the ashes of the burning ground; while the pasupata obtains it by begging in the houses of householders. Pasupati's āgama is also opposed to vedic teaching in regard to the tatvas, meditation and āchāra (right conduct). The veda, on the other hand, teaches that Narayana alone, the highest Brahma, is both the material and operative causes of the universe; that only meditation on Him is the means to release; and that the help to meditation is the performance of the duties prescribed in it for each caste and each stage of life (1). And this is different in the agama, which must therefore be neglected.

⁽¹⁾ The authority for these statements is the following texts:

⁽i) As to the highest tatva.—The being stated to be the highest Brahma is $N\bar{a}r\bar{a}yana$; the highest tatva is $N\bar{a}r\bar{a}yana$; the highest fire is $N\bar{a}r\bar{a}yana$; the highest $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ is $N\bar{a}r\bar{a}yana$ ($n\bar{a}r\bar{a}$, anu, 11); He willed 'I will become many, and to that end I will evolve' ($ch\bar{a}ndo$., VI-2-3); He desired 'I will become many; and to that end I will evolve' ($\bar{a}na$., VI); He of himself made Himself. (Ibid., VII.)

⁽ii) As to meditation being the only means to release.—I meditate on that great Purusha, shining like the sun, and having a figure made of a substance other than tamas (matter) (puru); meditating on Him here in this

Opponent. Do not the terms sat, brahma, ātmā, sambhu, siva and others occur in vedic texts? how can $N\bar{a}r\bar{a}yana$ be said to be the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$? Reply. eleventh anuvāka of taittirīya—nārāyanam has for its special purpose the teaching as to 'who is the highest devatā': and it should be followed in understanding other vedic texts. In the pūrva mimāmsā there is the injunction —He makes the offering with a $juh\bar{u}$; it only mentions the instrument for making the offering, but not the wood of which it should be made. This is done by another text 'He whose $juh\bar{u}$ is made of parna wood'; and the first text is understood with reference to the second. Similarly certain texts mention various devatās -such as prajāpati, siva, indra, ākāṣa and prāṇa-as objects to be meditated on; and this is their only purpose. But who these devatas are must be ascertained from the texts, which have no purpose other than to determine the nature of these devatās; and it is the anuvāka referred to: and it shows that these devatās represent $N\bar{a}r\bar{a}yana$, who is their inner ruler; and He it is that should be meditated on in the form of those beings. This point was explained in sub-section 11 of chapter I, section 1. The following text from the mahopanishad begins with this statement—"Nārāyana

manner, one becomes immortal; no other path lies to the goal. (Ibid.) Similarly all other vedic texts.

⁽iii) As to the helps to the meditation.—Him $br\bar{a}h$ -manas desire to meditate on by recitation of the veda, by $y\bar{a}gas$, by the making of gifts, by tapas and by fasting. (brihad., VI-4-22); Desiring this fruit alone (the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$) men renounce the world (Ibid.).

alone was; no Brahmā; no Īṣāna"; and goes on to state. "He found no pleasure in being alone, etc." Nārāyaṇa mentioned in this creation-text as the world-cause is referred to in other creation-texts by the general terms sat, brahma, ātmā and others. See note on page 51. Hence the highest ātmā is Nārāyaṇa, and not Paṣupati.

The next three $s\bar{u}tras$ criticise the view that Pasupati is only the operative cause, and that his existence can be proved by inference alone. On this point most of those that stand outside the vedic fold are agreed (1).

36. अधिष्टानानुपपत्तेश्च।

And because direction (of evolution) is not possible.

Those that depend only on inference should follow what is seen in the world, and regard the maker of the world as directing its evolution, as the potter directs the evolution of jars from a lump of earth. But unlike the potter, *Pasupati* has no body; and only those that have

⁽¹⁾ It is stated that in saiva $\bar{a}gama$ the authority of the veda is accepted; and yet this fact is ignored, and the existence of $\bar{I}svara$ is sought to be proved by inference. This is probably the reason. If $\bar{I}svara$ be accepted as taught in the veda, as the world-cause is referred to in creation-texts by the term $N\bar{a}r\bar{a}yana$, and as this name is peculiar to Purushottama, He must be accepted as Brahma, the world-cause. This conclusion being unwelcome to the saiva, the fact is concealed, and recourse is had to proof by inference. (Naya mayūkha mālikā.)

bodies are seem to be able to direct. *Opponent*. Possession of a body by \bar{I} svara must be admitted. *Reply*. No; if he had a body, it must have consisted of parts; and whether it was perishable or not, there are insuperable difficulties, which cannot be got over. See chapter I, section 1, sub-section 3.

37. करणवचेन भोगादिभ्य: ।

If it be said 'Like (the jiva) directing his instruments,' the reply is—'No'; because enjoyment and the rest would follow.

The opponent states: The jiva experiencing pleasure and pain controls his body and instruments without a body; and \bar{I} svara may similarly direct the evolution of the universe without a body. This explanation is first stated in the $s\bar{u}tra$, and is then refuted. The direction by the jiva is for the purpose of experiencing the fruits of his past good and bad deeds; and his power to direct comes from his adrishtam in the form of those deeds. The same result must apply to Pasupati also, i.e., he must be subject to karma and experience its fruits.

38. अन्तवत्त्वमसर्वज्ञता वा ।

Liability to destruction and incapacity to know everything.

If Pasupati were subject to karma, the results stated in the $s\bar{u}tra$ would also follow.

In pūrva mīmāmsā, I-3-2, it was decided that a *smṛiti* opposed to the *veda* should be neglected; and this subsection would seem to be unnecessary. But the intention

is to show that the $\bar{a}gama$ of Pasupati is opposed to the veda, and to give the warning that one should not be deluded by the mention in it of certain dharmas, that are not opposed to the veda.

SUB-SECTION 8

The subject of this sub-section is the āgama known as pāncha rātra, which was taught by Nārāyaṇa Himself, and which points out the way to the highest good. The author of the sūtras defends the āgama from the view that it is on a par with the smriti of Kapila and the rest, and that it should be rejected as authority.

The doubt arises from one or two apparent inconsistencies with the veda, which are stated in the two following $s\bar{u}tras$:

39. उत्पत्त्यसंभवात् ।

Because origination is not a fact.

Here is a text:

From $V\bar{a}sudeva$, the highest Brahma, the final cause, the jiva, known as Sankarshana is born; from Sankarshana mind, known as Pradyumna, is born; from him $ahamk\bar{a}ra$, known as Aniruddha, is born.

The mention of the birth of the *jiva* here is opposed to the *veda*, which states that he is eternal—"The *jiva*, who is fit to be all-knowing, is not born; nor does he die" (*kaṭha*., II-18).

40. नचकर्तुःकरणम्।

Nor the instrument from the doer-

The coming of mind from the *jiva* is not correct; for it comes from the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$. "From Him come forth $pr\bar{a}na$, mind and all the senses" (munda, II-1-3). As the $\bar{a}gama$ teaches what is opposed to the veda, its authority is denied.

The explanation of these inconsistencies is given in the next $s\bar{u}tra$:

41. विज्ञानादिभावे वा तदप्रतिषेधः।

As they are the all-knowing cause, the authority of the agama is not repudiated.

The terms sankarshana, pradyumna, and aniruddha denote the highest $Atm\bar{a}$. $V\bar{a}sudeva$ Himself out of love for those that call on Him for help, appears in these forms of His own will in order to make it possible for them to approach Him. The terms jiva, mind and $ahamk\bar{a}ra$ denote these Beings, as they control them, as $\bar{a}k\bar{a}s\bar{a}$ and $pr\bar{a}na$ denote the highest $Atm\bar{a}$. There is therefore no inconsistency, and no need to question the authority of the $\bar{a}gama$.

The authority for these statements are the following:

(i) That is an $\bar{a}gama$, from which comes meditation on the Being in four forms as a thing to be done, meditation by $br\bar{a}hmanas$ with the names appropriate to each form, and coming to them in the order in which they (the meditators) become fit (paushkara);

- (ii) The highest $s\bar{a}stra$, of large size, gives discrimination to the $br\bar{a}hmanas$, who worship the Being bearing the names sat, brahma, and $v\bar{a}sudeva$; it is Brahma-upanishad (giving instruction about Brahma) ($s\bar{a}tvata$);
- (iii) By the worship of Vibhava, $Vy\bar{u}ha$ is reached; by the worship of $Vy\bar{u}ha$, the highest Brahma known as $V\bar{a}sudeva$, the subtle form, is reached.
- (iv) Because the unchanging highest Brahma, known as $V\bar{a}sudeva$, is well attained from this $s\bar{a}stra$ with knowledge and karma (paushkara).

The first text, though intended to explain how pāncharātra came to be known as an āgama, shows that Brahma exists in four forms. The second text states that meditation on the four forms is meditation on Brahma, known as Vāsudeva. In Vāsudeva the six qualities—jnāna, bala and the rest—appear in full; He appears as subtle (sūkshma), vyūha and vibhava. Vibhavas are avatāra forms like Rāma and Krishņa; vyūhas are Vāsudeva, Samkarshana, Pradyumna, and Aniruddha; Sūkshma is the highest Brahma, known as Vāsudeva, and only possessing the six attributes. This distinction appears in the third text. Those, that love Him, worship one of these forms of Brahma in accordance with their own fitness, and reach Him as stated in the last text.

Thus there is no inconsistency with the veda; on the other hand the $\bar{a}gama$ describes what is stated in the vedic text 'He is not born; yet he is born in many forms' (puru). That is, Brahma takes up forms of His own will, prompted by love of those that come to Him; and this is His birth. Hence the authority of

the agama, that elucidates this text, cannot be said to be repudiated.

42. विप्रतिषेधाच ।

And in the $\bar{a}gama$ itself the origination of the jiva is denied.

The nature of prakriti is thus described:

It is without intelligence; it exists for others; it is eternal; it ever changes; it has three gunas; it forms the bodies of those that have karma. The connection between it and the purusha (jiva) is by his direction of prakriti; for he is without a beginning and without an end; this has been decided to be the truth (parama samhitā).

The eternal existence of the *jiva* being similarly stated in other samhitas, the origination of the *jiva* is repudiated in the pancharatra agama; there need be no doubt in the matter. References to the *jiva*'s birth and death will be explained in the next section (sūtra 18) so as to agree with vedic statements. The *jiva*'s origination being denied even there, the doubt as to the authority of the agama arising from this is completely removed.

Further objections. Here is a text from the same agama:

 $S\bar{a}ndilya$, unable to perceive the highest goal from the ved as and their angas, learnt the $p\bar{a}nchar\bar{a}tra$.

This shows that this $\bar{a}gama$ is opposed to the veda. Reply. Here the intention was merely to praise the $\bar{a}gama$, not to condemn the veda. Illustration. The agnihotra offerings may be made either before or after

the sun rises; and to praise the making of the offerings after the sun rises, the making of the offerings before is condemned in the following text:

Those, that make the agnihotra homa before sun rises, speak untruth every morning (aitareya $br\bar{a}hmana$).

Another illustration. In the chandogua, chapter VII, considered in chapter I, section 3, sub-section 2, Nārada enumerates the branches of learning that he had studied, including the four vedas, and observes "I know, revered sir, only the texts, but do not know the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$." The intention was to praise the $vidy\bar{a}$ taught in that chapter, but not to condemn the vidyās taught in other places.

Another and a better explanation: Nārada was unable to perceive the highest tatva taught in all the vedas, and their angas, and he therefore applied for the subject. The same explanation instruction on applies to Sāndilya also. That this is so appears from the mention further on of the Being taught in the upanishads, viz., Brahma known as Vāsudeva. The veda being difficult to understand, the teaching of the agama was begun, so that the meaning might be easily known. This is stated in the parama samhitā.

[&]quot;I have learnt, revered sir, the vedas, their angas, the angas of angas, their commentaries, and I have heard from my teacher the meaning of the angas along with logic. But in all of them I do not clearly perceive in any place the means by which the highest good may be attained." "The all-knowing Bhagavān Hari took the essence of the vedānta,

and out of mercy towards those that love Him reproduced it, so that it might be easily understood." Clearly—free from doubt.¹

3. Certain commentators have explained the four $s\bar{u}tras$ of this sub-section as denying authority in regard to certain portions, that in their opinion conflict with the veda. Their explanation is not in accordance with the wording of the $s\bar{u}tras$, and is opposed to the intention of their author. After writing the $s\bar{u}tras$, stating the rules for the interpretation of the $ved\bar{u}nta$, he wrote the $mah\bar{u}bh\bar{u}rata$ to elucidate the vedic teaching, a voluminous work consisting of a hundred thousand grandhas (a grandha is equal to 32 syllables). In a portion of this known as moksha dharma he begins with this question:

If the householder, the student of the veda, the forest-dweller, or the mendicant desires to attain the highest goal, which $devat\bar{a}$ should be worship?

He then at great length describes the teaching of the *pāncharātra āgama*, and closes with the following remarks:

"Churning with my buddhi the voluminous $bh\bar{a}rata$ with its hundred thousand grandhas, this has been taken out of it, as ghee is taken out of curd. As butter is in curd; as the $br\bar{a}hman$ is among biped animals; as the $\bar{a}ranyaka$ is among the vedas; as nectar is among herbs (this is the best part in the $mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata$)"; "This great upanishad, containing the teaching of the four vedas, and

 $^{^{\}circ}$ The meaning of the verse is explained in the original with many epithets. It is omitted here, as the substance has been given.

teaching karma yoga and $jn\bar{u}na$ yoga (1), is known as $p\bar{u}nchar\bar{u}tra$. This is the good sought by worldly men; this is Brahma; this is the highest goal; it includes the four vedas; this very teaching will be your guide."

In the $bh\bar{\imath}shma$ parva also By $br\bar{\imath}hmanas$, kshatriyas, vaisyas, and $s\bar{\imath}dras$, bearing His marks, $M\bar{\imath}dhava$ (the husband of $Mah\bar{\imath}$ Lakshm $\bar{\imath}$) should be served and worshipped, following the ritual taught in the $s\bar{\imath}tvata$ by Samkarshana.

How can Bādarāyaṇa, the foremost among those that know the veda, after saying all this, condemn the sātvata ṣāstra (i.e., the pāncharātra), which deals with Brahma taught by the upanishads, and known as Vāsudeva and describes how He should be meditated on and worshipped?

4. One more objection. Here is a verse from the same moksha dharma.

 $S\bar{a}nkhya$, yoga, $p\bar{a}nchar\bar{a}tra$, the vedas, $p\bar{a}supata$ —do these point to one thing as the ultimate tatva, or do they point to different tatvas?

This shows that all these should be treated with respect; but in the sūtras the sānkhya and yoga smritis and pāṣupata ūgama are condemned. Pāncharātra being mentioned along with them should share the same fate. Reply. No; it should not be placed on a par with the others. The meaning of the question is: Do they point to one tatva or to different tatvas? In the former case what is that one? In the latter case, the tatvas pointed out must be opposed to one another; and the ultimate tatva cannot be all of them; some one of them must be

⁽¹⁾ The original has the terms $s\bar{a}nkhya$ and yoga. They refer to $jn\bar{a}na$ yoga and karma yoga. Compare with bhagavad- $git\bar{a}$ III-3.

accepted. Which is it? The following reply was given. "Know these works to express different views." It was then pointed out that the authors of the sānkhya and yoga smritis and the pāṣupata āgama were Kapila, Hiranyagarbha, and Paṣupati respectively; that the vedas were not made; and that the "the author of all pāncharātra āgamas was Nārāyaṇa Himself". It was then added:

In all these works examining with proper arguments, it will be seen that the ultimate tatva is $N\bar{a}r\bar{a}yana$."

The meaning was this: the three works were human productions; while the veda, not having been made, is free from the touch of misconception and other These works conflict with one another, blemishes. and teach what is opposed to the perfect veda; if they be understood as they are, they cannot claim any authority. If one examines them with the help of the arguments stated in the sūtras, he will perceive that the pradhana, purusha (jiva), Pasupati and other tatvas have an existence only as being the bodies of Nārāyana, who is known in the upanishads as Brahma; Pāncharātra āgama was taught by Nārāyana; and it describes His nature and the mode of meditating on Him. How can anyone regard it as being like the other works?

5. The same thing is stated in another place in the moksha dharma:

Thus the $s\bar{u}nkhya$, yoga, the veda, and the upanishads point to the same tatva and are therefore one work; and this is said to be $p\bar{u}nchar\bar{u}tra$.

This means: The twenty-five tatvas mentioned in the sānkhya smriti, the mode of doing yoya (meditation) with its helps in the form of yama, niyama and the rest, and the karmas enjoined in the veda are all accepted; and they are connected with Brahma thus: The tatvas of the sankhya are directed by Brahma; yoga is meditation on Brahma; and the karmas are the worship of Brahma. This is the work done by the upanishads, which point out the existence of Brahma, and state what He is. The very same thing is elucidated by Nārāyāna Himself, who is no other than Brahma. the sūtras themselves what has been condemned is not the twenty-five tatvas of the sānkhya, but their being undirected by Brahma. In the other two works what was rejected was the view that *Isvara* is merely the operative cause, the placing of Pasupati above Nārāyana, and the practices that are opposed to the veda; but the utility of yoga (meditation) and the existence of Paşupati were not denied. This conclusion is stated in another verse of the moksha dharma.

 $S\bar{a}mkhya$, yoga, $p\bar{u}nchar\bar{a}tra$, the vedas and $p\bar{u}supata$ —these are authorities in regard to $\bar{A}tm\bar{u}$; they should not be nullified with specious arguments.

This means that only the *tatvas* mentioned by them should be accepted, but that they should not be wholly rejected like the works of the *saugata* and the *jaina*. This verse should be thus understood, so as to agree with the conclusion stated in the previous paragraph.

भगवते भाष्यकाराय महादेशिकाय नमः।

भगवते भाष्यकाराय महादेशिकाय नमः।

CHAPTER II

SECTION 3

In the preceding section the theories of the $s\bar{a}nkhya$ and others, who are outside the vedic fold, were shown to be unsound, on the ground that they rested on specious arguments, and that they were full of contradictions. To show that the theory taught by the upanishads is free from contradictions and other blemishes, the mode of evolution of the world will be examined in this section. The products of evolution will be taken up one by one, and shown to have come forth from the highest $Atm\bar{a}$, and directly from Him.

SUB-SECTION 1

The first sub-section deals with the element ether. The first $s\bar{u}tra$ states the first view:

1. न वियदश्रुते: अत्यमेव जयते

Ether $(\bar{a}k\bar{a}sa)$ is not produced; because there is no vedic text (stating its having been produced).

The doubt is whether ether is produced or not. The first view is that it is not.

Mention would be made of what is possible; but the origination of ether being as impossible as the sky to flower, it is not mentioned. For as it does not consist of parts, and as it fills all space, its origination, like that of the *jiva*, cannot be explained. Hence in the *chān-dogya* (chapter VI, sec. 2), where evolution is described, reference is made only to fire, water and earth as having been produced; and there is no mention of ether.

2. Ojection. Here are some texts:

From that $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ ether came forth (\bar{a} na.: I-2); From Him came forth $pr\bar{a}\eta a$, mind, all the senses, ether, air, fire, water and the all-supporting earth ($mu\eta da$., II-1-3).

Reply. Because they conflict with the reasons assigned, they should be regarded as nullified. The reasons are non-mention in the $ch\bar{a}ndogya$ supported by argument; while the texts cited are opposed to the argument.

The next sūtra gives the final decision:

2. अस्ति तु । सन्यापेव जयते

The origination of ether does exist.

The *veda* teaches what is beyond the senses; and it is therefore competent to state that ether is a product, though this cannot be known from other sources. A matter known from the *veda* cannot be set aside by an inference with the *hetus* mentioned. In regard to the *jiva*, his being without parts is not the cause for his not being made. This will be shown further on.

The opponent disputes the conclusion; and the next sutra states his contention:

3. गौण्यसम्भवाच्छब्दाच ।

(The text as to the production of ether) should be understood in a secondary sense; because it is impossible, and because of a text.

The first thing produced being fire, ether is not a product. And there is testimony confirming this presumption. "The fluid is air and ether (antariksha)—this is imperishable" (brihad., IV-3-3).

Here the opponent anticipates an objection which may be urged. In the *ānandavalli* text but one verb sambhūtah (came forth) is used, and that in the first clause; in the other clauses it has to be added. The word should therefore be understood in the same way. How can the same word be understood in its primary sense with reference to fire and water, and in a secondary sense with reference to ether? He replies in the next sūtra:

4. स्याचैकस्य ब्रह्मशब्दवत्।

It may happen to the same verb; like the word brahma.

The word brahma occurs in a secondary sense, meaning matter in the mundaka (I-1-10). "From Him came forth this brahma, name, form and annam"; and in its primary sense in the preceding verse (I-1-9). "By tapas Brahma evolves." Here the word brahma

is repeated; but in the \bar{a} nandavalli text the verb $sambh\bar{u}tah$ has to be carried over from the first clause to the subsequent ones; for the clauses run as follows:

From that $\bar{A}tma$ came forth ether; from ether air; from air fire; from fire water; from water earth.

But this makes no difference, as the denotation of the word is repeated, as when the word itself is repeated.

The next three sūtras reply:

5. प्रतिज्ञाऽहानिर्व्यतिरेकात ।

The declaration will not become nil, only when ether is not different (from Brahma).

This attempt of yours to understand the ānandavalli text in a secondary sense so as to agree with the chāndogya is futile. For, the latter upanishad itself tacitly admits that ether is produced. For, it starts with the declaration that by knowing Brahma everything is known. This implies that everything has evolved from Brahma, and ether can be no exception. It is only then that the declaration may be taken as established.

6. शब्देभ्य: ।

From other texts.

That as a product ether does not differ from *Brahma* is established from the following texts of the *chāndogya*.

Before creation, my dear, this was Sat only; one only; without a second (VI-2-1); All this is identical with that (Sat) (VI-8-7).

The affirmation that before evolution commenced there was only Sat shows that ether did not then exist as ether, and that it is a product subsequently formed. The express mention in more than one text of ether being a product cannot be nullified by the non-mention of ether in another text. The mention of the origination of fire does not show that ether is not a product.

7. यावद्विकारं तु विभागो लोकवत्।

And all things being affirmed to be products, the evolution of ether (from Brahma) follows; as in the world.

From the text 'All this is identical with that (Sat)' ether also appears to be a product. When it is said in the world, 'All these are the sons of devadatta,' and then some are mentioned as having been born from him, it follows that the others not mentioned are also born from him. Similarly here also. What then becomes of the text "The fluid is air and ether (antariksha)—this is imperishable"? Reply. It must be understood that they exist without destruction for a very long time, as the devas do (1).

⁽¹⁾ The objection answered in this sub-section was raised by the vaiseshika. His argument is this. Ether is not produced; because it is not made up of parts. The reply is that no substance, whether made up of parts or not, is merely produced. The substance always exists; and when it changes its condition, and becomes fit to receive a new name, it is said to have been made. The opponent does admit the coming of things without parts into a new condition; e.g., ether is without parts; and from a condition without sound, it comes into a condition in which sound is manifested. The jiva also is without parts; and he is

8. एतेन मात्रिश्वा व्याख्यात: ।

This explains that air also is a product.

The same reasons, as have been urged in the case of ether, apply to air also. A different $s\bar{u}tra$ has been made as to air, as reference to it is made in a succeeding $s\bar{u}tra$:

9. असंभवस्तु मतोऽनुपपत्तेः।

Being a non-product applies to Sat only; because it is inappropriate in others.

This follows from the declaration that by knowing Brahma everything can be known. Hence everything other than Brahma has evolved from Him. The special treatment of ether and air is in illustration of this fact. Hence, avyakta (matter entering on evolution), mahat, ahamkāra, tanmātras and the senses—all have evolved. The first two are the first and second modifications of matter; and the tanmātras are the stages immediately preceding the evolution of the great elements—ether, air, fire, water, earth.

SUB-SECTION 2

We have seen that all things other than Brahma are products. The next question for consideration is

according to the opponent without the attribute consciousness; yet in certain conditions consciousness appears. Hence, ether may be produced, and in the *vedic* texts it is enumerated along with other things which are admittedly produced. Hence the statement as to its being produced cannot be treated as a dead letter (adhi., 226).

whether each product has come forth from the next preceding one without the intervention of *Brahma*, or from *Brahma* Himself appearing in that form.

The first three sūtras state the first view:

10. तेजोऽतस्तथाह्याह ।

Fire came forth from it (air). So is it stated. The statement is "From air fire" (āna., I-2).

11. आप: 1

Water also from it-(fire).

'From fire water' (*Ihid.*); It (fire) created water (*chāndo.*, VI-2-3).

12. पृथिर्वा ।

Earth also from it (water).

From water earth (*Ibid.*), 'That (water) produced anna' (chāndo., VI-2-4).

सन्यमेन नयने

How can the word anna denote earth as presumed by this quotation? The next $s\bar{u}tra$ replies:

13. अधिकाररूपशब्दान्तरेभ्य: ।

From the context; from the reference to colour; and from other texts.

The context, in which this clause occurs, describes the evolution of the great elements; and the term anna must therefore denote earth. Anna is food, and food of every kind is produced by earth; and on the theory that the cause and its product are one, the term anna may denote earth. Next, reference is made to colour in the following text, which occurs further on:

The red colour of burning fire is the colour of fire; its white colour is the colour of water; its black colour is the colour of anna ($ch\bar{a}ndo$, VI-4-1).

Here the term *anna* must denote earth, which is of the same kind as fire and water. Lastly, the parallel passage of the *ānandavalli* has "From fire water; from water earth".

The opponent concludes with the following remarks: The mention of fire, water and earth being illustrative, the same reasoning applies to other things also, as mahat, and $ahamk\bar{a}ra$. Each product evolves from the next preceding one, and there is no objection in understanding the texts as they are stated. The highest $Atm\bar{a}$ is the cause of all indirectly.

The final decision is stated in the next sūtra:

सन्यापत् जणत

14. तदभिध्यानादेव तु तिल्लङ्कात्सः ।

But Brahma alone is the direct cause of every product; because of His mark, viz., willing.

The willing is the willing "I will become many". Fire and water are stated to have so willed, and to have produced water, and earth. This not being possible to non-intelligent things like fire and water, those terms denote *Brahma* appearing as fire and water. The same

reasoning applies to all other products. In antaryāmi brāhmana and subāla upanishad it is stated that all things are the bodies of Brahma and that He is their $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ (1).

15. विपर्ययेण तु क्रमोऽत उपपद्यते च ।

And the different order (of the products) (can be explained only by their coming forth) only from Him. And this is appropriate.

A different order is stated in the following text of the mundaka, while the correct order of evolution is avuakta, mahat, ahamkāra, ether and so on:

From him came forth $pr\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, mind, all the senses, ether, air, fire, water and the all-supporting earth (II-1-3).

This order will be appropriate only if each product came forth from Brahma appearing in the form of the next preceding one. If He were only the indirect cause, the statement of evolution immediately from Him would be nullified, and this mundaka text therefore confirms the conclusion in sūtra 14.

सन्यमन जयने 16. अन्तरा विज्ञानमनसी ऋमेण तिहिंगादिति चेन्नाविशेषात ।

If it be contended "Evolution is in the order stated; the mind and senses evolve between prana and the elements, because of the mark that they are mentioned along with them," the reply is 'no; because of non-difference '.

⁽¹⁾ Who stands in earth; Who stands in water: Who stands in fire; Who stands in air; Who stands in ether; and so on. Whose body the earth is; . . . Whose body ahamkāra is; Whose body buddhi is; Whose body avyakta is.

The opponent contends that the mundaka text does not support the conclusion in sūtra 14 as stated above. For it lays down the order of evolution. The five elements are stated here in the same order as in the anandavalli text. Because the mind and the senses (which is the meaning of the term vijnāna in the sūtra) (1) are mentioned in the same text along with them, this is a sufficient mark for inferring that the senses evolve from the mind, and the mind from prana. states this contention, and then gives the reply. Because the words "From Him came forth" should be connected with every product mentioned in the text without difference. This would mean that every product came directly from Brahma. Hence direct evolution from Brahma is what is taught; but not order (2). For it would conflict with the order mentioned in

⁽¹⁾ The term $vijn\bar{a}na$ means the instrument by which a thing is known. It therefore means the senses here.

⁽²⁾ Objection. The two words may be connected with every product; but this will not help you. For, the word translated by the words from Him' may also mean from it'; and the word it' may be taken to refer to what precedes in each case. Then the first clause would mean From Him (the highest $Atm\bar{a}$) came forth $pr\bar{a}na$; the second clause From it $(pr\bar{a}na)$ came forth mind; the third clause from it (mind) came forth all the senses, and so on. Reply. This explanation is unsound. First, the same word would be understood differently in each case. And this would not be legitimate, when it can be taken to mean the same thing in all cases. Next, when evolution may be understood either directly or indirectly, the former should be preferred.

another upanishad (1). Hence all products come forth from Brahma appearing in the form of avyakta and the rest. The words $\bar{a}k\bar{a}sa$, $v\bar{a}yu$ and the rest denote the highest $Atm\bar{a}$, who is the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ of these products.

Here, another objection is raised. If every word thus denotes *Brahma*, then the ordinary meanings of words settled by usage will be departed from: This is replied to:

17. चराचरव्यपाश्रयस्तु स्यात्तद्व्यपदेशो भात्तस्तद्भावभावित्वात्।

When by words ordinarily denoting movable and immovable things, those things only are denoted, the denotation is incomplete; for its being complete depends upon the existence of the knowledge that those things are the aspects of Brahma.

Words denote not only those things, but also Brahma, who appears as those things. Hence, when they denote those things merely, the denotation is, as it were, broken. Until one is taught the upanishads, he does not know Brahma, whose aspects those things are; for He is not known from the sources of knowledge, from which the aspects are known. Words will denote Brahma, when it is known that He appears as those things, and that they are His aspects. Till then worldly men will use words in incomplete senses to denote those things merely.

⁽¹⁾ The earth is dissolved in water. . . . Tamas becomes one with the highest Deva ($sub\bar{a}la$). This lays down another order.

2. Another and better explanation: The words "vyapadeso bhāktah in the sūtra are split up thus: vyapadesah abhāktah. The meaning of the sūtra will then be: When by words ordinarily denoting movable and immovable things, Brahma is denoted, the denotation is not broken (i.e., it is complete); for their capacity to do so comes from the presence of Brahma in those things. That Brahma is in every thing is known from the text regarding the making of names and forms.

SUB-SECTION 3

The next thing taken up for consideration is the jiva: Is he made like ether or not?

First view. It is declared that by knowing one, i.e., Brahma, everything will be known; and this will have a meaning, if the jiva also be made. Next, it is affirmed that before creation there was only one; and this being Brahma, the jiva could not then have existed. Lastly, there are the following texts which state that like ether the jiva also was made:

From whom the producer (prakriti) of the world was born, He created the jivas along with water (i.e., with the elements) and sent them to earth ($n\bar{a}r\bar{a}$., I-4); $Praj\bar{a}pati$ created $praj\bar{a}s$ (i.e., jivas); All these beings, my dear, have their root in Sat ($ch\bar{a}ndo$., VI-8-7). From whom these beings are born (brigu., I-1).

As the creation of the world is thus stated, the creation of the *jivas* included in the world follows.

Objection. How can this be. The jiva is stated to be Brahma; and Brahma is eternal. Hence, the jiva must be eternal.

Reply. Ether and the rest are said to be Brahma in the texts—All this is identical with that (Sat); All this indeed is Brahma. They also will become eternal in your views. This has been shown to be not the case.

Final decision. This is stated in the sūtra:

18. नात्मा श्रुतेर्नित्यत्वाच ताभ्य: ।

The ātmā is not produced; because such is the vedic statement; and because he is stated by them to be eternal also.

The statement is "The jiva, who is fit to become all-knowing, is not born, nor does he die" (katha., II-18); There are two unborn; they are respectively all-knowing and ignorant (sveta., I-9). His being eternal is also stated: "Him, who being eternal, intelligent, and one, gives what is desired to those that are eternal, intelligent and many (ātmas) (katha., V-13); He is unborn; undying; ever-existing and ancient; he is not killed, when the body is killed" (katha., II-18).

2. Objection. If the jiva be not produced, how is the declaration explained that by knowing Brahma, the cause, everything, which is a product, is known? Reply. Thus: The jiva also is a product; and the product and cause are not different.

Objection again. Then you admit that he is produced like ether and the rest. Reply. No; a thing becomes a product by a change of condition, and this

applies to the jiva as to other things. But there is this difference between him and ether. The latter changes its condition to such an extent, that it is regarded as another substance and receives a new name. The jiva is not subject to a change of this kind; his changes of condition being merely the expansion and contraction of his attribute jnāna.

This needs explanation. The upanishads teach the existence of three tatvas with natures different from one another—that which is an object of enjoyment, the enjoyer, and one that controls both. They deny in regard to the enjoyer origination similar to what occurs in objects of enjoyment, and affirm that he is eternal. They deny in regard to the controller origination of the kind found in objects of enjoyment, and being the seat of undesirable things as the enjoyer is. They describe the controller to be eternal, to be free from blemishes, to be ever all-knowing, to have an unfailing will, to be the lord of the lords of the senses (jivas), and to be the lord of all. They state also that in all conditions jivas and matter are His bodies, and that He is their atma. He therefore ever appears as jivas and material products. At one time these bodies of Brahma become so subtle that they cannot be spoken of as separate from Him. Brahma appearing in the forms of jivas and matter in this condition is in the causal condition. At another time the bodies of Brahma become gross; appear in diverse forms and receive diverse names. Brahma appearing in the forms of jivas and matter in this condition is in the evolved condition.

He changes from the former to the latter condition, the matter-element, which was without sound and other attributes, changes in its substance, and becomes possessed of sound and other attributes, in order that it may become objects of enjoyment. The jiva-element undergoes changes in its attribute jnāna, which expands in such a manner, that he may experience the fruits of karma. The controller-element also changes His condition, being now clothed in the other elements in this condition. This change from one condition to another is common to all the three elements.

4. The texts quoted in the first view and in para 1 of the final decision may now be reconciled. The statement that by knowing one thing all things will be known, and the examples which follow it, have reference to this change of condition of the three elements. The texts quoted in the first view refer to the jiva's coming into a body or departing from it, as the connection with a body makes his attribute jnana expand, and his severance from it makes it contract. Connection with a body is said to be birth, and separation from it is said to be death. The texts quoted in para 1 of the final decision refer to the absences in the iiva of changes in substance similar to those found in the matter-element. The texts regarding the controller refer to the absence of changes of both kinds in Him-"He, the great atma, is free from birth, old age and death: He is immortal: He is Brahma" (brihad., VI-4-25). The statement that before creation there was one

only refers to the absence of diverse names and forms. This is so stated: "This was then avyākritam (without diverse names and forms" (*Ibid.*, III-4-7). (1); (2).

5. The explanation on the last point agrees with that given by other commentators. Of them one states the jiva to be Brahma under the influence of $avidy\bar{a}$; in the view of another he is Brahma contacted by an

⁽¹⁾ In note (1) on page 571, it was stated that all things are eternal, and that a thing does not come newly into existence. Why is eternity again asserted of the jiva? Does it not follow from what has been stated? Reply. What is stated is true. The author of the $s\bar{u}tras$ wishes to repel the impression that like ether the jiva also changes and receives a new name. As possessing a body, the jiva is called a $br\bar{u}hmana$ or kshattriya; but in his own nature, no change takes place fit to be given a new name. He is always a knower, and sees himself (adhi., 225).

⁽²⁾ On this subject there are various theories as shown below: (i) The body itself is the jiva; then he is born; and had no previous existence. This view is untenable, as a baby, as soon as it is born, wishes to drink the mother's milk. How can this be, if it had no existence before. The dweller in the body regards it as 'mine,' as he does a house in which he dwells, and the feeling is not an illusion. On the other hand the confounding of the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ with the body is due to ignorance; (ii) The atma is other than the body; but he exists only as long as the body lives; (iii) The $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ is a succession of perceptions (dht $sant\bar{a}na$): (a) It is eternal according to one school of buddhists; (b) It remains up to dissolution and then perishes, according to another school; (iv) The $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ remains up to the attainment of release, according to the illusionist, and then it becomes Brahma; (v) The ātmā is a product of evolution, Sat assuming that form, as the sea becomes foam. All these views may be held to be refuted on the authority of vedic texts (adhi. 227, 228 and 229).

upādhi, that is real; and the last regards him as a product of sat, the latter appearing by evolution in three forms as enjoyers, objects of enjoyment and controller. Though at the time of cosmic rest avidyā, upādhi and sakti (capacity to appear in the three forms) exist, they yet explain the existence of one thing only as we do: for they admit on the authority of sūtras II-1-34 and 35 differences among jivas and the existence of the streams of their karmas without a beginning. There is this difference between them and ourselves. In the view of Brahma Himself is deluded; according to the second the upādhi being real, and having had no beginning, Brahma Himself is bound; for, there is nothing in this theory other than Brahma and upādhi. In the theory of the last Brahma Himself evolves into different forms; in the form of the jiva He experiences undesirable fruits of karma; and though in the form of the controller, He need have no experience, being allknowing, He must regard the jivas as not different from Himself and must therefore Himself experience the fruits of karma. We, on the other hand, recognise that Brahma is clothed in the jiva and matter elements. whether they be in the subtle or gross condition. He is therefore ever free from the touch of every imperfection. He has an unfailing will; and is the seat of endless, infinite, auspicious qualities. The changes in substance and the sufferings pertain to the elements, which form His bodies. Our theory is therefore perfect.

SUB-SECTION 4

Being on the subject, the author of the sūtras proceeds to examine the nature of the jiva. What is he— Is he mere jnāna (shining) in his svarūpa without the attribute jnāna as stated by the sānkhya and the saugata, or is he a jaḍa (not shining) like a piece of stone, and a knower, jnāna coming to him occasionally as stated by the vaiṣeshika; or is he ever a knower in his svarūpa?

First view: sānkhya's. He is mere chit (light); for so say vedic texts: The mādhyandina's text 'Who stands in ātmā' is read by the kānva thus—'Who stands in vijnāna'; 'vijnānam does yajna; and does karma also (āna., V-1). He is jnāna in his nature in reality; and is extremely pure (vishņu, I-2-6). These show that his nature is mere jnāna.

Vaiseshika's. If it be admitted that the jiva is by nature both light and a knower, as he is everywhere, he would be perceived everywhere and at all times. If he could see by nature, his senses would be purposeless. During sleep and trance, while the jiva exists, jnāna is not observed; and in the waking state, if the conditions are available, he is seen to know. Hence, his nature is not jnāna; nor is he knower by nature; for jnāna is an accident.

2. It must be admitted that he is present everywhere. An object to be enjoyed by a *jiva* is produced at a distant place; and this must be due to connection with his *adrishta*; and this connection would not be

possible, unless he were present at that place, as adrishta inheres in him. The jiva being thus omnipresent, his perception, and experiencing of pleasure and pain at all places may be explained by the going of his body to those places; and it is unnecessary to assume that the jiva himself goes from place to place. In this view two assumptions are necessary—that the jiva is atomic, and that he moves from place to place, while there would be one assumption only in the view that he is omnipresent. The latter view, being simpler, should be accepted in preference to the other.

3. The absence of jnāna during sleep is stated by vedic texts—"He (the sleeper) does not now know himself 'I am this' nor these beings" (chāndo., VIII-11-1). Similarly in final release "When he departs, there is no samjnā" (brihad., IV-4-12). Here the opponent uses the term samjnā as meaning knowledge, whereas it means confounding the ātmā with the body. The reference to jnāna in the vishņu purāņa text as pertaining to nature should be understood in a secondary sense; jnāna is a peculiar attribute of the jiva.

Final decision: This is stated in the sūtra:

19. ज्ञांडतएव ।

The $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ is a knower surely; because of the *vedic* statement (1).

⁽¹⁾ The $s\bar{u}tra$ has atah eva, which means for the very same. The intention is that the term sruteh occurring in the preceding $s\bar{u}tra$ should be added in this $s\bar{u}tra$. The texts relied on in both the $s\bar{u}tras$ being different, the

A knower,' but neither mere jnana nor jada (not shining). The vedic statements are:

Chando., (i) He, who perceives 'I smell this' is the ātmā; the nose is for smelling (VIII-12-4); (ii) He sees with the mind (the attribute $jn\bar{a}na$) these noble qualities, that are in Brahma-world and rejoices (1bid., verse 5): (iii) Who has unchanging objects of desire and whose will is never frustrated (Ibid., VIII-7-i); (iv) He does not think of this body lying by the side of (weeping) relations (Ibid., VIII-12-3); (v) One who sees (Brahma) does not see death (Ibid., VII-26-2); (vi) Who is the ātmā? The purusha, who is a knower, shining, and who abides within the heart in the midst of the senses, is the atma (brihad... VI-3-7); (vii) By what means, my dear, can he see the knower (*Ibid.*, IV-4-14); (viii) This purusha ever knows; (ix) He is indeed a seer, hearer, smeller, taster, thinker, knower, doer, a shining time, a purusha (prasna, IV-9); and (x) In the very same way these sixteen parts of this seer (Ibid., VI-5).

The vaiseshika's view that the jiva being omnipresent, if he were a knower, he should see everywhere, and always is replied to in the next sūtra:

20. उत्क्रान्तिगत्यागतीनाम्।

Because going out of the body, going and returning (are stated).

The *jiva* is not omnipresent; he is a mere atom. If he were omnipresent, the actions stated in the *sūtra* could not take place. Going out of the body is thus

reason assigned in that $s\bar{u}tra$ is not to be applied here. For a precedent as to this mode of application of a term see chap. I, section 2, $s\bar{u}tra$ 16 and the note thereunder.

stated (brihad., VI-4-2). "With that light this ātmā gets out through the eye, through the head, or through other places in the body." Going is thus stated (kaushi, I-9). "Those, that depart from this world, all of them go to the moon alone." Returning is thus stated (brihad., VI-4-6). "From that world he returns to this world to do actions."

21. स्वातः नाचीत्तरयोः ।

The last two actions (can be effected) by the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ alone.

It is possible to explain the going out of the body by stating it to be separation from the body of one that remains where he is. But the going and the returning cannot be so explained. The jiva himself must go and return (1).

22. नाणुरतच्छ्तेरिति चेनेतराधिकारात् ।

If it be contended, 'He is not an atom; because he is said to be great,' the reply is 'No; because the context refers to the other ' (Brahma).

A brihad āranyaka text (VI-3-7) begins with these words "The purusha who is a knower, shining and who abides within the heart in the midst of the senses". The reference here is clearly to the iiva. Towards the close these words occur "He (the Being described) is great,

⁽¹⁾ See the last two sentences of para 2 of the first view. Going being stated by the veda, the only assumption is that the jiva is an atom. Hence the simplicity claimed for the rival view disappears; and this is opposed to the veda.

unborn; He is $Atm\bar{a}$ " (Ibid., VI-4-22). The opponent regards this as referring to the jiva and contends that the term 'great' shows that he is not an atom. The $s\bar{u}tra$ states the contention and replies. The upanishad did begin with the jiva; but in the middle (VI-4-13) the subject was changed, and Brahma was brought in thus "Whose $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ is known in its true nature and is thought on continuously". The verse quoted refers therefore to Brahma, and the greatness is His greatness, not of the jiva.

23. खशब्दोन्मानाभ्यां च

From the use of the word anu and mention of dimension.

The word anu (atom) is expressly stated, "That $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ is anu, and should be perceived with a pure mind, the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ in whom $pr\bar{a}na$ remains in five forms" (munda., III-1-9). A thing as minute as an atom is taken, and its size is predicated of the jiva. "If the hundredth part of the end of a hair be divided into hundred parts, the jiva should be known as one such part (sveta., V-9). He is seen to be of smaller size; for he is of the size of the pointed end of a goad ($\bar{a}ra$)" (Ibid., V-8). Hence, the jiva is only an atom.

By these four *sūtras* the opponent's view that the *jiva* is omnipresent has been refuted. His objections are now answered in the next three *sūtras*: If the *jiva* be an atom, how can he perceive what goes on throughout the body?

24. अविरोधश्चन्द्रनवत् ।

There is no difficulty, on the analogy of sandal.

A drop of sandal oil placed on one place in the body produces a pleasurable sensation throughout. Similarly, the *jiva* abides in one part of the body, and perceives the sensations in every part of it.

25. अवस्थितिवैश्राच्यादिति चेन्नाभ्युपगमाद्धृदिहि ।

If it be contended 'There is a difference'. (The sandal oil being dropped on a definite part of the body and the *jiva* not being so), the reply is 'No'; It is admitted that the *jiva* abides in a definite part of the body. And that part is in the heart.

The jiva is stated to abide in the heart 'This ātmā is in the heart' (prasna., III-6); 'The purusha, who is a knower, shining, and who abides within the heart in the midst of the senses, is the ātmā' (brihad., VI-3-7). This analogy has been mentioned to show that the jiva abides in a particular part of the body. There need be no such limitation in regard to the sandal oil.

The author states his own theory:

26. गुणाद्वा लोकवत ।

But (the jiva perceives) with his attribute; like light.

The *jiva* with his attribute *jnāna* perceives what goes on throughout the body, as the light of a precious stone, the sun and the like, which are in one place, spreads all round. As the light is to a lamp, so is the

attribute $jn\bar{a}na$ to the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$. It may exist elsewhere than in the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ also (1).

The texts quoted by the sānkhya in the first view are next explained in four sūtras and those quoted by the vaiseshika in the fifth sūtra.

27. व्यतिरेको गन्धवत्तथा च द्र्शयति ।

Jnāna differs from the jiva, as smell differs from earth. And it is so stated.

In perceiving the smell of earth, it is known to be its attribute, and its difference from earth follows. Similarly, in the perception 'I know' jnāna is known as the attribute of the knower; and it therefore differs from him. The upanishad states this "This person is ever a knower." The emphatic particle eva (only) is added to the verb here, and conveys the idea that the person is never a non-knower; added to the person, it would mean that no other person is a knower.

28. पृथगुपदेशात्।

Because it is described as separate.

It is described as separate from the knower. "The *jnāna* of the knower does not perish" (*brihad.*, VI-3-30).

29. तद्गुणसारत्वात् तद्व्यपदेशः प्राज्ञवत् ।

But because $jn\bar{a}na$ is his essential attribute, he is known as $vijn\bar{a}na$. Like $pr\bar{a}jna$ (Brahma).

⁽¹⁾ By yoga the jiva may become capable of extending the attribute so as to reach a number of bodies.

Because bliss (ānanda) is the essential attribute of Brahma, He is denoted by that term. "If that unlimited ānanda does not exist (āna., vii-1); He perceived that ānanda was Brahma" (bhrigu., VI-1). Ananda (bliss) is His essential attribute. This is seen from the texts 'That is one ānanda of Brahma (āna., VIII-4); meditating on the ānanda of Brahma, one does not fear anything' (āna., IX-1).

Another instance—Brahma is called jnāna in 'Unchanging, shining (jnānam) and without limitations is Brahma' (āna., I-1). From the mundaka text "He knows everything" (I-1-10) and from the ānandavalli text "with Brahma, the all-knowing" jnāna is known to be His essential attribute.

30. यावदात्मभावित्वाच न दोषस्तद्दर्शनात्।

And because it remains his attribute so long as he remains, there is no objection. Similar usage is seen.

Jnāna is never absent from the jiva; hence in denoting him by the term vijnāna, there is no objection. Similarly, cows are denoted by the term 'go,' which term connotes an attribute, as this is never absent from them. The jiva is denoted by the term vijnāna for another reason; that is, because He shines (1).

⁽¹⁾ Shines—jnāna means what shows itself or other things, and makes them fit to be spoken about. Both the jiva and his attribute possess this character, the jiva showing himself, and his attribute showing other things. When the idea that this is done without any help is added, they are said to be svaprakāsa (self-proved).

This is indicated by the particle cha (and) in the $s\bar{u}tra$ (1).

What has been stated in $s\bar{u}tra$ 30 is objected to on the ground that $jn\bar{u}na$ is absent in deep sleep. The next $s\bar{u}tra$ explains:

31. पुंस्त्वादिवत्त्वस्य सतोऽभिव्यक्तियोगात्।

But it does exist, and becomes manifest (in the waking condition) like virile power.

Virile power exists in all males even in infancy; but it is not then manifested. This power depends upon the existence of one of seven elements, which always make up a body "The body is made up of seven $dh\bar{a}tus$ (element), has three impurities, comes from two sources, and is a modification of four kinds of food." Similarly $jn\bar{a}na$ exists at all times as an attribute of the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$; but in deep sleep outside objects are not perceived, and it is not therefore manifested then. The absence

^{(1) (}a) The illusionist states that the jiva is $jn\bar{u}na$ (shining), while the vaiseshika asserts that he is a knower, not by nature, but only when he contacts the mind. Both, being stated by the upanishads, are accepted impartially. Against the former it is held that he is a knower also; and against the latter that he knows always and by nature.

⁽b) If the jiva is self-proved, why does he not shine always? In reply we ask whether the opponent refers to distinct or indistinct shining. If he refers to the latter, he should know that he always shines indistinctly; if he refers to the former, it is true that he does not shine distinctly in sleep; because $jn\bar{a}na$ then contracts and does not grasp outside things.

of samjnā referred to by the vaiseshika does not mean the absence of consciousness, when the jiva becomes free. If this were correct, the text would conflict with the other texts quoted in the final decision under the first sūtra. It means that the jiva no longer confounds himself with the body, and no longer regards its birth and death as his own birth and death.

Having established his own theory, the author of the *sûtras* proceeds to criticise the rival view that the *jiva* is omnipresent:

32. नित्योपलब्ध्यनुपलब्ध्यप्रसङ्गोऽन्यतरनियमोवाऽन्यथा ।

Otherwise, there should be ever perception and ever non-perception; or one of them would ever happen to the exclusion of the other.

'Otherwise'—if the jiva were omnipresent. This is what is observed in the world: The ātmā is perceived within the body, and not outside. The cause of this perception and non-perception is the ātmā himself. Three alternatives are possible. First, if the ātmā were the cause of both, being omnipresent, he must be perceived and not perceived at all places and at all times. Secondly, if he were the cause of perception only, for the same reason his non-perception outside the body, which is a fact, would not happen at any time. Lastly, if he were the cause of non-perception only, his perception within the body, which also is a fact, should not occur at any time. It will not be possible to the opponent to state 'It is the nature of the ātmā to be

perceived within the body, and to be unperceived outside of it; for one and the same object cannot be perceptible in one part and imperceptible in another part. This expedient is available to us who do not hold the atmā to be omnipresent.

So far as to the $s\bar{a}nkhya$. Now to the vaiṣeshika, according to whom the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ is jada, and sees only when he contacts the mind. Being omnipresent, he is in contact with every mind and with every body and at all times; and no adrishta can be shown to limit the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ to one mind and one body (1).

SUB-SECTION 5

In this sub-section it is considered whether the *jiva* is a doer, or whether he remains without action as stated by the $s\bar{a}nkhya$, and yet fancies that he acts, while the actors are really his body, his senses or the *gunas* of the body.

First view. The jiva is not a doer; for doership is denied in the following text, as birth, death and all other

⁽¹⁾ Pursuing the same plan, it may be asked whether the mind and body are the cause of perception only, or of non-perception only or of both. In the first alternative, the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ must see everywhere; and his not seeing, where his body is not present, which is a fact, will not happen. In the second alternative, he cannot see anywhere at any time, and his seeing, where his body is present, which also is a fact, will not happen. In the last alternative, he must see and not see at the same time, which is absurd.

attributes of matter are denied: "If the killer thinks 'I will kill him' and if the killed thinks 'I am killed,' neither of them knows. This one does not kill; nor is that one killed" (katha., II-19). Similarly, the bhagavad-qitā states "In regard to actions done by the gunas of the body, each in its own way, one, that has forgotten himself by confounding himself with the body, thinks 'I am the doer' (III-27). When the seer does not perceive a doer other than gunas (Ibid., XIV-19): The body is said to be concerned, when the body or the senses act; the purusha is said to be concerned, when pleasure and pain are experienced" (Ibid., XIII-20). These verses show that the jiva in his nature is not a doer; that the notion that he does is illusion; that he has merely to enjoy; and that action pertains to matter in the form of his body.

Final decision. This is stated in the sūtra:

33. कर्ता शास्त्रार्थवत्त्वात्।

(The *jiva*) is a doer, in order that the commands and prohibitions of the *veda* may serve a purpose.

The jiva alone is the doer; not the gunas. The commands are like these: "Let one that desires svarga, do yāya. Let one, that desires release, meditate on Brahma." They are addressed to one, that desires to enjoy either fruit, and that will experience it eventually, and direct him to adopt the means pointed out. If the gunas were the doers, how could another be commanded? The object of commands is to induce one to act; and this is done by creating an impression on his

mind. Matter and its modifications, being unintelligent, cannot be moved in this manner. Hence, the commands will serve their purpose, only when the intelligent *jiva*, who will enjoy the fruits of action, is the doer. This is stated "The fruit of obeying a command is reaped by one that sets things in motion".

The texts quoted in the first view do not support it. The first text states that the atma being eternal can never be killed, and that therefore the impression of both the killer and the killed is erroneous. In the second text it is stated that in actions of worldly men the doership of the jiva is brought about by his connection with his gunas, and that it is not caused by his nature. The verse thus discriminates between what happens and what does not happen, and assigns doership only to the gunas. It is so stated in the very same work. "Attachment to the gunas and their effects causes his birth again in good or evil wombs" (Ibid., XIII-21). See also the following verses: 'The body, the atma, the five organs of action, prana and Isvara, the fifth, in the list of causes. Whatever work of body, tongue or mind, good or evil, a mortal begins, these five are its causes. This being so, whosoever for lack of knowledge sees himself as the sole cause, does not see correctly' (Ibid., XVIII-14, 15 and 16). Here the doership of the ātmā is taken as a fact; and it is stated that while action depends on five things beginning with the body and ending with *Isvara*, one, that thinks that he alone is the doer, does not see correctly.

34. उपादानादिहारोपदेशाच ।

Because of using the senses and of the statement of his amusing oneself.

A brihad āranyaka text (IV-1-18) cites the analogy of a great king, and states "In the very same way he takes hold of these senses, and moves about in his own body according to his pleasure." This shows that the jiva acts in these two ways—moving the senses, and moving in the body.

35. व्यपदेशाचिकियायां न चेनिर्देशविपर्ययः।

And because he is said to be agent in action. If not, the term would be in a different form.

In the ānandavalli text "vijnāna (the knower) performs yajnas (offerings) and does worldly acts also" (V-1) the jiva is said to be the doer. Objection. By the term vijnāna mind or buddhi is meant, and not the jiva. Reply. Then the form of the term would be vijnānena (instrumental, instead of the nominative, case), as mind is an instrument.

सन्यापेच जयन

Having established his position in these three $s\bar{u}tras$, the author proceeds in the next three $s\bar{u}tras$ to show some absurdities in the *first view*:

36. उपलब्धिवदनियम: ।

No limitation of enjoyment; as in regard to perception.

In sūtra 32 of this section certain absurdities were pointed out in the theory of the jiva's being omnipresent.

Similarly, if matter were the doer, not the *jiva*, as matter is common to all jivas, all actions must bring enjoyment to all; or to no one. The jiva being assumed to be omnipresent, proximity to matter is common to all; and for the same reason any attempt to limit enjoyment with reference to the mind will be futile; because each mind will be in contact with all.

37. शक्तिविपयेयात ।

Because the capacity for enjoyment would disappear.

If matter were the doer, as one other than the doer cannot enjoy the fruit of the action, matter alone would have the capacity to enjoy. The jiva's capacity for it would disappear, and with it the evidence for the existence of the jiva himself, the opponent's position being that he exists, because he is the enjoyer.

38. समाध्यभावाच ।

And because samādhi (meditation) will be impossible.

Meditation enjoined as the means to release would fall to matter; and as the meditation is in this form "I am other than matter," matter cannot do meditation of this kind.

The opponent asks—if the jiva is the doer, will he not always act and never cease? The last sūtra replies:

39. यथाच तक्षोभयथा ।

And in both the ways, like a carpenter.

Though the *jiva* commands all the organs of action, he will act or refrain from action as he pleases, as a carpenter does, though he has all his instruments. If matter were the doer, being non-intelligent, it must always act; for there will be nothing to restrain it like absence of desire for enjoyment.

SUB-SECTION 6

In this sub-section the question is considered whether the *jiva's* doership depends upon *Brahma* or is independent of Him.

First view. It is independent of Brahma; otherwise commands and prohibitions would be purposeless; for he, who is competent of his own will to act or not to act, should be commanded.

Final decision. This is stated in the sūtra:

40. परात्तु तच्छूते: ।

That (the jiva's doership) comes from Brahma alone; because it is so stated.

The statement is: सन्यमेन जयने

He has entered into men and controls them; He is the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ of all $(yajur, \bar{a}ranyaka, III-11-10)$; Who stands in the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$, who is within the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$, whom the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ does not know, whose body the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ is, who rules the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ from within, He, the inner ruler, is your immortal $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ (brihad., V-7-26); I am seated in the heart of every one; from Me flow remembrance, knowledge, as well as inability to see (bhagavad-gita, XV-15); The ruler of all has mounted all beings on the wheel of the body, and living in their hearts. He makes them go round and round with the help of attractive sense objects (Ibid., XVIII-61).

If this be so, the commands and prohibitions of the *veda* will become purposeless. The next *sūtra* explains:

41. कृतप्रयत्नापेक्षस्तु विहितप्रतिषिद्धावैयध्धादिभ्यः।

But Brahma awaits the effort made by the jiva; in order that injunctions and prohibitions may not become purposeless.

In every action *Brahma*, the inner ruler, looks for the effort made by the *jiva* and giving His assent, makes him do it. For, without this assent, the *jiva* can do nothing (1).

Question. Why does Brahma look for the jiva's effort? The reply is given in the sūtra itself. When property is jointly owned by two persons, one of them cannot give away his share to a third person without

⁽¹⁾ The control of the jiva's doership by the highest Atmū should be examined at some length. A father divides some property between two sons, and leaves them free to utilise their portions as they please. One of them quickly squanders it, while the other improves it; and each reaps the fruit of the use made by himself and he alone. Similarly, the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ gives to all jivas alike instruments in the form of body, mind and senses, and the capacity to think and act; and for this reason their doership in general depends on the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$. Their doership in regard to individual acts also depends on Him; for they need his assent. In making the choice, however, they possess freedom and become subject to injunctions and prohibitions; and freedom means that when they have the capacity to act in accordance with their wishes, no one prevents them. Though they depend upon the highest Atma as explained. they alone reap the fruit of their choice; and this has been shown by an example. The assentor is not touched by the fruits, as He is the ruler, and as the same authority. by which He is known, states that He is so.

the other's consent; and as he procures the consent, its fruit belongs to himself. Similarly, here though both the *jiva* and *Brahma* must join in the act—one by making the effort and the other by giving assent—yet the fruit of the action is reaped by the former alone. In regard to the effort to do an injurious act, the giving of assent by one able to prevent it does not indicate want of mercy (1). See under $s\bar{u}tra$ (II-2-3).

2. The opponent observes "You say that *Brahma* awaits the *jiva's* effort. But the following *kaushītaki* text contradicts this statement.

For it is He alone that makes one do a good deed, whom he wishes to lead up from these worlds; it is He alone that makes one do an evil deed, whom He wishes to lead downwards (II-64 and 65).

This text means that Brahma of His own motion desires to lead one to do a good or evil deed. Reply. This does not apply to all persons. If one be exceedingly loyal, Brahma creates a liking in him for very good actions, which will eventually lead to His being reached. If he be exceedingly disloyal, he creates a liking in him for actions that are the reverse. These are therefore exceptional cases. Bhagavān states this Himself:

⁽¹⁾ When one chooses to do something injurious to himself, does it indicate the possession of mercy in one who, though able to prevent it, gives His assent? Reply. It is giving him the fruit of his choice; and mercy is shown by the excuse of serious misdeeds on the appearance of obedience even to a small extent.

I am the place from which every thing goes forth; and everything acts as directed by me. Knowing Me in this manner, wise men are filled with love and medidate on me. To those that wish ever to be with Me and medidate on Me I give with love that buddhi with which they will reach Me. To favour them I remain as the subject of their thought, and with the bright lamp of knowledge, I destroy the darkness born of past karma (bhagavad-gitā, X-8, 10 and 11).

As regards those that are disloyal, He observes:

They state that the universe was not made by Brahma; that it does not rest on Him; and that it is not controlled by Him (Ibid., XVI-8). They hate Me, who abide in their bodies and in the bodies of others; and not willing to put up with My existence, they urge false arguments to show that I do not exist (Ibid., 18).

Having thus described them, He states:

I ever throw into the wombs of persons of asura nature those that hate me, those that put forward specious arguments to show that I do not exist, those that knowing Me do not yet approach Me, and those that do not know that I exist (*Ibid.*, 19) (1).

⁽¹⁾ Question. Does not the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ give the jiva a body of a particular kind and place him in an environment suited to his past karma. Does he not bind the jiva by this means. Reply. (i) The highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ shows no particular desire in the matter. Having an eye to the existing karma of the jiva, he wishes to make him experience pleasure or pain, and makes objects of enjoyment appear before him; but this is not done from any intention of making him do any new karma to procure some other fruit. A person lights a lamp, so that another may see a jar; if a third person also sees the jar, the first must be said to have been indifferent as regards this third person; for he neither makes him see or prevents him. Similarly,

Sub-section 7

In this sub-section the question is considered whether the jiva completely differs from Brahma, whether he is Brahma deluded, or limited by upādhi (real limiting substances), or whether he is a part of Him. The doubt arises as statements made by upanishads vary: Question. This question was discussed and settled in chapter II, section 1, sub-section 7. Why is

the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ is indifferent, while the choice is made; and it is this that constitutes the jiva's freedom.

- (ii) The highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ acts like a king, who gives his minister the necessary means, and leaves him free to act, and who himself does nothing. Freedom is not incompatible with subjection to another; for this incompatibility is not observed in the case of the minister.
- (iii) The jiva is no doubt subject to previous tendencies, and is led by the desire which they produce; but he is not driven like wind or water. The springing up of a desire does not destroy his capacity to act. A person has a desire for the food placed before him; if he knows it to be mixed with poison, he is seen to overcome the desire to take it. Another going to gather fuel, when he learns how a great treasure may be got, gives up his task. Similarly, when the jiva becomes aware of the sin which he will commit, or of some great fruit which he may get, he can control his desire and is therefore free. Like a tendency leading him to do what is pleasant, there are tendencies that will make him avoid what is unpleasant. He is therefore capable of suppressing a desire to abstain from doing what is enjoined or to do what is prohibited; and if he disregards the evil consequences and does not suppress it, this will constitute his wrong-doing; and he becomes liable to punishment. It is because beasts are unable to see the consequences of obeying or disobeying the commands of the veda, they are not subject to it.

a new sub-section needed. Reply. True; the conculsion therein arrived at, being impugned with reference to conflicting texts, is re-affirmed here by showing that the jiva is a part of Brahma. Until this is shown, the facts that the jiva is not different from Brahma and that Brahma is other than he will not rest on firm ground.

First view. (i) The jiva completely differs from Brahma; for the text 'Two are unborn; they are respectively all-knowing and ignorant, ruler and the ruled' (sveta., I-9), shows them to be different. The texts affirming oneness of two beings so entirely different should be understood in a secondary sense; for understanding them literally would be as absurd as to say that one wets with fire.

- 2. (i) Here an objection is raised: The *jiva* is a part (am
 otin a) of Brahma; for so is it stated. Reply. This is not a correct view. The term am
 otin a means a part of a substance. If the jiva were a part of Brahma, his imperfections would redound on Brahma; and He is not divisible; if he were, a bit of Him might be said to be the jiva.
- 3. (ii) The jiva is Brahma Himself deluded; for the texts "That thou art (chāndo., VI-8-7); This atmā is Brahma (bṛihad., VI-4-5) state the jiva to be Brahma. Texts affirming difference repeat what is known from sense perception, and are nullified by the texts quoted. These are not anyathā-siddha, i.e., they cannot be explained away; while the former texts are anyathā-siddha, i.e., they may be explained as affected by avidyā, as sense perception is.

4. (iii) The *jiva* is *Brahma* Himself limited by beginningless *upādhis*; for the same reason, *viz.*, that the *jiva* is stated to be *Brahma*. The *upādhis* cannot be regarded as due to delusion; for bondage and release cannot be explained in that view.

Final decision. This is stated in the sūtra:

42. अंशो नानाव्यवदेशादन्यथा चापि दाशिकतवादित्वमधीयत एके।

A part (of Brahma); because he is said to be different and also one. Some read "Brahma is fishermen, cheats and the like".

Both sets of statements are found—that the jiva is different from Brahma, and that he is Brahma. The former set of statements distinguishes them thus: One creates, and the other is created; one controls and the other is controlled; one is all-knowing, and the other is ignorant; one is independent and the other is dependent; one is pure and the other is impure; one is the seat of all good qualities and the other is the reverse; one is master and the other is servant; and the like. The statement of oneness is made by the texts quoted in para 3 of the first view. The followers of the atharva veda describe Brahma thus "Brahma is these fishermen; Brahma is these slaves; Brahma is these cheats". Here oneness is stated, as Brahma is all these (1).

⁽¹⁾ It is usual to identify a person with some one who is superior to him; 'He is Vishnu.' Here the reverse is the case. It cannot be explained as implying praise. Hence, the oneness stated must be accepted as a fact.

Now, in order that both the sets of texts may have their primary meanings, it must be admitted that the *jiva* is an *amṣa* (part) of *Brahma*.

- 2. The argument in para 3 of the first view is not sound. The facts stated in the difference-texts are beyond the cognition of sense-perception and are not repeated: viz., that the jiva is created, and controlled by Brahma; that he forms His body; that he exists for His sake; that he is supported by Him; that he is protected by Him; that he is destroyed by Him; that he medidates on Him; and that he attains what he desires, including release, through His grace. The difference between the jiva and Brahma indicated by these facts must be accepted as real. They cannot be explained away as the opponent suggests.
- 3. The opponent explains: The texts referred to convey this teaching—viz., though Brahma is by nature one, and is mere chit, yet He regards himself as being different. He wills to become many and creates ether and the other elements; He enters into them in the jiva-condition; He makes various beings appear with diverse names and forms; He reaps the pleasure and pain yielded by the enjoyment of numberless objects thus made; He remains in them without enjoyment and controls them as their inner ruler; being in the jiva-condition He meditates that He and Brahma in the casual condition are one; He is released from samsāra; and He makes the veda, which teaches the way to such release; He thus deludes himself. Reply. If this were

a correct view, the texts would resemble the ravings of a lunatic.

4. The view in para 4 of the *first view* also is unsound; for the relation between the *jiva* and *Brahma* stated in para 2 above would be meaningless; and this is a sufficient reason. The opponent, explanation will be as absurd as to say that the same person, that has one foot in a house and the other outside it, becomes the controlled in regard to the foot in the house, while he remains the controller in regard to the other foot.

43. मन्त्रवर्णात् ।

Because it is stated in the mantra.

The mantra runs thus:

A part $(p\bar{u}da)$ of Him is all beings $(purusha\ s\bar{u}kta)$. The plural is used because the jivas are many. The singular amṣa in $s\bar{u}tra$ 42 and the singular in $s\bar{u}tra$ 18 have reference to the class. The authority for this is $svet\bar{a}svatara$ (VI-13).

Him, who being eternal, intelligent, and one, gives what is desired by those that are eternal, intelligent and many.

This shows that *Brahma* is different from the *jivas*, and that they are many and eternal. This being so, though the *jivas* are alike in their nature, as being intelligent and shining beings, their difference from one another is perceived by those able to see them as they are.

44. अपि स्मर्यते ।

It is also taught in the smriti.

Thus--

one remaining a part (am sa) of myself, under the influence of beginningless $avidy\bar{a}$ becomes a jiva in the world of the jivas $(bhagavad-git\bar{a}, XV-7)$.

If the *jiva* be a part of *Brahma*, the imperfections of the *jiva* will redound on *Brahma*. This view is refuted:

45. प्रकाशादिवतु नैवं परः।

Like light and the like; the highest is not so.

The jiva is a part of Brahma, as light is part of a luminous substance like fire or the sun. Other instances are the following: The characteristic form of a cow or a horse, the white or dark colour of objects and the bodies of jivas in their embodied condition. The inseparable distinguishing attributes in these cases are the parts respectively of the animal, the object or the jivas. The term amsa means a part of a thing; when that thing has certain distinguishing attributes, which cannot ordinarily be separated from it, they form its parts. So do competent men distinguish the parts, which are attributes, and the part to which they pertain. two things are thus related, their natures differ. remarks apply to the jiva also. He is a part of Brahma in the sense of being an attribute of Him, and his nature differs from His nature. This is what is meant by the latter half of the sūtra. As the light differs from the luminous substance, so does the jiva differ from The texts stating difference refer to this Brahma.

difference in their natures; while the other set of texts expressing oneness has regard to the jivas being inseparable attributes of Brahma. In the texts 'That thou art; This $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ is Brahma' the words 'thou,' and 'this $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ ' denote Brahma with jivas as His bodies; the words 'that' and 'brahma' denote Him directly; thus the two sets of words denote the same thing.

46. स्मरन्ति च ।

And the smriti-writers have confirmed this.

Reference is made to *Parāṣara* and others. They have confirmed this mode of reconciling the difference between the two sets of texts, and have assimilated the relation of the *jiva* to *Brahma* to the relation of light to a luminous body, to the relation of attribute to a substance, and to the relation of the body to the *jiva*.

As the light of a fire standing in one place spreads all around, so the sakti (jivas) of the highest Brahma pervades all this world (vishnu, I-22-56): All that is the body of Hari for the coming into existence of whatever is created by all living beings (Ibid., 38).

The term 'and' (cha) in the sūtra shows that vedic texts also like 'whose body the ātmā is' (brihad., V-7-26) refer to this.

It may be asked—If all jivas are parts of Brahma, seeing that they are all alike in being jnāna (intelligent and shining beings) and in being controlled by the same ruler, why are they not given the same treatment? But only some are permitted to learn the veda and carry out

its teaching, but not others. Only some may be seen or touched; but not others. The next sūtra explains:

47. अनुज्ञापरिहारौ देहसम्बन्धाज्योतिरादिवत् ।

Permission and prohibition are due to connection with a body. Like fire and the like.

Fire is of the same kind, whether it be procured from the house of one learned in the *veda* or from the cremation ground; but the former is preferred, and the latter is avoided. Similarly, food given by one of *vedic* lore is permitted, but not that of a sinful one. Similarly here.

In the last five *sūtras* the author shows how his own explanation is free from any objection and how the others are faulty:

48. असन्ततेश्चाव्यतिकरः ।

No mixing up (of enjoyments); because the jivas are not all-pervading.

Though the jivas are of the same kind, as being amṣas of Brahma and for other reasons, they differ from one another; and being atoms in size, the jiva in one body is other than the jivas in other bodies. Hence the enjoyment of one is not mixed up with the enjoyments of others. On the theories of others the enjoyments of the jiva and of Brahma or of the jivas among themselves must be mixed up. To show this defect, the author of the sūtras states that his own theory is free from it.

49. आभास एव च ।

And it is a specious argument and no more.

The argument, by which the non-mixing up of enjoyments is sought to be explained on the theory that the jiva is Brahma deluded, is an argument only in appearance. Brahma being light, indivisible, and of the same nature throughout, it must be shown first how this self-proved light is prevented from appearing, and then how limitations differing from one another are made by avidyā. This attempt fails. Brahma, though limited by many avidyā-made limitations, being Himself one, the mixing up of enjoyments cannot be avoided. The term 'and' (cha) in the sūtra draws attention to the conflict with vedic texts (1).

In the other theory that the jiva is Brahma limited by real limiting things, it is explained that the limiting things differ because of an adrishta in each, which has had no beginning. The next sūtra deals with this explanation:

50. अदृष्टानियमात् ।

Because the adrishtas are not differentiated.

The adrishtas themselves inhere in the substance (svarūpa) of Brahma, and there is nothing to differentiate them. The difficulty therefore remains; because it is not possible for the limiting things or the adrishtas to cut up the substance of Brahma by their connection with it.

⁽¹⁾ The texts are—meditating on the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ and the ruler as different; both are unborn; but they are respectively all-knowing and ignorant (sveta., I-9); Of them one eats the ripe fruit (munda, III-1-1).

51. अभिसन्ध्यादिष्वपि चैवम् ।

And in regard to willing also there is similar non-differentiation.

If the *adrishtas* be differentiated with reference to willing, the willing being that of *Brahma*, and He being one, non-differentiation cannot be got over.

52. प्रदेशभेदादिति चेन्नान्तर्भावात्।

If it be said "owing to differences of places," the reply is "no; because all places are contacted by limiting things".

The opponent explains: The substance of Brahma is one indeed; and cannot be cut up; and it contacts various limiting things; yet the places of contact being different, there is differentiation in enjoyments. Reply. The limiting things may move about from place to place; and all places will be connected with all of them. The result will be the same. Though the limiting things are connected with different places, as they are all places in Brahma, the suffering of each place belongs to Brahma alone.

In sūtras 32 and 36 the defect in the theory of the jiva's omnipresence held by those outside the vedic fold was pointed out; here sūtras 49 to 52 expose the error of those that accepting the authority of the veda maintain that all jivas are one.

भगवते भाष्यकाराय महादेशिकाय नमः ।

भगवते भाष्यकाराय महादेशिकाय "य:

CHAPTER II

SECTION 4

In the preceding section the evolution from the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ of ether and all other products was established; and it was shown that the jiva, though a product of evolution like the rest, did not change in his substance like ether. In this connection the $svar\bar{u}pa$ of the jiva was considered; and it was shown that he knows and acts, and that he is a part (amsa) of Brahma. In this section the evolution of his instruments, the senses and prana, is considered.

SUB-SECTION 1

The question for consideration is whether the senses are evolved like the *jiva* or like ether.

First view: The senses evolve like the jiva; the sūtra states this:

1. तथा प्राणाः ।

Similarly pranas.

The term $pr\bar{a}na$ in the plural refers to the senses; and the $s\bar{u}tra$ states the view of the opponent that like the jiva the senses are not produced. What is the reason? As the non-origination of the jiva is known from the veda, so is the non-origination of the senses learnt from the same authority (1). The authority is the satapatha (VI-1-1).

Before creation this was asat indeed. Then they said "What existed then." "Before creation rishis ever existed indeed." They asked—"Who were those rishis." "Prānas were the rishis."

This shows that the senses existed before creation. This text cannot be explained so as to mean that they existed for a long time; like the texts relating to ether and air—'The fluid is air and ether (antariksha)—this is imperishable' (brihad., IV-3-3)"; the devatā vāyu (air) does not set"; for they are stated to have existed, when the whole world was dissolved. The texts affirming origination of the senses should be explained, like similar texts regarding the jiva:

Final decision. The senses are produced like ether; for in the texts "Before creation, my dear, this was sat only (chāndo., VI-2-1); Before creation this was Atmā indeed; one only "(aita., I-1), it is stated that there was only one before creation. In the mundaka text "From Him came forth prāna, mind and all the senses" (II-1-3) their origination is taught; and they

⁽¹⁾ The authority for holding the view that there is no origination, mentioned in $s\bar{u}tra$ 18 of the preceding section, is applied to the case of the senses by this $s\bar{u}tra$.

could not have existed before. The case of the senses differs from that of the jiva; for there are no texts as in his case denying origination and affirming eternal existence. In the text relied on in the first view reference is made by the term $pr\bar{a}na$ to the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ alone, and the term $pr\bar{a}na$ denotes Him by well-established usage (See $s\bar{u}tra$, I-1-24). The term rishi (seer) is appropriate only in the all-knowing Being, and not in the non-intelligent senses, which are not seers, but only instruments in perception (1).

2. गौण्यसम्भवात्तत्प्राक्छते: ।

(The plural of the term $pr\bar{a}nas$) is secondary; because of impossibility; this again because He is stated to have existed before.

Because it is stated that there was one only before evolution, the existence of many was impossible, and the plural ending should be ignored (2) (See Intro., para 34). And that one is known to be *Brahma*.

3. तत्पूर्वेकत्वाद्वाचः । संस्थापन् जयन

Because words must be preceded by the objects which they denote.

⁽¹⁾ There is no $s\bar{u}tra$ here stating the final decision as in other cases. The reasons stated follow from the nature of things, and were intended by the author of the $s\bar{u}tras$. They are not stated in the next $s\bar{u}tra$; for it is concerned only with the explanation of the plural ending of the world $pr\bar{u}nas$.

⁽²⁾ See Introduction, para 34. In the word $p\bar{a}s\bar{a}n$ the plural ending being unsuitable is ignored; and the mantra, in which the word occurs, is recited without change.

Before evolution commenced, there was no differentiation, and there was no object with a form and a name (brihad., III-4-7). Hence speech and other senses did not then exist, as they had no work to do. The word prāṇa should denote the only thing that did exist, viz., Brahma.

SUB-SECTION 2

How many are the senses? The doubt arises from different statements in the *veda*. The opponent states his view:

4. मप्तगतेर्विशेषितत्वाच ।

They are seven; because that number is said to go about, and because seven are specified.

Seven senses only are said to go about in the worlds with the jiva, when he comes to birth, or when he departs.

From Him come forth these seven worlds, in which wander the $pr\bar{u}nas$, that are placed seven and seven (in the various parts of the body) and that during sleep come to the cavity of the heart (munda., II-1-8).

The word 'seven' is repeated to indicate that each person has seven senses. Seven senses are also specified.

When the five senses $(jn\bar{a}na)$ remain still with the mind, and buddhi does not work, that condition is said to be the highest going (katha., II-6-10).

The going towards release on the abandonm ent of motions within the body is described in the verse as the 'highest going'. From these texts and the mention of the term $jn\bar{a}na$ in the second text, it may be concluded that the jiva's instruments are seven—ear, skin, eye, tongue, nose, (1) buddhi and mind, and only seven.

2. Objection. Reference is made to others as being instrumental in the perception of objects thus—"Eight are the grahas (instruments of perception) (brihad., V-2-9); The prāṇas located in the head are seven; two are below." And in other texts describing prāṇa as many as fourteen are stated, including with those already stated the following—speech, hands, feet, excretory organs, sex organ, ahamkāra and chitta. How can it be said that the number is only seven? Reply. They are not stated to go about with the jiva. Owing to the very slight service which they render to him, they are termed prāṇa in a secondary sense.

Final decision. This is stated in the next sūtra:

5. हस्तादयस्तु स्थितेऽतोनैवम् ।

But there are hands and other (organs of action), which are needed while he is in the body. Therefore not so.

These organs are required by the jiva as his instruments for enjoyment, and their functions differ from those of the senses. The work, which they do, like taking up a thing and the like, is seen like the work done by the senses of perception. They also exist and should not be regarded as non-existing. Hence, the

⁽¹⁾ The first five words refer to the senses, which are located in the organs of the body mentioned.

number is eleven. The mind thinks, resolves and attaches itself to something and receives the names. chitta, buddhi and ahamkāra; but the mind is one. In thinking the mind is helped by previous tendencies; in resolving by the element mahat; and in forming attachments by the element ahamkāra. Adding the five senses and the five organs of action the number is eleven (1). When a higher number is stated, reference is made to the different functions of the mind; and when a lower number is stated, reference is made to the particular functions then under consideration (2).

SUB-SECTION S

अणवश्च ।

They are atoms.

First view. The senses are all-pervading; for it is said "All those are alike; all are unlimited" (brihad., III-5-13).

सन्यमव जयन

⁽¹⁾ This number is stated; These $pr\bar{u}nas$ in the jiva are ten; $\bar{u}tm\bar{u}$ (mind) is the eleventh (brihad., V-9-4). The senses are ten and one; those that are perceived by the senses are five (bhagavad- $git\bar{u}$, XIII-5). Some say that the senses come forth from $r\bar{u}jasa$ ahamk $\bar{u}ra$; but they come forth from the $s\bar{u}tvika$ ahamk $\bar{u}ra$; they are ten and the eleventh is mind (vishyu, I-2-49).

⁽²⁾ All the eleven agree in being products of the finest variety of $ahamk\bar{u}ra$. The mind is singled out as being the leading sense among them. The sensory organs are distinguished from the motor organs, because each set has its own functions.

Final decision. The senses are atoms.

It is stated "When $pr\bar{a}na$ follows the jiva out of the body, all the pranas follow it and get out of the body" (brihad., VI-4-2). From this mention of going out of the body, it is clear that the senses are of limited dimension. When they go out, they are not seen by by-standers. Hence they are subtle (1). The text quoted in the first view refers to meditation on the senses as possessing the capacity to do very many things.

7. श्रेष्ठश्च ।

And the principal prana (is produced).

In the colloquy of the prānas prāna, the vital principle, is decided to be the principal, as it helps the continued existence of the body. This prana also originates. Because the existence of one thing only before evolution is affirmed; because in the text "From Him came forth prana, mind, and all the senses" (munda., II-1-3) it is said to have evolved like the elements; and because there is no text denying its origination. It may be thought that the text "That one with svadhā (the goddess Lakshmi) breathed, but without air "refers to breathing, the function of prana; but it is not so.

⁽¹⁾ Though they are of limited size, they can in the absence of obstruction grasp numberless things, as the light of a lamp does. The term 'atom' as applied to the senses, means that they are of limited dimension, but that they are not sufficiently gross to be capable of being perceived. They are not like the jiva of the smallest size possible; this is accepted having regard to a particular text.

Reference is made, not to the *jiva's* instrument *prāṇa*, but to *Brahma*; for the text itself states 'without air'.

The fact stated in the $s\bar{u}tra$ follows from the preceding $s\bar{u}tras$ and for the reasons given therein. This $s\bar{u}tra$ has, however, been added merely for the purpose of the next $s\bar{u}tra$.

SUB-SECTION 4

The question for consideration is whether $pr\bar{a}na$ is mere air, the second of the great elements, or its movement, or air alone modified in a particular way.

First view. It is air alone; for it is stated "which is $pr\bar{a}na$, that is air". Or as air in itself is not well-known to be $pr\bar{a}na$, and as it is well-known to denote breathing, it is its movement.

Final decision. This is stated in the sūtra:

8. न वायुक्तिये पृथगुपदेशात् ।

It is not air; nor its movement; because it is separately mentioned.

The statement is made in the mundaka text quoted under the preceding $s\bar{u}tra$. For the same reason—i.e., its separate mention— $pr\bar{a}na$ is not the movement of air. For the actions of fire, water and other elements are not mentioned in the text along with them as separate substances. The text quoted in the $first\ view$ means that air by a change of condition becomes $pr\bar{a}na$; but that it is not a new substance like fire and the rest. The purpose of the text is to show this fact. That

prāņa is not movement of air is also clear from usage. Referring to breathing, it is said prāṇa moves about. In other words the word is used as denoting a substance, which moves about.

9. वक्षुरादिवत्तु तत्सहिशाध्यादिभ्यः।

Like sight and other senses; because it is taught along with them and for other reasons.

It is not an element like fire; but it is an instrument of the jiva like sight and the others; for in the colloquy of the $pr\bar{a}nas$ it is mentioned along with the sense of seeing and others, which are admittedly the jiva's instruments; and it will be appropriate to do so, only if it is of the same class as they. It is also specially mentioned as one among the jiva's instruments covered by the term $pr\bar{a}na$ thus "That which is the principal $pr\bar{a}na$ " ($ch\bar{a}ndo$., I-2-7).

If prana be an instrument of the jiva like sight and the rest, it must render some service, as they do; but this is not seen. Hence it is not fit to be treated like them. To this objection the next sūtra replies:

10. अकरणत्वाच न दोषस्तथा हि दश्यति ।

The difficulty, that may be imagined on the assumption that it does not serve the jiva, does not exist; for such service is stated.

The service is the supporting of the body and the senses; and it is thus stated

On the departure of which this body is seen to be most despicable, that alone is the best $(ch\bar{a}ndo., V-1-7)$.

Having made this statement, the *upanishad* explains how on the successive departure of speech and the other senses the body and the other senses functioned as before; and how when $pr\bar{a}na$ began to depart, all the rest were threatened with extinction. $Pr\bar{a}na$ supports the body in five forms as $pr\bar{a}na$, $ap\bar{a}na$, $vy\bar{a}na$, $ud\bar{a}na$ and $sam\bar{a}na$, and serves the purposes of the jiva. It is therefore an instrument, no less than the eye and the rest.

Are not *prāṇa* and others enumerated different substances; because their names are different, as also their functions? The next *sūtra* replies:

11. पञ्चवृत्तिमेनोवद्भयदिश्यते ।

One with five functions; like the mind; it is so stated.

It is stated:

Desire, resolve, doubt, eagerness, dilatoriness, perseverance, fickleness, bashfulness, thought and fear-all this is mind only (brihad., III-5-3).

Here as mind functions in these various ways, desire, resolve and the rest are not substances different from the mind; but they are all the mind itself. Similarly in the same place the following statement is made: " $Pr\bar{a}na$, $ap\bar{a}na$, $vy\bar{a}na$, $ud\bar{a}na$, $sam\bar{a}na$ —all this is $pr\bar{a}na$ only." Hence $pr\bar{a}na$ is one; and $ap\bar{a}na$ and the rest are its conditions; but they are not different substances.

SUB-SECTION 5

12. अणुश्च ।

And an atom.

As in the case of the senses, it is said to go out of the body.

Him, when he goes out of the body, $pr\bar{a}ya$ follows out of the body (brihad., VI-4-2).

Hence it is of the size of an atom. This follows from $s\bar{u}tra$ 6 of this section; but a doubt is created by the following texts: "He $(pr\bar{a}na)$ is equal to these three worlds, equal to all this (brihad., III-3-22); On $pr\bar{a}na$ everything rests; all this is enveloped in $pr\bar{a}na$." One might presume from these texts that $pr\bar{a}na$ is of large size; and it is to clear the doubt that a separate $s\bar{u}tra$ has been added. When it is decided from the statement that $pr\bar{a}na$ goes out of the body, that it is limited in size, these texts should be understood as merely describing its greatness; because all living beings depend upon $pr\bar{a}na$ for continued existence.

SUB-SECTION 6

In the last five sub-sections the evolution of $pr\bar{a}na$ and the senses, their number and size were described. In $s\bar{u}tra$, II-1-5 it was shown incidentally that they are controlled by certain $devat\bar{a}s$. The jiva also controls them, as they are the instruments of his enjoyment; this is well-known to every man of the world; and it is also stated in a vedic text.

In the very same way he takes hold of these ($pr\bar{a}nas$ senses) and moves about in his own body according to his pleasure (brihad., IV-1-18).

The question for consideration is whether this control by the *jiva* and by the *devatās* is independent or whether it depends upon the will of the highest $Atm\bar{a}$.

First view. In regard to the jiva it was settled in sub-section 6 of the preceding section that his control is not independent. But in regard to the devrtas the case is different; for they are worshipped by the jiva and give him the fruits that he desires. The highest Atmā having placed them in this exalted position, they control the jiva's instruments independently.

Final decision. The devatās exercise their control subject to the will of the highest $Atm\bar{a}$. This is stated in the $s\bar{u}tra$:

13. ज्योतिराद्यधिष्ठानं तु तदामननात्प्राणवता शब्दात् ।

Control (of $pr\bar{a}na$ and the senses) by agni and other $devat\bar{a}s$ along with the owner of $pr\bar{a}na$ (jiva) comes about from His will. So does the veda teach.

His will—the will of the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$. Brihad $\bar{a}ranyaka$ chapter V, section 7, states that the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ controls as the inner ruler the jiva, his senses and the $devat\bar{a}s$ in the performance of their own work (1). (See $\bar{a}na$., VIII-1, and brihad., V-8-8) (2).

⁽¹⁾ The texts refer especially among others to fire, air, the sun, the jiva, and the eye.

⁽²⁾ The mention of the jiva in the $s\bar{u}tra$ is by way of illustration. In this matter of subjection to the will of the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$, there is no difference between the jiva, and

14. तस्य च नियत्वात् ।

And because it (control by Brahma) is eternal.

This is a part of the nature of all beings and is therefore a permanent factor. Hence every being exercises control over other things subject to His control. This is due to His entry into every thing for the purpose of control (āna., VI-3-3). This is stated in the bhagavad-gītā also "Supporting all this world with a fragment of My power, I remain" (X-42).

SUB-SECTION 7

15. त इन्द्रियाणि तद्व्यपदेशादन्यत्र श्रष्टात्।

They, except the chief $pr\bar{a}na$, are denoted by the term indriya; because it is so stated.

The term $pr\bar{a}na$ denotes the senses and $pr\bar{a}na$. The question for consideration in this sub-section is whether all of them are denoted by the term indriya, or whether the chief $pr\bar{a}na$ should be left out. The first view is that all of them are denoted by the term; for they are covered by the term $pr\bar{a}na$, and are the jiva's instruments. The $s\bar{u}tra$ states the final decision. The text is

The indriyas are ten and one; and five are objects perceived by them $(bhagavad-git\bar{a}, XIII-5)$.

the $devat\bar{a}s$, however exalted their position may be. The meaning is not that the $devat\bar{a}s$ are independent in themselves and that they are subject to the control of the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ only in their relation to the senses. What is meant is that even their existence depends upon Him. If so, how can there be any doubt as to their control of the senses, or as to control of them by the jiva?

16. भेदश्रुतेवैंलक्षण्याच ।

Because of separate mention and of difference. In the text

From Him came forth $\rho r \bar{a} \eta a$, mind, and all the senses (indriyas). (munda., II-1-3).

Prāṇa is specified separately from the indriyas. Though mind also is mentioned separately, it is stated to be one of the indriyas elsewhere—as in the bhagavad-gitā (XV-7).

The indrivas (senses), with the mind as the sixth-

And they differ in action. In deep sleep $pr\bar{a}na$ continues to work, while the action of the others is suspended. The senses and the mind are instruments in perception or action, while $pr\bar{a}na$ supports the body and the senses. Because of this fact—the support of the senses by $pr\bar{a}na$ —they are denoted by the term $pr\bar{a}na$. "All those are the bodies of that only; hence they are called by the name $pr\bar{a}na$ " (brihad., III-5-21). By the term 'body' it is meant that their activities depend upon it.

Hence the term is used in its primary meaning as regards $pr\bar{a}na$, and in a secondary sense as regards the others (1).

⁽¹⁾ The two reasons stated in the $s\bar{u}tra$ constitute but one reason; and this is the separate mention supported by difference. If the reasons be regarded as different, the $s\bar{u}tra$ must be treated as two instead of being one. Unless difference as pointed out is proved, its separate mention must be justified as in the case of mind. One more reason. Indriyas are products of the finest variety of $ahamk\bar{u}ra$, while $pr\bar{u}na$ is a product of the element air.

SUB-SECTION 8

In section 3 and in this section up to sub-section 7 evolution of the elements and the jiva's instruments from the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ was established; and this is known as samashti evolution. This sub-section proceeds to consider whether the other variety, known as vyashti, and consisting in the making of names and forms, is the work of the four-faced one (1) or the work of the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ appearing as his inner ruler, as He created water and earth appearing as the inner vuler of fire and water respectively.

First view. It is the work of the four-faced one; for the text states:

I will enter these three $devat\bar{a}s$ as the inner ruler of this jiva and make diverse names and forms $(ch\bar{a}ndo., VI-3-2)$.

The words found in the original are anena jivena $\bar{a}tman\bar{a}$, i.e., by this $jiva-\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$; and they show that a jiva was concerned in this work, though the sentence appears to refer to the highest $Atm\bar{a}$. He did not will to do the work in His own form; but in the form of a jiva, who is a part of Himself.

2. Here certain objections are stated, to which the opponent replies: (i) The text is of the same form as the sentence 'I will enter through a spy and ascertain the strength of the enemy's force'; and if it

⁽¹⁾ The epithet samashti jiva $r\bar{u}pa$ is added to the name of the four-faced one. For the meaning of the term and for the reason for adding it see note (1) on page 317.

were understood in the same way, the first person of the verb and the action of the speaker in the form of entry would be understood in a secondary sense. Reply. In the example given the king and the spy being different persons, resort to a secondary sense cannot be avoided. But here the jiva being a part of Himself, entry by him and the other work would be His own. There is therefore no resort to secondary meanings.

- 3. (ii) Another objection. The word saha (together) should be supplied; and the instrumental case-endings of the three words should be connected with it. The meaning will then be 'I will enter together with this jiva ātmā'. Reply. The case-ending is added to a word either to indicate that what is denoted by the word is an instrument connected with an action, or because it is joined to particular words like the word saha here. According to the grammarian so long as the addition of the case-ending may be explained with reference to the former, resort to the latter is not legitimate. Hence the interpretation suggested will not do.
- 4. (iii) Still another objection. The three words indicate an instrument. Reply. The highest Atmā does two things—He enters and makes diverse names and forms; but in neither of them is the jiva a most useful instrument.
- 5. (iv) A last objection. The *jiva* is concerned with the entry only; and the other action is by the highest $Atm\bar{a}$. Reply. The two actions should be by the same person; for the original has anupravisya

(having entered); and the termination in the term indicates this.

6. Hence the interpretation stated in para 1 holds. In order to show that the entry by the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ was by a portion of Himself, viz., the jiva, and not in His own form, reference is made in the third person 'by this $jiva\ \bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ '. That the making of diverse names and forms was by the four-faced one is confirmed by the smritis; for it is mentioned in the place where creation by him is described (1).

Final decision. The making of diverse names and forms was by the highest $Atm\bar{a}$, and this is stated in the $s\bar{u}tra$:

17. संज्ञामृर्तिक्लृप्तिस्तु त्रिवृत्किवंत उपदेशात्।

The making of names and forms was by Him who compounded the elements; so is it taught.

The text referred to is

That same $devat\bar{u}$ willed 'I will enter these three $devat\bar{u}s$ as the inner ruler of this jiva, and make diverse names and forms. I will make each of them a triple compound' $(ch\bar{u}ndo., VI-3-2 \text{ and } 3).$

This shows that the two operations were the work of one and the same. The compounding of the elements could not have been the work of the four-faced one; for it was only after the elements were compounded and the egg-shaped universe emerged that he appeared on the

⁽¹⁾ At the beginning he made the names and forms of beings beginning with the devas, and determined what work each class should do; this was done with vedic texts alone (vishnu, I-5-63).

scene (1). Hence it was the work of the highest $Atm\bar{a}$, and the other operation was therefore by Him alone. What then is the meaning of the expression "By this jiva $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ "? The words jiva and $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ being in apposition, the term jiva means the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ appearing in the form of the jiva, as the terms tejas and $\bar{a}pah$ in the texts 'That tejas willed,' and 'those $\bar{a}pah$ willed,' mean Brahma appearing as tejas (fire) and $\bar{a}pah$ (water). The making of names and forms was therefore His work appearing in the form of the four-faced one.

In this interpretation the difficulties pointed out in paras 2 to 5 of the *first view* will disappear, and the mention of the making of names and forms in the place, where creation by the four-faced one is described, will receive a natural explanation (2).

The opponent disputes this conclusion, and urges the following reasons: (i) The composition also was by

⁽¹⁾ The appearance of the four-faced being within the egg-shaped universe is thus stated: 'In this egg-shaped universe *Brahmā*, the grandfather of all the worlds, appeared.'

⁽²⁾ The meaning of the text is as follows: I will enter these three devatās—i.e., fire, water and earth—clothed with all the jivas in their undifferentiated conditions, and will make names and forms; i.e., I will create diverse objects beginning with the devas and make their names. For this purpose I will make each of the elements fire, water and earth a compound of the three; for while they remain separate substances, they will be unable to create the diverse products of the world; and by compounding them they will acquire a capacity for such creation.

a *jiva*. Composition is taught as having taken place, after the egg-shaped universe was created, and the *jivas* were made by the four-faced one:

Learn from me, dear, how these three devatās reaching the jiva become each triple. Food eaten divides into three parts; of them the grossest part becomes fæces; the middle part becomes flesh; the subtlest becomes the mind, and so on. See Vedic Texts.

(ii) Similarly, in the previous section of the same upanishad it is stated:

The red colour of fire is the colour of the element fire; the white colour is the colour of the element water; the dark colour is the colour of the element earth (*Ibid.*, VI-4-1).

Composition is thus shown in the fire made by the four-faced one, and also in the sun, the moon and lightning in the verses that follow. (iii) And composition is also stated after the making of names and forms. See the text quoted in the *final decision* under the preceding $s\bar{u}tra$.

The next sutra refutes this objection:

18. मांसादिभौमं यथाशब्दिमत्रयोश्च ।

Flesh and the others are products of earth; and in the other two cases according to the terms used.

See *Vedic* Texts. In the first verse food eaten is stated to separate into three parts—fæces, flesh and mind, and each of them is said to be finer than the preceding one. If composition were taught here, as the elements earth, water and fire are each finer than the preceding one, and as the products should be like the causes, flesh would be a portion of the element water,

and mind a portion of the element fire. But they are not; for they are stated at the beginning of the verse to be products of earth like faces. Similarly, in regard to water drunk, and fire (oil or butter) eaten dealt with in the next two verses. The water drunk separates into three parts—urine, blood and prana; according to the opponent's view urine would be a portion of the element earth, and prana a portion of the element fire; but both are stated to be products of water. The fire eaten separates into bone, marrow and speech; of which the first two would be portions of the elements earth, and water; but they are stated to be products of fire. Next, the opponent's view would conflict with the last verse of the upanishad.

Mind, my dear, is a product of food; $pr\bar{a}na$ is a product of water; speech is a product of fire;

For in his view they would all be portions of fire. Hence, what is shown here is how the three elements already compounded are changed on reaching man into three different products. The composition should have taken place before the egg-shaped universe emerged; for in their uncompounded state they were not able to produce anything (1). Hence the order of

⁽¹⁾ When the three elements unite with one another, then alone are they able to begin any work; this uniting is composition. This is stated in a *smriti* verse: "When the products, beginning with *mahat* and ending with the great elements, remained separate, they had different capacities; and without mixing and combining with one another, they were unable to create the products of evolution. Mixing and combining with one another, they formed the egg-shaped universe" (vishnu, I-2-53 and 54).

the operations stated in the verse—making names and forms and composition of the elements—is superseded by the order determined by the nature of things. See Introduction, para 26 (iii). The reference to the composition in section 3 of the *upanishad* was for the purpose of making the student form a conception of the operation, as being within the universe he could not be shown the composition in the elements outside of it.

If earth, water and fire are each of them compounds, why are they referred to by words denoting one element only?

19. वेशेष्यात्तु तद्वादस्तद्वाद: ।

This denotation is due to the predominence of an element in each compound.

Though each compound contains the three elements, one of them predominates; and the compound in which earth predominates is earth and so on.

मगवते भाष्यकाराय महादेशिकाय नमः।

भगवते भाष्यकाराय महादेशिकाय नमः।

CHAPTER III

SECTION 1

IN the first chapter the highest Atmā was established as the only cause of the evolution of the world; and it was shown that the upanishads teach that it is this Being, who is free from the touch of every blemish, and is the seat of infinite good qualities, and who stands apart from every thing else, that should be meditated on by those that desire release. In the second chapter this conclusion was confirmed by answering objections brought forward by opponents, by exposing the flaws in theories not based on the veda, and by reconciling apparent inconsistencies in vedic statements in regard to the evolution of particular products. The result is to show the highest Atmā as He is. In the third chapter the means of reaching Him, viz., meditations, are examined. One will be induced to commence meditation, when he does not desire anything other than the Being that is to be reached, and longs to go to Him. In order that these may be brought about, the unpleasant experiences of the jiva in his wanderings in other worlds and in the conditions of wakefulness, dream, deep sleep and trance, and the freedom of *Brahma* from them and the possession of good qualities by Him are described in the first and second sections.

SUB-SECTION 1

In this sub-section the question is considered whether in going from one body to another the *jiva* goes forth enveloped in the elements in a subtle condition, from which a body may be formed, or not.

First view. Wherever the jiva goes, he can find the elements in a subtle condition, and he goes on without them.

Final decision. He goes on enveloped in them. This is stated in the $s\bar{u}tra$:

तदन्तरप्रतिपत्तौ रंहति संपरिष्वक्तः प्रश्ननिरूपणाभ्याम् ।

In going from one body (1) to another, the jiva goes on enveloped (in the elements in a subtle condition). (This is evident) from the questions put and the explanations given.

See Vedic Texts. In the chāndogya, chapter V, sections 3-10, Pravāhaņa put five questions to Şvetaketu, one of which was

Do you know how in the fifth offering water receives the name purusha (man).

In answering this question himself *Pravāhaņa* compares the heaven-world to a sacrificial fire, into

⁽¹⁾ The first word in the $s\bar{u}tra$, $t\bar{u}d$, refers to the term $m\bar{u}rti$ in $s\bar{u}tra$ 17 of the preceding section. It means body.

which what is called *sraddhā* is offered by the *devas—i.e.*, the *jivā's* senses; and this *sraddhā* becomes a divine body, known as *soma* king. He then compares *parjanya* (*devatā* in charge of rain), the earth, man and woman to four other fires; into the first of which the divine body referred to is offered; and it becomes rain. This is offered into the next fire—the earth, and it becomes food. This is offered into the next fire—man, and it becomes semen. And this semen is offered into the last fire—woman, and it becomes an embryo, and when it grows, it receives the name man. Having given this explanation, *Pravāhana* closes the reply to this question with these words

Thus in the fifth offering water receives the name 'man'.

It is clear from this explanation that in all the five offerings water in a fine condition is the thing offered; and this water is the five elements in a subtle condition, from which the future body after undergoing these transformations is formed. The *jiva* therefore goes on from one world to another enveloped in these five elements.

Here the question arises—Why is the *jiva* said to be enveloped in all the five elements, when reference is made to water only. The next *sūtra* replies:

2. त्र्यात्मकत्वातु भूयस्त्वात् ।

Because water consists of the three elements; and because in the compound water predominates.

By the term 'water' reference is made to a compound of all the elements, as water by itself cannot make up the body. It was to make the elements capable of doing so, that they were compounded. And water in the form of blood predominates among them.

3 प्राणगतेश्व ।

And because prana and the senses are said to accompany the jiva.

This is stated in a brihad aranyaka text:

When the jiva goes out of the body, $pr\bar{a}na$ goes after him out of the body; and when $pr\bar{a}na$ goes out of the body, all the senses go after it out of the body (VI-4-2) (1).

Prāṇa and the senses can depart and go after the jiva only when there is a vehicle to carry them; and for this reason also it must be admitted that he goes about enveloped in the five elements.

4. अस्यादिगतिश्रतेरितिचेन्नभाक्तत्वात् ।

If it be contended "Because going to fire and the rest is stated," the reply is—"No; because this going is in a secondary sense."

Reference is made here to the brihad āranyaka text:

When the speech of this dead person enters fire, $pr\bar{a}na$ the air, the eye the sun, the mind the moon, the ear the quarters, the body the earth, the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ the ether, the hairs of the body shrubs, the hairs of the head trees blood and the seed water, where then is this person (V-2-13).

⁽¹⁾ This is stated in a *smriti* text also: 'He draws to himself the senses and the mind, that are in *prakriti* (body). When he, the ruler, enters a body, or goes out of it, he goes gathering them up, as the wind gathers scents from flower-beds, (bhagavadgītā, XV, 7 and 8).

Here the places to which $pr\bar{a}na$ and the senses go, when a person dies, are described. They cannot therefore go with the jiva as stated in the preceding $s\bar{u}tra$; and the text therein relied on should be understood differently. To this objection the reply is—no. Because the entering stated here is not literally true. For, the hairs of the body and the hairs of the head do not enter shrubs and trees. Hence $pr\bar{a}na$ and the senses, which are mentioned with these, do not enter fire and the rest. The statement in the text refers to the departure of the $devat\bar{a}s$, who controlled $pr\bar{a}na$ and the senses.

5. प्रथमेऽश्रवणादिति चेन्न ता एव ह्युपपत्तेः।

If it be said "Because the term 'water' is not mentioned in the first offering," the reply is—"No. That alone, and it is only then that (the question and explanation) will be appropriate."

The statement that the jiva goes enveloped in water in a subtle condition united to other elements is not correct; for what is offered into the first fire is sraddhā; and not water. Sraddhā is a state of mind of the jiva, viz., eagerness. Hence water is not offered into this fire as assumed. To this contention the sūtra replies: Because water alone is indicated by the word sraddhā. Otherwise an appropriate reply would not have been given to the question put—"Do you know how in the fifth offering water receives the name purusha (man)." It is true that at the beginning of the reply reference is made to sraddhā as the thing offered; but if the term does not denote water, the question put would refer to one thing and the reply to another. Further, the summing up at

the end of the reply indicates that $sraddh\bar{a}$ is water. From the use of the word how $(yath\bar{a})$ the question relates, to the transformations of water. The transformations are stated to be the divine body, rain, food, semen and embryo; and having said this the summing up is "thus in the fifth offering water receives the name man". Lastly, in the veda the term $sraddh\bar{a}$ is used to denote water as in the text "He carries water; $sraddh\bar{a}$ indeed is water".

6. अश्रुतत्वादिति चेन्नेष्टादिकारिणां प्रतीते:।

If it be said "Because no mention is made (of the jiva)," the reply is "No—because reference to those that perform yagas and the rest is observed".

The opponent again disputes the conclusion on the ground that in this context no mention is made of the jiva. What is mentioned is sraddhā and other conditions of water as offerings made. The sūtra replies: In section 10 of the upanishad, verse 3, reference is made to those that remain in their villages and perform yāgas, carry out works of public utility, give away from their possessions, and do like things without however a knowledge of Brahma; and it is stated that they go to the heaven-world, and become soma king, and that when their good karma is exhausted, they return and are re-born (1). In section 4 it is stated that when

⁽¹⁾ They that live in the village and perform $y\bar{a}gas$, carry out works of public utility, give away from their possession and do like things, go to smoke. . . From the world of the pitris to ether; from ether to the moon; they become soma king. They are the food (anna) of the

sraddhā is offered into the fire of the heaven-world, it becomes soma king. As the texts in both places have the same meaning, it must be understood that the jiva invested with a body in the condition of sraddhā reappears in a divine body known as soma king. Further, a body being by nature a qualifying attribute of the jiva, every word denoting it denotes also the jiva of whom it is the qualifying attribute. Hence, the jiva goes about enveloped in the subtle elements.

Here the opponent makes a last stand, and draws attention to the following sentences in the same section (10) of the *upanishad*:

They become soma king; they are the food of the devas; them the devas eat.

He contends that the words 'soma king' cannot refer to the jiva. For he is not capable of being eaten. To this the next sūtra replies:

7. भाक्तंबाऽनात्मवित्वात्तथाहि दर्शयति।

The word anna (food) is used in a secondary sense. Because they do not know the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$; so is it taught.

Those, that perform $y\bar{a}gas$ and the rest without knowing the highest $Atm\bar{a}$, become instruments of the devas' enjoyment. Here they perform $y\bar{a}gas$ as their

devas; them the devas eat (verse 4). There they dwell till all the karma to yield fruit there is expended. Then they return by the very same path by which they went (verse 5). Whoever eats food, or emits semen, they become those persons (verse 6).

worship. Pleased with this, the *devas* enable them to reach their own world, where these persons have the same enjoyment as the *devas* themselves, and become instruments in their enjoyment. And this is stated:

Now, he that meditates on another being, thinking 'This being is one, and I am another,' does not know. As a beast is (to man), so is he to the devas. As many beasts nourish a man, so does each person nourishes the devas (brihad., III-4-10)(1).

Hence, to signify what a *jiva* becomes—an instrument in the hands of the *devas* for their own enyoyment—the words food and eating are used. They are therefore used in a secondary sense. The eating by the *devas* is merely to be pleased; this is stated:

The devas do not eat; they do not drink; seeing that same ampita (nectar) they are pleased ($ch\bar{a}ndo$., III-6-1).

SUB-SECTION 2

In the preceding sub-section it was shown that so long as samsāra lasts, connection with a body cannot be avoided. In this sub-section it will be explained that subjection to karma, which leads to such connection, cannot be got rid of. The question for consideration is—when a jiva returns from the heaven-world on the completion of his enjoyment, has he any karma left or not?

⁽¹⁾ This is also stated in a smriti verse: "Those that worship the devas go to the devas; those that love Me come to Me" $(bhagavad\ gita, VII-23)$.

First view. He returns with no karma; for he has enjoyed the fruit of all his karma. This is stated:

There they dwell till all the karma to yield fruit there is expended; then they return by the very same path by which they went $(ch\bar{a}ndo., V-10-5)$.

The word used in the original is sampātam, which means the karma, which takes the jiva to the heavenworld. This is confirmed by a $brihad \bar{a}ranyaka$ text—

Having reached the end of karma, which he does here, whatever it be, he returns from that world to this world to do karma (VI-4-6).

Final decision. He returns with a remnant of karma. This is stated in the $s\bar{u}tra$:

8. कृतात्ययेऽनुज्ञयवान्दृष्टस्मृतिभ्यां यथेतमनेवंच ।

On the good karma being spent, one returns with a remnant of karma; this is known from the veda and smritis. He returns, as he went, and also otherwise.

The veda states:

Those, that return here, if they have good karma, reach good births—birth as a $br\bar{u}hmana$, as a kshattriya, or as a vaisya. Those, that return here, if they have bad karma, reach evil births—birth as a dog, as a hog or as an out-caste $(ch\bar{u}ndo., V-10-7)$.

This shows that those that return have still good or bad karma left (1). The texts quoted by the opponent

⁽¹⁾ This is stated by *smritis* also—Those, that perform the duties of their caste and stage of life, departing from here, enjoy the fruit of their *karma*, and return with the remainder. By this they attain birth in good countries, castes and families; they have good figure, long

must therefore be understood as referring only to the karma which began to yield fruit. For, it is not fit that one karma should be wiped out by the experiencing of the fruit of another karma. Each karma must yield its own fruit or it must be neutralised by penance. The brihad āranyaka text also should be explained in the same way.

Those, that return from the other world, come back along the same path by which they went and also otherwise. They went along the path, which are marked by smoke, night, dark fortnight, the six months of the sun's southward journey, the world of the pitris, ether and the moon. The return journey is from the moon to ether, air, watery vapour, cloud and rain-cloud. As they come down to ether, they return as they went. As they do not return to the world of the pitris, the return journey is otherwise.

9. चरणादिति चेन तदुपरुक्षणार्थेति कार्णाजिनिः।

If it be contended "Reference is made to charana" (general conduct), the reply is—"No; it must be understood to indicate karma. This is the view of Kārshnājini."

The opponent's argument is this: in the *chāndogya* text quoted the expressions used are 'those that have

life, learning, wealth, good conduct, comfort and intelligence; those that act in all ways will be the reverse and perish (Gautama). When they return with the remainder of the fruits of karma, they attain good caste, good figure, good colour, strength, intelligence, knowledge of truth, wealth, the doing of good deeds and the like. This happiness like a revolving wheel is in both the worlds alone ($\bar{A}pastamba$).

good charana' and 'those that have bad charana'; the word charana does not denote good or bad deeds; and it is used in the veda and in ordinary literature to denote general conduct (1). Hence the nature of re-birth is determined by general conduct, but not by the remnant of karma. The sūtra refutes this view. General conduct by itself cannot produce pleasure or pain; these are the fruits of particular acts, good or bad. Hence the term charana must be understood as including good and bad deeds.

10. आनर्थक्यमिति चेन्न तद्पेक्षत्वात् ।

If it be contended "In this view general conduct would be purposeless," the reply is—"No; because it is required."

The objection is that general conduct is enjoined by the *smritis*; and that it would serve no purpose, if it did not produce its fruit. This is met by the view that good deeds depend upon general good conduct; (2) for it is only one, whose general conduct is good, that is fit to do good deeds.

⁽¹⁾ In the world the terms charana, āchāra (general conduct), sīla, and vritta are regarded as synonymous; and in the veda, charana and karma are distinguished thus. "Those karmas, that are unobjectionable, should be done; our good conduct (sucharita) should be followed by you" (taitti., sīksha, 11-2).

⁽²⁾ It is so stated—one without sandhyā (meditation at sunset and sunrise) is ever impure, and is unfit for all karmas (manu); the vedas do not purify one without good conduct.

11. सुकृतदुष्कृते एवेति तु बादरि:।

But according to Bādari, charaṇa is good or bad deeds themselves.

It is said 'he does (ācharati) a good deed; he does a bad deed'. The root āchar indicates karma—good or bad deed; and the use of both charana and karma in the same text may be explained—one as indicating what is enjoined by a known text, and the other as depending upon a text, the existence of which must be inferred from the good conduct of virtuous men (1). When a word can be understood in its primary sense, it is improp to resort to a secondary sense. Hence Bādari is of opinion that the word charana in the upanishad text means good and bad deeds themselves.

The author of the $s\bar{u}tras$ adopts $B\bar{u}dari$'s view; and he accepts also the argument in $s\bar{u}tra$ 10—that general good conduct is fruitful in making one fit for doing good deeds.

SUB-SECTION 3

In the two preceding sub-sections it was shown that a *jiva* in *samsāra* cannot get rid of either connection with a body or connection with its cause, *karma*. It

⁽¹⁾ This explanation depends on what is known as the go-balivarda rule. The order is given bring the go (cow); bring the balivarda (bull). Here the first order covers the bull also, as the term go is a general term; but as the second order, which has been given, should serve a purpose, the term go is understood so as to exclude the bull. This is a case of a general rule and exception.

will be shown in this sub-section that this karma is not always good karma. The question for consideration is whether the jivas, who do not come within the description of those considered in the last sub-section, go on to the moon or not. The first view is stated in the first five sūtras:

12 अनिष्टादिक।रिणामपि च श्रुतम्।

It (ascent to the moon) is stated regarding others also—those that do not perform yāgas and the rest.

By the expression Those that do not perform yagas and the rest' reference is made to those that do not do what is enjoined and do what is prohibited. The statement is:

Whoever depart from this world, all of them verily go to the moon (kaushi, 1-9).

Here no distinction is made, and all are said to go.

सन्यमेथ अयने

The following objection might be raised. In this view all would go to the moon without distinction—whether they do good deeds or do evil deeds. The opponent replies:

13. संयमनेत्वनुभूयेतरेषामाराहावगहौ तद्गतिदर्शनात् ।

In the case of the others the ascent and descent take place after they have undergone punishment under the command of the devatā in charge of death. And it is taught that the sinful go to him.

By the term 'the others' men of evil deeds are indicated. As to their going to the *devatā* in charge of death the authority is

One, that thinks this world does not exist, nor the other, comes frequently under my sway (katha., I-2-6).

14. समरिन्त च।

It is also taught by smriti-writers—

All these come under the control of yamo (devatā in charge of death') (vishau, III-7-5).

15. अपि सप्त।

And there are seven.

'Seven'—seven hells, mentioned by *smriti*-writers as places to which men of evil deeds have to go.

If men of evil deeds go to seven worlds, how do they come under the sway of the $devat\bar{a}$ in charge of death? The next $s\bar{u}tra$ replies:

16. तत्रापि तद्भापारादविराधः।

Because his activity extends to them also; no difficulty.

The opponent's argument elaborated in these $s\bar{u}tras$ is now refuted:

17. विद्याकमणोगिति तु प्रकृतत्वात् ।

(But the two paths are the fruits) of meditation on Brahma and of good deeds; and they are the topics under consideration. The opponent's view is untenable. The path of the devas is trodden by those that meditate on Brahma, and the path of the pitris by men of good deeds. Men of evil deeds have no access to either. The former path is closed to them; because they do not meditate on Brahma; similarly they do not go on the latter path, because they have not performed yāgas, carried out works of public utility, or given away from their possessions. How is this known? Reply. From the fact that meditation on Brahma is the principal topic in the consideration of the path of the devas, and that meritorious works are the principal topic in the description of the latter.

Those, that in this manner meditate on this (the nature of the pure jiva), and those, that in the forest meditate on Brahma with eagerness, go to light. But they, that remaining in the village perform $y\bar{a}gas$, carry out works of public utility, give away from their possessions and do similar things, go to smoke; etc.

This being so, the text relied on by the opponent should be restricted to those described in the latter part of this text; it will then mean that all of them go to the moon.

The opponent asks—if men of evil deeds do not ascend to the moon, the fifth offering being impossible, how can their body be made; for the fifth offering must be preceded by the ascent to the moon. The next sūtra replies:

18. न तृतीये तथोपलब्धे: ।

In the third (place) no need (for the fifth offering).
And so it is seen.

By the expression 'third place' men of evil deeds are meant. In their case the fifth offering is not necessary for the making of their bodies. In reply to the question

"Do you know why that world is not filled" it was stated "These petty creatures, that continually return, do not go on either path; they die only to be reborn immediately. This is the third place. Hence that world is not filled" (chāndo., V-10-8).

There is therefore neither ascent to the moon nor descent from it; and the heaven-world is not therefore filled. The reference to the fifth offering is merely to show that when the fifth offering is made, water receives the name man. It does not negative other ways; for it has not been stated to be the only way.

19. स्मर्यतेऽपि चालोकेन जयन

It is also affirmed by *smriti*-writers in the case of some persons in the world.

In the case of some men of meritorious deeds their bodies are stated to have been formed without the need for the fifth offering. They are *Draupadi*, *Dhrishtadyumna* and the like.

20. दर्शनाच ।

And this is seen (in the veda).

Vide the chandogya text

Of all these beings, those sprung from eggs, those sprung from living beings and those sprung from shoots (udbhid), these three only (fire, water and earth) are the causes (VI-3-1).

Of these the beings springing from shoots or from sweat do not need the fifth offering.

To the doubt, that may be expressed that the last class is not mentioned in the text, the reply is:

21. तृतीयशब्दावरोधस्संशोकजस्य।

The third term (sprung from shoots) includes the class of beings springing from sweat.

The final decision is that men of evil deeds do not go to the moon.

SUB-SECTION 4

22. तत्स्वाभाव्यापत्तिरुपपत्ते:।

The attainment of likeness to it; because of its fitness.

Under sūtra 8 it was shown that a person of meritorious deeds descends from the moon to the ether and from the ether to the air. Having been air, he becomes watery-vapour, cloud and rain-cloud, and then comes down as rain (chāndo., V-10-5 and 6). Here the question for consideration is in what sense does he become ether, air and the rest. Does he become these,

as he becomes *deva* or man, or does he only attain their likeness?

The first view accepts the former alternative on the analogy of the jiva in sraddhā becoming soma king, while the sūtra states that the latter is the correct view. The taking up of a divine or human body is for experiencing pleasure or pain. But here there is no occasion for it; and becoming ether and the rest must therefore mean that the descending jiva attaches himself to them and becomes like them. Owing to the absence of a gross form, he cannot be perceived to be separate from them (1).

SUB-SECTION 5

The next question is—How long does the descending jiva remain in contact with ether and the rest, until he reaches the vegetable kingdom? It is answered in the next $s\bar{u}tra$:

23. नातिचिरेण विशेषात्। जयते

Not very long; because of the statement of a difference.

⁽¹⁾ He is denied the pleasure of taking up ether and the rest as his bodies; for they serve as the bodies of certain $devat\bar{u}s$, who use them for their own enjoyment; and he cannot use them at the same time. Nor can he become the $devat\bar{u}s$ themselves; for they were at the beginning of evolution placed in charge of what they control, and will exercise their functions to the very end of the current world-age, and cannot make room for a jiva descending every now and then $(Nayamay\bar{u}kha\ m\bar{u}lik\bar{u},\ p.\ 237)$.

Further on the upanishad states:

They come down as rain; they are born here as paddy or yava (a kind of grain), herbs or trees, gingelly seed or black-gram and the like. From thence escape is more difficult $(ch\bar{a}ndo., V-10-6)$.

From this special mention of greater difficulty it may be concluded that escape from the previous stages is easier and does not take a long time.

SUB-SECTION 6

On reaching the earth is the descending *jiva* born as described under the preceding *sūtra*, or is he merely in contact with what is mentioned? The *first view* is that as shown by the term *jāyante* (are born) he takes up one of them as his body, as he takes up a divine or human body, when he becomes a *deva* or man. The *sūtra* states the final decision:

24. अन्याधिष्टिते पूर्ववदिभिष्टापात् ।

Attached to bodies controlled by others; because the statement is as in the previous cases.

Where the experiencing of pleasure or pain is intended, there will be mention of the *karma* leading thereto, as in the text

Those that return here, if they have good karma, reach good births, etc. $(ch\bar{u}ndo., V-10-7)$.

Here no mention of *karma* is made, as it is not made in the case of becoming ether, air, etc. The *karma*, which had to yield fruit, *yāgas*, and the rest, has

been expended by enjoyment in the heaven-world; and what has yet to yield fruit is referred to further on in the *upanishad* by the expressions "those of good *charana* and those of evil *charana*". And between these two stages there is no *karma*, the fruit of which has to be experienced. Hence, the expression "are born" in the *upanishad* should not be taken literally.

25. अशुद्धमिति चेन्न शब्दात् ।

If it be contended "Mixed with sin," the reply is "No; because it is stated".

The opponent disputes the conclusion reached, and argues: There is cause for the experiencing of pleasure or pain. The karma which leads one to the heavenworld for enjoyment—like a yāga—is mixed with sin; for a goat is injured by the offering of its membrane to the devatā agnīshoma; and the prohibition 'Do not injure any living being' is disobeyed. Here certain explanations are offered to show that no sin has been committed by this offering, and the opponent criticises them as shown below:

(i) The offering, being made under a *vedic* injunction, is an exception to the general rule. *Criticism*. This is not a case of exception. There is a general rule—whatever offering has to be made should be made into the *āhavanīya* fire. In the *soma yāga* a cow, with which the *soma* creeper is purchased, is led seven steps; and the earth under its hoof at the seventh step should be made into a heap and an offering of ghee should be made on the heaped earth. Here are two injunctions indicating

two places for but one offering; and owing to this conflict an exception to the general rule is accepted. Here, however, there is no such conflict. The injunction to make the offering states that the offering of the goat serves the $y\bar{a}ga$; while the general rule attaches sin generally to the injury of living beings; and the two matters are different.

(ii) The general prohibition refers to cases where one acts from a desire to reap a fruit; but not to cases where something is enjoined by the veda. Criticism. Here also the offering is made from desire. The text "One desiring heaven-world should do yaga" points out a yaga as the means to enjoyment in that world; and one sets out to do the yaga only from a desire for the In the offering also of a goat's membrane to the devatā agnīshoma, knowing it to be serviceable in the doing of a fruit-yielding $y \bar{a} g a$, the sacrificer is led by desire. In this matter there is no difference between an injury done under cover of vedic injunction, and that done in the world to attain a personal benefit through an injury. Even in regard to actions, that are thought to be compulsory, the motive is to obtain some fruit, which is held up as superior and imperishable.

Hence, yāgas being blended with sin, the descending jiva enjoys the fruit of the meritorious element in the heaven-world, and in order to experience the fruit of the sinful element, he is born into the vegetable kingdom. That to be so born is the fruit of evil karma is stated:

Man becomes a vegetable, owing to karma done with his body (manu, I-2-9).

The $s\bar{u}tra$ dissents from this view. The killing of goats in $y\bar{a}gas$ is not injury; for it leads the goats to the heaven-world. For it is said:

It (the goat) goes up in a shining body to (heaven-world).

An action, which leads to a superior good, cannot be characterised as injury, merely on the ground that it causes a little pain; on the other hand it should be regarded as a great benefit conferred (1). A medical man, who makes a successful operation on a patient, is hailed as a benefactor and is praised, even though he causes temporary pain.

26. रेतस्सिग्योगोऽथ ।

There is mention further on of contact with one that emits semen.

The following is the text:

Whoever eats food or emits semen, he becomes that person $(ch\bar{a}ndo., V-10-6)$.

The descending jiva becomes that person. This cannot be taken as literally true; and the only way to understand it is to regard him as attaching himself to the person eating the food or emitting semen. Similarly, being born as paddy or yava must be taken to mean attaching oneself to the paddy or yava.

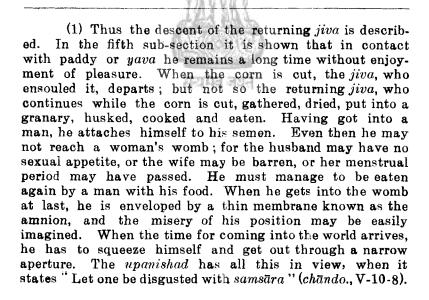
⁽¹⁾ This is stated in a mantra 'you are not now killed; nor are injured. Go to the devas alone by easy paths. The devatā sun will take you to a place to which men of good deeds go, but not men of bad deeds' (yajur, ashṭaka., 3, VII-92).

27. योनेश्झरीरम् !

It is only after reaching the womb that a body is got.

In all the previous stages beginning with coming to the ether there is only contact; and a body is attained only in the last stage, *i.e.*, on reaching the womb; and here it is possible to experience pleasure and pain (1).

मगवते भाष्यकाराय महादेशिकाय नाः



भगवते भाष्यकाराय महादेशिकाय नमः ।

CHAPTER III

SECTION 2

HAVING depicted the undesirable plight of the jiva, the author of the $s\bar{u}tras$ proceeds to point out the greatness of the highest $Atm\bar{a}$. Among this are the creation of a wonderful dream-world, and the receipt of all the jivas in deep sleep. These are referred to in the first two sub-sections. They show incidentally that in the dream-condition the jiva remains bound, his real nature being covered up by the will of the highest $Atm\bar{a}$. In the deep sleep condition, though he is for the time being without name or form, having no connection with his body, he is not conscious.

SUB-SECTION 1

In this sub-section the dream state is taken for consideration.

सन्ध्ये सृष्टिराहिहै। व जयने

In the dream state the creation (is by the jiva); for so states the veda.

83

Regarding dream (1) a brihad āranyaka text states:

There are in that state no chariots, no chariothorses, no roads; but he creates chariots, chariothorses, roads . . . For he is the maker (VI-3-10).

Here the doubt is whether this creation is by the jiva himself or by the highest $Atm\bar{a}$. The $first\ view$ is stated in this and the next $s\bar{u}tra$. The creation is by the jiva; for only he that perceives the dream is seen here.

2. निर्मातारं चैके पुत्रादयश्च ।

And some state him to be the maker; and the things made are sons and the like.

Reference is made to the following text from the *katha*:

That purusha, who is awake, while those (all jivas) sleep, and who creates one kama (object of desire) after another (V-8).

The term $k\bar{a}ma$ refers to what is desired. It does not mean mere desire. The objects of desire are sons and the like; for in I-23 of the same *upanishad* reference was made to sons and grandsons reaching the full age of a hundred years, to cows, elephants, and horses, and to gold as objects to be desired. Hence, the dreaming *jiva* creates the chariots and the rest. And in the teaching of *Prajāpati* (*chāndo*., VIII, sections 7-12) he is stated to be capable of creating by mere will.

⁽¹⁾ The term used in the original is sandhya, which is interpreted as the place of dreams; vide the text, "Sandhyam is the third place of dreams."

Hence even in the absence of the requisite instruments creation is possible by him.

This view is now refuted:

3. मायामात्रं तु कारस्नेर्यनानभिन्यक्तम्बरूपत्वात ।

But the creation is verily wonderful; and (it is not possible to the jiva) whose nature is not fully manifested.

The expression used in the $s\bar{u}tra$ means mere $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$; and the term māyā denotes something wonderful, as in the following verse "She was born in the family of janaka, made as if she were the wonderful creation (māyā) of the deva (Īsvara)". Here also what is created is wonderful. The chariots, horses and roads cannot be perceived by others; in that sense they do not exist. But they exist in the sense that they are perceived by the dreamer; and they come to an end with the dream. And a wonderful creation of this kind is possible only to the omnipotent Brahma; but not to the jiva. His omnipotence exists; but in his bound condition it does not fully appear. In the katha text relied on by the opponent the creation is by the highest Atmā alone. Both in the beginning and ending of the upanishad the powers to be found only in Him are stated (1); and in that text also reference is made to Him. As the brihad

⁽¹⁾ Who is awake while those (all jivas) sleep; He alone is light; He is Brahima; He alone is said to be immortality. All the worlds rest on Him; no one excels Him (V-8).

 $\bar{a}ranyaka$ text conveys the same teaching, the creator is not the dreaming jiva, but the highest $Atm\bar{a}$.

If omnipotence is natural to the jiva, why is it not manifested? The next $s\bar{u}tra$ replies:

पराभिध्यानात्त तिरोहितं ततोद्यस्य बन्धविपर्ययौ ।

By the will of the Supreme is it hidden. From that same cause the bondage of the jiva comes about, and his release should result from the same will.

The *jiva* has made a chain of *karmas* reaching to the beginning-less past and is an offender; and as its result his natural divine power is prevented from appearing (1).

5. देहयोगादा सोपि ।

Even this (non-appearance) results from connection with a body.

In the manifested condition the *jiva* is connected with matter in the form of a body; in the state of rest with subtle matter unfit to take a name and assume a form. In either case the connection with matter brings about the non-appearance of his true nature. To remain awake while all sleep, and to support all the worlds and

⁽¹⁾ When in order to attain freedom from fear he obtains the power to meditate continuously on that Being, who cannot be seen, who has no body, who cannot therefore be described by words denoting attributes, and who has no support, he attains freedom from fear. When he makes even a small break in this, then fear comes to him $(\bar{a}na., VII-2)$. He alone makes one blissful, (Ibid., VII-1); From fear of Him the wind blows (Ibid., VIII-1).

the rest are possible only to the highest $Atm\bar{a}$. Hence He creates objects, that last only during the jiva's dream-condition, and that can be enjoyed only by him, so as to make him experience the fruits of very petty karma.

It may be thought that power to create the dream-world comes to the *jiva* in the dream-condition. This is next shown to be impossible.

6. सूचकश्च हि श्रुतेगचक्षते च तद्विद:।

The dream indicates (coming good or evil) as known from the *veda*. And this is affirmed by those that know about it.

This being so, the dreaming jiva does not create the things seen in dreams. If he did, he would create only what would indicate coming good. The fact that dreams indicate both good and evil (1) shows that dream creations do not depend upon his will. Hence the creator of things seen in dreams is the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ Himself.

SUB-SECTION 2

7. तदभावो नाडीषु तच्छुतेरात्मनि च ।

The absence of dream (i.e., deep sleep) takes place in the $n\bar{u}dis$ (blood vessels) and in the $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$; so is it stated.

⁽¹⁾ This is stated in a vedic text—'while karmas are being done for fruits, if one sees a woman in dreams, he should know that the karmas will be properly completed (chando., V-2-9); If one sees in a dream a black person with black teeth, he will kill him.'

The place where the *jiva* remains in deep sleep is next considered. Here are the following statements:

When a person sleeps, with his senses drawn in, and free from the turmoils of the day, and sees no dream, he has then entered the blood-vessels. Then no suffering touches him; for he has then reached Light (Brahma) ($ch\bar{a}ndo$, VIII-6-3). Again, When he sleeps and does not know anything . . . he rests in purital (pericardium) (brihad., IV-1-19). Again, When this person sleeps, he is then, my dear, united to Sat ($ch\bar{a}ndo$., VI-8-1).

the blood vessels, the pericardium Thus. and the highest Atmā are stated to be the places where the jiva rests in deep sleep. The question for consideration is whether he chooses any one of the three places at pleasure, or whether he rests in all of them at the same The first view adopts the first alternative; as the places are stated to be independent of one another and as one cannot be in many places at the same time. The sūtra takes the latter alternative as the correct view; for all the three places are specified in the upanishads. When it is possible to take in all the places with reference to the function performed by each, it is improper to assume an option, which nullifies the alternatives not selected for the time being (Intro., para 39). And they do perform different functions, as do a palace, a bed-stead, and a bed to a sleeper. The blood vessels are like the palace; the pericardium is like the bed-stead: and the highest Atmā is like the bed itself. Hence. He alone is the immediate resting place.

8. अतः प्रबोधोऽस्मात् ।

Hence the awakening from Him.

The conclusion reached in $s\bar{u}tra$ 7 explains why the jiva is said to go forth from the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ when he awakes—

When they return from Sat, they do not know 'We go forth from Sat' (chāndo., VI-10-2).

SUB-SECTION 3

9. स एव तु कर्मानुस्मृतिशब्दविधिभ्य: ।

The same (that went to sleep awakes); from karma, recognition, vedic statement and vedic injunction.

The doubt arises whether the same person that went to sleep rises from it. For he is freed from all limitations, and unites himself with Brahma. This is also what happens to a jiva released from the bondage of karma. Hence one that goes into deep sleep is released; and the jiva that appears is some other. This superficial view is refuted in the sūtra. First, the karma done by the sleeper should be experienced by him alone, until he knows the truth and strives for perfection. Next, the person that awakes recognises himself thus "I who went to sleep am the very same that awakes". Next, the vedic text states:

Whatever they were before—whether a tiger, a lion, a wolf, a boar, a worm, a moth, a gnat or a fly—that again they become $(ch\bar{u}ndo., VI-10-2)$.

Lastly, the injunctions in regard to striving for release will become meaningless, if every person on going to sleep should be released from *karma*. It is not

true that the person going to sleep is released from all limitations, and that he attains his true nature. In regard to such a person it is said:

In truth he does not now (in sleep) know himself thus "I am he"; nor these beings. He has gone to annihilation. I do not see any good in this $(ch\bar{a}ndo., VIII-11-1)$.

As to one who is released from bondage it is stated:

Reaching the highest Light, he appears in his true nature . . . He moves about (1) there, eating, playing and rejoicing with women, carriages or relatives ($ch\bar{a}ndo$., VIII-12-2 and 3).

He becomes his own master (i.e., is no longer subject to the bondage of karma). He may move about in all the worlds according to his wish (Ibid., VII-25-2). The seer sees everything; he attains everything in every way (Ibid., VII-26-2). The released jiva is all-knowing. Hence, the sleeping person is still within the wheel of births; but for the time being all his instruments of knowledge and action are tired; he is incapable of perception and enjoyment. He finds a resting place in the highest $\tilde{A}tm\tilde{a}$; and being refreshed, he rises again for new enjoyment.

SUB-SECTION 4

10. मुग्धेऽर्धसम्पत्तिः परिशेषात् ।

In trance one goes half the journey (towards death); because not included in others.

⁽¹⁾ The term in the original is paryeti, which has been interpreted also as enjoying Brahma all round.

In regard to one lying in a swoon, the question arises whether his condition is one of those already whether it is a separate condition examined. oraltogether. The first view is that it is one of the other conditions; for it is so known; and there is no ground for assuming it to be a new condition. The sūtra states that the latter is the correct view. It is not the waking or dreaming state; as the person is incapable of perception. It is not deep sleep, as the cause that brings it about is different, like a blow on the head and the like. Nor is it death, as the appearance of the person in a swoon is different. Hence, as it cannot be included in any of these conditions, it must be concluded that it is a different condition altogether. It is a half-way house on the road to death. In death prana is completely severed from the body, while in a swoon prana remains in the body, but in a subtle condition.

SUB-SECTION 5

We have considered the several conditions of the jiva, so that one may see his undesirable plight, and become disgusted with it. In order to create a longing to reach Brahma, it is shown in this sub-section that the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ is free from all imperfections, and is the seat of all noble qualities (1).

⁽¹⁾ Why is this sub-section necessary? Was not this proved in the first two chapters? Reply. The means to release are two-fold. One is the highest $\tilde{A}tm\bar{a}$ Himself, who

The form of the question for consideration is whether the blemishes that attach themselves to the jiva, when he is in one of the conditions—wakefulness, dream, deep sleep or swoon, or when he rises from his body in death, will affect the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ also, when as the inner ruler He abides with him in those places or whether He remains free.

First view. He is affected; because He abdies in the jiva's body in those conditions.

2. Question. Was it not decided in sūtras I-2-8 and I-3-6 that not being subject to karma, the highest Atmā is not affected by stay in another's body. Why is the question re-opened? Reply. Karma connects a person with a body, and produces its fruit as stated in sūtra 5 of this section; and this indicates that connection with a body is undesirable. Otherwise karma can itself yield pain without the intervention of a body. The body being impure in various ways, its connection must be undesirable, even to one that is not under the

सन्यापन जायन

takes off the fetters; and the other is meditation on Him. The former is known as $siddhop\bar{a}ya$ —the means that already exists; and the latter is $s\bar{a}dhyop\bar{a}ya$ —the means that has to be brought about. To impress this distinction on the mind this sub-section has been added. Further, in the third section of this chapter the various modes of meditation have to be dealt with, which differ with reference to the attributes to be meditated on; and it is necessary to establish the fact that the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ is not only free from all imperfections, but that He is also the seat of all noble qualities. For, the opposite view is held by some, which, if correct, would render section 3 of this chapter unnecessary; as also sections 2 and 4.

sway of karma. That the highest Atmā enters the jiva's bodies of His own choice for the purpose of control cannot make a difference. For one to smear himself with pus, blood and the like, even if done by himself, must be unwelcome. The highest Atmā may be the only cause of the evolution of the world; He may be all-knowing and possess every other noble quality; yet as He is said to abide in the element earth, the jiva, the eye, man's semen and the like, He must be polluted by them.

Final decision. The highest $Atm\bar{a}$ is not touched by any blemish even by his stay in these places. This is stated in the $s\bar{u}tra$:

11. न स्थानतोपि परस्योभयिहङ्गं सर्वत्र हि।

No imperfection in the highest $\overline{A}tm\ddot{u}$, even by the places; for in all texts possession of two-fold marks by Him is stated.

'In all texts'—all texts of the *veda* or *smritis*. The marks are freedom from all imperfections, and possession of noble qualities—"He is free from *karma*, free from old age, death, grief, hunger and thirst; He has unchanging objects of desire; and His will is never frustrated" (*chāndo.*, VIII-1-5) (1).

⁽¹⁾ See also the following verses: "He has all noble qualities by nature; he carries out the creation of beings with a fragment of His sakti. . . . He is the one seat for the six qualities, tejas, bala, aisvarya, jnāna, virya and sakti, which are infinite; He is great among the great; He is the ruler of superior and inferior beings; in Him klesa and the rest cannot find a place (vishnu, VI-5-84 and 85). The highest goal, called Vishnu, is devoid of all imperfections (1bid., I-22-53).

The opponent meets this reply thus: Another text describes the *jiva* in the same terms; and yet he reaps unwelcome fruit by being in a *deva* or human body. Similarly, two conditions of the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ may be imagined, in one of which He is in Himself marked by the two marks, and in the other He abides in *jivas*' bodies, and is polluted by contact with them. This argument is stated in the next $s\bar{u}tra$ and is refuted:

12. भेदादिति चेन्न प्रत्येकमतद्भचनात् ।

If it be said "Owing to different conditions," the reply is "No; because freedom from it is stated in every text.

In the antaryāmi brāhmaṇā (brihad., V-7) each verse states that the highest Ātmā abides in a particular thing, the element earth, the eye, and the like, and concludes with the remark "This inner ruler is your perfect ātmā". The term used in the original is amrita, which may mean immortal, i.e., eternal, if it occurred but once. But it is found in every verse and must mean perfect. Between Him and the jiva there is a difference. The former abides within every object of His own will for the purpose of control; while the jiva has no choice, and must enter the body that has been made for him, and must experience the fruit of his past karma. For this purpose his true nature is, as has been said already, hidden.

Objection. Choice or no choice; the nature of things cannot be altered; and the connection with

matter must subject the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ to imperfections. Reply. No. It is not true that even matter in itself is bad. The same object causes pleasure at one time and pain at another time; and is pleasurable to one person and is painful to another. If this effect were due to the nature of the object, then every object must cause either pleasure or pain at all times and to all persons. But this is not one's experience (1). It must therefore be concluded that the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ causes an object to appear pleasurable or otherwise according to the karma of each individual. But He is subject to no control, and the connection with matter, which in the case of the jiva produces undesirable results, only helps Him to control an object as may be necessary in its case, and derive amusement.

13. अपिचैवमेके।

And some (teach) thus.

Some upanishads explicitly state that connection with one and the same body is for the jiva a source of disadvantage, while for the highest Atmā it is not so. On the other hand it conduces to His glory, following on the exercise of control over all.

(1) This is stated in the following verses: good and bad deeds are called heaven and hell; the same object causes pain, pleasure, envy and anger. Hence how can an object be said to possess but one character? The same thing, having given pleasure, subsequently leads to pain; the same thing first leads to anger and afterwards leads to good will. Hence there is nothing, that in itself is painful or pleasurable (vishnu, II-6-46, 47 and 48).

Two birds, inseparable and possessing similar qualities, cling to the same tree. One of them eats the ripe fruit; the other does not eat, but shines on all sides (munda., III-1-1).

The opponent comes forward with a fresh objection. It has been said that the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ entered everything, and gave it a name and a form; that He is the $\bar{a}tma$ of that thing. He has therefore a body-divine, human or otherwise, and a name; and like the jiva He is subject to vedic injunctions and prohibitions; i.e., He is bound by karma. To this the next $s\bar{u}tra$ replies:

14. अरूपवदेव हि तत्प्रधानत्वात् ।

That (Brahma) is verily as one without form; because of His prominence.

Though He has entered every body, and has thus become connected with various forms, yet He is like one without them; *i.e.*, without the effect produced by the connection. He does not therefore share with the *jiva* subjection to *karma*. For, it is said:

Ether is the maker of name and form; because He is between them, He is Brahma ($ch\bar{u}ndo$, VIII-14-1).

'Is between them' is untouched by the effect produced by them. He is merely their maker. The *jiva's* connection with his form is by the experiencing of the pleasure or pain produced by it; and as similar experience does not exist for the highest $Atm\bar{a}$, He is unconnected with the form. Injunctions and prohibitions are for those that are bound by karma.

The opponent appears again and observes—The text "Unchanging, shining and without limitations is Brahma" (āna., I-1), states Him to be devoid of attributes and to be mere light (prakāsa). One that is jnāna (light) cannot possess jnāna. Everything else is expressly denied by texts such as 'not so, not so'. It must therefore be concluded that the possession of the two marks is a myth. The first point is replied to in the following sūtra:

15. प्रकाशवचावैयर्थ्यात् ।

And like light $(prak\bar{a}sa)$, so that the texts may not become meaningless.

Brahma is admitted to be light, in order that the text quoted may not become meaningless. The same argument compels the admission that He possesses other attributes also. He is therefore omnipotent and all-knowing. He is the world-cause, and the ātmā of all things, and He transcends avidyā and all other imperfections.

16. आह च तनमात्रम ।

And (the text) says so much only.

That is, that *Brahma* is *jnāna* (light). The text does not negative other attributes affirmed by other texts, such as omnipotence and the like. The text 'not so' will be presently explained.

17. दर्शयति चार्थे अपिम्मर्थते ।

And vedic texts show; and also smritis.

Upanishad texts affirm that Brahma is free from all imperfections and is the seat of all blessed qualities.

Vedic Texts:

Him, who is the highest ruler among rulers, and who is the highest devatā among devatās; He is the worldcause, who is the lord of the lords of the senses (jivas); He has no maker or lord; He has no body or senses; no one that is His equal or superior is observed. His capacity (sakti) is heard to be superior, to be of many kinds, and to pertain to His nature; so also His capacity to know, to support, and to create and destroy (sveta, vi). He knows and attribute of everything: His everything every tapas is thought (munda., I-1-10); From fear of Him the wind blows; from fear the sun rises; It is one $\bar{a}nanda$ (bliss) of Brahma ($\bar{a}na.$, VIII); From which speech returns with the mind without reaching (its higher limit), one that meditates on the ananda (bliss) of Brahma does not fear anything (Ibid., IX). Without parts; without action (1); free from hunger and the other five evils; without blemish and without attachment (sveta, VI).

Smriti texts:

Those among men, that know Me as unborn, as having had no beginning and as the great ruler of the worlds (bhagavad- $git\bar{a}$, X-3); supporting all this world with a fragment of My power, I remain (Ibid., X-42). With me to direct, prakriti sends forth from itself the world with the moving and unmoving things. From this cause the world goes round (Ibid., IX-10); But other than these is the highest Purusha; He is called the highest $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$, who pervading the three worlds, sustains and controls, Himself remaining unchanged (Ibid., XV-17).

He is everything and is all-knowing; He sees everything; He has all capacities, all knowledge, all strength and

^{(1) &#}x27;Without action'—as whatever need be done has been done. 'Without blemish,' *i.e.*, without blemishes like indifference to those that come to Him.

fullness; He has neither increase nor decrease; He is his own master; He has had no beginning; He has every one in His control; He is devoid of fatigue, laziness, fear, anger, desire and the like. He is free from blemishes; He excels all others; He is free from hunger and the other five evils. He needs no support; He is imperishable; His enthusiasm is never impeded (vishyu, V-1-47, 48 and 49).

18. अत एव चोपमासूर्यकादिवत् ।

And for that very reason comparison with the sun and the rest.

The reason is that He is not touched by the imperfections of the various places in which He abides. A comparison is made in the sacred books between Him and the sun reflected in water, mirrors and the like. As the sun's purity is not thereby affected, so the purity of *Brahma* remains unaffected.

As the ether, though one, appears as many in jars and the like, so $\widetilde{A}tm\overline{a}$, though one abides in many things, and is like the sun on sheets of water. The $\overline{a}tm\overline{a}$ of beings, though one only, remains in all beings; and is seen as one and as many, like the moon reflected from watery surfaces.

The opponent points out a flaw in the comparison:

19. अम्बुवदप्रहणातु न तथात्वम् ।

But because Brahma is not perceived as the sun is perceived in sheets of water, no likeness.

The analogy is not correct. The sun does not really abide in sheets of water, no the face in mirrors; and their appearance within them is illusion. Hence their

purity is not affected. But here *Brahma* as a fact abides in earth, and other things; and His freedom from imperfections does not follow from the analogy.

The next $s\bar{u}tra$ replies:

20. वृद्धिहासभाक्तवमन्तर्भावादुभयसामञ्जस्यादेवं दर्शनाच ।

(The comparison is intended merely to deny in respect of Brahma) increase and decrease as a result of His abiding in all things. This must be so from the appropriateness of both the comparisons. And this is seen.

The terms 'increase' and 'decrease' denote the imperfections which attach to all things. From the fact that He abides in them Brahma is not touched by their imperfections either in His svarupa or in His attributes. The intention in making the comparison with the sun was merely to deny this point. How is it known? Reply. From the fact that it is only then that both the comparisons will be appropriate. In the verse quoted (See sūtra 18) Brahma is compared to ether and to the sun. Ether fills vessels of various sizes—some small. others large; but it is not affected by their size. sun, on the other hand, does not enter sheets of water, but appears to be within them; and though his reflections are large or small, the sun himself remains the Similarly, Brahma though abiding in things of various forms—in intelligent beings and in non-intelligent things-is not affected by their imperfections, but ever remains the same—the possessor of the two-fold marks.

If the stay of the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ in all things were unreal, comparison with ether would not be appropriate;

if it is real, comparison with the sun will be equally inappropriate. Hence an element which is common to both the examples should be found; and this is being untouched by the imperfections of the objects, in which the ether is or the sun appears to be; and it is this that is affirmed of the highest $Atm\bar{a}$. One is affected by the imperfections of a thing by nearness in place, nearness in time, and nearness in nature. Nearness of the three kinds should combine to make it possible; and in the absence of one of them no pollution can take place. The sun and sheets of water illustrate distance in place; and the ether and jars illustrate distance in nature; and the author's intention is to show that distance in the nature of objects is as good a reason for the freedom of the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ from the imperfections of the objects as distance in place.

The last portion of the *sūtra* explains that comparisons are made between two things that are not similar in all respects, provided that there is a likeness in that point which is under consideration, *e.g.*, 'The student is like the lion'.

An objection is raised. In the brihad āranyaka upanishad the third brāhmaņa of the fourth chapter begins with the words "There are two forms of Brahma" (See Vedic Texts). It then describes the whole universe, consisting of the gross and the subtle, as His form; it states a particular colour for Him and concludes with the teaching 'Not so, not so for there is no other than that'. Here all the forms of Brahma described are

referred to by the word *iti* (so), and they are denied. Sat alone, in which all the attributes appear, is Brahma, and all the attributes, which appear in Him, are imagined by Him out of ignorance of His own essential nature. To this the next sūtra replies:

21. प्रकृतैतावत्वं हि प्रतिषेधित ततो बवीति च भूय: ।

For the text denies the limitation implied by the preceding description. And it then declares some further attributes.

The interpretation put upon the text 'Not so, not so,' cannot be accepted. After stating certain things as the attributes of Brahma, things that are not known by other means as His attributes, will the upanishad deny the very same as attributes. This would be like the ravings of a mad man. Among the things mentioned some are no doubt known by other means; but their being attributes of Brahma was never known. Other things were not known either in their svarūpa or in their connection with Him. The statement is not therefore a repetition of what was previously known, and their denial is inappropriate. It must therefore be understood that the text denies that Brahma is merely what has been stated. Certain attributes of Him were stated. The text says 'Do not think that He is merely as described." A limitation is implied by the foregoing description, and that is referred to by the word iti (so) and is denied. Further, after this denial further attributes of Brahma are stated. Hence the expression 'not so' must not merely this The statement of further attributes is in these words:

For there is no other higher than that (Brahma) described by the expression 'not so';

higher in svarūpa or in attributes.

And His name is the unchanging among the unchanging.

What this means is next explained. "Prāṇas are unchanging." By the term prāṇas jivas are referred to from their close union with prāṇa. They are unchanging, as they do not undergo modifications of substance like ether and the rest. Brahma is unchanging among them; because even contraction and expansion of jnāna do not take place as among jivas. Hence, from this mention of other attributes it must be decided that by 'not so' the denial of all attributes was not intended.

The next $s\bar{u}tra$ confirms the remark that Brahma cannot be known except from the veda:

22. तद्व्यक्तमाह हि ।

He (Brahma) is not known from other means of proof; for this the veda declares.

Thus-

His form does not stand within the scope of sight; no one sees Him with the eye (katha, II-6-9). He is not perceived by the eye, nor by speech (munda., III-1-8).

Another reason is stated:

23. अपिसंराधने प्रसक्षानुमानाभ्याम् ।

And (He is seen) in loving meditation; from the veda and smritis.

Brahma cannot be perceived otherwise:

This $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ (Brahma) cannot be reached by mere thinking, by mere meditation, by mere hearing many times. Whomsoever he chooses, by him alone can He be reached. To him He reveals His own form (katha., I-2-23). When by the grace of $\bar{I}svara$ the mind is purified, then one sees in meditation Him, who is without parts (munda., III-1-8); I cannot be seen in this form, as you have seen Me, either by recitation of the veda, by tapas, by the making of gifts or by yāgas. But by love, not looking forward to any other goal, is it possible for one to know Me, to see Me as I am, and to enter into me (bhagavad gitā, XI-53 and 54).

Hence the text considered in $s\bar{u}tra$ 21, which points out the form of Brahma for the purpose of meditation, cannot be said to repeat the description of the form; for it was not previously known.

24. प्रकाशादिवचावैशेष्यं प्रकाशश्च कर्मण्यभ्यासात् ।

And like $jn\bar{a}na$, bliss and other attributes; no difference (between them and other attributes); this appears in meditation repeated many times.

Those like $V\bar{a}madeva$, who have direct perception of the $svar\bar{u}pa$ of Brahma, perceive not only $jn\bar{a}na$, bliss and other attributes constituting the $svar\bar{u}pa$, but also His being clothed in the forms described. As attributes of Brahma they are all alike and all are perceived at the same time. This perception takes place in meditation frequently repeated

The subject is brought to a conclusion in the next $s\bar{u}tra$:

25. अतोऽनन्तेन तथा हि लिङ्गम्।

Hence (Brahma is clothed) with endless blessed attributes. Only then will the possession of the two marks be appropriate.

SUB-SECTION 6

In the preceding sub-section it was shown that the highest Atmā appears in the form of unintelligent matter in the gross and subtle conditions; that this is not His only form by the words 'not so, no so'; and that there is nothing superior to Him. It was also added that He does not change, and that therefore He is unchanging among the unchanging (see under sūtra 21). There are certain other texts which explain what is meant by His form "He is the lord of matter, and of the dwellers in bodies; and the controller of the gunas (sveta, VI-16); Lord of all; controlled by Himself (narā., XI-3); Who, being Himself eternal, intelligent, and one, gives what is desired by those that are eternal. intelligent and many (sveta, VI-13). The question in what sense matter is the form of the highest Atmā will now be considered, in order to confirm His freedom from imperfections settled in the preceding sub-section. Three alternatives are possible: The highest Atmā and matter are the same substance in two conditions, like a snake when stretched at full length and the same when coiled up; they are of the same class like a shining substance and its light; and they are two different substances inseparably connected like the jiva as decided in chapter II, section 3, sub-section 7. The conclusion to be reached here is that the relationship is as last stated; and this was assumed in chapter I-4-7 and chapter II-1-6, and it was stated that the highest Atmā clothed in the two inseparable attributes in the subtle condition came forth as the universe clothed in the same two attributes, but in the gross condition; and that the two are one. Which of the three alternatives is the correct one? The first view is stated in the sūtra:

26. उभयव्यपदेशात्त्वहिक्रण्डलवत् ।

Like the snake and its coil; because both are stated.

The statements are: "Brahma only is all this; $Atm\bar{a}$ only is all this." These state identity. "I will enter these three devatās as the inner ruler of this jiva." This affirms difference. In order that both the sets of statements may have a meaning, it must be assumed that the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ and matter are really one substance in essence, but in two different conditions like the straight snake and the coiled up snake.

The second alternative is urged in the next sūtra:

27. प्रकाशाश्रयवद्वा तेजस्त्वात् ।

Or they are related like light and its seat; possessing the same character—light.

The first alternative—that *Brahma* Himself comes to the condition of non-sentient matter—will conflict with the text affirming difference between them and unchangeability. Hence, the second alternative should be accepted. A shining substance and its light are one in essence, but differ; for the substance remains in one place, while its light spreads all around. Similarly, *Brahma* and matter are one and yet different from one another.

The final decision is stated:

28. पूर्ववद्वा । 🦟

But the relationship is as already stated.

The second alternative also is untenable. To a shining body and its light there is something common; what is it that is common to Brahma and matter? If it be brahmatva, i.e., brahmahood, then brahma would be an attribute found in the all-Ruler, in sentient beings and in the material universe, as the generic character of horses and cows are found in all the individuals of each class. This would be opposed to all texts of the veda and smritis and to usage (1).

⁽¹⁾ A word connoting generic character is put in apposition with another word denoting an individual, as in "broken-horned cow"; but not words denoting two individuals, like 'broken-horned is hornless'. Now Brahma must be a concrete entity or an attribute. If He were the former, belonging to the class of *Īṣvara*, jivas and matter, He could not be said to be the universe. If He were the latter, He could not be the world-cause and its support; He could not be all-knowing and the seat of other attributes.

Hence, it is necessary to fall back on the theory stated in chapter II-3-7. It was pointed out in that sub-section that jivas are inseparable attributes of Brahma. Matter also is an inseparable attribute, and is therefore a part of Brahma, which term means an aggregate of all the elements. In this view there are the following good points. Because they are all parts of an aggregate, the statement of oneness is correct literally. As the elements differ among themselves in their svarūpas and in their natures, the vedic texts affirming difference also are literally correct. And the freedom of Brahma from imperfections is preserved. There are several instances of things that are inseparable parts of other things—lustre is part of a gem; generic qualities are parts of individuals making up a class; qualities are parts of the persons or objects that possess them; and bodies are parts (for the time being) of Similarly, jivas and matter are parts of Brahma. jivas.

29. प्रतिषेधाच ।

And because of denial.

This denial is stated in the following text "He the great $Atm\bar{a}$ is unborn, never old, and undying (brihad., VI-4-25). By the old age of the body He does not age "(chāndo., VIII-1-5). Thus, the changes that take place in unintelligent matter are denied in regard to Brahma. The conclusion reached is therefore sound; and the decision in the preceding sub-section remains unshaken.

SUB-SECTION 7

It has been shown that the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ is the material and operative causes of the universe. It will now be considered whether there is any Being greater than He, and certain specious arguments, which are brought forward, will be examined. If such a Being existed, the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ would not be the highest goal, nor the seat of noble qualities needed for enjoyment of Him. The possession of the two marks settled in sub-section 5 would not then be full. In the immediately preceding sub-section freedom from imperfections was the question considered, and in this sub-section the examination will deal with His being the seat of noble qualities.

First view. There is a being greater than the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$. This is stated in the $s\bar{u}tra$:

30. परमतस्सेतृन्मानसम्बन्धभेदव्यपदेशेभ्यः।

A greater than He; because of the use of the term setu (bridge) and mention of measure, connection and difference.

First "The Atmā is a protecting setu (bridge)" (chāndo., VIII-4-1). Here Brahma is said to be a bridge; and a bridge takes one to the farther side of a river. Hence there is something other than Brahma, that has to be reached with His help. Further on, it is said "Crossing this setu (bridge), the blind man ceases to be blind" (Ibid., VIII-4-2). Here reference is made to crossing Brahma; and what has to be reached is something else. Secondly, Brahma is said to be

measured, *i.e.*, limited "Brahma has four feet; and sixteen parts". This reference to limitation implies that there is a being without any limitation, who has to be reached by this bridge. Thirdly, Brahma is connected as the means with something to be reached.

The principal bridge to immortality who shines like a fire that has burnt its fuel (sveta, VI-19); He is the bridge to immortality (munda, II-2-5).

Hence, there is something higher than *Brahma*. Lastly, difference between *Brahma* and something higher is stated:

One reaches the purusha, who is higher than the high (munda., III-2-8); He who is higher than the high, and greater than the great $(n\bar{u}r\bar{u}., 1-5)$; By that Purusha all this is filled; that, which is beyond Him, is without form and without suffering (sveta, III-9 and 10).

Now follows the refutation:

31. सामान्याचु ।

But (the term setu is used) in the sense of likeness.

He protects the world as a bund protects; but He is not stated to be a means of reaching some particular thing. For, further on these words occur "so that these worlds may not be confounded". Taking the etymological meaning also, the term means—He who binds to Himself the aggregate of sentient and non-sentient things without confusion. The word tirtvā, which in the first view was rendered into 'crossing,' means reaching, as in the sentence "He crosses the vedānta," which means that he has completely learnt the vedānta.

32. बुद्धवर्थः पादवत्।

The limitation is for the purpose of meditation; as in the case of feet.

The object of the limitation implied in the texts 'Brahma has four feet,' and 'sixteen parts,' and 'one foot of him is all beings' (chāndo., III-12-6) is that one should meditate on Brahma in that form. The text "Unchanging, shining, and without limitations is Brahma" (āna., I-1) shows that Brahma in Himself is without any limitations. And the same Being is stated to be the world-cause in the texts "From that same Atmā ether came forth" (Ibid., 1-2); and "He willed 'I will become many'" (Ibid., 6-2). In the text

Speech is one foot; $pr\bar{a}\mu a$ is one foot; the eye is one foot; the ear is one foot $(ch\bar{a}ndo., III-18-2)$; the reference to speech, $pr\bar{a}\mu a$, eye and ear as the feet of Brahma is for the purpose of meditation. So here also.

How can Brahma, who in Himself is unlimited, become limited even for the purpose of meditation? The next $s\bar{u}tra$ explains:

33. स्थानविशेषात्प्रकाशादिवत् ।

With reference to the places (specified); as in the case of light and the like.

The $s\bar{u}tra$ relates to the example mentioned in the preceding $s\bar{u}tra$. When some places are specified, as the tongue, $pr\bar{a}na$, eye and ear, as connected with it, even an unlimited thing may be thought on as limited. Light,

ether and the like, though spreading everywhere, are thought on as limited, with reference to their connection with a window, a vessel and the like.

The third argument is next dealt with:

34. उपपत्तेश्च ।

And it is appropriate.

The argument urged was that the statement "He is a bridge to immortality" connects Brahma as the means with something to be reached, and that that something is different from Him. This is denied. Brahma Himself is to be reached; and He is also the And such a thing is not inappropriate. "This $Atm\bar{a}$ cannot be reached by mere thinking, by mere meditation, by mere hearing many times. Whomsoever He chooses, by Him alone can He be reached; To him he reveals His own form (katha., I-2-23). This states that Brahma can be reached by no other means.

The last argument is dealt with in the next sūtra.

35. तथाऽन्यप्रतिषेधात् ।

Similarly, because another is denied.

In the mundaka, in which the text "one reaches the Purusha who is higher than the high" is found (III-2-8), another being higher than the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ is expressly denied.

There is no other superior to Him in whatever way it may be considered; nothing is subtler than He; nothing is larger than He (munda., I-1-7). This may be seen in other upanishads also: "There is no other higher than that (Brahma) described by the expression 'Not so' (brihad., IV-3-6). Again "No one controls Him; His name is great glory" ($n\bar{a}r\bar{a}$., I-9).

And He is stated to be the material cause of the world after this—"All moments came forth from the *Purusha* with the brilliance of lightning (*Ibid.*, 1-8); He churned the elements and both these (heaven and the intermediate world)" (*Ibid.*, I-9). The text "From the elements (water) came forth *Hiranyagarbha*" (*Ibid.*, I-11) recalls to one's mind the *Purusha*, who is the world-cause.

Question. What then is the being referred to in the text "That which is beyond Him" (sveta., III-10). Reply. This text is preceded by another—

I meditate on that great Purusha, who shines like the sun, and who has a body made of a substance other than matter. Meditating on Him alone one overcomes death; no other path to the goal exists (Ibid., 8).

Having stated this, the next verse explains:

There is no other superior to Him; nothing is subtler than He; nothing is larger than He; He stands in heaven unbending like a tree prominent; by this *Purusha* all this is filled (*Ibid.*, 9).

This verse declares that this *Purusha* is the highest Being, and that all others cannot be superior. Then comes the verse under consideration, which concludes the teaching with a statement of the reason therefor. It should be rendered as follows: "That Being, who is

the highest, He alone is without form and without suffering. Because it is so, those alone that meditate on Him become immortal; others reach only suffering." On any other rendering the text would conflict with verse 8, in which the subject is introduced, and with verse 9, which follows it. The other text may be explained similarly, viz., "one reaches the Purusha higher than the high and standing in heaven" (munda., III-2-8). In the same upanishad (II-1-2) reference was made to "Him who is higher than what is higher than akshara". The term akshara denotes matter, which is indestructible, though continually changing its form. What is higher than this is the jivas without name and form; and higher than they is the Purusha referred to as possessing invisibility and other qualities. The same Purusha is referred to in the text under consideration.

In the preceding five *sūtras* the view that there is a higher than the highest *Ātmā* was criticised; in the next an authority in support of the *final decision* is stated:

36. अनेन सर्वगतत्वमायामशब्दादिभ्यः ।

That everything is pervaded by Him is indicated by words denoting extension.

This is proof that there is no being higher than the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$. The words are:

By that Purusha all this is filled (sveta., III-9); Whatever in this world is seen or heard about $N\bar{a}r\bar{a}yana$

pervades all that inside and outside $(nar\bar{a}., XI)$; Who is eternal, omnipresent, and all-pervading, because of His highly subtle nature and the wise perceive Him to be the material cause of all that exists (munda., I-1-6).

The following texts also are contemplated "Brahma alone is all this; $Atm\bar{a}$ alone is all this",

SUB-SECTION 8

So far in the first two sections of this chapter the following points have been settled: The jiva is full of blemishes, whatever be his condition; the highest Atmā, who is to be reached by him, is free from all imperfections; He is the seat of all noble qualities; and He is higher than any one else. In the next section meditation on the highest Atmā has to be dealt with; and in this sub-section it is shown that those that do the meditation attain the fruit known as apavarga (i.e., reaching Him) only from Him. Being on the subject, and the same reason applying, the author of the sūtras states that such fruits as are attainable here or in the heaven-world by adopting the means declared in the veda come only from Him (1).

37. फलमत उपपत्ते:।

Fruit comes from Him (alone); because it is appropriate.

⁽¹⁾ There is an object in describing this point in general terms; for one that desires release should meditate on this point also.

For He alone is all-knowing, all-powerful, and supremely liberal. Those, that worship Him with yāgas, gifts, homas and the like, receive from Him enjoyment here or in the heaven-world. Those that meditate on Him attain their own nature. Karma, being non-intelligent, and transient, cannot bestow the fruits to be enjoyed at some future time. He alone is able to give the fruits.

The bestowal of fruits by the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ was made to rest on the unfitness of karma, and on the capacity and willingness of that Being. The next $s\bar{u}tra$ states that there is express statement on the point.

38. श्रुतत्वाश्च ।

And because it is so stated.

In the following texts:

He, the great $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$, unborn, is the giver of food, and the giver of wealth (brihad., VI-4-24); For, He alone gives bliss ($\bar{a}na.$, 7-1).

The next sutra states the first view:

39. धर्म जैमिनिरत एव ।

For the very same reasons the giver of fruits is dharma; so Jaimini thinks.

For the same reasons—because it is appropriate and because it is taught in the *veda*; and *dharma* is *karma* in the form of offerings and gifts, or of meditation. For in the world actions like ploughing and making of

gifts directly or indirectly bring about their own reward without the intervention of any being. The karmas enjoined in the veda may not directly yield fruits; but they may do so indirectly through what is called apūrva; and this is appropriate. The vedic injunction "Let one that desires the heaven-world do yāga" mentions yāga as the means of reaching the heaven-world. As it will not endure till the fruit is gathered, it is assumed that apūrva intervenes.

The final decision is reiterated in the last $s\bar{u}tra$:

40. पूर्व तु बादरायणो हेतुन्यपदेशात।

But Bādarāyana leans to the former view; because the causes are stated.

The former view is that the highest Atmā alone gives the fruits. The vedic texts, which enjoin particular karmas, refer also to certain devatās like Agni, Vāyu and the like as being pleased with the karmas and as giving the fruits desired.

Let him, that desires prosperity, offer a white goat to $V\bar{a}yu$. For $V\bar{a}yu$ is a quickly-acting $devat\bar{a}$. One should approach $V\bar{a}yu$ alone with his own share; and he himself leads the sacrificer to prosperity.

Here, though the text explaining how the yāga helps in the attainment of the desired fruit is arthavāda, it is needed by the injunction-text as pointed out at length in chapter I-4-7, and should not be set aside as added for another purpose. When the mode of attaining the fruits is expressly stated, to abandon it, and to

assume the coming into existence of an $ap\bar{u}rva$, which is not stated in the veda, is improper, and right-minded persons will never accept this view.

Objection.— $Ap\bar{u}rva$ is not assumed; but it is denoted by the termination of the verb in the injunction-text. Reply. The termination points out that the action denoted by the root (which is the worship of the devatās) should be done by the person, that desires the fruit. This is the recognised meaning of the termination, and is approved by the grammarian. Nothing else, which is unseen like $ap\bar{u}rva$, is denoted by it. In this contention there are two assumptions instead of one—first, the $ap\bar{u}rva$ and next that it is denoted by the termination.

Now, this and other texts state that $V\bar{a}yu$ and other devatās give the fruits sought. And the highest $Atm\bar{a}$, as the inner ruler of the $devat\bar{a}s$, receives the worship and yields the fruits (1). It is so taught:

⁽¹⁾ The following objection may be raised: If the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ is pleased and gives the fruits, there are difficulties. First, when the principal karma is done immediately after the $pray\bar{a}ja$ offerings are made, though other subsidiary karmas remain to be done, the fruit of the principal karma should be bestowed; for being omnipotent, His grace cannot remain even for a moment fruitless. Next, there is a rule that one that parades his performance will make the karma incapable of producing fruit. Now, the fruit cannot be delayed to see if the sacrificer offends against this rule; for the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ being completely independent, His grace should become fruitful at once. If the fruit be given, and the offence be committed subsequently, it will reveal ignorance on the part of the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ that He did not foresee this. Hence the help of $ap\bar{a}rva$ should be

The supporter of the worlds receives (1) as His worship all the karmas taught in the veda and smritis, which have been done or which are being done in many ways (2); He alone is agni; He is $v\bar{a}yu$; He is the sun; He alone is the moon $(n\bar{a}r\bar{a}, 1-6 \text{ and } 7)$; Who stands in $v\bar{a}yu$; whose body $v\bar{a}yu$ is; Who stands in agni; who stands in the sun (antaryāmi brāhmana, brihad., V-7); Whosoever loves whatsoever body of Mine and wishes to worship it with fervour, I Myself make his fervour continue to the end. With such fervour he labours for the worship of that body of Mine, and obtains from the worship the desires that he sought; but they are given by Myself (bhagavad gitā, VII-21 and 22): Those that worship the devas go to the devas; those that love Me come to Me (Ibid., VII-23); For I am the Being worshipped in all the yagas; I alone give the fruits . . They reach the devas; who will to worship the devas; they reach the pitris who will to worship the pitris; they reach the bhūtas, who will to worship the bhūtas; but those, that do the same actions with the will to worship Me in the forms of the devas, pitris, or bhūtas, come to Me (lbid., IX-24 and 25).

In the world also men obtain various objects by cultivation of land and other occupations, and attend upon the king with those objects either through his servants, or directly. The king, being pleased, gives

sought. It must be assumed that when all the karmas are done—principal and subsidiary—and no cause exists for the destruction of the principal karma by parade, the highest $\overline{A}tm\overline{a}$ is pleased. If this be so, the $ap\overline{u}rva$ being required necessarily, why should intervention by the highest $\overline{A}tm\overline{a}$ be assumed? Reply. The difficulties raised do not exist, as the devatas take the place of the $ap\overline{u}rvas$; and when they are pleased, and there is nothing to cancel their grace, the highest $\overline{A}tm\overline{a}$ comes forward and rewards the worshipper.

⁽¹⁾ As being the yielder of the fruits of karmas.

⁽²⁾ In many ways—as being connected with Agni, Indra and other devatās.

them what they desire in accordance with the attention paid to him by them. This is what is seen. The upanishads teach the existence of Purushottama, who is beyond the capacity of every other source of knowledge, who is untouched by avidyā and by every other imperfection, and who is the seat of endless, infinite, noble qualities, pertaining to His nature; They show that yāgas, making gifts, and homas, are His worship, as also to praise, to fall down before Him, to recite His names, to place flowers at His feet, and to meditate on Him; and that worshipped by these means, He gives either enjoyment here or release from bondage to karma. This view of the upanishads is thoroughly sound.

भगवते भाष्यकाराय महादेशिकाय नमः ।



भगवते भाष्यकाराय महादेशिकाय नमः।

CHAPTER III

SECTION 3

In the two preceding sections so much was stated as would frighten one in regard to the horrors of hell, and in regard to the ever going to, and returning from, the heaven-world, and would create a strong desire to reach the highest Atmā. In this third section the various meditations, by which He is reached, are examined to determine whether a vidyā of the same name, occurring in two or more upanishads, is the same or different. In the former case the qualities of the highest Atmā enumerated in all the upanishads should be combined in meditation; while in the latter case only those qualities are to be taken into consideration, that are specified in the particular upanishad. This point will be stated in sūtra 5.

SUB-SECTION 1

In this sub-section the tests are pointed out by which it may be determined whether a $vidy\bar{a}$ of the same name enjoined by two panishads is the same.

This question was considered in the pūrva mīmāmsā; and it was settled that the same karma was enjoined by two texts, if the fruit to be attained, the form of the karma, the injunction regarding it and the name of the karma be the same. See Introduction, para 16. The question for consideration here is whether this decision applies to vidyās also taught in the upanishads.

First view. The decision does not apply. When an injunction is repeated, and there is nothing to distinguish it from the same injunction previously given, it must relate to a different $vidy\bar{a}$. Similarly, if the injunctions be found in two contexts, the difference of $vidy\bar{a}$ follows as a matter of course (Vide Introduction, para 15-ii and vi). If this be so in regard to the same branch of the veda, how can there be any doubt when a $vidy\bar{a}$ is taught in different upanishads? In the mundaka it is stated:

Let one teach this brahma-vidyā to those only, by whom sirovrata has been properly done (III-2-10);

and this injunction is repeated in the next verse to the student. This restriction of this $vidy\bar{a}$ to the followers of the mundaka upanishad, who alone perform this ceremony, will become intelligible, if the $vidy\bar{a}$ taught in the upanishad be a different one. If it were identical with a $vidy\bar{a}$ taught in other upanishads, then as the ceremony would be an anga of the $vidy\bar{a}$, it must be performed by others also; and the limitation enjoined would not be appropriate. Hence the $vidy\bar{a}$ taught in the mundaka is not the same as the similar $vidy\bar{a}$ in other upanishads.

Final decision. This is stated in the sūtra:

1. सर्ववेदान्तप्रस्ययं चोदनाद्यविशोषात् ।

The $vidy\bar{u}$ enjoined in all the $ved\bar{u}ntas$ is one, if the injunction and the rest do not differ.

The same decision applies to the vidyās taught in the upanishads also. Take the vaiṣvānara vidyā taught in the chāndogya and agnirahasya. See the Vedic-Texts under chapter I, section 2, sub-section 6. The injunction is the same, being given by the words upāsīta, vidyāt and the like, all of which mean 'meditate'. The words 'and the rest' in the sūtra refer to the form, the fruit and the name of the vidyā. The form of the vidyā is determined by the object to be meditated on; and this being vaiṣvānara in both places, the form is also the same. So also the name and fruit of the vidyā, the latter being the reaching of the highest Atmā. Hence, the vidyā is recognised as one in both the upanishads.

The next sūtra states the objection urged in the first view and refutes it:

सन्यापेव जयन

2. भेदान्निति चेदेकस्यामपि।

If it be contended "No; because of difference"; the reply is "Even in the same $vidy\bar{a}$ " (there may be repetition).

Repetition without difference and a new context will be necessary, when the person, to whom a $vidy\bar{a}$ is taught, is different. But where the person, who receives

the teaching, is one, and it is repeated without difference, or the subject is introduced in a new context, then because the repetition or the new context cannot be explained otherwise, the subject-matter is assumed to be different; and then the vidya, the form of which depends upon the subject matter, differs.

The next $s\bar{u}tra$ replies to the other objection in the first view:

3. स्वाध्यायस्य तथात्वे हि समाचारेऽधिकाराच सववच तन्नियमः।

To secure such qualification for one's veda; and so is it stated in the work named samāchāra: and this restriction is like the restriction of the sava offerings.

The objection is not valid. For, the ceremony referred to does no service to $vidy\bar{a}$, and is not therefore its adjunct (anga). On the other hand it imparts to a follower of the mundaka a qualification for learning it. This is known from the direction addressed to the student—"This should not be learnt by one that has not performed the ceremony (munda., III-2-11). The ceremony is therefore connected with the learning of the text of the veda. The expression 'brahma-vidyā' in the text quoted in the first view therefore means the learning of the text of the veda; but not meditation on Brahma. This view derives support from the statement in the treatise known as samāchāra, which states: "This too is explained by the ceremony connected with the veda." The work gives full directions in regard to

the ceremony known as *sirovrata*; and taking up another ceremony it makes this statement. The meaning is that it should be done in the same manner as *sirovrata*. In applying the same mode of performance to the new ceremony it uses the expression *veda-vrata*, *i.e.*, *vrata* or ceremony connected with the *veda*. As to the restriction to those that do the ceremony, there is a precedent in the restriction of the *sava* offerings, beginning with the *sapta-sūrya* and ending with the *satodana*, to a single fire in the case of the followers of the *atharva veda*, instead of being made into three fires as is usual. The restriction applies to them only, as the other restriction does.

4. दर्शयति च।

And the veda declares this.

Having brushed aside the objections raised, the author of the sūtras cites a vedic precedent to show that the same vidyā may be taught in two upanishads. The chāndogya (VIII-1-1) teaches a meditation on the small ether in the heart of man and on the qualities that are within it. "What is within it should be sought." To the query "What is in it, that should be sought" (Ibid., 2), the reply is given that they are eight qualities beginning with freedom from all karma (Ibid., 5). The taittirīya refers to this declaration, and states "In that is a small ether, free from grief; what is within it should be meditated on" (nārā., 10-23). It thus teaches meditation on the highest Atmā and on His eight qualities. This is possible only, if the vidyā

taught in both the places is one; for then the qualities mentioned in both the places should be combined.

Having thus confirmed the unity of $vidy\bar{a}$ under certain conditions already taught in the $p\bar{u}rva\ m\bar{\imath}m\bar{a}ms\bar{a}$, its practical effect is next stated:

5. उपसंहारोऽर्थाभेदाद्विधिशेषवत्समाने च।

 $Vidy\bar{a}$ being the same, the gunas should be combined; because they serve the same purpose. Like the gunas mentioned in the injunction-texts.

When a $vidy\bar{a}$ taught in two places is the same, the gunas mentioned in one place should be added to those specified in the other place also. The former set is useful to the $vidy\bar{a}$ and has therefore been mentioned in connection with it. The second set also is similarly useful, and should be combined in doing the meditation.

SUB-SECTION 2

In this and following sub-sections certain $vidy\bar{a}s$ will be examined to see whether the reasons stated for recognising them to be the same $vidy\bar{a}$ exist. The first $vidy\bar{a}$ to be considered is that known as $udgitha\ vidy\bar{a}$. $S\bar{a}man$ is the name given to certain mantras, which are in verse and are sung; and udgitha is the second out of five parts into which every $s\bar{a}man$ is divided; and it is sung before certain offerings of soma juice are made in a $soma\ y\bar{a}ga$. A meditation on udgitha is taught in the

chāndogya and in the brihad āranyaka (See Vedic Texts).1 The devas wished to overcome their enemies, the asuras, by this vidyā, and succeeded; and it is stated that whoever does this meditation similarly overcomes his enemies. The termination giving the injunction is not found in the texts; but as meditation is said to be the means to a fruit, it is assumed that an injunction udgitha vidyā is for the purpose of a exists. The kratu (offerings); and it enables the reaping of the fruit without obstruction. It cannot therefore yield any fruit of its own; and the mention of the fruit is treated by the mimamsaka as mere praise. But it was settled in chapter I-2-3, page 261, that the fruit mentioned in an arthavada may be accepted, provided that the fruit is not opposed to the fruit of the kratu. The question for consideration is whether the same vidua is taught in the two upanishads. The first view is stated in the sūtra, and the argument, that may be urged for the final decision, is anticipated and is replied to:

6. अन्यथात्वं शब्दादिति चेनाविशेषात् ।

If it be said—'Not one; because the description is so'; the reply is—'No; because there is no difference.'

The $vidy\bar{a}$ is one. For in both the upanishads the udgitha alone is to be meditated on as $pr\bar{a}na$; the fruit is the same—the overcoming of enemies. The form of meditation is also the same, as the object to be meditated on is one—udgitha to be looked upon as $pr\bar{a}na$;

¹ The original states the narrative contained in both the *upanishads*; but as this will be found in the 'Vedic Texts,' it is omitted here.

and the injunction is the same, as the terms conveying it have the same meaning; and the name is the same, udgitha vidyā.

- 2. Here an objection is raised from the point of view of the final decision. No; the form of meditation is different. In one place prāņa was appealed to and requested to sing the udgītha; and prāṇa did so. Hence the singer was meditated on as prāṇa; and in the closing words reference is made by the term 'so' (evam) to the singer of the udgītha and meditation on him is enjoined. In the other place it is expressly stated that udgītha that was sung was to be meditated on as prāṇa. Hence the form of the vidyā is different; and the identity of the injunction and of the rest does not count for anything. For there must be agreement in all the four respects; and non-agreement even in one respect will lead to difference.
- 3. The opponent replies. No; for in both the places the beginning announces udgitha as the means of overcoming enemies; and according to the well-known rule giving prominence to the beginning in the determination of a doubtful point (See Introduction, para 24) the reference to the singer in the text "prāṇa sang on their behalf" must be taken to refer to the udgitha itself, not to the udgātā, the singer. In other words the term denoting the singer should be understood in a secondary sense as in the sentence "Food cooks". Then the form of the vidyā would be the same, and the two vidyās would be one and the same.

The final decision is next stated:

7. नवा प्रकरणभेदात्परोवरीयस्त्वादिवत ।

But no; because the contexts are different. Like parovarīyastva, i.e., being higher than the high.

The two *vidyās* are different. For, in the *chāndogya* the meditation is on the syllable, known as *praṇava*, which should be prefixed to the *udgītha* and which is therefore a part of it. The *upanishad* begins with the injunction.

Meditate on this syllable, which is a part of udgitha and adds

Description of meditation on this syllable follows (I-1-10).

Then comes the second section of the upanishad, which is the subject under consideration. Hence, the object to be meditated on is not the whole of the udgitha, but only a part thereof—the syllable referred to. In the brihad āranyaka, however, there is no similar beginning to limit the signification of the term to a part, and reference must therefore be taken as made to the whole of the udgitha. Hence the two contexts differ. Another reason is that while in the chāndogya the meditation is on a part of the udgitha, in the brihad āranyaka it is on the singer of the whole. Hence, the forms of meditation and the vidyās are different.

In the *first view* reference was made to the beginning rule. The explanation given here does not conflict

with it. If the singer of the *udgitha* be meditated on, as *udgitha* is what is sung, it is necessarily required; and it may be regarded as the means of overcoming enemies. It is this that is stated at the beginning of the narrative.

2. On this point the sūtra adds an illustration. In the same upanishad (See Vedic Texts under chapter I-1-7) meditation on the same syllable as the highest Ātmā is enjoined in two sections; and yet it is directed in section 6 that He should be thought of as a Purusha shining like gold, and in section 9 as higher than the high. The two vidyās are therefore different. Similarly here.

8. सज्ञातश्चेत्तदुक्तमस्ति तु तद्पि ।

"If that (oneness of $vidy\bar{a}$) be stated; because of name" the reply is—The same name is applied, even though what is enjoined differs.

Oneness of name is not conclusive. The name agnihotra is applied to the offering made every day throughout life, and also to the offering made in a satra yāga daily for a month and then discontinued (Introduction, para, 15-vi). The name udgītha vidyā is similarly applied to many meditations described in the first chapter of the chāndogya.

9. ब्याप्तेश्व समञ्जसम्।

And because it extends to the whole of the chapter, it is all right here.

It, *i.e.*, the injunction (to meditate on the syllable, a part of the udgitha). Hence it must apply to what is

in the middle. A term denoting a whole often indicates a part only, e.g., The cloth is burnt, meaning only a part.

SUB-SECTION 3

The next vidyā considered is prāna vidyā. is described in the chandogya and brihad aranyaka upanishads (See Vedic Texts). Prāna is to be meditated on as being the oldest and the best, and as possessing certain other qualities, which are found in speech, eye, ear and mind; for prāna supports the body and the organs specified, and enables each organ to perform its own function. In the kaushitaki brāhmana also meditation on prana as being the oldest and the best is enjoined; but the qualities of speech, eye, ear and mind are not stated as connected with prana. doubt here is whether the vidyās are the same or different. The first view is that the vidyās differ; for the form of the vidyās differs. Though prāna has to be meditated on in both the places as being the oldest and the best, yet in one place the qualities of speech, eye, ear and mind enter into the meditation as connected with prana; in the other they do not enter. The next sūtra states the final decision. The viduās are the same. Those that follow the kaushītaki brāhmana should therefore meditate on the qualities of speech, eye, ear, and mind as connected with prāna.

10. सर्वाभेदादन्यत्रेमे ।

Because of non-difference in anything; these qualities should be added in the other place.

'In the other place'—in the prāna vidyā of the kaushītaki. Why? Because all the reasons urged for regarding prāna as the oldest and the best are the same in both places. These reasons are that prana supports the body and the organs, and makes each organ capable of performing its own function. This was tested by each organ going in succession out of the body for a time; yet the body remained with the other organs, and their functions went on as usual. But when prāna began to go out, all the organs became paralysed and powerless to do any work. Then speech, eye, ear, and mind stated that they all depended on prana, and that their own qualities belonged to prana alone. A similar statement by speech and the rest is not found in the kaushītaki brāhmana; but this does not make a difference.

It is stated that speech and the rest, possessing their peculiar qualities mentioned in the *upanishad*, depend upon $pr\bar{a}na$ for the performance of their functions. This shows that $pr\bar{a}na$ is the cause of the senses possessing those qualities. And this alone is the connection of $pr\bar{a}na$ with those qualities.

SUB-SECTION 4

Another matter, which is subsidiary to $pr\bar{a}na$ - $vidy\bar{a}$, will be taken up presently. In the preceding sub-section it was decided that $pr\bar{a}na$'s being the oldest and the best cannot be meditated on without meditating on the

other attributes, and that these other attributes should be added in the *prāṇa vidyā* of the *kaushītakis*. It will now be established that those attributes are to be meditated in all *brahma-vidyās*, without which it is not possible to think of the *svarūpa* of the highest *Atmā* (the substance, the seat of the attributes).

First view. The attributes in question should not be added, where they are not mentioned. There is no ground for doing so; and only those attributes should be meditated on, that are mentioned in a context.

Final decision. This is stated in the $s\bar{u}tra$:

11. आनन्दादयः प्रधानस्य ।

(In all meditations on *Brahma*) bliss and other attributes should be meditated on; because (*Brahma*) the principal object of meditation does not differ.

The term abhedāt is brought down from the preceding $s\bar{u}tra$, and the meaning will then be as stated. There are certain qualities, without which one can never think of Brahma. Bliss is one of these, and the others are stated in the definition of Brahma—" Unchanging, shining and without limitations is Brahma" (āna., I-1). In every $vidy\bar{u}$ on Brahma, as the object of meditation is the same, and as attributes do not exist apart from an object, His qualities referred to should be meditated on.

Certain other qualities are stated in the *upanishad* further on (V-2 and 3) "Pleasure is his head; *moda* is his right wing; *pramoda* is his left wing; *ānanda* is his trunk; *brahma* is the tail that supports them all" (See

Vedic Texts and note under the verse). Are these also to be meditated on? For, the reason given applies; as like bliss and the other qualities they cannot exist apart from Him. The next *sūtra* says no:

12. प्रियशिरस्त्वाद्यप्राप्तिरूपचयापचयौ हि भेदे ।

Having priya for the head and the rest do not come in; for with difference of members, there would be thickness and thinness.

For they are not attributes of *Brahma*; they will not therefore be included in the enumeration of the essential attributes, that should come into meditation; they are elements only to make up a representation of *Brahma* in the form of a human being. If He had different members, such as head, wings and tail, some would be large, and some small; some would be thick, and some thin, and this would conflict with the text already quoted as to His unchangeability, and with the text which states that He is neither stout nor lean.

There are certain other qualities of Brahma, such as the power to control, generosity (1), and compassion, which similarly cannot exist apart from Him. Are they from this fact to be meditated on in every $vidy\bar{a}$, even though they are not mentioned in connection with it? Because they are numberless, it will be impossible to meditate on them all. The next $s\bar{u}tra$ explains:

⁽¹⁾ The original has two words $g\bar{a}mbh\bar{t}rya$ and $aud\bar{u}rya$, both of which mean generosity; but there is a shade of difference between them. See note (1) on page 141.

13. इतरेत्वर्थसामान्यात ।

But the others only; because they are like the object.

The others—those first montioned, viz., bliss and the rest—come into all vidyās. For, one cannot perceive Brahma without perceiving those qualities also. Meditation on Him must therefore include meditation on them also. Brahma, stated to be the world-cause, is defined as being satya (unchanging), jnāna (shining), ananta (without limitations), and ānanda (bliss). His substance (svarūpa) can be described only with reference to these qualities, and in order to perceive this svarūpa, they must come into the meditation. But the other qualities, like the power to control and the like, are not needed to perceive Him. And though they cannot exist apart from Him, yet they must be meditated on only in those vidyās, in connection with which they are specified.

If having *priya* for the head and the rest are not attributes of *Brahma*, why is He represented as something, which He is not? There must be some purpose to be served by this representation, as in the representation of the *jiva's* body as a chariot in the *katha valli* (See chap. I, sec. 4, sub-section 1)? But this does not, however, appear. They must be regarded as the attributes of *Brahma*. The next *sūtra* replies:

14. आध्यानाय प्रयोजनाभावात् ।

For meditation; for ther is no other purpose.

Meditation is enjoined in the text "One who meditates on Brahma attains the highest". For this purpose it is necessary to form a conception of Him, who is bliss; and He is divided into priya, moda, pramoda and ānanda (all varieties of joy), and these are represented as head, the two wings (i.e., hands) and trunk. Similar representations have been described and for the same purpose in the case of annarasamaya, prānamaya, manomaya and vijnānamaya (āna., sections 1 to 4). The attributes under consideration do not enter into the perception of Him.

15. आत्मशब्दाच ।

And because the term $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ is used.

That the representation of *Brahma* in this manner is for easy comprehension will be evident from the application of the term $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ to Him in the text.

There is a Being known as $\bar{a}nandamaya$, who is other than this $vijn\bar{a}namaya$ and who is within it. He is the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ ($\bar{a}na$., V-2).

An ātmā has no divisions as head, wings and tail.

In the previous sections of the *upanishad* (sections II-2 and III-2) the term $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ has been applied to $pr\bar{a}na$ and mind, which are not $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}s$. How can it be decided that in the text quoted under the preceding $s\bar{u}tra$, the term really denotes an $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$? The $s\bar{u}tra$ replies:

16. आत्मगृहीतिरितरवदुत्तरात्।

The term $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ refers (to Brahma) as in other places; from what follows

In the text under consideration the term $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ does refer to Brahma, as in texts like the following: "Before creation this (world) was $Atm\bar{a}$ indeed; one only; He willed I will create the worlds" (aita., I-1-1). And this is supported by what follows: "He (the Being full of bliss) desired 'I will become many, and to that end I will evolve'" ($\bar{a}na.$, VI-2).

17. अन्वयादिति चेत्स्यादवधारणात् ।

If it be said '(one cannot be sure of this); because the term was previously applied to what was not $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$,' the reply is—'There is certainty; because of the affirmation.'

At first there is the text "From that Atma came forth ether" ($\bar{a}na$., I-2); and He occupies the mind. This idea of the highest Atma, as the world-cause, was transferred in succession to $pr\bar{a}na$, to mind, to the jiva and finally to the Being of bliss; and there it rests; because there is nothing beyond. This is confirmed by the subsequent passage quoted. Thus, the application of the term even in the beginning to things, which are not Brahma, was from the notion that they were. Hence, the conclusion is free from all flaws (1).

⁽¹⁾ This is what the opponent means. From the beginning rule (Intro., para 24) a subsequent text should be understood as to agree with a text at the beginning; the meaning of the latter cannot be settled with reference to the former. In the reply attention is drawn to what precedes even the beginning; and it is shown that the succeeding text does not nullify the text at the very beginning.

SUB-SECTION 5

In this sub-section the question in prāṇa vidyā left over for consideration in sub-section 3 is taken up. In both the upanishads (See Vedic Texts under sub-section 3) after prescribing a meditation on prāṇa as the oldest and the best, water is mentioned as the clothing of prāṇa (chāndo., V-2-2) and (brihad., VIII-1-14). The question for consideration is whether what is enjoined is āchamana, or meditation that the water sipped in āchamana is the clothing of prāṇa.

First view. In the mādhyandina reading the termination denoting injunction is found in connection with āchamana, but not in connection with meditation. Hence, one āchamana being prescribed by the smritis as a part of the taking of food, another āchamana is enjoined as subsidiary to prāna vidyā. This view is taken on the strength of the injunction. The reference to the clothing of prāna is mere praise.

Why then is the term $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ applied to other things? The reply is that the application was that they were the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$; and in each case by showing that there was another within it, the conception was withdrawn from it, and was fixed on this inner thing; and this went on till the $\bar{a}nandamaya$ was reached. As there was nothing within Him, other than Himself, and as He is said further on to have willed, the conception that He is $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ and the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ became established.

RELIES SUE

¹ The original quotes portions of the *upanishads* bearing on the point. As they are stated in 'Vedic Texts,' they are omitted here.

Final decision. This is stated in the sūtra:

18. कार्याख्यानादपूर्वम् ।

A new thing (is enjoined); because it is the business of the *veda* to enjoin what has not been taught already.

The sūtra takes the latter view; because this has not been taught already. The veda serves its purpose, only when it teaches something to be newly done. As to achamana it is already enjoined by the smritis; and referring to the water sipped under this injunction, it is taught that the water should be regarded as the clothing of prāna. This appears from the sentences at the beginning and end. In the beginning there is the query of prāna. "What will be my clothing" and the reply is "water is the clothing". The closing words of the upanishads state "They clothe (prana) with water" and "They make that prana other than naked". Hence in the chandogya reference is made only to clothing with water; but not to सन्यमव जयन āchamana (1).

⁽¹⁾ Preceding this topic there is the injunction that the food offered to all animals should be meditated on as the food of $pr\bar{a}na$; and by the side of this another meditation on the water sipped in $\bar{a}chamana$ as the clothing of $pr\bar{a}na$ is clearly intended. The termination denoting injunction is found in connection with $\bar{a}chamana$ only in the $m\bar{a}dhyandina$ text, but not in the others. Hence the conclusion stated stands.

SUB-SECTION 6

In the $s\bar{a}ndilya$ $vidy\bar{a}$ taught in the brihad $\bar{a}ranyaka$ and agnirahasya a meditation is prescribed on the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ as abiding in the heart of man, and as possessed of certain attributes. The question for consideration is whether the same $vidy\bar{a}$ is taught in the two upanishads.

First view. Though there is agreement in respect of the fruit, the injunction and the name of the $vidy\bar{a}$, its form differs; for in one place reference is made to the possession of an unfrustrated will, and in the other to being the controller of all, the lord of all and the supporter of all by will. Hence they are two $vidy\bar{a}s$.

Final decision. This is stated in the sūtra:

19. समान एवं चाभेदात ।

And the set of qualities being thus the same (the vidyas are one); because there is no difference.

The same set of qualities is stated in both—perceivable with a pure mind, and having a brilliant body; and the following addition is made. In one "He controls all; He is the lord of all; and he supports all this, whatever exists". In the other "with an unfrustrated will". These additions do not differ. The addition in one place is an amplification of the addition made in the other. For, having an unfrustrated will, the

¹ The description of the $vidy\bar{a}$ in the original by quotations is omitted here, as it is given in the 'Vedic Texts'.

highest $Atm\bar{a}$ controls all and supports all by His will. Being the lord of all is also useful; for the control over one, that is not His own, may suffer obstruction occasionally; but as everything is His own, He may control them at His pleasure. Hence, the form being the same, the $vidy\bar{a}$ is one (1).

SUB-SECTION 7

See brihad āranyaka (Vedic Texts), which describes meditation on the unchanging Purusha in the sun's orb and on the unchanging Purusha in the right eye as having a body made up of three mantras. Two secret names are stated—ahar of the former and aham of the latter; and meditation on these names is subsidiary to the other meditation. The question is whether each name is connected with the Purusha in regard to whom it is stated, or whether both may be connected with either indifferently.

First view. The Being to be meditated on is the same—the unchanging highest Atmā, whose body is made

⁽¹⁾ Here, the opponent may contend—Both the upanishads are portions of the same branch of the veda; and the repetition in one of what is stated in the other without any difference cannot be explained as in $s\bar{u}tra$ 2 with reference to difference in the persons learning the $vidy\bar{a}$. Nor is it possible to justify the repetition as serving some purpose. Hence there are two vidyas. Reply. The repetition serves the purpose of explaining what is stated briefly in one place, and it is usual to mention a thing briefly and then to explain it.

up of the three mantras; and as He is connected with both the places, He is one; the form of $vidy\bar{a}$ is therefore one, and the fruit and the rest are also one. The $vidy\bar{a}$ is therefore one; and the names may be meditated on in the $vidy\bar{a}$ on one or the other Purusha. This is stated in the $s\bar{u}tra$:

20. सम्बन्धादेवमन्यत्रापि ।

Similarly elsewhere also; because of the connection.

The reasoning in the preceding sub-section is applied here by the opponent. There, as the same attributes were found in the object of meditation, it was held that the form of meditation was the same, and that the attributes mentioned in both places should be combined. Similarly, the object of meditation being the same here also, both the names should be combined in each meditation. The final decision is stated in the next sūtra:

21. न वा विशेषात ।

But no; because of difference.

The object of meditation differs. Though it is the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ in both the $vidy\bar{a}s$, He is to be meditated on in one as being in the orb of the sun; and in the other as abiding in the right eye of man. Hence the form of the $vidy\bar{a}s$ differs. In the $s\bar{a}ndilya$ $vidy\bar{a}s$ the place of meditation does not differ; for in both it is the heart.

22. दर्शयति च।

And the text shows this.

This—that the attributes mentioned with reference to the orb of the sun and with reference to the eye should not be combined. The text is

That which is the form of that Purusha (purusha in the sun's orb), the very same is the form of this Purusha (purusha in the eye) ($ch\bar{a}ndo$., I-7-5).

This special application of the form indicates that the form of the first mentioned does not apply to the next one of itself, and that the two *Purushas* are different (1).

SUB-SECTION S

The following text occurs in the yajur veda. "By Brahma invincible powers have been obtained; this invincible Brahma pervaded heaven before (the birth of Indra); Brahma appeared before all beings; who is fit to quarrel with this Brahma". Here two attributes are mentioned—obtaining invincible powers and pervading heaven; but not after commencing description of

⁽¹⁾ What is stated above requires some explanation. The meaning of the opponent is that the beginning and end are alike, and that the name being one, viz, $vy\bar{u}hriti\ vidy\bar{u}$, the meditation is one, and that therefore the $vidy\bar{u}$ may be done in one place or another, and with either name. The final decision denies that the beginning and the end are alike. The beginning mentions two persons; and this number indicates difference in the principal object of meditation. In the end also the fruit of meditation on the Purusha in the sun's orb is stated, and after finishing this, the other $vidy\bar{u}$ is dealt with.

any particular $vidy\bar{a}$. Are they to be included in every meditation? The $s\bar{u}tra$ says no:

23. सम्भृतिशुव्याप्यपि चातः ।

The obtaining of invincible powers and the pervading of heaven (should also be restricted); for the same reason.

Even though the text is not connected with any particular $vidy\bar{a}$, and the attributes should therefore be included in all, yet because the places differ, the attributes should be restricted (1). Why? Because in $vidy\bar{a}s$, in which the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ should be meditated on as abiding in a small place like the heart, it is not possible to think of Him also as pervading heaven. The other attribute, being connected with it, shares the same fate.

2. Objection. In the $s\bar{a}ndilya$ vidy \bar{a} and dahara vidy \bar{a} considered in chapter I-2-1 and I-3-5, in both of which the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ abiding in the heart is

⁽¹⁾ For a precedent see $p\bar{u}rva$ $m\bar{t}m\bar{a}ms\bar{a}$, III-6-1. The text 'He, whose $juh\bar{u}$ is made of parna wood, does not hear unpleasant statements, occurs unconnected with any place in which a $y\bar{a}ga$ is enjoined.' The question was considered whether this applies equally to prakriti and vikriti $y\bar{a}gas$. (For the meaning of these terms see Introduction, para 31.) It might be thought that as the $juh\bar{u}$ is used for making offerings in both, the injunction applies to both. This was the first view. The final decision is that it applies to prakriti $y\bar{a}gas$ only. For in a vikriti $y\bar{a}ga$, the $juh\bar{u}$ finds no place, before the ritual of a prakriti $y\bar{a}ga$ is adopted for the vikriti $y\bar{a}ga$; and when this adoption is made, the condition that the $juh\bar{u}$ should be made of parna wood will come along with the $juh\bar{u}$ from the prakriti $y\bar{a}ga$.

meditated on, the following descriptions occur—"larger than the earth," and "As large as this ether is, so large is the ether within the heart". How is it possible to meditate on Him as being in the heart and at the same time as being larger than earth or ether? Reply. The large size is not intended to form a part of the meditation. The fact that in Himself He is without limitation is stated (1).

SUB-SECTION 9

This deals with purusha vidyā taught in the chāndogya and taittiriya upanishads. See Vedic Textst.

⁽¹⁾ Another objection. Among the attributes, which should enter into every $vidy\bar{a}$, as stated in sub-section 4, that of being without limitations is one; and in this is included absence of limitation in place. How is it possible to think of this aspect in the sandilya and dahara vidyas? Reply. the highest Atmā is by nature all-pervading, this aspect may be thought on by one at the same time, as he thinks that out of infinite mercy He is present in his heart to help him. There is no incongruity in this; one aspect pertaining to nature and the other due to a limiting place. If the meditation were as stated by the text under consideration, there would be two limitations—one by the size of the heart, and the other by the size of earth or ether; and the resulting sizes would conflict. This reply removes a still further objection. The text under consideration describes the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ as He is; no meditation is stated; and there is therefore no room for any enquiry. Reply. In the case of a Being, who is omnipresent, the statement that He pervades heaven can serve no purpose other than that He should be meditated as so limited.

The question for consideration is whether the vidyās differ or not.

First view. They are one. First, the name is the same, viz., purusha vidyā. Next, meditation on the attributes of a person as the parts or adjuncts of a yajna is taught, and this is the same in both; hence the form is the same. In the taittirīya no fruit is mentioned. But in the absence of a conflicting fruit (for that would lead to a difference in the $vidy\bar{a}s$), the oneness of name and form makes one recognise the $vidy\bar{a}$ as one; and as what is not mentioned in one place may be supplied from another, the fruit stated in the other upanishad, which is itself the fruit of purusha vidyā, should be added in the taittirīya. The result is that the same fruit is connected with the $vidy\bar{a}$. Hence, the same $vidy\bar{a}$ is taught in both the places (1).

⁽¹⁾ Objection. At the end of the upanishad this statement is made: "He attains the greatness of Brahma." How can it be said that no fruit is mentioned? Reply. A mere meditation on man is not meditation on Brahma; and the fruit referred to as stated is inapplicable to it. As Brahma vidyā is dealt with in the preceding section of the upanishad, the sentence should be taken out and added therein.

See the precedent in $p\bar{u}rva$ $m\bar{t}m\bar{a}ms\bar{a}$, III-3-13. A text prescribing three upasads for a soma $y\bar{a}ga$ with one $suty\bar{a}$ day, and twelve for $ah\bar{t}na$ $y\bar{a}gas$ occurs in a place that deals with the jyotishtoma $y\bar{a}ya$. A $suty\bar{a}$ day is the day in which the offerings of the soma juice are made. There is only one such day in the jyotishtoma $y\bar{a}ga$; and a $y\bar{a}ga$, in which there are more than $suty\bar{a}$ day up to twelve, is known as $ah\bar{t}na$; and this is its recognised meaning. It is therefore decided that the portion of the text prescribing twelve upasads for $ah\bar{t}na$ $y\bar{a}gas$ should be taken out of the context.

Final decision. The $vidy\bar{a}s$ differ. This is stated in the $s\bar{u}tra$:

24. पुरुषविद्यायामपि चेतरेषामनाम्नानात् ।

And in purusha vidyā too (the vidyās differ); because what is stated in one place is not stated in the other.

Thus in the taittiriya the parts of the day-morning, midday and evening—are stated to be savanas (See note in Vedic Texts); while in the other man's life-period divided into three parts are to be so regarded. Next hunger, thirst and abstinence from sexual intercourse are to be looked upon as dikshā according to the chāndogya; but this is not found in the other. On the other hand the meditator should think of himself as the yajamāna (doer of yāga), and his faith as the wife according to the taittiriya; but this is not taught in the other. Hence the form of vidyās differs.

2. Similarly the fruit also differs. In the taittiriya in the preceding section one is asked to offer himself to Brahma in these words—"Offer yourself with the pranava mantra saying For you, the great Brahma." This is a brahma vidyā; and its fruit is next stated "He reaches the greatness of Brahma". Then follows the section dealing with purusha vidyā. It means that the person who does the meditation should also meditate on himself as yajna, Purusha vidyā is therefore a vidyā subsidiary to brahma vidyā, and has the same fruit as the other. For the rule is that when a thing is mentioned without fruit by the side of another with fruit, the former is subsidiary to the latter. The purusha

vidya in the chāndogya yields as its fruit the attainment of a full life. As both the form and fruit differ the two vidyās are not identical (1).

SUB-SECTION 10

In the preceding sub-section it was decided that the purusha $vidy\bar{a}$ taught by the side of a $brahma\ vidy\bar{a}$ was connected with it as a subsidiary $vidy\bar{a}$. The opponent in this sub-section proposes to extend this rule to certain mantras and to certain karmas, which are stated in

⁽¹⁾ Question. Why is reaching the greatness of Brahma stated at the end of the section of the upanishad dealing with purusha $vidy\bar{a}$. Reply. The mention of the fruit in the former section is to show that one, that desires it, should carry out the injunction, as in the text "He that desires svarga should do $y\bar{a}ga$ ". In the next section the subsidiary meditation is described; and the fruit of the brahma vidya with its helper is stated at the end.

Question again. Why is this sub-section added. The only thing common to the two $vidy\bar{u}s$ is the name, while the difference in the form is patent. Reply. The intention is to show that the $ny\bar{u}sa\ vidy\bar{u}$ in the $taittir\bar{v}ya$ is the principal, and that the $purusha\ vidy\bar{u}$, which follows it, is subsidiary to it.

One more question. If the meditator in the purusha $vidy\bar{a}$ is to meditate on his belongings as parts of yajna, why are certain things like the $ch\bar{a}turm\bar{a}sya$, which are not parts of yajna, mentioned in the upanishad? Reply. The intention is merely to praise one that does the $ny\bar{a}sa\ vidy\bar{a}$. In this view there is no $vidy\bar{a}$ in the $taittir\bar{a}ya$; and the oneness contended for in the $first\ view$ fails.

upanishads by the side of *brahma vidyās*. They are as follows:

(1) Pierce through the bright body (of my enemy); pierce through the heart (atharva upanishad); (2) Deva, savitah, permit the yajna to be done (sāma veda); (3) May Mitra be the yielder of happiness to us; may Vāruņa be the yielder of happiness (taittirīya); (4) You are a horse white, green and blue (sātyāyanin). The aitareyins begin thefr mahāvrata brāhmaṇa thus; "Indra killed vṛītra and became great": The kaushītakis also begin the same with the text— Prajāpati is the year; this mahāvrata is his ātmā; and the vājasaneyins begin the pravargya brāhmaṇa with the words "Devas performed satra."

The question for consideration is whether those mantras and karmas are connected with brahma vidyas and serve them or not.

First view. They are so connected; for they are taught together in the same place.

2. An objection is raised—They are connected with karmas, each with each, by authorities like sruti, linga and vākya, all of which are stronger than the authority known as sthāna or place. The first text is a prayer to a devatā in a yāga done for destroying one's enemy; and the mantra is connected with it from the capacity (linga) of the term 'pierce through'. Other mantras are similarly connected by linga or sruti. The karma known as pravargya, though described without reference to anything else, is known to be subsidiary to jyotishtoma from the text "They do pravargya before upasad"; and upasad, as is well-known, serves the jyotishtoma yāga. In the same way the karma known as mahāvrata serves what is known as gavamayana.

How can they be said to be connected with brahma vidyās?

Reply. Be this as it may (1). The text no. 3, and the corresponding mantra 'may he guard us together' have no use elsewhere, and being included in the upanishads, where vidyās are taught, they must be subsidiary to vidyās. Hence these mantras should be utilised in all vidyās.

Final decision. They are not subsidiary to $vidy\bar{a}s$. This is stated in the $s\bar{u}tra$:

25. वेधाद्यर्थभेदात्।

Because they are for destruction and other purposes.

The first text is applied to a *karma* to bring about the destruction of one's enemy; and the use of the other texts is stated by the objector in paragraph 2 of the *first view*. This is patent. Similarly the third text

⁽¹⁾ Though they are connected with karmas as stated, they may yet be connected with vidyās also, so that their inclusion in the upanishads may not become useless. There is a precedent for this in the $p\bar{u}rva$ $m\bar{\iota}m\bar{\sigma}ms\bar{a}$. There is a direction to build the place for the ahavaniya fire with specially-made bricks so as to be of the shape of a bird; and one is directed to do the jyotishtoma yūga with this fire. Here the direction, which is $v\bar{a}kya$, nullifies the place (sthāna) authority, which connects jyotishtoma with a fireplace made in the usual way as described in that context. Yet this latter fire becomes also useful, when the brick-made fire is not resorted to. Similarly here. Reply. nation is untenable. To apply the mantras to brahma-vidyà, it will be necessary to resort to secondary meanings; but the words themselves indicate connection with particular karmas, but not with vidyās; and this cannot be got over $(bh\bar{a}va).$

and the text quoted by the opponent in the same paragraph are connected with learning the text of the veda. For, further on in one of the mantras the following words occur: "I will recite ritam (1); I will recite satyam"; This is stated in beginning the learning; and when it is closed for the day, the words are 'I recited ritam. I recited satyam'.

In the other mantra the latter portion is "May the text recited by us (teacher and student) be bright (i.e., efficacious). May we not dislike each other". These marks clearly connect the mantras with learning the text of the veda. This is done by the teacher's reciting a text and the students' repeating it after him.

2. The argument in paragraph 2 of the first view, that the inclusion in the upanishads indicates a connection with brahma vidyā, is not correct. The inclusion is for another purpose. They have to be recited in the day, and in a desert place, where they will not be heard by women and by those that have not gone through the upanayana ceremony. As the upanishads are of this description, the mantras and the portions dealing with pravargya and mahāvrata find a place in them.

SUB-SECTION 11

The following texts state that one, that does $brahma\ vidy\bar{a}$, should include in it the thought that he

⁽¹⁾ The terms *ritam* and satyam refer to the texts, as they are unchanged either in the letter or in meaning.

abandons his *karma*, good and bad deeds, and that they go to his friends and enemies respectively. They are:

(i) Shaking off karma, as a horse shakes off the hair on its body, released from the body, as the moon is released from the mouth of $r\bar{u}hu$ (in an eclipse) and throwing off the body, I will reach the eternal Brahma-world, the purpose of my life having been attained $(ch\bar{u}ndo., VIII-13-1)$; (ii) Then the meditator, shaking off good and bad deeds, and free from all touch of matter, attains the highest likeness to Him (munda., III-1-3); (iii) His sons take his property; his friends his good deeds; his enemies his bad deeds $(s\bar{u}ty\bar{u}yana)$; and (iv) Then, he shakes off good and bad deeds; his dear cousins take the good deeds; his enemies his bad deeds (kaushitaki).

Thus, the abandonment of karma is stated in two texts; its going to friends and foes in one; and both in the last. Meditation on both points should form part of all $vidy\bar{a}s$. For, the meditator, whatever be his $vidy\bar{a}$, in reaching Brahma should shake off his good and bad deeds, and what is shaken off should go to some one (1). The question for consideration is whether the meditation may be on one or the other point or on both at pleasure or on both without option.

⁽i) The mention of both the points is for the purpose of meditation, like the place, in which the object of meditation should be located, and like His attributes. The purpose is not merely to state the fruit; for in the $s\bar{u}ndilya\ vidy\bar{u}$ it is stated: Departing from here, I shall reach Him' (chāndo., III-14-4). Here meditation on one variety of fruit is enjoined; in the first text this is connected with the abandonment of good and bad deeds; and in the fourth text this again is connected with their disposal. Hence both points should be included in meditation.

First view. The former is the proper alternative; for, the points are stated in various ways. Their combination in every $vidy\bar{a}$ could not have been intended; for as this would follow from the fourth text, the reference to them in the other texts would serve no purpose. This objection cannot be got over on the plea that the teaching is conveyed to different students; for the only case in which this will be a satisfactory explanation is stated in $s\bar{u}tra$ 2 of this section—i.e., repetition without difference; but here the statement is not the same. Nor can the objection be answered with reference to difference in $vidy\bar{a}s$; for it has been stated to be a part of every $vidy\bar{a}$.

Final decision. Both points should be meditated on in every $vidy\bar{a}$. The reason is stated in the $s\bar{u}tra$:

26. हानौ तूपायनशब्दशेषत्वात्कुशाच्छन्दस्स्तुत्युपगानवत्त-दृक्तम्।

In the mention of abandonment (the other is implied); for the text as to disposal is subsidiary to the other text; as in the case of $ku\bar{s}\bar{a}$, metre, stotra and $upag\bar{u}na$; this is stated.

The meaning is that, when only one point is mentioned (1), the other also is meant; and that both should be combined. Because the texts as to the disposal of the good and bad deeds supplement the information conveyed in the other set of texts; and this is

⁽¹⁾ The term $h\bar{a}nau$ (in the abandonment) is intended to include the other, *i.e.*, the disposal also. Hence when one of them is mentioned, it should be combined with the other.

appropriate; the former set explains what becomes of the karma when abandoned. It does not matter that the two sets are found in different places. There are precedents for this in the pūrva mīmāmsā: There is the text "kuṣas are parts of a tree"; another text states "kusas are parts of the udumbara tree; and the latter text is taken to explain the former. The term kusā means pegs used by the udgata in counting the number of times songs are repeated (1). Next, the text "with the metres of the devas and asuras" does not state the in which they should be taken. devāsura in the original is a compound; and though its members occur in a certain order, a rule of grammar requires that the word with fewer syllables should come first. The order in the compound is not therefore conclusive. Another text is needed; and this is found in another place thus: "The metres of the devas come first." Next, the text 'Let him cause the stotra of the shodasi graha (2) to be commenced with gold, does not state when this should be done. Another text

⁽¹⁾ In a soma $y\bar{a}ga$ the $udg\bar{a}t\bar{a}$ and his two assistants have to sing certain mantras, which are known as stotras. Each verse sung is known as $stotr\bar{\imath}ya$, and in each stotra there should be a fixed number of $stotr\bar{\imath}yas$, nine, fifteen, seventeen, or twenty-one. In many cases, there are only three verses and therefore only three $stotr\bar{\imath}yas$. The number required is made up by repeating the $stotr\bar{\imath}yas$. There are three rounds, in each of which one $stotr\bar{\imath}ya$ is sung more than once, and the others but once.

⁽²⁾ In a soma $y\bar{a}ga$ the juice of the soma creeper is offered in small cylindrical vessels, known as grahas. Of these many are offered after the $udg\bar{a}t\bar{a}$ sings a stotra and

states "when the sun is half set, he causes the *stotra* of the *shadoṣī graha* to be commenced". Lastly, the general permission to the helpers in a *yāga* to sing with the *udgātā* 'ritviks sing along with the *udgātā* 'is limited by the text "The *adhvaryu* shall not sing".

If it be not admitted that one text in one place stating a thing in general terms can be explained or limited by another text in another place, it must be assumed that option is given to the meditator; but its exercise is objectionable, as long as any other course is open; and this principle is laid down in the pūrva mimāmsā (X-8-1). See Introduction, para 36. Thus the texts mentioning only abandonment of karma and only its going to others form a connected whole; and as neither one nor the other by itself exists, there is no room for the exercise of option. The mention of both in the kaushītaki is explained with reference to the difference among the persons taught.

SUB-SECTION 12

In the preceding sub-section reference was made to the abandonment of good and bad deeds by a meditator. When does this take place? Is it partly at the departure from the body, and partly on the way to the highest heaven, or wholly when he departs?

the hota recites a sastra (a number of verses from the rik veda). The sixteenth offering thus made is known as the offering of the shodast graha.

First view: It is the former alternative; for so is it stated. The kaushītaki begins with these words:

He reaches the way known as the $devay\bar{a}na$, and goes to the world of agni

and concludes thus:

He comes to the stream $viraj\bar{a}$; he crosses it with his mind (i.e., an effort of the mind); then he throws off good and bad deeds.

This is authority for the abandonment on the way. On the other hand the time is stated to be the moment of departure (see the first text quoted in the preceding sub-section from the *chāndogya*); also the *sātyāyana* text, which shows that it takes place at the same time as the sons take the property of the departed. Hence a part is abandoned at the time of departure from the body, and the remainder on the way.

Final decision: The whole of the karma is abandoned at the time of departure from the body. This is stated in the $s\bar{u}tra$:

27. साम्परायेतर्तव्याभावात्तथाह्यन्ये ।

(The abandonment of karma takes place) at departure; because of the absence of enjoyment; for so others declare.

Because after such departure there is no more fruit of good or evil deeds to be expended by enjoyment. The only thing that remains is the fruit of $brahma\ vidy\bar{a}$, viz., the reaching of Brahma. And this is what some $upanishads\ say$:

One that is without a body welcome and unwelcome things do not touch (chāndo,, VIII-12-1); For him there is

delay only so long as he is not released (from the body). Then he is united to Sat (Ibid., VI-14-2); This jiva rises from this body, reaches the highest Light, and appears in his own form (Ibid., VIII-12-2).

28. छन्दत उभायाविरोधात ।

(The text to the contrary should be interpreted) at pleasure, so that both may not conflict.

Reference is made to the *kaushītaki* text quoted in the *first view*. In the preceding *sūtra* the decision was arrived at from a consideration of the nature of things. In order that this decision and the text may not conflict, the last part of the text 'He throws off good and bad deeds' should be placed before the beginning, as the sentence stands at present. This follows the rule stated in Introduction, para 26 (iii).

Here the opponent comes forward with an objection:

29. गतेर्थवत्वमुभयथाऽन्यथा हि विरोध: ।

The text regarding going on the path will have a meaning only (on the hypothesis of karma being abandoned) in both ways. Otherwise, there will be contradiction.

If all *karma* is left behind at departure, even the subtle body must disappear. Then the *jiva* by himself cannot go, being a minute atom; and the capacity to do anything at will has not yet come.

The next sūtra replies:

30. उपपन्नस्तल्लक्षणार्थोपलब्धेर्लोकवत् ।

The theory is appropriate; because the fact of a released jiva being connected with a body is seen; as in ordinary experience.

The theory that all *karma* is left behind at departure is appropriate. Because it is known that a *jiva*, that has left all *karma* behind, and has attained his own nature, may still have a body. Referring to one, that has reached the highest Light and attained his own nature, it is said:

There he enjoys Him all round; he eats, enjoys (as he pleases); he amuses himself with women, carriages, or cousins $(ch\bar{a}ndo., VIII-12-2 \text{ and } 3)$; He becomes free, and he can go about at pleasure in all worlds (Ibid., VII-25-2); and He appears as one; appears as three; as five (Ibid., VII-26-2).

Hence, one, whose karma has disappeared, may retain the subtle body and proceed on the devayāna. Question. But does not even the subtle body go with the karma, which brought it into existence? Reply. It remains owing to the peculiar merit of the vidyā. The vidyā did not bring it into existence; but it retains it in order that the jiva may perform the journey. Such a thing is seen in the world. People dig a tank for irrigation; and even when this purpose has been served, and the motive for the excavation has disappeared, the tank is retained in a good condition for drinking purposes.

The opponent raises another objection: If what is stated be a fact, how does it happen that the sage *Vasishta*, for instance, who had seen the highest Being, entered into another body, when he died, and experienced pleasure at the birth of a son and grief at his death? The next *sūtra* replies:

31. यावद्धिकारमवस्थितिराधिकारिकाणाम् ।

Those, holding certain offices, have some karma left, so long as the office lasts.

It is not asserted that every wise man abandons good and evil deeds at death. This is true only of those that depart from the body to enter on the *devayāna*. Vasishṭa held an office in the economy of nature; and he did not enter on the *devayāna*, when he died; because his office had come to him as the fruit of karma, and it continued. This karma remains as long as the office lasts (1).

SUB-SECTION 13

In the *upakosala* and other *vidyās* journey on the *devayāna* is described. See *Vedic* Texts. Is progress on

⁽¹⁾ It should be noted that though no karma is left at the point of death that will yield fruit, there is still some small portion, which prevents the full expansion of the attribute $jn\bar{a}na$. Even this disappears, when the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ is reached.

this path limited to those that do these $vidy\bar{a}s$, or is it common to them and all others also?

First view. It is limited; for it is not mentioned in connection with other $vidy\bar{a}s$; and there is no authority for extending it to them (1).

Final decision: There is no limitation. This is stated in the $s\bar{u}tra$:

32. अनियमस्तर्वेषामविरोधश्शब्दानुमानाभ्याम् ।

No limitation. If common to all, there will be no conflict with the vedu and smritis.

Those that do all $vidy\bar{a}s$ have to go along the same path. If this were not so, there would be conflict with the teaching of the veda and the smritis. The brihad $\bar{a}ranyaka$ states "Those that thus meditate on this (the

⁽¹⁾ Objection. Chandogya, V-10 and the corresponding portion of the brihad aranyaka (VIII-2) bring up before the mind all other meditators. Reply. It is not made out that they do so. If the path were common to all, why is the description in chapter V-10 of the chandogya repeated in chapter IV, section 15 of the same upanishad? The explanation that the students were different cannot be put forward, as the repetition occurs in the same upanishad. It cannot be contended that progress on the path is taught in one place and that it is repeated in the other; for there is no ground for determining which place teaches for the first time and which repeats the teaching. The purpose of the repetition cannot be to praise the path, as in the preceding section the fires told the student "your teacher will teach you the path" (chando., IV-14-1). See Vedic Texts under chapter I-2-3. This shows that the teaching was not complete without instruction on this point, and that it is therefore peculiar to that vidya.

nature of the jiva) (1), and those that in the forest meditate on Brahma (Satyam) with eagerness, go to light" (VIII-2-15); and the chāndogya has the same teaching (V-10-1). Here the terms used in the original are satyam in one, and tapas in the other. The former term denotes Brahma from vedic usage—"Unchanging, (satyam), shining and without limitation is Brahma" (āna., 1-1); and "Satyam alone should be meditated on" (chāndo., VII-16-1). The other term tapas should have the same meaning, as the two texts convey the same teaching (2). The bhagavad gitā is to the same effect: "The light of fire, the day, the bright fortnight, when the moon waxes, the six months of the sun's northward progress—men that meditate on Brahma go on this path and reach Brahma" (VIII-24).

2. The repetition on which the *first view* relies is for the purpose of praise. This is evident from the reference to the performance or non-performance of the obsequies of the departed. See the text under consideration in *Vedic* Texts. Or the purpose was to add the information that those that go on the path do not return (3).

⁽¹⁾ The first clause refers to those that do the fivefires meditation described in that place; and the second clause to those that meditate on Brahma.

⁽²⁾ Meditation with eagerness is stated elsewhere after referring to meditation on satyam "Eagerness should be obtained" ($ch\bar{u}ndo$., VII-19).

⁽³⁾ The meditation on the abandonment of karma at the point of death, on its going to friends and foes,

SUB-SECTION 14

See the texts in *Vedic Texts* under chapter I-2-5 and chapter I-3-3. They refer to *Brahma* by the term *akshara*, and deny of Him a number of attributes that are found in *jivas* or matter. The effect of this is to affirm that He cannot be touched by any imperfection, and that His nature is unique. The question for consideration is whether this nature should be included in all *brahma vidyās*, or only in the *vidyā* in which it is stated.

First view. Only in the particular $vidy\bar{a}$ in which it is mentioned. There is no authority for importing into a $vidy\bar{a}$ the attributes that constitute the form of another $vidy\bar{a}$; and being in the form of denial, the attributes denied cannot be useful like bliss and other attributes in the perception of Brahma. It is only when the substance has been grasped with their help, that these attributes can be denied; for it is not possible to make a denial, unless the subject regarding which it is made is present.

Final decision: Meditation on this nature of the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ should form part of every $brahma\ vidy\bar{a}$. This is stated in the $s\bar{u}tra$:

and on the progress on the $devay\bar{u}na$ are subsidiary to brahma $vidy\bar{u}$. But as they partake of the nature of meditation, they are included in this section; and the intention is also to distinguish these subsidiary meditations from certain karmas, which are also subsidiary to brahma $vidy\bar{u}$, and which are dealt with in the next section.

33. अक्षरियांत्ववरोधस्सामान्यतद्भावाभ्यामौपसदवत्तदुक्तम् ।

The conception of Akshara enters into every vidyā; because He is the same, and the attributes come into His perception. Like the mantras of upasad; it has been stated.

Because the object to be meditated on in all viduās is the same, viz, the highest $Atm\bar{a}$; and because also in the perception of that object the nature declared by the denials comes in. An object is perceived by perceiving its specific character, i.e., that character by which it is differentiated from everything else. The possession of bliss and the other attributes stated in sub-section 4 does not by itself bring before the mind His specific character; for they are found in jivas also. To bliss and the rest should be added incompatibility with all imperfections. This feature is not found in the jiva, who, though without imperfections in himself, is fit to be connected with them. This trait, which is needed, is the reverse of the attributes found in this universe consisting of matter and jivas; and it is stated in the two texts cited.

The sutra adds an illustration to show that attributes are inseparably connected with the seat of them. In a soma yāga, in which the offerings of the soma juice are repeated on four days, and which is connected with the name of Jamadagni, a subsidiary karma known as upasad is done on twelve days; and the principal offering in it on each day is a cake of fried rice flour. This is prescribed in the yajur veda, while the mantras for making the offerings are stated in the sāma

veda. The mantras have to be recited in an undertone like mantras in the $yajur\ veda$, while those of the $s\bar{a}ma$ veda are recited in a loud tone. This follows the principle laid down in the $p\bar{u}rva\ m\bar{l}m\bar{a}ms\bar{a}$ (1).

Here the opponent raises an objection. The object meditated on in every $brahma\ vidy\bar{a}$ being the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$, and He being the seat of numberless attributes, which are inseparably connected with Him, they would all come into every $vidy\bar{a}$, and their limitation to particular $vidy\bar{a}s$ would be futile. The next $sutr\bar{a}$ replies:

34. इयदामननात् ।

So much only; for meditation.

Only those attributes come into all $vidy\bar{a}s$ without which the highest $\bar{A}tma$ cannot be perceived; and they are those stated in sub-section 4 and in this sub-section. All other qualities should be taken into account only in those $vidy\bar{a}s$, in which they are specially mentioned.

⁽¹⁾ The principle referred to is as follows: In the karma known as $\bar{a}dh\bar{a}na$ (establishing the three fires) certain $s\bar{a}ma$ mantras have to be sung. The karma is the principal one, and the singing of the $s\bar{a}man$ is subsidiary to it. As subsidiary things should follow the principal, the $s\bar{a}man$ should be sung in an undertone, as mantras in the yajur veda are; and not like verses in the $s\bar{a}ma$ veda, which should be recited in a high tone (Intro., para 24). $Adh\bar{a}na$ is enjoined in the yajur veda (III-3-2).

SUB-SECTION 15

See *Vedic* Texts. *Yājnavalkya* was questioned by two persons. The question was the same—

Tell me about Him, who is Brahma in the primary meaning of the term, who is eternal and omnipresent, and who is the inner ruler of all.

The answers were different—To Ushasta it was

He, who with $pr\bar{a}na$ does the work of $pr\bar{a}na$, is your $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$, abiding within all

and other words to the same effect. To a further question from the same person, the answer was

Do not see him that sees, do not hear about him that hears, do not think about him that thinks, do not meditate on him that meditates.

The answer to Kahola, the other questioner, was

He is the inner ruler of all, who transcends hunger and thirst, grief and confusion, old age and death.

Here the question for consideration is whether one $vidy\bar{a}$ is taught or two $vidy\bar{a}s$.

First view. Two vidyās are taught; for their forms are different; and this follows from the different replies given, though the question was one. In the former reply the worker with $pr\bar{a}na$ is stated to be the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ within all, and in the latter one that is without hunger and the rest. Reference is made in the former to a jiva, who breathes, and who is other than the body, the senses, the mind, $pr\bar{a}na$ and the attribute $jn\bar{a}na$, and in the latter to the highest $Atm\bar{a}$, who is other than the jiva, and who is without hunger and the rest.

2. Here a question is put to the opponent. How can a jiva be the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ within all? Reply. The jiva has a number of elements forming his body; and he is within them and controls them all. It is no doubt true that this is a limited control; but there is no help for it. If it be assumed out of a predilection for unlimited control that the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ is referred to in the first reply, the difference in the replies cannot be got over. The first answer refers to the jiva; for breathing with $pr\bar{a}na$ can never apply to the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$; the latter reply refers to Him; for He is without hunger and the rest.

The sutra states this first view and then rejects it:

35. अन्तराभूतप्रामवत्स्वात्मनाऽन्यथाभेदानुपपत्तिरिति चेन्नोप देशवत् ।

If it be said—"The first reply about being within all pertains to the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$, the owner of the group of elements; otherwise impropriety in the form of different replies" the reply is—No; like the teaching (in sad vidyā).

The final decision is stated in the last part of the sūtra: Only one vidyā is taught. For in both the places the question and answers relate to the highest Atmā. First as to the question. The term brahma, though denoting Him only, is sometimes applied to the piva also in a secondary sense. To distinguish Him from the jiva, the epithet sākshāt (directly) has been added. The term aparokshāt means one, that is present in one's view; and this will be possible only, if he is connected with all places and with all times; it is appropriate

only in the highest $Atm\bar{a}$, who is stated to be without limitations in the text "Unchanging, shining and without limitations is Brahma" (āna., I-1). And being within all is also true only of Him; for He is stated to be in everything, beginning with earth and ending with the jiva (brihad., V-7-7 to 27). Next, the first reply also relates to Him. It refers to one that does the work of prāna, using it as an instrument, and to one that does this at all times, and not only during waking moments. Such an one is Brahma, not a jiva; for in deep sleep he does not do this work. Ushasta did not grasp the full scope of the answer. He thought that mere working with prāṇa was meant, and that this was found in the jiva also. He therefore questioned again. Yājnavalkya replied giving an unnistakable mark, that separates Him from the jiva; and that shows that reference was made to one that does the work pranana (breathing) without any limitation—'Do not look upon the jiva as He that does the work pranana; for he is dependent upon the senses for seeing, hearing, thinking and meditation; and in deep sleep and in trance he cannot direct prāna.' And the text "Who will attain worldly pleasure (anyāt), who will attain the bliss of release (prānyāt), if this limitless bliss does not exist" (āna., VII) shows Brahma alone to be the cause by which all beings live. This is true of the second reply also. For the transcending of hunger, thirst and the rest is His specific attribute. In both the places the closing of the teaching is the same -"Other than He is miserable".

The repetition of the question and reply is for the purpose of showing that the highest $Atm\bar{a}$, who makes all beings breathe, is beyond hunger, thirst and so on. The $s\bar{u}tra$ refers to a parallel case in the $sad\ vidy\bar{a}$. That $vidy\bar{a}$ begins with the question of the father. "Did you enquire about that Adesa (all-controller), etc." $ch\bar{a}ndo$., VI-1-3); and the son asked "Will you yourself, revered sir, tell me" (Ibid., VI-1-7). Again and again he said "Revered sir, teach me further" (Ibid., VI-5-4). The father replied every time, giving further information regarding Sat. Similarly here.

Here the opponent shifts his ground, and states that even so, the $vidy\bar{a}s$ must differ. In one place the meditation is on the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ as causing all beings to breathe; and in the other as being beyond hunger, thirst and the rest. The attributes being different, the form differs, and the questioners also differ. The $s\bar{u}tra$ replies:

36. व्यतिहारो विदिशापनित हीतरवत्।

The instructions given to them should be interchanged.

The replies differentiate the object of meditation (from the *jiva*) as in the other place.

The *vidyās* do not differ; for the questions and replies deal with the same Being; and the term conveying the injunction is used only once, after the reply to the second questioner—'Hence the meditator should attain *pānditya*, and be like a child.' It is therefore concluded that the two sections of the *upanishad* form

a connected whole. First, both the questions refer to the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ viewed as the inner ruler of all. word eva (only) added in the question of Kahola indicates that he referred to the same Being viewed in the same aspect as *Ushasta* did. In both the replies the same Being in the same aspect is stated. As meditation is to be on this aspect only, the form of the viduā is the same. Yājnavalkya taught Ushasta and Kahola how this object should be differentiated from the jiva. For this purpose he referred first to the aspect of making all beings breathe; next to the aspect of transcending hunger, thirst and the rest. It was his intention that each should view Brahma in the aspect pointed out to the other, in addition to that in which He was presented to himself. By this means each would perceive Brahma as differentiated from the jiva. Hence the attribute that enters into the $vidy\bar{u}$ is that He is the inner ruler of all. The other two features pointed out serve merely to explain it.

- 2. Question. If this be so, why should two aspects be stated to differentiate the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ from the jiva? Reply. The aspect presented to Ushasta did not satisfy Kahola, who wished to know an aspect which could never be found in the jiva; and $Y\bar{a}jnavalkya$ knowing his thought replied.
- 3. In the $sad\ vidy\bar{a}$ by the questions and replies repeated several times the same Being was differentiated in several ways. The object was not, however, to require the disciple to meditate on the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ as

clothed in a new attribute at each step. Similarly here also.

Question. How is it known that in the sad $vidy\bar{a}$ too the same $vidy\bar{a}$ is dealt with, when the questions and answers are different? The $s\bar{u}tra$ replies:

37. सैव हि सत्यादय: ।

The same Being; for the statements beginning with 'This is true' (satya) are repeated in every reply.

The same Being, that is denoted by the term sat, and that is the final cause, is held up as the object of meditation in all the sections beginning with the ninth. For, the statements made in the text "All this is identical with that; this is true; He is $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ " are repeated in all the sections; and the teaching is brought to a close.

Criticism. Some commentators treat sūtras 36 and 37 as forming two separate sub-sections. They consider the following text in the first sub-section "Revered devatā, 'I am thou'; revered devatā 'Thou art I'; hence I am he; and he is I". They state that the text directs that the jiva and Brahma should each be regarded as the other. This view should be rejected; for the text does not teach any new thing. The identification of Brahma with everything is already known from the texts "All this is indeed Brahma; All this is identical with that (Sat); That thou art ". It is not a correct view that Brahma should be thought on as the jiva, and that the jiva should be thought on as Brahma. The

only correct view is that Brahma is the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ of all, and is therefore the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ of every jiva. One should therefore meditate on Brahma as his $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$. This will be taught in $s\bar{u}tra$ IV-1-3.

- 2. They consider the following text in the second sub-section: 'He that meditates on that (the heart) as the great, respected, first-born, satya, Brahma.' The term satua means the Being, who appears as sat (the unlimited ether and air), and as tyad (the limited fire, water and earth) (vide brihad., VII-5-1). This text enjoins meditation on the heart as satya. They regard this meditation and the meditations considered in subsection 8 supra as one. This view also is incorrect. has been shown already in that sub-section that there are two meditations on the Purusha in the sun and on the Purusha in the eye. The meditation on the heart has a form of its own, and will yield a separate fruit -viz., the winning of these worlds; and it is therefore complete. In the other two meditations Brahma should be meditated on as having three mantras as parts of His body: and their fruit is destruction and abandonment of karma. Hence the form and the fruit are different. How can the meditation on the heart and the other meditations be one?
- 3. The commentators explain: The meditations are one; the fruit in the form of the destruction and abandonment of *karma* is not the fruit of the meditation; it is the fruit of an *anga—i.e.*, a subsidiary part. *Reply*. There is no authority for regarding it as such.

- SRI BHĀSHYAM
- 4. Further explanation. The authority is that the vidyās are one. Reply. This would mean: If it be decided that the meditations are one, the fruit in question will be the fruit of a subsidiary part; if the fruit be decided to be of this character, the meditations will This would be arguing in a circle. be one.
- For this and other reasons the two sūtras 5. should be treated as has been done by us.

SUB-SECTION 16

The dahara vidyā is taught in the chāndogya and brihad āranyaka upanishads thus:

There is in this city of Brahma a dwelling place in the form of a small lotus. The small ether $(\bar{a}k\bar{a}sa)$ within it and what is within it—both should be sought and be meditated on (chāndo., VIII-1-1); He that was described as the great unborn $\tilde{A}tm\bar{a}$ lies in the ether $(\bar{a}k\bar{a}sa)$ within the heart of him, that was referred to as possessing the attribute $jn\bar{a}na$ and as dwelling in the midst of $pr\bar{a}nas$. He has every one in His grip; He controls every one (brihad., VI-4-22).

Here are there two $vidy\bar{a}s$ or is there one $vidy\bar{a}$ only?

First view. There are two vidyās; for, the object to be meditated on is—in one case ākāsa, and in the other He that lies in $\bar{a}k\bar{a}sa$. The attributes also differ: for in one they are the eight qualities beginning with freedom from karma, and in the other having every one

in His grip and the rest. Hence, the forms being different, the $vidy\bar{a}s$ are different.

Final decision. The $vidy\bar{a}$ is one. This is stated in the $s\bar{u}tra$:

38. कामादीतरत्र तत्र चायतनादिभ्यः ।

The attributes are satyakāma and the rest in that place and in the other; because of the mention of abode and the rest.

The form of the $vidy\bar{a}$ is the same; for in both places the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ should be meditated on as possessing the quality of being satuakāma and the other qualities. This is known from the mention of His dwelling in the heart, and of His keeping the worlds like a bund from being confounded (See Vedic Texts). From these marks the vidyā is recognised as one. The attributes mentioned in the brihad aranyaka text are particular varieties of the attribute of being satyasankalpa (having an unfrustrated will), which is included in the eight qualities enumerated in the other. Hence the attribute of being satyakāma and the others mentioned along with it enter into the vidyā. Thus the form is the same. The fruit also is the same, as shown by the following texts "Reaching the highest Light, he attains his own nature" (chāndo., VIII-12-2) and "He that thus meditates becomes brahma, who is free from fear" (brihad., VI-4-25). He becomes like Brahma. The term ākāsa denotes Brahma in the chāndogya (vide, sūtra, I-3-13); and in the other the element ether. From the mention of the attributes the Being that lies in the $\bar{a}k\bar{a}sa$ is decided to be the highest $Atm\bar{a}$; and $\bar{a}k\bar{a}sa$, in which He lies, must be ether. Compare with the text of $n\bar{a}r\bar{a}yana$ "The small ether within it" (anu., 11).

The opponent disputes the correctness of the conclusion reached. This is his argument. You assume that the object of meditation possesses certain qualities; but as a matter of fact they are not found in Him. This is affirmed by the texts, which precede and follow verse 22 under consideration:

In this (Brahma) there is no difference whatever; one that suspects even a small difference in Him attains $sams\bar{a}ra$ after $sams\bar{a}ra$ (verse 19); This unlimited, unmoving Brahma should be meditated on as possessing oneness (verse 20); That $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ is to be described by no, no (verse 22).

The object to be meditated on is therefore without any quality (nir-visesha). Hence the attributes mentioned in the brihad āranyaku text are stated only to be denied, as grossness and subtleness are denied by the upanishad in another place. For the same reason the qualities mentioned in the chāndogya are not real. In vidyās done to attain release these attributes should therefore be ignored (1).

Hence the $vidy\bar{a}s$ differ. The next $s\bar{u}tra$ gives a reply:

39. आदरादलोप: ।

No ignoring of the attributes; because they have been enumerated with earnestness.

⁽¹⁾ The opponent's meaning is that in the *chāndogya* the meditation is on *Brahma* as possessing attributes for securing certain inferior fruits. In the *bṛihad āraṇyaka* it is on *Brahma* in His real nature as having no attributes.

They have been enumerated with earnestness as the attributes to enter into meditations done for obtaining release. Thus:

What is within it should be sought $(ch\bar{u}ndo., VIII-1-1)$; He is $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$; He is free from karma; He is free from old age, death, grief, hunger and thirst; He has unchanging objects of desire; and His will is never frustrated (Ibid., VIII-1-5); He has every one in His grip; He controls every one (hrihad., VI-4-22); He is the ruler of all; He is the lord of beings; He is the protective bund that keeps the worlds from being confounded (Ibid.).

Similar descriptions are found in other upanishads also. These attributes are not known from any other source, as the attributes of Brahma; hence the view that they are stated here merely to be denied is untenable. The intention of an author may be known from several marks, of which one is stating a new thing; and this mark is present here. Next, the chāndogya prescribes meditation on Brahma as possessing the eight attributes stated, and blames one that does not so meditate

Those, that meditate here on the $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ and on those unchanging divine qualities and depart, can wander at will in all the worlds; Those, that without meditating here on the $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ and on those unchanging divine qualities depart, cannot wander at pleasure in all the worlds (VI-1-6).

सन्यापत जापत

This is another mark of the interest taken by the *upanishad* in this matter. The other *upanishad* exhibits the same interest by mentioning the power of control again and again. This is a third mark. Now how can the *veda*, which loves us more than a thousand parents,

teach with interest, like one that deceives, the possession by Brahma of qualities, that are unreal, that have to be ignored, and that cannot be known by any other means? Men are already bewildered by being carried on the whirlpool of samsāra; and how can it be thought that it further deludes them (1)?

- Opponent. The mention of attributes is to delude. The denial of attributes is from the same intention.
- Opponent. The veda, which has undertaken to teach what is good for us, cannot delude.
- Reply. This remark applies also to mention of attributes.
- Opponent. The mention of unreal attributes is for the purpose of securing particular fruits.
- Reply. The denial of attributes is for the same purpose. The possession of attributes is a true fact.
- Opponent. Meditation as without attributes being for the attainment of release, the negation of attributes states the true fact.
- Reply. Meditation as possessing attributes being for the attainment of release, the affirmation states the true fact.
- Opponent. That meditation as possessing attributes leads to release is a statement springing from an intention to delude.
- Replu. The same remark applies to the other statement.
- Opponent. It is not appropriate that the veda should delude, having undertaken to teach us what is good.
- Replu. This applies to the mention of attributes also.

⁽¹⁾ The absurdity of the opponent's position may be exposed as follows:

2. Question. How then are the texts quoted by me to be explained? Reply. The texts denying difference and affirming oneness show that all things are products of Brahma; and that they are therefore identical with Him. It is therefore enjoined that they should be seen as one in this respect. After teaching this, the upanishad proceeds to condemn the seeing of the world as consisting of independent parts, as was previously supposed. In the other text also by the word iti reference is made to the form of the material world perceived by other means; and this form is denied of Brahma. This therefore differentiates Him, the inner ruler of all, from the world. This point is developed immediately after:

He is other than those that can be perceived by other means; and He is therefore not perceived; He is other than those that fall to pieces; and He does not therefore fall to pieces; He is other than those that are attached; and He is therefore not attached; He is other than those that suffer; and He does not therefore suffer, nor perish (verse 22).

A similar description is found in the chandogya also:

By the old age of the body He does not age; by the killing of the body he is not killed. This city-like Brahma is not subject to change. In Him all divine qualities are contained (VIII-1-5).

This text shows Brahma to be different from everything else, and to be the seat of the qualities mentioned.

The opponent raises another objection. The text quoted as conferring on the meditator the capacity to wander at will in all the worlds adds—"If he desires to see those that were his fathers (in previous births), by his mere will the fathers come up; and joining them he is respected" (chāndo., VIII-2-1). This is a fruit desired by bound jivas. Those that desire release and the attainment of Brahma should not meditate on Him as possessing qualities. Also, the fruit of Brahma vidyā is to attain one's own nature. The next sūtra replies:

40. उपस्थितेऽतस्तद्वचनात्।

(The fruits referred to are those to be reaped) by one reaching *Brahma* and he does so from that fact; so it is stated.

The statement is thus made:

This jiva rises from this body, reaches the highest Light and appears in his natural form. He (who is reached) is the best of all persons. The jiva (on going thither) enjoys Him all round; he eats, enjoys (as he pleases); he amuses himself with women, carriages or cousins; he does not think of this body lying by the side of (weeping) relations (chāndo., VIII-12-2 and 3). He becomes his own master; and he can wander at pleasure in all the worlds (Ibid., VII-25-2).

This point will be fully dealt with in the next chapter. Hence the conclusion reached in the first $s\bar{u}tra$ remains unshaken.

SUB-SECTION 17

This text occurs in the chāndogya:

Meditate on this syllable (known as pranava), which is part of udgitha (I-1-1).

The singing of the udgitha (See Vedic Texts) is a part (anga) of a soma yāga. The question for consideration is whether this and similar vidyās are essential parts of a soma yaga.

First view. They are, For the $vidy\bar{a}$, though not enjoined in the earlier portion of the veda, in which soma yaga is prescribed, is connected with the singing of the udqitha, which is enjoined as an essential part of the yāga. In this manner the vidyā also becomes an essential part of the $y\bar{a}ga$. There is a precedent for this conclusion. The text 'with $juh\bar{u}$ make homas' is found where soma yaga is prescribed; and juhū is thus connected with the yaga as an instrument. Another text states that the $juh\bar{u}$ should be made of parna wood; and this is not connected with any karma; yet this feature of the $juh\bar{u}$ is connected through it with the yāga. Similarly here. The udgitha vidyā should be done as a part of the yaga; and no separate fruit is needed as a motive for its being done.

2. Objection. A fruit is mentioned in the last verse of the same section of the upanishad; The udgithavidyā is not therefore an essential part of the yāga: Reply. It is mere praise (arthavāda). For an essential part of a karma cannot be connected with a separate fruit (1). Here the fruit is stated in the last verse,

⁽¹⁾ This follows the rule laid down in the $p\bar{u}rva$ mīmāmsā. Juhū is an instrument with which offerings are made; and a text states that it should be made of parna wood. The text adds the following as a fruit to come from "He, whose $juh\bar{u}$ is made of parna wood, does not 95

while the $vidy\bar{a}$ is enjoined in the first verse. And there is no connection with the injunction text, as in the following text—"For one that desires cows, in the vessel in which cows are milked" (1). Further, there is a mere statement of what will happen; but there is no injunction. Hence, the $vidy\bar{a}$ should invariably be done in every $soma\ y\bar{a}ga$.

Final decision. This is stated in the $s\bar{u}tra$:

41. तनिर्धारणानियमस्तद्दष्टेः पृथग्ध्यप्रतिबन्धः फलम्।

The meditation (on udgitha) is not compulsory; so does it appear from vedic text. Fruit separate viz., non-obstruction.

The *vedic* text in support of the option to meditate or not to meditate is as follows:

With the help of this (the syllable) both do their work—one that thus meditates on that, and one that does not meditate (I-1-10).

This recognises the singing of the udgitha without meditating on it. If the meditation were an essential part of the $y\bar{a}ga$, its non-performance would be inappropriate.

hear unpleasant statements". This is mere praise. For, it is not stated that the fruit should be brought about; there is the mere statement that he does not hear. The injunction is therefore for the benefit of the $y\bar{a}ga$. In regard to what exists for the benefit of a $y\bar{a}ga$, there is no question what is its fruit? It is concerned only with the helping of the $y\bar{a}ga$. The mention of the fruit is therefore $arthav\bar{a}da$ (IV-3-1).

⁽¹⁾ See Introduction, para 25.

Question. Why is it then enjoined? The injunction should point to a fruit. Reply. When the udgitha is sung with the meditation, the yāga becomes more efficacious; and this is a fruit different from the fruit of the yāga. This is stated:

Whatever is done with meditation, with eagerness, and with knowledge of everything being ruled from within by the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$, that alone becomes most efficacious (I-1-10).

What is becoming most efficacious? Reply. The fruit of the $y\bar{a}ga$ —going to the heaven-world—is not obstructed and delayed, as it is often obstructed, by the need of a more powerful karma to yield its own fruit. The meditation on udgitha removes the obstruction; and this fruit is different from that of the $y\bar{a}ga$ itself. And this is stated in the $s\bar{u}tra$. Though the fruit is stated in an $arthav\bar{a}da$, it may be connected with the injunction (1). The conclusion is that the $vidy\bar{a}$ is not an essential part of the $soma\ y\bar{a}ga$, as filling the milking vessel is not an essential part of the $darsa\ and\ p\bar{u}rna-m\bar{a}sa\ ishtis\ (Introduction, para 25).$

SUB-SECTION 18

In the dahara vidyā meditation should be on the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ [referred to as the small ether $(\bar{a}k\bar{a}sa)$] in the heart of man, and on His eight qualities as stated in

⁽¹⁾ See the footnote on page 92, the portion dealing with the second text.

the text "Those that meditate here on the $Atm\bar{a}$ and on these unchanging divine qualities and depart, etc." (chāndo., VIII-1-6). See Vedic Texts. Here meditation on the $Atm\bar{a}$ is first prescribed, and then a separate meditation on the qualities. The question for consideration is whether in the meditation on each quality meditation on the $Atm\bar{a}$ also should be repeated as possessing it or not.

First view. Repetition is not necessary; for the qualities pertain to the same $Atm\bar{a}$; and He can be meditated on but once.

Final decision. This is stated in the sūtra:

42. प्रदानवदेव तदुक्तम्।

Only as in making offerings; this is stated.

Meditation should be repeated. Though the small ether is the seat of all the qualities, and meditation on Him has been done already, yet His aspect in His nature merely is one thing, and the aspect as invested with each quality is another; and the injunction as to the second meditation refers to Him in these words "He is free from karma, free from old age, etc." (chāndo., VIII-1-5). Hence the meditation on each quality should be on the small ether as possessing the quality; and meditation on the Atmā is therefore repeated. The sūtra gives an analogy. Offerings are made "to Indra the king," "to Indra the supreme ruler"; and "to Indra, master of himself". Though the devatā is the same, the aspects in which offerings are made to him differ; and the offerings are repeated.

This is stated in the pūrva mīmāmsā. "The devatās are different: because the aspects differ."

SUB-SECTION 19

In the taittirīya-nārāyana the dahara vidyā is stated in verse 23 of section 10, and then follows the eleventh section—See Vedic Texts. The question for consideration is whether this latter section is connected with that verse, and determines who the particular Being is, that is meditated on in that $vidy\bar{a}$, or whether it is independent, and performs the same duty for all vidyās.

First view. The former is the correct view: for the preceding section refers to dahara vidyā, and this section mentions the lotus-like heart, and thus connects the two sections as dealing with one subject only (1).

Final decision: The latter section is independent. The reason is stated in the sutra:

43. लिङ्ग्यस्त्वात्तद्भि बलीयस्तद्वि ।

Because the marks are many; it is stronger; that also is stated.

⁽¹⁾ The texts are "There is a small, pure lotus in the middle of the city (human body), which forms the palace of the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$; and in it is a small ether (qaqanam)which is free from grief. What is within it should be meditated on (X-23); "The heart like a lotus bud with its tip downwards" (XI).

The section exhibits many marks—that is, there are many sentences, which take the terms used in many vidyās to denote the object of meditation, such as akshara, siva, sambhu, param brahma, param jyotis, paratatva, paramātmā, and the like, and state that they denote Nārāyana. This shows that the Being, who is meditated on in all $vidy\bar{a}s$, who is quite unlike the universe, and who is bliss, unchanging, shining and without limitations, is Nārāyana. The sentences, which state this, are numerous; and being the authority known as vākua, they possess greater force than mere context or prakarana (See Introduction, para 18 (iii) and (iv) and 19). When it is thus settled that this section is common to all vidyās, the dahara vidyā being one of these, and Nārāyana being therefore the object of meditation in that vidyā also, the reference to that viduā becomes intelligible.

2. Objection. In the first verse of this section the words are in the accusative case, and must be connected with the injunction to meditate given in the preceding section. Reply. No. For, in the term upasitavyam (should be meditated on) used in the injunction, the termination indicates the object of meditation and words in the accusative case will not be appropriate. Also, an examination of the verses, that follow it, shows that the accusative case is used in the sense of the nominative case. The verses are 2, 4, 5 and 12. This will be clear when the original is examined. If the objection be accepted, it will be necessary to regard the nominative case in all these verses as used to mean the

accusative case, and to supply the term *upāsīta* (meditate) to govern the words in the accusative case. Hence the objection should be over-ruled.

Sub-section 20

In the agnirahasya, which is learnt by those that learn the brihad āranyaka, a kratu (1) is first described, in which the fire that receives the offerings is placed on an altar made of specially-made bricks piled one over another so as to represent the figure of a bird will be referred to as brick-made fire. In this kratu. which occupies several days, the offerings of the soma juice, which constitute the principal karma, take place on the last day; and they consist of several operations —the crushing of the soma creeper, taking its juice and placing the vessels in their places, the singing of vedic verses by one set of helpers, which are known as stotras, the recitation of verses by another set known as sastras and making the offerings. Then the agnirahasya goes on to prescribe certain meditations in imitation of the kratu. In these there is no action whatever: but every article, every instrument and every manual operation is mere thought. In this thought-made kratu

⁽¹⁾ $Y\bar{u}ga$ is one offering made to a $devat\bar{u}$; kratu is a karma, in which many offerings are made to many $devat\bar{u}s$. Soma $y\bar{u}ga$ is a kratu. The term is also used to denote meditation; hence a kratu proper is often described as $yajna\ kratu$.

the fires to receive the offerings are the mind, speech, $pr\bar{a}na$, eye, ear, organs of action and the stomach; and all the activities of each of these are to be regarded as the operations in the real kratu—the taking of the soma juice, singing stotras, reciting the sastras and making offerings. And this is to be done throughout one's life. For convenience one fire may be taken—the mind-made fire. That this fire partakes of the nature of meditation is undoubted. The question for consideration is merely whether it is of the nature of action by entering into a real kratu consisting of actions, or whether it is of the nature of $vidy\bar{a}$ by entering into a kratu consisting of thoughts only. The first two $s\bar{u}tras$ put forward the former view; and the next five $s\bar{u}tras$ refute the same, and establish the latter view.

44. पूर्वविकल्पः प्रकरणात् स्यात्क्रियामानसवत् ।

An alternative to the previous one; from the context (prakarana) it is of the nature of action; like the mānasa operations.

The mind-made fire requires a kratu, into which it can enter; but where it is described, there is no injunction to do a kratu. The preceding chapter refers to a brick-made fire, and this fire, being invariably connected with a kratu consisting of action, is brought up before the mind. It may therefore be concluded that option is given to perform the kratu either with the brick-made fire or with the mind-made fire; and that therefore the latter is of the nature of action. There is a precedent for regarding what is really of the nature of meditation, as partaking of the nature of action by entering into a real kratu.

In a kratu, known as dvādasāha, in which the offerings of the soma juice are repeated on twelve days, on the eleventh (1) day known as avivākya all the operations are carried on mentally, including the taking of the soma juice, the placing of the vessels in their places, the singing of the stotras, the reciting of the sastras, the making of the offerings, the bringing back of the vessels to the hotā, and the drinking of the remainder of the juice by the helpers concerned. They are thus of the nature of thought only, and yet as they form a part of a real kratu, they are held to be of the nature of action. Similarly here also.

45. अतिदेशाच ।

And because the fruit of the brick-made fire is extended to the mind-made fire.

This $s\bar{u}tra$ gives an additional reason for the conclusion stated in the preceding $s\bar{u}tra$. The text is "Of these each one by itself is as capable as the preceding one". This means that whatever capacity there is in the brick-made fire will be found in the mind-made fire. Hence, as the two fires do the same work, either may be resorted to. And as like the other it helps in the performance of the kratu, it is auxiliary to it, and is of the nature of action.

⁽¹⁾ The day known as $aviv\bar{a}kya$ is the tenth day of the $dasar\bar{a}tra$, which consists of all the days of the $dv\bar{a}das\bar{a}ha$ except the first and the last. The $aviv\bar{a}kya$ day is therefore the eleventh day of $dv\bar{a}das\bar{a}ha$.

The final decision is stated in the next sūtra:

46. विद्यवतु निर्धारणाद्दर्शनाच ।

But it is of the nature of meditation only; because it is so affirmed, and because it is seen.

The view put forward is rejected; for the mindmade fire is connected with a *kratu*, which is itself of the nature of meditation. It is so affirmed in the following text:

They are made with $vidy\bar{u}$ alone; for with $vidy\bar{u}$ alone of one that thus meditates these are made.

As the activities of the mind cannot be built up like bricks, it is evident that the fire is made of thought only, and that it is of the nature of meditation; yet the affirmation here by the particle eva (only) of the very same fact is intended to show that it has this character from its connection with a vidyā-made kratu. A kratu of this kind, which the mind-made fire serves, is stated in the very same place.

They (the fires) were established by mind only; by mind alone the altar was made; by mind the soma juice was taken in them (mind-made vessels); by mind stotras were sung; by mind sastras were recited. Whatever karma is done in a real kratu, whether the principal offering or anything auxiliary to it, all this was done by mind alone mentally in those mind-made fires.

This shows that the *kratu* also is of the nature of thought.

The opponent disputes the correctness of the reply; on the plea that there is no injunction to do the *kratu*.

that no reference is made to fruits, and that the context relates to a *kratu* consisting of operations in a brickmade fire. The next *sūtra* replies:

47. श्रत्यादिबलीयस्त्वाच न बाध: ।

And the conclusion is not affected; because *ṣruti* and the other authorities are of greater force.

The conclusion—that there is a *vidyā*-made *kratu*, and that the mind-made fire is connected with it—is not affected; for the context cannot prevail over *ṣruti*, *linga* and *vākya*. See Introduction, para 19. *Ṣruti* has been already quoted under the preceding *sūtra*. *Linga* is as follows:

In regard to one that thus meditates all persons at all times make them, even when he sleeps.

This making of the fires by all beings takes place at all times and is done by the mind; while the brick-made fire is made by a limited number of persons working for a limited time only. The mind-made fire cannot therefore enter through its work into a kratu consisting of actions. This indicates that it must enter into a vidyamade krātu. The same text is also a vākya, which means two words connected together.

The other two arguments are next met:

48. अनुबन्धादिभ्यः प्रज्ञान्तरपृथक्तववद्दृष्टश्च तदुक्तम् ।

Because of the adjuncts; like the difference of other vidyas. And it is seen; it has been stated.

The conclusion is supported by the adjuncts of the *kratu*; and they are the taking of the *soma* juice in vessels, the singing of the *stotras*, and reciting of the *sastras*.

By mind the soma juice was taken in them (mind-made vessels); by mind stotras were sung; by mind sastras were recited.

This vidyā-made kratu differs from a real kratu, as other vidyās like the dahara vidyā differ from it. The existence of a vidyā-made kratu being established, the injunction to perform it may be assumed; and it is seen in other places that an injunction is assumed from a text which has the appearance of a repetition. This is stated in the pūrva mimāmsā (1). The fruit is stated in the text "Of these each one by itself is as capable as that preceding one". This means that whatever fruit is yielded by the brick-made fire through its own kratu, that is yielded by the mind-made fire through its own kratu.

The argument in the second sūtra of the first view is next refuted:

⁽¹⁾ In connection with an offering in the case of a dead person, the following text occurs—"Holding the samid (twig) below, he should follow; for he holds it over it in connection with offerings to the devas." The particle hi occurs (in the original) in the second clause, which shows that it is a repetition. Nevertheless, as the holding of the twig over the $juh\bar{u}$ has not been enjoined elsewhere, an injuction is assumed; and the particle hi is ignored (III-4-5).

49. न सामान्याद्प्युपलब्धेर्मृत्युवन्नहिलोकापत्तिः।

No; because extension of incidents may relate to likeness in any respect whatever; because it is known as in the statement that one is like Death; no need to go to his world.

When certain incidents of one thing are extended to another thing, it is not necessary that there should be likeness in other incidents also. The two things may be alike in one respect only, *i.e.*, the one to which reference is made. Here is an analogous case "That purusha, that appears in that orb, is Death indeed". The incident of destruction alone is extended, as there is similarity in that respect. It does not follow that He should go to the world of Death.

50. परेण च शब्दस्य ताद्विय्यं भूयस्त्वात्त्वनुबन्धः ।

And by the section that follows, the terms denoting the mind-made and other fires should be understood as stated. The addition in the agnirahasya is on account of plurality.

The second section of the agnirahasya prescribes a vidyā with a separate fruit; and this is followed by the vaiṣvānara vidyā. Hence it is not correct to say that this portion of the veda deals only with karma. Question. If this be so, why was the vidyā under consideration not added in the brihad āraṇyaka. Reply. Many are the adjuncts of the fire to be imagined in this vidyā; the vidyā has therefore been added where the fire is described.

SUB-SECTION 21

51. एक आत्मनश्चारीरे भावात् !

Some (think that only the qualities of the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ —that he knows, acts and enjoys—should be meditated on in all $vidy\bar{a}s$); because he is in a body.

In sūtra I-4-6 it was stated that in all vidyās on the highest Atmā one should meditate on himself also. and in (IV-1-3) it will be explained that the meditation should be as being ruled by the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ from within. The question for consideration is whether the meditator should think of himself only as a knower, doer and enjoyer, and as being capable of going to the heaven-world and returning here, or as possessing the qualities enumerated in the teaching of Prajapati (chāndo., VIII-7-1)? The sūtra states the first view. In the opinion of some the former alternative is the correct one; for the meditating jiva dwells in a body; and while he does so, what has been stated is his form; and this is near at hand. By meditating on this form alone it is possible for him to reap the fruit of meditation. is not necessary for one, that desires the heaven-world, and performs the necessary karma, to meditate, while he does the karma, on the aspect that he will attain while he reaps the fruit. By meditating only on the qualities of knowing, acting, etc., he may do the means and reap the fruit; and there is nothing to be gained by meditating on a further set of qualities. That case does not differ from the case under consideration; and it is sufficient to meditate only on the first set of qualities. *Objection*. The meditation should be on the form to be reached; for it is specially stated:

What one meditates on in this world, that he becomes, when he departs from here $(ch\bar{a}ndo., III-14-1)$.

Reply. It is not so; the text quoted refers to meditation on the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ as stated in the text "How he meditates on Him".

The final decision is stated in the next sūtra.

52. व्यतिरेकस्तद्भावभावित्वान्नतूपलब्धिवत् ।

But no. The reverse (of the present aspect); because from meditation on it comes its attainment; like the attainment of the highest $\tilde{A}tm\bar{a}$.

The aspect of the meditator, while he remains bound, should not be meditated on; on the other hand, the aspect to be attained, when he will become free, should be thought on, while he does the meditation. Because as the text quoted states it is only by meditating on that aspect that it will be attained. It is not correct to say that the text refers only to the nature of the highest Atmā. As the jiva is His body, he also enters into the meditation. In other words, the meditation should be on the highest Atmā with the jiva as his body, the jiva being clothed in freedom from karma and in the other seven qualities stated in the teaching of Prajāpati; and the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ in this very form is to be attained. Hence it is stated "By meditating in this manner I will, on going from here, attain that world". Hence the jiva should be meditated on in the aspect that is to be attained.

- 2. The last term in the $s\bar{u}tra$ gives an illustration. The attainment of the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ taught is in the aspect that pertains to Him by nature. Similarly, the attainment of the jiva too is in the aspect that pertains to Him by nature.
- 3. This case should be distinguished from the case of one striving for the heaven-world. The latter should meditate only on his present aspect as knower, doer and enjoyer. This is an anga of the karma; and karma alone is enjoined as the means to the fruit desired, by the text "one that desires svarga should do yaga". To know that he is different from his body, that he will live after death, that he can go to the other world, and that being a knower, he can experience the happiness that he will find therein—only so much is necessary to give him a qualification for performing the karma leading to the future fruit. Here it is different.

SUB-SECTION 22

53. अङ्गावबद्रास्तु न शाखासु हि प्रतिवेदम्।

Meditations connected with subsidiary parts of kratus are not limited to the $s\bar{a}kh\bar{a}s$, in which they are taught. They extend to every $s\bar{a}kh\bar{a}$ (veda).

Meditations are taught in various places as connected with certain subsidiary parts of *kratus*, like the *udgītha vidyā* (see chapter III-3-17). The question for consideration is whether a meditation enjoined on the

udgitha in one $s\bar{a}kh\bar{a}$ (1) is limited to that $s\bar{a}kh\bar{a}$, or whether it extends to all $s\bar{a}kh\bar{a}s$ in connection with the udgitha in those $s\bar{a}kh\bar{a}s$. This is taken as a typical case. This was settled at the outset by sub-section 1; but a doubt arises on the ground that the svaras (2) differ in different $s\bar{a}kh\bar{a}s$, and that the udgithas therefore differ. The first view is that the meditation is limited to the $s\bar{a}kh\bar{a}$. The injunction 'meditate on the udgitha' is in general terms. In the same $s\bar{a}kh\bar{a}$ an udgitha with svaras peculiar to itself being found near it, the injunction should be taken as referring to that particular udgitha (3). Hence the meditation should be confined to the $s\bar{a}kh\bar{a}$, in which it is taught.

This doubt is removed by the $s\bar{u}tra$: The meditation is attached merely to the udgithas; and this is done by the authority known as sruti. Hence, wherever the udgitha is found, there meditation is attached to it. The udgithas in the different $s\bar{a}kh\bar{a}s$ do differ by the way in which they are recited; but as reference is made to

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⁽¹⁾ $S\bar{a}kh\bar{a}$ is a branch of the veda, like the $k\bar{a}nva$ and $m\bar{u}dhyandina$ $s\bar{a}kh\bar{u}s$ referred to in the discussions in chapter I, section 4, sub-section 3. The text of the veda is the same in both, though there are minor variations.

⁽²⁾ Svara is the variation in tone in the recitation of vedic texts. For certain syllables the voice is raised; for some it is lowered. In singing $s\bar{a}ma$ mantras there are seven svaras corresponding to the seven notes in the musical scale.

⁽³⁾ In the world, the order in general terms 'Bring the cow' is carried out by taking a particular cow near at hand. See note (1) on page 51.

them in general terms, all of them come up before the mind; and there is no authority for confining the meditation to a particular udgitha (1). In cases in which karmas prescribed in different places are held to be one karma on the principle stated in Introduction, para 16, the karma in all the places is brought up before the mind at the same time; and its subsidiary parts like the udgitha are also present before the mind; and there is no difference among them in this matter. Hence there is no ground to justify a limitation to one (2) place only.

54. मन्त्रादिवद्वाऽविरोध: 1

And like mantra and the rest. There is no difficulty.

The kratu referred to in various $s\bar{a}kh\bar{a}s$ being one, the mantras relating to it mentioned in particular $s\bar{a}kh\bar{a}s$ are applied in all $s\bar{a}kh\bar{a}s$ by sruti and other authorities. Similarly, the meditations, though mentioned in one, are common to all $s\bar{a}kh\bar{a}s$. By the term "The rest"

⁽¹⁾ In the order Bring the cow' as all cows, whereever they may be, cannot be brought, the term cow' is limited to a particular animal. This is not done by the presence of an animal near at hand. Here, there is no similar difficulty; and the term udgitha brings up all the udgithas as a matter of course.

⁽²⁾ In the injunction 'Do $y\bar{a}ga$ with a pasu' the term pasu is restricted to a goat, as this animal is mentioned in the mantra, with which the $hot\bar{a}$ is addressed; but here there is nothing to limit the application to a particular udgitha. The case is analogous to the injunction "Do $y\bar{a}ga$ with $vr\bar{\iota}hi$ (paddy)". The term $vr\bar{\iota}hi$ refers to the class, and not to a particular variety (adhi).

reference is made to jāti (class characteristic), qualities, number, likeness, order, material and karma.

SUB-SECTION 23

In the vaiṣvānara vidyā dealt with in sub-section 6 of section 2 of chapter I (see Vedic Texts) the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ is to be meditated on as possessing a body of which the heaven-world, the sun, air, ether, water and earth are parts, corresponding to the head, eye, $pr\bar{a}na$, waist, bladder, and feet of a human body. The question for consideration is whether the meditation should be on the parts of the body separately, or upon the whole body, or whether it should be in both the ways.

First view. The meditation should be on the parts of the body separately; for at the outset the teacher referred to the parts and to the fruit of meditation on each part thus:

The $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$, on whom you meditate, is $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ $Vaiṣv\bar{a}$ -nara. . . . He, that thus meditates on $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ $Vaiṣv\bar{a}nara$, eats
food and sees dear things; and a son comes into his family
with the brightness of meditation ($ch\bar{a}ndo$., V-12-1 and 2).

Similarly in regard to the other parts. Also in each of these meditations on the parts the object of meditation is stated to be *Atmā Vaiṣvānara*. The meditation on the whole stated at the end is merely a summary of the teaching previously imparted.

2. Another view is that meditation should be both on the parts and on the whole; for a separate fruit is mentioned for the meditation on the whole thus:

Though $Vaisv\bar{a}nara$ surrounds everything, and is not therefore limited, yet he that meditates on Him as thus limited by heaven and earth, eats the food that is in all worlds, in all beings, in all $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}s$ (Ibid., V-18-1).

There is the analogy of the $bh\bar{u}ma\ vidy\bar{a}$, in which meditation on name and many other things is first described with a separate fruit for each, and then meditation on $bh\bar{u}m\bar{a}$ is taught with its own fruit. There all the meditations, including the last, are admitted to be prescribed. Similarly here also.

Final decision. This is stated in the sūtra:

55. भूमः ऋतुवज्यायस्त्वं तथा हि दर्शयति ।

Appropriateness of the whole; as in the kratu; for so it is shown.

What is intended is meditation on the whole only. For the upanishad forms a connected whole. See the narrative in Vedic Texts under chapter I-2-6. Six students wished to know Atmā Vaiṣvānara, and going to Aṣvapati they requested him to teach them, saying "You now meditate on this Ātmā Vaiṣvānara. Teach us about Him." He complied with the request, concluding with the words quoted in para 2 of the first view. The upanishad therefore forms a whole, teaching but one meditation. This being so, the meditations on the parts

 $^{^{!}}$ Here the original states the narrative; but as it is stated in the " Vedic Texts," it is omitted here.

must be presumed to be mere repetitions (anuvāda) of parts of the meditation on the whole. The fruit of meditation on the whole is the enjoyment of the highest Atmā; and to show that in this fruit enjoyment of every kind to be found in all places and at all times is included, the fruits of meditation on the parts were stated. The intention is not that these part-meditations should be done. If this were intended, the unity of the context would be affected. The sūtra mentions an analogy. The injunction is given that on the birth of a son the father should offer to Vaisvanara a cake of rice flour baked on twelve kapālas (flat, circular pieces made of earth and burnt). Parts of the same offering are referred to in these words "What is baked on eight kapālas becomes gāyatrī and purifies him, giving him the brightness of vedic learning," and this is followed by similar statements regarding cakes baked on nine, ten, and eleven kapālas. It has been decided (pūrva mimāmsā, I-4-12) that the texts form a connected whole, that but one offering should be made, with a cake baked on twelve kapālās, and that the reference to other cakes is merely praise of the twelve-kapālas-cake.

The *upanishad* goes on to state the evil consequences of meditations on parts thus:

Your head would have fallen off, if you had not come to me; You would have become blind, if you had not come to me, etc. $(ch\bar{a}ndo., V-12-2 \text{ and } V-13-2)$.

This shows that this case is not analogous to $bh\bar{u}ma$ vidya; for no evil consequences are to follow from meditations on name and the rest. The meditation on $bh\bar{u}m\bar{u}$

is praised as yielding very superior fruit, and to justify this praise other meditations with inferior fruits are described. This does not affect the unity of the context, the principal being meditation on $bh\bar{u}m\bar{a}$, and the other meditations serving to enhance its importance.

SUB-SECTION 24

In this sub-section the vidyās for consideration are (i) all brahma vidyās (1), the fruit of which is the reaching of the highest Atmā, and (ii) vidyās like prāṇa vidyās, that deal with one matter and yield one fruit. The question for consideration is whether they are one or whether they are different. The conclusion to be reached here was accepted tentatively in the previous sub-sections; and the discussions proceeded, whether a particular vidyā came under the rule laid down in the first sub-section.

First view. The vidyās are one; for the object of meditation is one; and as this constitutes the form of the $vidy\bar{a}$, the form is the same, as also the fruit.

Final decision. This is stated in the sūtra:

56. नानाशब्दादिभेदात्।

(They are) different; for the words and the rest differ.

⁽¹⁾ Like sad vidyā, bhūma vidyā, dahara vidyā, upakosala vidyā, ṣānḍilya vidyā, vaiṣvānara vidyā, ānandamaya vidyā, and akshara vidyā. They may be taught in one sākhā or in many ṣākhās; all of them are considered here.

The words 'the rest' refer to repetition, number, subsidiary part, context and name (See Introduction, para 15). Here these reasons exist for holding one vidyā as differing from another. The terms veda and upāsīta, enjoining meditation, do denote continuity of thought, and this thought is of the highest $Atm\bar{a}$; yet the mind has to dwell on Him as possessing this or that attribute stated in the context. In one case it is being the sole cause of the evolution of the world; in another it is possessing freedom from karma and the other seven qualities; and so on. Hence, the vidyās differ. Also, the fruit in the form of reaching the highest Atmā being stated in a particular context, the need of the injunction is satisfied, and the vidua becomes complete. Hence the viduās are different (1). This subject is dealt

⁽¹⁾ In the text the difference among brahma vidyās was based on difference of form and difference in the fruit. It may also be caused by difference in other respects. The nyāsa vidyā is taught in taittirīya-nārāyaņa thus: "Unite yourself, pronouncing the syllable (known as pranava)." The term used here is yunjita, while the terms used in regard to other vidyās are veda, upūsīta, etc. Thus the terms differ. The names are different; it is nyāsa viduā here, and others have their own names. The form of this $vidu\bar{a}$ is the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ standing in the place of other viduas and giving the person, that throws himself at His feet, the fruit of those vidyās without any further effort on his part. This is not the form of the other $vidy\bar{a}s$; for the meditator has to think of Him as possessing this or that attribute prescribed for them. In regard to the fruit also there is difference in that one, that does the nyāsa vidyā, may reach the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ whenever he wishes it, while the other has to wait till the prarabdha karma has been expended, i.e., karma that has begun to yield fruit. Lastly,

with in the $p\bar{u}rva$ $m\bar{t}m\bar{a}ms\bar{a}$; and a separate subsection here is unnecessary; but the author of the $s\bar{u}tras$ wishes to refute the view that upanishad texts do not deal, as the means to release, with mere knowledge to be imparted by vedic texts. If this were correct, all the labour spent on this section of the $s\bar{u}tras$ would be thrown away.

SUB-SECTION 25

In the preceding sub-section it was settled that $vidy\bar{a}s$, the fruit of which is to reach the highest $Atm\bar{a}$, are different. It will now be considered whether a person may combine two or more of them, and whether there is any use in doing so, or whether it will suffice to do any one of them.

First view. The combination also has its use. It is seen that different injunctions are carried out by one, though they contemplate but one fruit. Agnihotra and darsa-pūrņamāsa yield each the same fruit, viz., svarga (heaven-world); and yet they are combined, so that more of it may be enjoyed. Similarly two or more vidyās may be combined, so that one may be with the highest Atmā for a longer time and enjoy Him to a larger extent.

the qualification also differs; for the $ny\bar{a}sa\ vidy\bar{a}$ is for one that has not the requisite knowledge, or capacity, or cannot brook delay in the attainment of the fruit. Hence $ny\bar{a}sa\ vidy\bar{a}$ differs from all others.

Final decision. This is stated in the sūtra:

57. विकल्पोऽविशिष्टफलत्वात् ।

Any one of them at one's option; as the fruit does not differ.

By all vidyās the same fruit is reaped—viz., enjoyment of the highest $Atm\bar{a}$, who is bliss without limit to its excellence. This is stated in the following texts--"One that meditates on Brahma attains the highest" (āna., I-1); That is one unit of the bliss of Brahma; and this is shared by one that knew the veda and was not distracted by desires, i.e., by one that has become free (Ibid., VIII); and when the meditator sees the Purusha, shining like gold, the material and operative causes of the world, and its ruler, then he shakes off good and bad deeds, and free from all touch of matter, attains the highest likeness to Him (munda., III-1-3). Thus the highest Atmā is in the enjoyment of bliss without limit to Himself and to others. If this fruit can be attained by one vidya only, what is the need for another? Hence no combination is required. In the case of other fruits, like svarga (heaven-world), there is limitation in place, in time and in their nature. It is possible to increase the quantum of enjoyment in place or time; and one that desires this increase may combine many karmas. Here there is no such need. All vidyās on Brahma lead to enjoyment by removing the obstacles to enjoyment in the form of avidyā and beginningless karma.

58. काम्यास्तु यथाकामं समुचीयेरन्नवापूर्वहेत्वभावात् ।

But meditations aiming at worldly objects of desire may be cumulated or not at pleasure; because the former reason does not hold.

Sub-section 26

It was decided in sub-section 17 that meditation on the *udgitha* is not compulsory. The opponent disputes the correctness of this decision and urges certain further arguments, which are examined here. The decision depends on the question whether meditation on the *udgitha* is for the purpose of the *yāga* or whether it benefits the *yajamāna* (one that does a *yāga*). In the former case the meditation would be a part of the *yāga* through the *udgitha*, and would be compulsory; in the latter case it may be done or not at the option of the *yajamāna*. The opponent's view is stated in the first four *sūtras* and supported by arguments:

59. अड्गेषु यथाश्रयभावः । यने

Meditations on the adjuncts of kratus are parts of them, as are the adjuncts on which they depend.

First, the sentence containing the injunction does not state the fruit of the meditation; and it has to be gathered from another sentence at the end of the section of the *upanishad*. This case is therefore not analogous to the case of the milking vessel:

In a chamasa carry the water (for prantā) (to the north of the āhavanīya fire); for one that desires cows in the vessel in which cows are milked.

Here the fruit in using the milking vessel is stated in the injunction text itself; but in the case under consideration it is merely "meditate on the udgitha". As the yāga (darṣa or pūrṇamāsa) may be done without the milking vessel, its use is not for the performance of the karma; but it only benefits the yajamāna. Hence it is not a part of the karma. The right analogy is furnished by the juhū referred to in the text—

He, whose $juh\bar{u}$ is made of parna wood, does not hear unpleasant statements.

(Juhū is an instrument used in making offerings). Here not hearing unpleasant statements does not at first sight appear as the fruit; and it is not stated in the first clause, which contains the injunction. It is therefore regarded as helping the performance of the $y\bar{a}ga$, and the second clause is held to be $arthav\bar{a}da$. In the case under consideration the fruit of the meditation to make the $y\bar{a}ga$ most efficacious is stated in another sentence; and the statement is not in the form of an injunction. Hence this statement is $arthav\bar{a}da$, as not hearing unpleasant statements is. Hence, as the udgitha is part of the kratu, and is invariably sung in it, so the meditation also, which depends on the udgitha, forms part of the kratu and should be invariably done.

60. হিছেম্ব |

And because of the injunction.

Secondly, the injunction is merely 'meditate on the *udgitha*'. There is no mention in it, as in the case of the milking vessel, of a special qualification on the part

of the yajamāna, which would limit the meditation, and connect it with the qualification. The meditation is therefore a necessary part of the udgitha.

61. समाहारात्।

Because of rectification.

Thirdly, the text "From the place of the $hot\bar{a}$, $udg\bar{\imath}tha$ without meditation is rectified" $(ch\bar{a}ndo., I-5-5)$ indicates that meditation on the $udg\bar{\imath}tha$ by the $udg\bar{a}t\bar{a}$ is always required. For the text states that when the $udg\bar{a}t\bar{a}$ fails to meditate, the defect is rectified by the $hot\bar{a}$, when he utters the syllable known as pranava.

62. गुणसाधारण्यश्रुतेश्व।

And because the seat of the meditation, *i.e.*, the syllable known as *pranava*, is stated as going everywhere.

This statement is thus made:

With it the karma enjoined by the three-fold veda proceeds; with praṇ ava the adhvaryu says $\bar{a}sr\bar{a}vaya$: with praṇ ava the $hot\bar{a}$ recites sastra; with praṇ ava the $udg\bar{a}t\bar{a}$ sings stotra ($ch\bar{a}ndo$., I-1-9).

Here the term 'tena' (with it) refers back to what has been mentioned before, i.e., praṇava with the meditation. Hence, the meditation being ever found with praṇava, it is an adjunct of the kratu, as the udgītha is

This view of the opponent is rejected in the next two *sūtras*:

63. न वा तत्सहभावाश्चते: ।

But no; because their going together invariably is not declared.

Here the second argument—that stated in sūtrā 60—is met. It is true that in the injunction there is no mention of a special qualification; but this is stated later on at the end of the section, by pointing out that the kratu becomes most efficacious, when meditation is done. If therefore the yajamāna desires to reach the fruit of the kratu quickly, he should arrange for the meditation being done. Meditation on what? On the udgitha, which is found in the context. The conclusion therefore is that meditation on the udgitha yields a fruit different from the fruit of the kratu. It cannot therefore be an adjunct of the kratu (1).

In the case of the milking vessel (go-dohana) the fruit is mentioned in the injunction text itself; and the

⁽¹⁾ Whether a thing enjoined is connected with a fruit does not depend upon the mention of the fruit in the injunction text or not. It depends upon the quickness in perceiving the connection between the two. In the case of the $juh\bar{u}$ the connection between its being made of parna wood and the fruit mentioned in the same text is not quickly perceived; for the condition that it should be so made is not expressly stated to be the cause, and 'not hearing unpleasant statements' to be its effect; further, this fruit is stated not in the first clause that gives the injunction, but in a clause that follows it. Hence owing to the delay arising from both these causes being made of parna wood' is connected with the $juh\bar{u}$, and through it with the kratu; and it is decided that it is for the performance of the kratu; and the mention of the fruit is treated as arthavāda.

2. The arguments stated in sūtras 61 and 62 may be replied to as follows: If the yajamāna makes up his mind at the outset that the fruit of the kratu should not be obstructed, and if the udgātā fails, the hotā rectifies it. If the yajamāna does not desire it, there will be no defect to be rectified. The text 'with praṇava, the adhvaryu,' etc., does not refer to praṇava along with meditation. It refers to the syllable alone. On the other hand, there is a linga in support of the final decision. This is next stated:

64. दर्शनाच ।

And because the upanishad shows this.

only defect is that it is not expressly stated to be produced by the use of the milking vessel. The connection between the milking vessel and the attainment of the fruit has to be inferred. But as there is only one cause of delay, the use of the milking vessel and the fruit are connected. The use of the vessel is not therefore for the kratu, but for the yajamāna. In the case under consideration also there is only one cause of delay. The fruit is expressly stated to be produced by the meditation; and the only defect is that it is not stated in the injunction text. The case being therefore analogous to the milking vessel, the meditation is connected with the fruit, but not with the udgītha.

The case under consideration differs from the case of the $juh\bar{u}$ for another reason. In the case of the $juh\bar{u}$ there is a need—of what wood it should be made; but the udgitha does not need meditation; for it may be sung without it. Being made of parna wood, not being action, needs a kratu, into which it may enter; but meditation being itself action does not need it; but may connect itself with a fruit directly. Hence the $juh\bar{u}$ and being made of parna wood are connected with each other. In the case of the udgitha and meditation, neither needs the other. Therefore, the meditation is not its anga.

The text is "The brahmā that knows this, saves the kratu, the yajamāna, and all the helpers" (chāndo., IV-17-10). There is room for this saving, only if the udgātā is not bound to meditate on the udgītha. This mark is sufficient to show that the marks stated in sūtras 61 and 62 are generally, but not invariably, found.

भगवते भाष्यकाराय महादेशिकाय नमः



भगवते भाष्यकाराय महादेशिकाय नमः ।

CHAPTER III

SECTION 4

Brahma Vidyā has been considered. In this section the helps to it will be examined, including the karmas enjoined in the earlier part of the veda.

SUB-SECTION 1

This is preliminary. The question for consideration is whether man's goal comes from meditation or from *karma*, of which meditation is an adjunct. The final decision is stated in the *sūtra*:

पुरुषार्थोऽतश्शब्दादिति बादरायणः ।

From it (i.e., meditation) man's goal comes; because vedic texts state this. This is the view of Bāda-rāyaṇa.

The texts are:

One that meditates on Brahma reaches the highest $(\bar{a}na., I-1)$. I know this, vi.., meditating here on that great Purusha alone, who shines like the sun, and who is far removed from tamas, one becomes immortal; no other path lies to the goal $(purusha\ s\bar{u}kta-20)$; similarly, the meditator is released from name and form, and reaches the Purusha, who is greater than the great, and who abides in heaven (munda., III-2-8).

Jaimini disputes this conclusion; and his arguments are stated in sūtras 2 to 7:

2. शेषत्वात्पुरुषार्थवादोयथान्येष्वितिजैमिनिः॥

Because meditation serves karma; the mention of fruit is $arthav\bar{a}da$, as in other cases. This is the view of Jaimini.

In Jaimini's opinion these texts are intended to show what is the real nature of the jiva, who does karma. Meditation thus gives the doer of karma the necessary qualification for doing it; and through him it serves karma, and becomes a subordinate part thereof. As it cannot have a separate fruit of its own, the mention of the fruit in these texts is mere arthavāda (praise). 'As in other cases'—the cases referred to in the following sūtra of pūrva mimāmsā—"In the cases of substances, qualifications and actions, which serve something else, the mention of fruit is arthavāda (praise)."

2. The *vedāntin* raises two objections: In the following *sūtras* it was stated that a Being other than the doer of *karma* is to be reached by one desiring release, and that He is placed before him for meditation by *vedic* texts: I-1-17; I-1-18; I-2-3; and I-3-17. In *sūtra* II-1-22 it was pointed that the same Being, that is referred to in the text "That thou art," is other than a *jiva*; and it was explained in *sūtra* I-4-22 how words in apposition as in this text should be understood. How then can the view stated in paragraph 1 be maintained? *Reply*. In the very texts, on which you rely, there are indications that *karma* is more important than

meditation. By the light of these indications words in apposition are understood as affirming the identity of *Brahma* and the *jiva*. Hence the texts of the *vedānta* teach merely that the *jiva* in his nature is other than his body.

- 3. Secondly, the statement that the texts give a qualification to a jiva is not sound; for he does worldly acts as well as those enjoined by the veda; and he is not connected only with the latter. Reply. The doing of worldly acts is possible by one that does not know that he is other than his body; but in regard to karma enjoined by the veda the doer should know that he is other than the body, and that he is eternal; and this knowledge is needed for such karma.
- 4. Hence meditation, entering into karma through the doer, is a part of karma.

These indications are stated in the next five sūtras:

3. आचारदर्शनात् नामव नपत

Because it is seen in the practice (of those doing meditation).

Aṣvapati, who was foremost among those that did brahma vidyā, and who was approached by certain seers for instruction on Atmā Vaiṣvānara, said "Revered sirs, I am going to perform a kratu" (chāndo., V-11-5). The smritis state that Janaka and other persons, who were foremost among those that meditated on Brahma, were ever engaged in the performance of karma. "Janaka and

others attained their goal with karma alone "($bhagavadgit\bar{a}$, III-20). Having knowledge of the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$, and doing $brahma\ vidy\bar{a}$, he performed very many yajnas in order to remove mritya by $avidy\bar{a}$ (vishnu, VI-6-12).

4. तच्छुते:।

Because it is declared by the veda.

The text is:

That which is done with meditation, with eagerness, and with knowledge of everything being ruled from within by the highest $\overline{Atm\bar{a}}$, that alone becomes most efficacious ($ch\bar{a}ndo$., I-1-10).

It cannot be urged that this text is limited by the context to udgitha; for sruti is of greater force than the context. The text therefore applies to all $vidy\bar{a}s$.

5. समन्वारम्भणात्।

Because of the statement that they contact (a departing jiva).

The text is:

Him meditation and karma contact and go with him (byihad., VI-4-2).

This co-existence should be explained by the subordination of meditation to karma for the reason stated.

6. तद्वतो विधानात्।

Because karma is enjoined to one that has it (meditation).

The text is:

After learning the veda in the house of the teacher in accordance with the rules, and when time could be

spared from his service, let the student perform the ceremony known as $sam\bar{a}vartana$ and live in a family, etc. $(ch\bar{a}ndo., VIII-15-1)$.

Then he is required to do karma. This injunction is given to one that has learnt the veda, and the learning includes a knowledge of not merely the text, but of its meaning also. Hence brahma vidyā is connected with karma for its service, and cannot yield independent fruit.

7. नियमात् ।

Because of the restriction imposed.

The text is:

Let one desire to live a hundred years only doing karma here (\bar{I} savasya -2).

The meaning is that the whole life should be spent in doing *karma* alone.

Jaimin's view is first refuted, and it is next shown in six sūtras that the texts quoted do not support him:

8. अधिकोपदेशातु बादरायणस्यैवं तद्दर्शनात्।

But a Being, other than the jiva, is mentioned in the texts; and this is $B\bar{u}daray\bar{u}na's$ view. This appears from the veda.

The texts quoted under the first $s\bar{u}tra$ refer not to the jiva, the doer of karma, but to Brahma, who is differentiated from him by being opposed to imperfections of every kind, and by being the seat of numberless noble qualities without limit to their excellence. The indications stated will be replied to presently. The object

of meditation is a Being other than the jiva. appears from the following texts:

He is free from karma, free from old age, death, grief, hunger and thirst; He has unchanging objects of desire; and His will is never frustrated (chando., VIII-1-5); He willed—'I will become many, and to that end I will evolve; He created fire (Ibid., VI-2-3); who knows everything (munda., I-1-10); His capacity is heard to be superior. to be of many kinds; and to pertain to His nature; also His power to know, to support, and to create and destroy (sveta., VI-8); It is one unit of the bliss of Brahma (āna., VIII); One, that meditates on the bliss of Brahma, from which speech returns with the mind without reaching its higher limit, does not fear anything (Ibid-9); He is the controller of all; He is the lord of beings; He is the protector of beings; He is a protective bund (brihad., VI-4-22); He, the world-cause, is the lord of the lords of the senses (jivas); no maker or lord of Him exists (svetā., VI-9); By the unobstructed command of that Akshara, Gārgi, the sun and the moon stand supported; by the unobstructed command of that Akshara heaven and earth stand supported (brihad., V-8-8); From fear of Him the wind blows; from fear the sun rises; from fear of Him fire and Indra (go about their business); death, the fifth, runs about $(\bar{a}na... \text{ VIII-1}).$

These texts, enjoining meditation, show that the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ is free from the slightest touch of any imperfection: that He is the seat of endless, noble qualities: that He by mere will and for mere amusement evolves the universe, sustains it and dissolves it in the end: that He is all-knowing, and omnipotent; that the higher limit of His bliss cannot be thought of or described; that He is the lord of the jiva; and that He controls everything. These attributes can never be found in a jiva, whether he is bound or has become free. The texts do not therefore contain any reference to the jiva, the doer of karma, who is like a glowworm, and who is fit to be affected with $avidy\bar{a}$ and other imperfections. The $vidy\bar{a}s$ cannot therefore be connected through him with karma, as being made of parna wood is connected through the $juh\bar{u}$ with a $y\bar{a}ga$. Hence, the fruit in the form of attaining the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ stated in the description of $vidy\bar{a}s$ flows from the $vidy\bar{a}s$ themselves, and its statement is not $arthav\bar{a}da$ as thougt by Jaimini.

9. तुल्यन्तु दर्शनम्।

Non-practice of karma is as much seen as its practice.

This disposes of the text quoted in $s\bar{u}tra$ 3. Here is a text "We are seers descended from $K\bar{u}vasha$; for what purpose should we learn the veda; for what purpose should we do $y\bar{u}gas$ "? Seeing that karma is abandoned by some, that do meditation, it should be concluded that meditation is not an adjunct of karma. If it were, how could karma be given up? Question. How are the doing of karma by some, and abstention from it by others to be reconciled? Reply. Thus, when karma is done without an eye on its fruit, it serves meditation; and its performance is appropriate. This will be pointed out in $s\bar{u}tra$ 26. But karma done for fruit obstructs meditation on Brahma, the only fruit of which is release from the bondage of karma, and its abandonment is equally appropriate

10. असार्वत्रिको

It does not apply to all vidyās.

The text referred to in sūtra 4 applies only to meditation on udgītha. The term yad (that) must refer to something already mentioned; and that something is udgītha, which is referred to at the outset in the injunction "meditate on the udgītha". What is done with meditation is referred to by the term yad (that), and it is said to be most efficacious. The text is not to be understood to mean "That which is done is done with meditation (1)".

11. विभागश्चातवत् ।

Division as in hundreds.

Meditation and karma produce different fruits, as explained under sūtra 9. The former goes with the departing jiva to yield its own fruit, viz., to make him resume it in the next birth, and practise it, till it becomes perfect; and karma does the same, viz., to remove any obstructions in such resumption. Though the two go together, they are divided in their action. There is the analogous statement "one that wishes to sell land and precious stones is followed by two hundred rupees". This means that one hundred is for the land and one hundred for the precious stones.

12. अध्ययनमात्रवत: ।

(The injunction to do karma is given) to one that has merely learnt the veda.

⁽¹⁾ The opponent's meaning is: the term $vidyay\bar{a}$ (with meditation) is sruti, and it has greater force than the context. Sruti is the capacity of a single word; and here the term $vidyay\bar{a}$ has no capacity to connect $vidy\bar{a}$ with karma as a subsidiary part, unless the sentence be as pointed out.

This deals with the text quoted in $s\bar{u}tra$ 6. The term "learning the veda" means only learning the text. The injunction to learn the veda is fully carried out, when the text has been learnt; it does not require him to know its meaning also. When the text has been learnt, as it teaches karmas as means to fruits, one of his own motion takes up an enquiry to determine what it exactly teaches. Then, if he desires worldly fruit, he seeks to know karma; if he desires release, he essays to find out all about Brahma. This text does not therefore make meditation an adjunct of karma.

Assume, however, that the injunction to learn the veda is not fully carried out, until the meaning also is known. Even then, meditation is not an adjunct of karma. A knowledge of the meaning of the veda is different from meditation. One learns how the karma known as jyotishtoma should be done; but this knowledge is different from its actual performance, which alone leads to fruit. Similarly, one's knowledge of the nature of the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ and of the mode of meditation on Him is different from the meditation itself, which alone leads to the attainment of the goal. Hence, the injunction to do karma not being conveyed to one that does $brahma\ vidy\bar{a}$, this $vidy\bar{a}$ is not connected with it as its anga.

13. नाविशेषात ।

Because it is not particularised.

Here the text quoted in *sūtra* 7 is considered. There is nothing in it to show that the *karma* enjoined

is a means to fruit directly—i.e., independently of meditation; and it may be understood to refer to such karma as will serve meditation. In the case of Janaka and others referred to in the verse of the bhagavad $git\bar{a}$ under $s\bar{u}tra$ 3 meditation continued till they departed from this world, and karma served such meditation. The opponent therefore draws no support from this text.

Having thus answered the opponent, the next sūtra explains the meaning of the last text:

14. स्तुतयेऽनुमितवी ।

Only to praise meditation is permission given.

The text occurs in the \bar{I} savasya, which begins with the statement "All this is pervaded by the all-Ruler". The context therefore relates to meditation; and in order to praise it merely the statement is made that one may do karma throughout life. By the peculiar merit of the meditation, even though one should ever do karma, yet he will not be polluted by it. The remainder of the text shows this "If you live thus, and not otherwise, you, who find no pleasure in worldly matters, will not be stained by karma" (verse 2).

Having thus demolished the opponent, the next three $s\bar{u}tras$ support $B\bar{a}dar\bar{a}ya\eta a$'s view:

15. कामकारेणचैके।

And some (state abandonment) at pleasure (of the householder's stage by one doing brahma-vidya).

That is, those, that follow certain sākhas, teach that one may at pleasure give up the life of a householder (and with it its karma), if he practises meditation on Brahma: "What shall we do with children, who have this Ātmā in the place of this world" (brihad., VI-4-22). This text, permitting one, that meditates on Brahma, and is disgusted with the world, to abandon the life of a house-holder, and with it its karma, proves that meditation on Brahma is not an adjunct of karma. If it were, one that meditates could not make this renunciation at his pleasure.

16. उपमर्दे च

And the destruction (of karma by meditation is taught).

Taught in every upanishad. Karma is the root from which all the sufferings of the bound jiva come, and is in the form of good or evil deeds. Its destruction by brahma vidyā is thus taught: "His karmas are destroyed, when the Being is seen, compared with whom all superior beings appear as inferior" (munda., II-2-9). Such destruction would be inappropriate on the theory that meditation subserves karma; for a subordinate part cannot destroy the principal karma.

17. ऊर्ध्वरेतस्स च शब्दे हि ।

And $brahma\ vidy\bar{a}$ is found in those, that have taken the vow of celibacy; for it is stated in the upanishad.

Such persons, not leading a house-holder's life, cannot do agnihotra, darsa, pūrņamāsa and the rest.

This proves conclusively that meditation is not an adjunct of karma.

This last sūtra raises a controversy as to whether the asrama (stage of life) of persons, that have taken the vow of celibacy, is recognised. The first view is: there are no such stages; for the injunction is "one should do the agnihotra homa as long as he lives"; Smritis, that teach differently, are no authority. To meet this objection the sūtra adds the second sentence. In the veda itself the asramas are recognised. The texts are:

There are three seats of dharma (chāndo., II-23-1); These that in a jungle meditate on Brahma (tupus) with eagerness (chāndo., V-10-1); Desiring this same fruit they renounce the world (brihad., VI-4-22).

The injunction to do agnihotra throughout life is directed to those, that are not disgusted with life.

This answer does not satisfy Jaimini, who tries to explain away the texts: 2444 344

18. परामर्श जैमिनिरचोदनाचापवदति हि ।

It is mere repetition of what is otherwise known. Jaimini thinks so; because there is no injunction; and the veda forbids it.

In these texts there is a mere statement of the stages of life. For, there is no injunction. The context begins with the text "There are three seats of dharma" and praises meditation on Brahma, which is the subject under consideration. It closes with the words "One

that meditates on *Brahma* attains immortality". Hence, the stages are stated for that purpose, but not for directing one to go into them. In the second text also mention is made of them in order to teach the path known as *devayāna*. There is no injunction either here. There is also prohibition of any stage other than that of the house-holder;

He, that gives up the sacrificial fire, is indeed one that destroys the virility of the devas.

The next sūtra refutes Jaimini's arguments:

19. अनुष्ठेयं बादरायणस्साम्यश्रुते: ।

The āṣramas should be held; so Bādarāyaṇa thinks; because similarity (to the house-holder's stage) is stated in the upanishad.

The opponent admits that the house-holder's stage should be held. The other stages are exactly in the same position; for reference is made to the three seats of dharmas, in order to praise one that meditates on Brahma; and this reference applies to the other stages as well as to the house-holder's. Opponent. The reference to the house-holder's stage pre-supposes that that stage exists. Reply. This argument applies to the other stages also, if the thing be looked at without prejudice. See the duties enumerated in the context. Opponent. The duties mentioned relate only to the house-holder; and tapas (diminution of sense enjoyment) and brahmacharya (leading a student's life) are found only in him. Reply. This is not so; for the

seats of *dharmas* are stated to be three in number, and they are divided thus:

Yajnas, recitation of the veda frequently and making gifts form the first; tapas alone is the second; the student, that lives in the house of his teacher, and uses up his body completely in his service, is the third.

This mention of the number and division of the duties would be inappropriate, if only the house-holder's stage existed. Hence the proper explanation is as follows: The first three duties pertain to the house-holder (See Vedic Texts, and the notes thereunder). Tapas is the duty of vaighānasas and of those that have renounced the world; for it is their prominent function. The term brahmacharya denotes the disciplined life of student, that has taken the vow of life-long celibacy. The term brahma samsthā, occurring further on, means from its etymology meditation on Brahma; and this may be found in all the stages. Among those found in all the three stages those that meditate on Brahma attain immortality; but those that do not do so reach worlds, in which the fruit of good deeds is experienced.

This is very clearly stated in the vishnu purāna:

The place to be reached by $br\bar{a}hmanas$, that perform the nitya and naimittika karmas, is the place of Bhrigu and other $praj\bar{a}patis$; that to be reached by kshattriyas, that do not run away from the battlefield, is the place of Indra; that to be reached by vaisyas, whose mind finds pleasure in their own duties, is the place of the maruts; that to be reached by persons of the $s\bar{u}dra$ caste, that perform the service of the other castes, is the place of gandharvas. . Students that dwell in the houses of their teachers reach

the same places as those reached by men that renounce the world. Forest-dwellers go to the place of the seven rishis. House-holders go to the place of $praj\bar{a}patis$; those that renounce the world to satyaloka. Those, that meditate on certain things as Brahma, attain the imperishable place known as vishyu-pada (above the place of Dhruva). But those, that look to Brahma alone, and ever meditate on Him, go to that highest place, which the dwellers in the highest heaven (see I-6-34 to 39).

These verses state the fruits to be attained by those that are in the several varnas (castes) and stages of life, without doing $brahma\ vidy\bar{a}$. These fruits go up to the world of the four-faced one. The last verse beginning with 'But those' refers to the attainment of Brahma Himself by those that do $brahma\ vidy\bar{a}$.

The conclusion is that the other stages are on a par with the house-holder's, and that one may hold them also. In the other text also "Those that in the jungle meditate on *Brahma* with eagerness" the existence of the stage, in which *tapas* is the prominent duty, (and this is indicated by the term 'in the jungle'), is presumed; and it is only then that the *devayāna* can be taught with regard to it.

In the preceding *sūtra* the opponent's view that the texts under consideration merely state the existence of the stages was accepted, and a reply was given. The next *sūtra* explains that the texts do enjoin the holding of them:

20. विधिर्वाधारणवत् ।

Injunction only; as in the case of $dh\bar{a}rana$.

The following text relates to offerings to be made when a sacrificer's body is cremated:

Let him follow, holding the samid (a twig of the $pal\bar{a}sa$ tree) below the $juh\bar{u}$; for he holds it above for the devas.

In this text, though the second clause has the form of a repetition $(anuv\bar{a}da)$, it is accepted by the $mim\bar{a}m$ -saka as an injunction, on the ground that the holding of the samid above has not been taught elsewhere. Similarly, here also it should be assumed that an injunction is given, for the reason that the stages have not been taught elsewhere.

2. Hitherto the opponent's statement was accepted; and the question was discussed; but there is express injunction in the *upanishad* of the *Jābālas*:

Let one, completing the student's life, become a house-holder; from the house let him become a forest-dweller; and then renounce the world; or also otherwise; he may renounce from the student's stage, or from the house or from the forest. On the very day, on which he becomes disgusted with the world, let him renounce it.

It being thus established that there are stages other than the house-holder's, the texts describing one's indebtedness, and his life-long performance of agnihotra, and the text prohibiting the abandonment of the fires should be understood as applying only to those that are not disgusted with the world. There are other texts that teach that those meditating on Brahma should perform karmas to the end of life. They pertain to the duties of their own āṣramas.

SUB-SECTION 2

This sub-section and the next come in only incidentally. The $ch\bar{a}ndogya$ has this text:

This udgitha, the eighth, is the best of essences; it is the highest; it deserves the place of the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ (I-1-3).

Is this description intended merely to praise the udgitha, or is it to be meditated on as the best of essences? (1) The latter view will be shown to be the correct one. Taking that view it was pointed out in subsections 17 and 26 of the preceding section that the meditation was for the benefit of the yajamāna, and that its doing was therefore optional.

First view. The description is mere praise. For, referring to the udgitha, which is an adjunct of a kratu, it is said to be the best of essences. In the text "This (earth) is the $juh\bar{u}$; the heaven-world is the $\bar{a}havan\bar{\imath}ya$ fire," the earth is said to be the $juh\bar{u}$, and the intention is merely to praise it. Similarly in this case also. This view is stated in the first part of the $s\bar{u}tra$, and then follows its refutation.

21. स्तुतिमात्रमुपादानादिति चेन्नापूर्वत्वात् ।

If it he said "Mere praise; because reference has been made to it," the reply is—No; because it is new.

⁽¹⁾ Though the question is considered with reference to the $udg\bar{\imath}tha$, the decision applies to all texts, that are similar, and deal with adjuncts of kratus.

Final decision. It is not mere praise. Praise is given in one of three ways: (i) by stating a quality known already from some authority; (ii) by stating a quality not previously known; (iii) or by adopting a secondary meaning, when the quality brought up by meaning is unsuitable. Not one of primary ways is applicable here. It is not known from any other authority that udgitha is the best of essences. If it were, reference might be made to the fact, and an idea of its importance created. The second way will not do either; for udgitha is not really the best of essences; this quality is not suitable to the udgitha; and it cannot therefore be stated in regard to it; and such statement will not constitute praise. Nor will the third way apply as in the text quoted in the first view. It occurs where karmas are prescribed, and it is possible to connect it with the juhu and say that it conveys praise. But here there is no injunction in the context in regard to the singing of udgitha, with which the text in question may be connected. It is not legitimate to take out this text, carry it to where the udatha is prescribed, and connect it with the injunction. Without doing this it is possible to explain the text as prescribing a meditation on the udgitha as the best of The fruit of such meditation will be that the karma will become most efficacious.

In the preceding $s\bar{u}tra$ it was stated that there was no injunction near at hand to sing the $udg\bar{\iota}tha$. In the next $s\bar{u}tra$ it is shown that there is an injunction to

meditate on it; and this is an argument in support of the final decision:

22. भावशब्दाच ।

And because there is a term which denotes action.

In the term *upāsīta* (meditate) the termination giving the injunction is joined to the root, which denotes an action; and an injunction to meditate is therefore given.

SUB-SECTION 3

Most vidyās are introduced by a narrative. The description of meditation on the highest Atmā in the form of Indra begins with the words "Pratardana, Daivodāsi went to the abode dear to Indra"; the sad vidyā with the words 'There was one named svetaketu, the sun of Aruni'; and so on. The question for consideration is: What purpose do the narratives serve? Are they to be recited by the hotā, one of the helpers, just before a particular offering is made in a horse-sacrifice, or are they intended to help in the teaching of particular vidyās.

First view. The former alternative is the correct one. The injunction to recite the narratives is thus given:

Recite narratives in the $p\bar{a}riplava$ sastra (1).

⁽¹⁾ $P\bar{a}riplava$ is the name of a particular sastra recited by the $hot\bar{a}$ in the asvamedha. Sastra is the name given to verses of the rik veda recited by the $hot\bar{a}$ or one of his assistants before certain offerings of the soma juice are made.

The time for recitation is next stated:

When the king has been anointed, and when wearing clothing made of gold and silk, he has taken his seat to the south of the $\bar{a}havantya$ fire with his sons and ministers, the $hot\bar{a}$ should recite $p\bar{a}riplava$.

The term narrative $(\bar{a}khy\bar{a}na)$, being general, includes the narratives in the *upanishads* also. *Objection*: The second text is thus continued.

On the first day recite the narrative beginning with 'Manu, the son of $Vivasv\bar{u}n$, the king'; on the second day that beginning with yama, vaivasvata; on the third day that with the words varuna, $\bar{u}ditya$.

Hence the narratives should be those mentioned in the remainder of the text. Reply. No. A statement made at the beginning should not be restricted with reference to the remainder of a text. The narratives being thus connected with the horse-sacrifice, they cannot serve $vidy\bar{a}s$ also; for this would be opposed to the principle laid down in chapter III-3-10.

This view is stated in the sūtra and is then refuted:

23. पारिष्ठवार्था इति चेन्न विशेषितत्वात् ।

If it be said "They are for $p\bar{u}riplava$," the reply is "No; because they are particularised".

It is not possible to recite all the narratives; and the word 'all' at the beginning has to be restricted (1).

⁽¹⁾ At the close of a soma $y\bar{u}ga$ the soma juice that remains is poured into the drona pot, and is offered into the $\bar{a}havan\bar{v}ya$ fire. This is known as $h\bar{a}riyojana$ graha. After the offering, what remains is drunk. Regarding this a text states "Now (atha) in regard to this $h\bar{a}riyojana$ all

In determining how this should be done, help is obtained from the remainder of the sentence. The narrative to be recited will then be only those mentioned in it (1); and the narratives in the *upanishads* will be left alone.

24. तथाचैकवाक्योपबन्धात् ।

And similarly because they are connected (with injunctions) so as to form a whole.

This is an additional reason for the final decision. The narratives and the injunctions, which follow, are connected and form a whole. In the yajur veda (I-5-1) the story is stated that agni cried, and that his tears became silver. Being impure for this reason, the placing of silver on the barhis and its being given as reward are prohibited. This story is connected with the prohibition, and explains why it is given. Similarly, the narratives in the upanishads are connected with injunctions to meditate. Hence, they are for the purpose of helping in the teaching of the vidyās concerned.

(sarva) to be sure desire to get it." The term sarva means every one; but as it is not possible for every one present at the place to drink the juice, the text will admit limitation

of some kind; and it is decided that all the helpers in the soma $y\bar{u}ga$ partake of the juice $(p\bar{u}rva\ mim\bar{u}ms\bar{u}, III-5-9$ and $s\bar{u}stra\ d\bar{v}pik\bar{u}$, page 288).

⁽¹⁾ The need of the injunction is satisfied by the narratives mentioned in the remainder of the sentence; it is not legitimate to assume that the narratives stated in the upanishads are needed in addition for the injunction (adhi., 403).

SUB-SECTION 4

To return from this digression, which sub-sections 2 and 3 are, to the subject of the stages of those, that have taken the vow of life-long celibacy, and do brahmavidyā. As they cannot maintain the sacrificial fires, do the daily agnihotra and make the bimonthly offerings known as darṣa and pūrṇamāsa, how is it possible for them to do meditation, of which these are necessary adjuncts? The sūtra replies that they may.

25. अत एव चाम्रीन्धनाद्यनपेक्षा ।

And for this very reason there is no need to do $\bar{a}dh\bar{a}na$ and the rest.

The *upanishads* have stated (1) their connection with $vidy\bar{a}$. Therefore they need not do the *agnihotra* and the rest. The mere duties of their stage will suffice.

SUB-SECTION S

In the preceding sub-section it was decided that meditation on *Brahma* may yield immortality without

⁽¹⁾ The statements are thus made: Those that meditate on Brahma attain immortality (chāndo., II-23-1); And these that in the jungle meditate on Brahma with eagerness (chando., V-10-1); Desiring this same fruit they renounce the world (brihad., VI-4-22); Desiring which they observe brahmacharya (kaṭha., I-2-15). Brahma-charya means living in the house of the teacher, abstention from sexual intercourse, and the like.

the adjuncts of yajna and the rest. If so, why should it be needed in the case of the house-holder? The vedic text on this subject does not make karmas a necessary adjunct of $brahma\ vidy\bar{a}$; it should be construed merely as creating the desire to do the $vidy\bar{a}$. The $s\bar{u}tra$ replies:

26. सर्वापेक्षाचयज्ञादिश्चतेरश्ववत् ।

And all are needed; because the text states yajna and the rest; as in the case of the horse.

The house-holder being eminently a man of action, there is need for him to do agnihotra and all other karmas. This is stated:

Him (the highest $\tilde{A}tm\bar{u}$ described in the preceding part of the verse) brāhmaņas desire to meditate on by recitation of the veda, by yajnas, by giving, by tapas in the form of absence of desire (brihad), VI-4-22).

The karmas enumerated here are stated to be helps to meditation; for the text means—they desire to attain meditation with yajna and the rest. It is only when yajna and the rest are helps to meditation, that the statement made will be appropriate. In the term vividishanti (they desire to meditate), which occurs in the original, the root vid means to meditate (a point, which will be explained under sūtra IV-1-1), and the termination denotes desire. The general rule is that of the two—the root and the termination—the latter is the more important; but where the termination expresses desire, the prominence is transferred to the root. In worldly discourse also the same rule is followed. In the statements "He wishes to kill with a knife" and "with a horse he desires to

go" the knife is a help to killing, and the horse is a help to going. Similarly, here they wish to meditate, the helps to meditation being yajna and the rest. They help in this manner. Meditation must become vivid like sense perception; it must be marked with a high degree of love; it must grow every day; and it should be done throughout life. It is denoted by dhyāna, upāsana and other terms; and it is other than the mere knowledge of texts. If the yajna and the rest are done every day as the worship of the highest Atmā, that Being is pleased, and helps meditation to grow, removing all obstacles.

2. The sūtra states an analogy. "As in the case of the horse." A horse, which is the means of locomotion for man, requires its own adjuncts—harness, etc. Similarly, meditation, which is the means of obtaining release, requires the help of the karmas that are attached to the house-holder's station.

3. There are other texts on this point:

 $Vidy\bar{a}$ (meditation) and $avidy\bar{a}$ (what is other than $vidy\bar{a}$) one, that knows both these, overcomes impediments (mrityu) by $avidy\bar{a}$, and reaches Brahma by $vidy\bar{a}$ ($\bar{I}s\bar{a}., 11$). Here $avidy\bar{a}$ refers to the karmas of the varna (caste) and $\bar{a}srama$ (stage of life); hence 'by $avidy\bar{a}$ ' means 'by karma'. The term mrityu refers to existing karma, which impedes the springing up of $vidy\bar{a}$. The $avidy\bar{a}$ stated to be the means to the removal of mrityu is what is other than $vidy\bar{a}$, i.e., karmas prescribed. See the following text: "Having knowledge of the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$, and doing $brahma-vidy\bar{a}$, he performed very

many yajnas, in order to remove mrityu by avidyā (vishnu., VI-6-12).

4. The karma that impedes jnāna (knowledge and meditation) is in the form of good and bad deeds. Both kinds are denoted by the word papa; for they impede the springing up of jnana and lead to what is undesir-Karma impedes jnāna by making the qualities rajas and tamas grow; and they will overcome the quality satva, which is the means to the springing of ināna. That evil deeds prevent jnāna from springing up is thus stated: 'It is He alone that makes one do an evil deed, whom he wishes to lead downwards' (kaushitaki). That rajas and tamas prevent one's knowing a thing as it is, and that satva enables him to see it as it is—is stated by Bhagavān Himself in the verses beginning with 'From satva jnāna comes' (bhagavad gītā, XIV-17). Hence, in order that jnāna may spring up, evil deeds should be got rid of; and this will be by doing prescribed karmas without desiring their fruits. This is stated in a vedic text. 'By dharma one gets rid of pāpa' (nārā., anu., 50). Hence, the jnāna, that is the means to the reaching of Brahma, i.e., meditation, needs all the karmas prescribed for the stage of life.

5. See also the following *smriti* texts:

Yajna, making gifts, and tapas (diminution of sense enjoyment) and similar karmas should never be abandoned, but must indeed be done. Yajnas, making gifts and tapas purify meditators (bhagavad $g\bar{\imath}t\bar{\imath}$., XVIII-5). He reaches the goal, worshipping with his own karma that Being, from whom all beings come forth, and by whom all this world is pervaded (Ibid., 46).

The author of the vākya also states that meditation as described comes only from viveka and the other qualifications: 'Its attainment is from viveka. vimoka, abhyāsa, kriyā, kalyāna, anavasāda, and anuddharsha; it is appropriate that it should do so; and it is so stated by vedic texts, He then explains what these are: (i) Viveka is discrimination in regard to one's food. It denotes here bodily purity to be attained from the taking of food not rendered impure by its nature, by the person to whom it belongs and by contact with impure objects. Gania and other intoxicating articles are examples of the first kind of impure food; the food given by persons of evil deeds is an example of the second kind; and food touched by hair and the like is an example of the third kind; (ii) Vimoka is the absence of desire and anger; (iii) Abhyāsa is the dwelling of the mind on the object of meditation, when one is disengaged; (iv) Kriva is the performance of the five great yajnas and similar karmas prescribed for the varna (caste) and asrama (stage of life), so far as this may be possible; (v) Kalyāna is the following qualities: truthspeaking, rectitude, mercy, willingness to part with one's possessions, abstention from injury of others and absence of undesirable thought. Of these, the first quality is not merely stating a thing as it took place: but it must also be beneficial to others. By 'rectitude' reference is made to perfect agreement of speech and action with one's thought and feeling. 'Mercy' is inability to see another in trouble, and willingness to help him without regard to his own advantage.

Abstention from injury of others should be in every way—by thought, speech and action. The undesirable thought, the absence of which constitutes the last quality, is regarding as one's own what belongs to another; or thought that leads to no fruit; or thought of the injury done by others; (vi) Anavasāda is the absence of avasāda, which is depression of the mind caused by difficulty of place or time, or by thinking of past loss or of unwelcome something that is expected in the future; (vii) Anuddharsha, absence of undue elation. The conclusion is that if one observes these conditions, and performs the duties of his āṣrama, meditation will succeed and only then.

- 7. These qualifications are enjoined by the following texts:
- (i) If the food be pure, the mind will be pure; if the mind be pure, continuous meditation will come (chāndo., VII-26-2); (ii) With a serene mind, i.e., not agitated by desire and anger, meditate (Ibid., III-14-1); (iii) One that ever meditates on an object, etc. (bhagavad gītā, VIII-6); (iv) Be doing karma without desiring its fruit; one that does this is the best of those that meditate on Brahma (munda., III-1-4); Him brāhmaņas desire to meditate on by recitation of the veda, by yajna, by giving, and by tapas in the form of absence of desire (brihad., VI-4-22); (v) He can be reached by satua (munda., III-1-4); That the fruit, is for those only in whom tapas, brahmacharya and truth-speaking are established (prașna., I-15); (vi) This $Atm\bar{u}$ cannot be reached by weak persons (munda, III-2-4); (vii) Controlling the mind, controlling the senses (brihad., VI-4-23).1

¹ Paras 3, 4, 6 and 7 above reproduce the portion of the *Sri Bhāshya* in sub-section 1 of chapter I, section 1, which was omitted (*vide* note on page 81).

8. The opponent may thus reply: In the sentence "with a horse he desires to go," it is seen that the horse is a help to going, but not to the desire therefor. Hence there being no way of getting over this difficulty, it is accepted that the horse is a help to going. Here, however, the statement, being made in a vedic text, must be accepted as it is made. Reply. The same difficulty is found here also. The desire to meditate springs from a knowledge of the Being to be meditated on; and it cannot be originated by karma. Let the root (vid) in the term vividishanti be understood to mean merely to know, as you suggest. One that does karma must have an object. If it be to create the desire to know, then he has the desire already, and no karma is needed (adhi., 406) (1).

⁽¹⁾ The opponent explains: The karmas enjoined in the text are for the continuance of the desire. At first there is knowledge in general; this leads to desire to know; this is followed by karma; and this creates a particular variety of knowledge. Reply. If karmas were needed for the continuance of the desire, they must be ever done; and in order to know what they are, an enquiry into karma is needed; but this is opposed to your view (see pages 77 to 79). Assume that the text supports your view. There are many other texts that prescribe karmas as helps to meditation; and it is not possible to deny their existence. These are: "Be doing karma without desiring its fruit; one that does this is the best of those that meditate on Brahma (munda, III-1-4); When the agitation of the mind is removed by karmas, then jnāna springs up; Janaka and others reached

SUB-SECTION 6

शमदमाद्यपेतस्स्यात्तथापि तु तिद्विधेस्तदङ्गतया तेषामप्यवश्या-नुष्टेयत्वात् ।

The house-holder should in spite of this practise control of the senses, control of the mind, and the rest; because they have been enjoined as its adjuncts, and because they also should be necessarily practised.

The question for consideration here is whether a house-holder should practise these. The doing of karma means that the senses and the mind should be active; and their control means that they should cease to work. Hence, the control cannot be practised. This first view is refuted in the sūtra. The control of the mind, the control of the senses and the rest are necessary. Because they have been enjoined as helps to meditation in the following text:

Hence, one, that knows this, controlling the mind controlling the senses, withdrawing from worldly pursuits, taking good and evil with serenity, and with the mind one-pointed, should see the $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ in himself (brihad., VI-4-23).

A serene mind being necessary for making a beginning, and also for perfecting meditation, the points mentioned should be practised. The conflict pointed out between the two sets of helps does not exist; for

their goal by karma alone ($bhagavad\ git\bar{a}$, III-20); He performed very many $y\bar{a}gas$ (vishyu, VI-6-12).

Question. Why is the termination expressing desire added to the root? Reply. The intention is to show that meditation on Brahma is itself a desirable object (adhi., 407).

they relate to separate matters. The senses and the mind should be engaged in actions that are enjoined; and their control is in matters that are not enjoined, and that are not in any way useful (1). It may be doubted whether the activity even in actions enjoined will not produce tendencies, which will make the control very difficult. But this doubt is misplaced. As the karma enjoined is done as the worship of the highest $Atm\bar{a}$, it will secure His grace, and through it it will destroy all those tendencies (2).

SUB-SECTION 7

In brihad āranyaka and chāndogya the following texts occur:

By him, that thus meditates on the food of $pr\bar{a}na$, no impure food is eaten; no impure thing is accepted (brihad., VIII-1-14); and in one that thus meditates nothing becomes improper food (chāndo., V-2-1).

⁽¹⁾ This question may be put to the opponent—Have not those in other stages to do the duties attached to them, and will not this interfere with the practice of control? He replies: They abandon desire for fruit, and do their duties as worship. We state that this attitude applies to the householder too (adhi., 408).

⁽²⁾ The point under consideration may be illustrated by what happens in the world. One that knows that he has offended some great man, on whom he depends, has recourse to the means within his capacity to appease him; and in due course he re-enters on his service. Similarly, each one—the house-holder as well as the others—essays to pacify his Maker by the duties of his own stage, and in due course reaches Him (adhi., 409).

These texts indicate that one, that meditates on $pr\bar{a}na$, may take any food. Is this permission to be exercised by him at all times, or only when there is danger to life? The *first view* is that the permission, being in no way limited, may be utilised at all times. The opponent contends that a general prohibition cannot affect a special injunction, and that it applies to cases not covered by that injunction. See the rule of the $p\bar{u}rva$ $mlm\bar{a}ms\bar{a}$ stated in para (ii) of the *first view* under $s\bar{u}tra$ 25 of chapter III, section 1, page 654.

The final decision is stated in the sūtra:

28. सर्वानानुमतिश्च प्राणात्यये तद्दर्शनात्।

Permission to eat any food is only, when there is danger to $pr\bar{u}na$. And this appears in vedic texts.

The *veda* shows that even persons, that meditate on *Brahma*, utilise the permission only when life is in danger. See *Vedic* Texts. One *Ushasti*, foremost among those doing *brahma vidyā*, at a portion of boiled gram, that was being eaten by an elephant-driver, but declined the drink, offered to him, saying

I should not have lived, if I had not eaten these; (but when that danger has passed), to drink the impure water (offered by you) would be to yield to desire (chāndo., I-10-4).

If this be the case in regard to one that does $brahma\ vidy\bar{a}$, how much more careful should one be who meditates on $pr\bar{a}na$ only, and whose capacity is very much less?

29. अवाधाच ।

And because other vedic texts should not be nullified.

Reference is made to a text of the *chāndogya*, which runs as follows:

If the food be pure, the mind will be pure; if the mind be pure, continuous meditation (on Brahma) will come (VII-26-2).

In order that this text may not be nullified, one should understand the texts in question as limited to cases of necessity.

30. अपिस्मर्यते ।

This is said in smriti also.

The text is

If one, being in danger of losing his life, eats food from anywhere, he is not stained by sin, as the lotus leaf is not affected by water.

This applies to those that meditate on Brahma as well as to others.

31. शब्दश्वातोऽकामकारे ।

And hence texts prohibiting the yielding to desire.

Hence—for the reasons stated in the preceding sūtras.

Hence a $br\bar{a}hmana$ does not drink spirituous liquor, thinking "I will not be stained with sin".

SUB-SECTION 8

It was stated in sub-section 5 that *yajnas* and the rest should be performed by the house-holder as helps to his meditation on *Brahma*. Should they be done

by a house-holder, that does not aspire for release from *karma* or not? The *first view* is that they need not be. For, as subsidiary to *brahma vidyā*, *yajnas* and the rest should be done; hence one, that does not do it, need not do them; if they should be done as duties of his stage of life, he should do them throughout life. How can the same *karmas* be compulsory and optional at the same time?

The final decision is stated in the sūtra:

32. विहितत्वाचाश्रमकर्मापि ।

And they (duties referred to in sub-section 5) are the duties of the aṣrama also (stage of life); because they have been enjoined.

Yajnas and the rest should be performed even by the house-holder, that has no aspiration for release. For they have been enjoined by the text "He does agnihotra throughout life"; and this includes the karmas known as darṣa and pūrṇamāsa.

33. सहकारित्वेन च । व जपन

They should be done also as auxiliary to meditation.

Because they have been enjoined as decided in sub-section 5. The same *agnihotra* is enjoined to a house-holder for life, and to one that desires the heavenworld, and the injunctions being contained in two different texts, it has been decided that there is no conflict. Similarly here also.

Nor are they different karmas in each case.

34. सर्वथापि त एवोभयलिङ्गात् ।

In both cases the duties are the same; because in both the texts the same mark is found.

Whether the duties under consideration are viewed as auxiliary to meditation, or as duties of the āṣrama, they are the same karmas in both the cases. The reason is that in both the texts the injunction is conveyed using the term yajna. There is therefore no ground for thinking that the duties in both cases differ. The effect of this is that by doing them once, both the purposes will be served (1).

35. अन्भिभवं च दर्शयति।

And the veda shows prevention of obstructions in meditation.

The text is "By dharma one removes evil karma" (nārā., anu., 50). Evil karma obstructs the origination of brahma vidyā; and by the performance of dharma, i.e., the duties under consideration, the obstruction does not take place. By their daily performance, the mind becomes pure, the capacity to meditate is developed, and meditation grows.

⁽¹⁾ See the precedent in Introduction, para 37. Here the duties under consideration should be done by the same house-holder, and at the same place and time. As the prayāgas, though done but once, serve all the principal offerings, so the duties under consideration, though done but once, serve both the purposes.

SUB-SECTION 9

Those in the four \bar{a} sramas (stages of life) have been dealt with. The question now considered is whether persons that are without them—those that have completed the student's life, and have not married, or that are widowers—are competent to do brahma $vidy\bar{a}$, and what are the helps to the $vidy\bar{a}$ in their case.

The *first view* is that they are not competent; for they do not perform the duties of any \bar{a} ; man, which are the helps needed for the $vidy\bar{a}s$. The $s\bar{u}tra$ states the *final decision*:

36. अन्तराचापि तु तद्रष्टेः ।

Also in those between the asramas (qualification does exist); because this has been observed.

Because it is seen that Raikva, Bhishma, Samvarta and others without asramas did meditate on Brahma. No one can contend that only the duties of an asrama can help meditation. The text quoted under sub-section 5 mentions the making of gifts and other duties as helps to meditation; and these are found outside the āsramas also. Again, it was shown in sub-section 4 that those, that had taken the vow of life-long celibacy, meditated on Brahma with such helps as they could obtain from duties other than agnihotra and connected Similarly, persons outside the asramas may duties. practise meditation on Brahma, obtaining help from actions that do not pertain to any asrama, as repetition of mantras, abstention from food on particular days, making gifts and worship of the highest Atma.

37. अपि समयते ।

Smriti also states this.

What was last stated is confirmed by the following text of manu (II-87).

One that meditates may without doubt reach his goal even by japa (repetition of mantras). He may do anything or may not do anything; but if he be the friend of all, he will do his meditation so well as to reach his goal.

38. विशेषानुप्रहश्च ।

And help by special acts (is declared).

One is not left to depend only upon argument and the *smriti*; there is also a *vedic* text, which runs as follows:

With tapas (diminution of sense enjoyment), with abstention from sexual intercourse, with earnestness, and with realisation of their $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ they seek the $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$, etc. (praṣna, I-10).

The karmas enumerated are not peculiar to the asramas.

39. अतस्त्वतरज्ञ्यायो लिङ्गाच ।

Other than this is certainly better; because it is so declared by the *smriti*.

"Than this"—than being outside the āṣramas; the 'other' is being in any one of the āṣramas. The former is a case of necessity; but one, that can afford it, should hold some āṣrama. Inside the āṣramas there is scope for many karmas, and the help which they render is greater. Outside the āṣramas there are not many karmas, and the help that they render is less. The two

cases cannot be on a par. The *smriti* declaration, which is addressed to one that can follow it, is "A *brāhmaņa* should not remain even for one day outside one of the *āṣramas*". A student, that has completed his study and a widower should not remain unmarried, unless they are disgusted with the world. It is a source of danger.

SUB-SECTION 10

40. तद्भूतस्य तु नातद्भावो जैमिनेरिप नियमात्तद्रपाभावेभ्यः।

But one that has become that (the holder of an $\bar{a}srama$ other than the house-holder's) cannot cease to be that. This is the view of Jaimini also. Because the veda restrains him from throwing up the duties of his $\bar{a}srama$.

The question for consideration is whether even one that has elected to remain a bachelor all his life, or a forest-dweller, or one that has renounced the world, may do brahma vidyā, when he has fallen from his condition. The first view is that he may, like the widower and others dealt with in the preceding sub-section. The sūtra replies no. The vedic texts, which bear on the subject are:

The student, that lives in the house of his teacher, and uses up his body completely in his service is the third (chāndo., II-23-1); Let him go to the jungle; but never return from it; Having renounced the world, let not one resume the sacred fire.

Hence like the widower these persons cannot remain outside the āsramas; and if they do, they will be

disqualified for meditation on Brahma. By the reference to Jaimini, the author shows agreement by him, and confirms his own view.

The opponent disputes the conclusion reached. considers that these persons may by some expiatory act purify themselves and become qualified again. Reference is made to an expiatory yaga in regard to such persons in chapter VI of the pūrva mīmāmsā dealing with qualifications (section 8, sub-section 4). The next sūtra deals with this question:

41. न चाधिकारिकमपि पतनानमानात्तदयोगात ।

And not even the expiation referred to in the chapter on qualifications; because the smritis declare them to have fallen, and expiation is impossible for them.

The declaration is:

In the case of the twice-born, who having entered on life-long studentship falls from it, I do not see any expiation by which he, the slayer of himself, may be purified.

Hence the expiation mentioned in the mimāmsā applies to other students.

42. उपपूर्वमपीत्येके भावमशनवत्तदुक्तम्।

Some hold that expiation exists (as the fall from the $\bar{a}srama$ is) merely $upap\bar{a}taka$; as in the case of eating; this has been declared.

Upapātaka is a minor sin, not included in the five great sins. Some teachers therefore hold the view that the fall may be atoned for by an expiatory ceremony. They point to an analogy. There is a prohibition against drinking spirituous liquor; and an expiatory ceremony is

mentioned for disobedience; and this applies to the lifelong student as well as to the ordinary student. And this is declared in the following *smriti* text:

What has been stated for the student living with his teacher applies to the other asramas also, in so far as it is not opposed to them.

Similarly, here also expiation is permitted, and when the fallen man is purified, the qualification re-appears.

This view is rejected in the next sūtra:

43. बहिस्तूभयथापि स्मृतेराचाराच ।

But in either case such men remain outside (the group of persons that are qualified); because of the *smriti* and of the practice of good men.

'In either case'—whether the fall is treated as a great sin or as a minor one. The result is the same; and the fallen man remains disqualified. Because, as already pointed out, the *smriti* states that no expiation is possible for him. A few texts no doubt state that expiatory ceremonies may be resorted to to remove the sin; but there is no expiation that can render the person so pure as to become qualified for meditation (1).

⁽¹⁾ A karma has three-fold capacity: It yields unwelcome fruit; It obstructs the acquisition of a qualification for doing karma enjoined by the veda; and it creates a leaning to similar karma. Some expiations destroy all the three capacities; others some one of these, but not all Here there is conflict between two texts—that which denies the existence of any expiatory ceremony, and that extending certain expiations. It is therefore decided that the latter text permits purification to the extent of destroying the first capacity, and that the former text preserves the second capacity intact.

There is also the practice of good men, who avoid the fallen men, even though they do the expiatory ceremonies; and they do not teach them how to do the meditation. The conclusion therefore is that these persons remain disqualified(1).

Sub-section 11

This sub-section comes in only incidentally. Reference has already been made to meditation on the *udgitha*, the singing of which is part of a *kratu*. The question to be considered is by whom it should be done—by the *yajamāna* himself or by one of his helpers in the *kratu*.

⁽¹⁾ Question by the opponent. The following text states an expiatory act for those affected with the five great sins, and with minor ones known as upapātaka: "If one sees Purushottama from the seat on which He stands up to His head, his great sins are quickly destroyed;" why should the destruction of upapātaka be specially stated. When meditation on Brahma has been established, if the meditator falls from inadvertence, meditation on Brahma is stated to be the means for his purification. This is stated by smriti-writers. Why should there not be expiation similarly in regard to the fallen man under consideration? Reply. We have no right to question the veda. Following the smriti and the practice of good men, the author of the sūtras has shown what should be done in this case. We must accept what the veda and smritis teach; if once we begin to question why they prescribe this or that, the bund for the protection of dharma, which has been made, will disappear (adhi., 414 and 415).

Atreya holds the first view, which is that it should be done by the yajamāna. For from upanishads it is observed that the same persons, that perform meditation, reap its fruit. Here it has been decided that the fruit of the meditation—viz., non-obstruction of the fruit of the kratu—is different from the fruit of the kratu itself, and that it is reaped by the yajamāna. Hence it is he that should do the meditation.

2. Objection. This case is analogous to that in which, when the yajamāna desires cows, water for pranītā should be carried in a milking vessel. Reply. Here though the fruit, which is separate from the fruit of the yāga, is reaped by the yajamāna, the filling in of the milking vessel must be done by the adhvaryu; for the operations of filling and filling in the milking vessel cannot be separated. In the case under consideration, there is no such difficulty; for while the udgātā, sings the udgāta, the yajamāna may do the meditation. This is stated in the sūtra:

44. स्वामिन: फलश्चतेरिखात्रेय:।

(The meditation is the duty) of the yajamāna; because meditation and reaping the fruit are declared to be by the same person. So does Atreya think.

The final decision is stated in the next sūtra:

45. आर्त्विज्यमित्यौडुलोमिस्तस्मै हि परिक्रीयते।

It is the duty of the *ritvik* (helper in the *kratu*); so does *Audulomi* think; for he has been bought for doing the *kratu*.

According to Audulomi the meditation should be done by the ritvik. For, he has been engaged by the promise of a fee to do the kratu with all its parts. And this is stated in the following texts: "He requests the ritviks": and "He gives fees to the ritviks". Hence, whatever karma, whether of the body or of the mind, pertains to the kratu should be done only by him. Capacity or the reverse is not the criterion in this It is true that the meditation on the udgitha is not a part of the kratu, but benefits the yajamāna; yet it pertains to him as yajamāna, and the kratu and all its parts should be done by the helpers. Also, the meditation serves a part of the kratu to be done by a helper. Hence, it should be done by him. In the dahara and other vidyas, there is no mention of anything to be done by a helper; and following the rule that the fruit belongs to the performer, they are done by those that wish to enjoy the fruits.

SUB-SECTION 12

सन्यापेव जयने

Helps of two kinds have been prescribed in subsections 5 and 6; viz., the doing of yajna and other duties of one's stage of life, and the control of the mind and the senses, etc. In this sub-section help of a third kind is prescribed, viz., mauna (making the mind dwell on the object of meditation, when it is disengaged.) This is referred to in a text of the brihad āranyaka

Hence, a $br\bar{a}hmana$, should attain $p\bar{a}nditya$ and desire to remain with $b\bar{a}lya$. Attaining $p\bar{a}nditya$ and $b\bar{a}lya$, he then becomes a muni (V-5).

Here the question for consideration is whether like $p\bar{a}nditya$ and $b\bar{a}lya$ mauna also is enjoined, or whether the reference to becoming a muni is a repetition of what has been stated already.

First view. It is the latter. For both the terms $p\bar{a}nditya$ and mauna denote knowledge. Hence the expression "becomes muni" is a statement of the injunction already conveyed in the expression "Should attain $p\bar{a}nditya$ ". This view is supported by the absence of the termination denoting injunction.

The final decision is stated in the sūtra:

46. सहकार्यन्तरविधिः पक्षेण तृतीयं तद्वतो विध्यादिवत् ।

Another help is prescribed to one doing brahma vidyā; like those enjoined and the rest. The third, as it is seen, as an alternative meaning, in those that do meditation fully.

'Like those enjoined'—in sub-sections 5 and 6, viz., yajna and other duties of one's stage of life, and control of the mind, and the rest. By the words 'the rest' reference is made to hearing and constantly thinking on the instruction received. As the first set is prescribed by the texts considered in sub-sections 5 and 6 as helps, and as hearing and thinking, which will be resorted to without an injunction, are accepted as helps, here also a third kind of help is enjoined, consisting of pānditya, bālya and mauna. The sūtra states that mauna is a third thing in addition to pūnditya and bālya; for the

term *muni* is used to denote also persons like $Vy\bar{a}sa$, who do meditation fully. The term therefore means to fix the mind on the object of meditation, when it is disengaged. It therefore differs from *manana*, which is to think on the instruction received from a teacher, so that it may be firmly impressed on the mind. It is true that in the text there is no termination indicating injunction; but because it has not been enjoined already, it must be assumed that an injunction is conveyed. The expression 'becomes a *muni*' means 'he should become a *muni*'.

The meaning of the text is as follows: $Br\bar{a}hmana$ is one that does $brahma\ vidy\bar{a}$; he should obtain $p\bar{a}nditya$, i.e., he should know the nature of Brahma, to be meditated on, fully and without doubt or misconception; that is he should obtain a clear and full grasp of the subject, that cannot be attained by hearing and thinking alone. This must come from the predominence of the quality satva, which again must come from love of Brahma (1). The meaning of $b\bar{a}lya$ will be presently explained. Having attained $p\bar{a}nditya$ and $b\bar{a}lya$, his mind must dwell on the nature of Brahma as it is, in order that he may attain $brahma\ vidy\bar{a}$. It is only by

⁽¹⁾ This point is stated in the following texts: 'I cannot be seen in this form as you have seen Me by recitation of the *veda*, by *tapas* (diminution of sense enjoyment), by making gifts or by *yajna*. But by love, not looking forward to any other goal, it is possible for one to know Me (bhagavad gītā, XI-53 and 54). In whom there is superior love for the *Deva* (sveta., VI-23); This Ātmā cannot be reached by mere thinking, etc.' (katha, II-23).

the attainment of these three things in this manner one attains the vidyā. This is stated in what follows: 'Attaining amauna (what is other than mauna), and mauna, he becomes brāhmana. By the expression 'other than mauna' reference is made to all the other helps; and 'becomes brāhmana' means attains vidyā fully grown; and this is to be attained with such helps only. Then the question is put "with what does he become brāhmaņa"; the meaning is whether any means exist other than that stated. The reply is—'by which he becomes, by that alone he becomes thus'. The meaning is: it was stated that one becomes brahmana by the helps ending with mauna; by this alone he becomes brāhmana; but not by any other means. The conclusion is that for all stages of life panditya, balya and mauna are prescribed like the duties of those stages.

Question. In the chandogya one is directed to complete his student's stage of life and live as a householder (See Vedic Texts); and the text closes with these words "Thus living all his life, he attains Brahmaworld and does not return" (VIII-15-1). How is one to reconcile this teaching with what has been stated? The next sūtra replies:

47. कृत्स्नभावात्तु गृहिणोपसंहार: ।

Because (meditation) is found in all (the stages), the teaching is wound up with the house-holder.

For the reason stated, meditation is found in the house-holder also; and the *upanishad* closes, making

reference to him. The intention is that what is stated should apply to all stages.

Similarly, in the *brihad āranyaka* the text under consideration is preceded by reference to the state of one that renounces the world thus:

Brāhmaṇa should rise from love of son, from love of money, and from love of the world, and live the life of a mendicant.

Though the third kind of help appears to be prescribed to one that thus renounces the world, it applies to all. This is declared in the next $s\bar{u}tra$:

48. मौनवदितरेषामप्युपदेशात्।

Like mauna; because the reaching of Brahma by those in other stages also is stated.

In the *brihad āranyaka* text reference is made to one that rises from all desires, and lives as a mendicant; and then the helps ending with *mauna* are enjoined. This injunction applies to all stages. For all those in other stages also reach *Brahma* as taught in *chāndogya* itself (II-23-1).

SUB-SECTION 13

The expression "Remaining with $b\bar{a}lya$ " in the text considered in the preceding sub-section is explained here. The term $b\bar{a}lya$ may mean the age of a child or his actions. As the former cannot be attained

by one, the term must be taken to mean a child's actions. The question for consideration is whether the meditator may live like a child, following his desires, wherever they may lead him? or whether he should not parade his learning and worth. The *first view* is that the former alternative is what is intended; for there is nothing to limit the injunction to any particular thing; and a general prohibition is barred by the particular injunction. The *final decision* is stated in the $s\bar{u}tra$:

49. अनाविष्कुर्वन्नन्वयात् ।

Without parade; because this alone will fit in.

It is the nature of a child not to show off his powers; and this should be adopted by the meditator. For, this alone will fit with the injunction. Everything else is said to be opposed to vidya.

Who does not desist from evil deeds, the force of whose desire and hate have not abated, whose mind is tossed about by numerous undertakings, and who for that reason cannot steadily maintain his mind on any object—by him He cannot be reached by meditation (katha., II-24); If the food be pure, 'he mind will be pure (chāndo., VII-26-2).

SUB-SECTION 14

50. ऐहिकमप्रस्तुतप्रतिबन्धे तद्दर्शनात् ।

The fruits of this world are reaped immediately, if there be no obstruction. This is seen.

Meditation is of two kinds—the fruit of one is wellbeing in this world or in the next; and the fruit of the release from karma. The question conother is sidered in this sub-section is whether the former is reaped immediately after the good deeds are done. or at some other time. The first view is that as there is no cause for delay, it is reaped immediately; for the meditator is reborn with the good deeds previously done. This is stated by Bhagavān: 'Four classes of persons, that have done good deeds, meditate on Me' (bhagavad qītā, VII-16). The sūtra states that the time for reaping the fruit is not definitely fixed. If the fruit of a stronger karma does not intervene, and cause obstruction, the fruit of the meditation is reaped immediately. Otherwise, it is delayed. This fact is admitted in the veda. It was shown that when the udatha is sung with meditation, the kratu, of which the singing is a part, becomes most efficacious, i.e., that it prevents the coming of all obstructions. The possibility of there being obstructions is thus admitted.

SUB-SECTION 15

51. एवं मुक्तिफलानियमस्तदवस्थावभृतेस्तदवस्थावभृतेः ।

Similarly, in regard to fruit in the form of release from *karma*, the time of reaping is not definitely fixed. Because that condition is known.

The same condition exists in this case also. The same condition—the absence of obstruction, or the

ending of the obstruction. The reason for adding a new sub-section is that there is a further doubt in the matter, viz., the actions that help meditation being more powerful, there can be no obstruction. The reply is that it is possible that offence previously given to persons doing meditation may cause obstruction (1).

भगवते भाष्यकाराय महादेशिकाय नमः ।



⁽¹⁾ It may be thought that the last sub-section alone is useful, as it points out that it is possible for meditation to be obstructed in the yielding of its fruit, so that steps may be taken to remove the cause of obstruction. Why is reference made to meditation for worldly fruit? The reply is that the intention is to point out the possibility of obstructions there also, and to create a disgust for such fruits; for persons may seek them under the impression that there is no difficulty in the matter (adhi., 423).

भगवते भाष्यकाराय महादेशिकाय नमः।

CHAPTER IV

SECTION 1

IN the third chapter meditation was considered along with the helps thereto. In this chapter the nature of meditation is first examined (1), and then the fruits to be reaped are stated.

SUB-SECTION 1

The following texts teach vedana "One that meditates (vid) on Brahma reaches the highest (āna., 1-1); Meditating (viditvā) on Him alone, one attains immortality (sveta., 3-8). If one meditates (veda) on Brahma, he becomes Brahma indeed; (munda., III-2-9); When the seer sees the Being with a bright figure' (Ibid.,

⁽¹⁾ It may be thought that the nature of meditation should have been dealt with in the third section of chapter III. True; its inclusion in the chapter on fruits of meditation is to show the following points: (i) Release cannot be attained by any other means; (ii) meditation is indissolubly connected with release; (iii) The attainment of the goal is near at hand; and (iv) The pleasure of meditation is as great as that to be attained in release (adhi., 433).

III-1-3). This text contains the term vidvan. These texts prescribe vedana as the means to reach Brahma. The question for consideration is whether it should be done but once, and whether the injunction is fully complied with thereby, or whether it should be repeated many times?

First view. The vedana should be done but once. For, the injunctions mention only vedana; and there is no authority for its repetition. The case cannot be likened to the husking of paddy (avahanana); see note (5) on page 65. There the effect is actually seen; and till the husk is completely removed, the operation should be repeated. But vedana does not produce an effect that can be seen; and it need not be repeated. Further, karmas like jyotishtoma, and the vedana prescribed in the vedānta form the worship of the highest Atmā; and thus worshipped, He bestows on the worshipper the four kinds of fruits. This was settled in chapter III, section 2, sub-section 8. Hence, like jyotishtoma, vedana also should be done but once; and this will be a full compliance with the injunctions.

Final decision. This is stated in the sūtra:

1. आवृत्तिरसकृदुपदेशात्।

Repetition more than once; because it is so taught.

Because the word *vedana* is used as synonymous with the terms *dhyāna* and *upāsana*. This is known from the fact that in texts teaching *vedana* the three terms are used to denote the same thing. The *chāndogya*, III-18 begins with the words "meditate (*upāsīta*) on the mind

as Brahma" (verse 1), and closes with the sentence "He that thus meditates (veda) shines through his fame as a giver; warms through his repute as a powerful person, and shines through the lustre born of vedic learning" (verse 3). Here the teaching begins with the term upasana and ends with the term vedana. next example this is reversed. In the same upanishad the first section of chapter IV describes Raikva's learning thus "What he knows (veda), that alone any other knows (veda); such a person was stated by me" (verse Further on, there is this sentence "Teach me, revered sir, the Being on whom you meditate" (upasse) (Ibid., IV-2-4). Other texts similarly connect vedana and dhyāna. The teaching conveyed by the text "One that meditates (vid) on Brahma reaches the highest" (āna., 1-1) is given by other texts thus: "The $Atm\bar{a}$, dear, should be seen, should be heard about, should be thought on and should be meditated on (nididhyāsitavya)" (brihad., IV-4-5); and "Then meditating (dhyāyamāna) on Him without parts, he sees Him" (munda., III-1-8). Now. dhyāna is thinking continuously, and is not merely a single act of recalling something to the mind. Upāsana too has the same meaning; for the term is used to denote the fixing of the mind on one thing to the exclusion of every thing else. It may, therefore, be concluded that the term vedana means continuous dwelling of the mind, the subject of meditation being revolved many times.

2. लिङ्काच।

This is learnt from the smritis also.

This text is:

A continuous stream of thought without interruption by any other thought is $dhy\bar{u}na$; and it is brought about by the first six helps $(vish\eta u, VI-7-91)$.

2. The means to release (moksha) is thus shown to be meditation. It should also be continuous without a break, like a stream of oil poured from a cup. This is stated:

If food be pure, the mind will be pure; if the mind be pure, unbroken $(dhruv\bar{u})$ meditation will come; when unbroken meditation is attained, all knots are cut (1) $(ch\bar{u}ndo., VIII-26-2)$.

Next, it must become vivid like sense perception. This appears from the following text:

The knots in the heart are cut; all doubts are solved; his karmas are destroyed, when He is seen, as compared with whom all superior beings appear as inferior beings (munda., II-2-9).

This being so, in the text 'The $Atm\bar{a}$, dear, should be seen, etc.,' the term drashtavya shows that meditation denoted by $nididhy\bar{a}sana$ should be vivid like sense perception (2). A thought recalled and revolved in the mind continuously becomes vivid like sense perception.

- (1) Knots are $avidy\bar{a}$, desire and the like, so called from the difficulty in getting rid of them.
- (2) In the text ' $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$, dear, should be seen, should be heard about, should be thought on, should be meditated on,' the hearing about is not an injunction; for one, that has learnt the veda, will perceive that it points out the means to desirable ends; and in order to find out all about them, he will himself go to a teacher to receive instruction. This need not be enjoined. Nor should manana, (thinking

- 3. And this is explained by the author of the vākya. " Vedana is upāsana; as it is used to denote the subject of upāsana.' He considers the following as the first view. 'Think but once; for the intention of the injunction is thus carried out; like the prayāja offerings, which are made but once for all the principal offerings, (see Intro., para 37). He then states the final decision thus: 'It is decided (that the thought should be repeated); for the term upasana is used as synonymous with vedana. Next, upāsana should be unbroken meditation; for it is seen, and is stated in a vedic text.'
- 4. It has been stated that the means to release (moksha) is continuous, vivid meditation. It should be loving meditation also. This is stated:

This $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ cannot be reached by mere thinking, by mere meditation, or by mere hearing many times; He is reached by him, whom alone He chooses. To him this $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ shows Himself (munda., III-2-3).

chooses him only, who is dearest to Himself. He dearest to Him, who loves Him beyond is measure. Bhagavān Himself makes efforts in such a manner, that one that is dearest to Him may reach Him. This is stated by Himself: "To those, that wishing ever to be with Me, meditate on Me, I give with love that buddhi, with which they will reach Me" (bhagavad gītā, X-10); 'I am immeasurably dear to him; he is

on) be enjoined, as its purpose is to impress the teaching on the mind. Hence, what is enjoined is only dhyana (meditation), and this should be as vivid as sense perception is.

immeasurably dear to Me' (*Ibid.*, VII-17). This means that the continuous, vivid meditation must become immeasurably dear, as the object meditated on is immeasurably dear. It is then that the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ will choose the meditator, and can be reached by him. This continuous, vivid, loving meditation and this alone is denoted by the term bhakti; for it is synonymous with the term $up\bar{a}sana$. Hence, the veda and smriti state:

By meditating on Him alone, one overcomes death (sveta., III-8); One that thus meditates on Him here becomes immortal; no other path to the goal exists (puru); I cannot be seen in this form, as you have seen Me, either by reciting the veda, by tapas (diminution of sense enjoyment), by making gifts, or by yajnas. But by love, not looking forward to any other fruit, it is possible for one to know Me, to see Me as I am, and to enter into Me (bhagavad gitā, XI-53 and 54); That highest Purusha can be reached with love, that spends itself wholly upon Him (Ibid., VIII-22).

5. Criticism. Ṣankara holds the view that the destruction of avidyā alone is release (moksha), and that it comes about by knowing Brahma. This we accept. Let us now consider what this knowing is, which upanishads intend to enjoin as the means of destroying avidyā. Is it the mere knowledge conveyed by vedic texts, or is it meditation following on that knowledge.

Şankara. It is the former.

Reply. The knowledge conveyed by vedic texts need not be enjoined; it will come to one, that hears the texts. Nor is it perceived that by this alone avidyā is destroyed.

Sankara. Such knowledge as will destroy avidya does come on hearing the texts; but the perception of differences, which is the effect of vasana (unfavourable tendency) does not disappear at once; it continues for some time, like the perception of the moon as double by one with a cataract in the eye, even though he learns that there is but one moon. Though it continues, as its root has been cut, it does not bind.

Reply. We cannot admit that perception of differences can continue; for its cause also, viz., vāsanā, being unreal, has been destroyed by knowledge. The case of the perception of the double moon is not analogous; for the cause of such perception is a real cataract in the eye; and it cannot be removed by knowledge. Hence the perception continues; but as it is known to be misperception on good authority, it will lead to no undesirable result. If you say that the vāsanā continues, even after knowledge comes, as there is no other means of destroying it, it can never disappear.

Sankara. There is a vāsanā engendered and developed by perception of differences; and until this is removed, vedic texts will not produce such knowledge as will destroy avidyā.

Reply. Sentences must convey their meaning, when the necessary conditions exist; it is not correct to state that they will not. We also see that even though an unfavourable tendency exists, such knowledge, as will remove misconception, comes from the statements of reliable persons or from inference. Further, as you consider that knowledge should come through the

destruction of the $v\bar{a}san\bar{a}$, this result can never happen; the $v\bar{a}san\bar{a}$ has been developed during long ages; and is immeasurably strong; while the meditation, that should destroy it, being practised for only a short time, is weak; and it cannot destroy the $v\bar{a}san\bar{a}$.

6. Hence the means to the destruction of $avidy\bar{a}$, which upanishads intend to teach, is something other than the knowledge conveyed by texts. It is what is denoted by words like $dhy\bar{a}na$ and $up\bar{a}sana$. Here is the authority—

Knowing $(vijn\bar{a}ya)$, do meditation $(prajn\bar{a})$ (brihad., VI-4-21); Knowing (anuvidya), one meditates $(ch\bar{a}ndo., VIII-12-6)$; meditate on the $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ thus I am for thee only (munda., II-2-6); meditating on Him, one is released from the jaws of death (katha., III-15); meditate only on the $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$, the fruit (brihad., III-4-15). $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ dear, should be seen, should be heard about, should be thought on, should be meditated on (Ibid., VI-5-6); He should be sought; He should be meditated on (chando., VIII-7-1).

As the knowledge to be gathered from *vedic* texts serves meditation, in the first two texts reference is made to this knowledge by the participles, 'knowing,' and then meditation is enjoined by the other words in the texts.¹

SUB-SECTION 2

The question to be considered now is whether the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$, the object of meditation, should be

Paras 2 to 6 reproduce the portion of the Srī Bhāshya omitted from sub-section I of chapter I, section 1, as stated in a footnote on page 81.

meditated on as different from the meditator, or as his $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$.

First view. He should be meditated on as different from the meditator; for He is other than the jiva that meditates. This point has been decided in sūtras I-1-17, II-1-22, and III-4-8. One should meditate on Him as He is; if the meditation be on Him, as He is not, He will not be reached as He is. For the rule is what one thinks that he becomes (chāndo., III-14-1).

Final decision. This is stated in the sūtra:

3. आत्मेति तूपगच्छन्ति म्राहपन्ति च ।

(The meditation should be) only as ātmā. So have persons meditated in the past, and the upanishads convey the same teaching,

As the person that meditates is the ātmā of his own body, so is the highest Ātmā the ātmā of himself, and meditation should be done in this aspect. For it was in this manner that men of olden times meditated "I am thou indeed, revered devatā; thou art I indeed". Question. The highest Ātmā being other than the meditator, how did they regard Him as themselves? The last part of the sūtra replies:

The veda makes the meditators understand this point without conflicting with other texts: "Who stands in the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$, who is within the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$, whom the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ does not know, whose body the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ is, who rules the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ from within, He, the inner ruler, is your immortal $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ (brihād., V-7-22). All these beings, dear, have their root in Sat; they rest in Sat; they will be dissolved in Sat; all this is identical with that (Sat) (chāndo., VI-8-4 and 7); All this is indeed

Brahma; for it has come forth from Him; it will be dissolved in Him; it lives by Him (Ibid., III-14-1).

For the reasons stated in these texts, Brahma is the $\bar{a}tm\bar{u}$ of all things—intelligent and non-intelligent. He is therefore the $\bar{a}tm\bar{u}$ of the meditator.

As each person is the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ of his own body, and thinks "I am deva, I am man"; so the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ is the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ of himself, and it is appropriate that he should regard Him as himself. It has been pointed out how every thought of everything extends to the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ also, and how every word therefore denote Him directly. Men of olden times, accepting this teaching of the veda, made the statement quoted above. Hence also prohibition of meditation on Him as another contained in the following texts:

One that meditates on another $devat\bar{a}$ with the thought 'He is another; I am another' does not meditate (brihad., III-4-10); He does not know the whole truth; meditate on Him only as $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ (brihad., III-4-7). All things will overcome him, who sees all things else where than in the $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ (brihad., IV-4-6).

2. The injunctions and prohibitions do not conflict with the direction to think of the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ as different from the jiva contained in the text—" Meditating on the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ and on the Being who controls him as different" (sveta., I-6). For, one meditates on Him as I, on the ground that He is his $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$; and he regards Him as superior to himself, as he is superior to his own body.

SUB-SECTION 3

4. न प्रतीके न हि स:।

Meditation as $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ does not apply to meditation on pratika; for it is not $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$.

Meditation on mind, on name and on similar objects is enjoined in the following texts: "Meditate on mind as Brahma (chāndo., III-18-1); He that meditates on name as Brahma" (Ibid., VII-1-5). In these cases is the meditation to be as directed in the preceding subsection—i.e., as the ātmā of the meditator, or no?

First view. As directed in the preceding subsection; for the meditation is on the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ as in the other case; and He is the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ of the meditator. The final decision is—No. This is stated in the $s\bar{u}tra$: For mind or name is not the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ of the meditator. In cases like these the meditation is only on the $prat\bar{u}ka$, but not on the highest $Atm\bar{a}$. He enters into the meditation merely as a qualifying attribute (viṣeshaṇa). By meditation on $prat\bar{u}ka$ is meant meditation on what is not the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ as the highest $Atm\bar{a}$. In this meditation, as the $prat\bar{u}ka$ is not the $\bar{u}tm\bar{a}$ of the meditator, it is not to be meditated on as such.

Objection. Even here the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ alone is the object of meditation. When this is possible, it is inappropriate to meditate on mind and on other non-intelligent objects, which possess but little power.

Hence, the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ should be meditated on as mind, as name and the like. The $s\bar{u}tra$ replies:

5. ब्रह्मदृष्टिरुत्कर्षात्।

Meditation as Brahma should be (on objects); because of His superiority.

Because *Brahma* is superior to mind, name and the rest; while they are the reverse as compared with Him. To look upon a king as a servant will be attended with unpleasant consequences, while the reverse will do good.

SUB-SECTION 4

6. आदित्यादिमतयश्चाङ्गउपपत्तेः ।

Meditation on parts of a kratu should be only as the sun and other $devat\bar{a}s$; because to do so is appropriate.

There is this text: "This being, who warms, meditate on *udgitha* as that being" (*chāndo.*, I-3-1). In cases like this, when meditation on parts of a *kratu* is enjoined, the question arises—Should one meditate on the *udgītha* as the sun, or on the sun as the *udgītha*?

First view. The latter is the correct form; for, the rule laid down in the preceding sub-section is that meditation should be on an inferior object as being a superior being. *Udgitha*, being part of a *kratu*, which

is the means to a fruit, is superior to the sun, who has no connection with the fruit (1).

The final decision is stated in the sūtra. It is on the udgītha that one should meditate as the sun. Because it is appropriate to regard the sun as the superior of the two. For, karma yields its fruit, only as being the worship of the sun and similar devatās.

SUB-SECTION 5

7. आसीनस्सम्भवात्।

Meditation should be done in the sitting posture; because it is only then (that concentration of mind) will be possible.

One may do meditation, sitting, lying down, standing or walking; for there is nothing to restrict the choice to one of these postures. In this predicament the $s\bar{u}tra$ intervenes, and throws its weight on the side of the sitting posture. In standing or walking some effort is required; and lying down may induce sleep. Hence the sitting posture should be adopted. And in order that no effort may be required for holding up the body, some support to the back should also be provided.

8. ध्यानाच ।

And because what has to be done is dhyāna (meditation).

⁽¹⁾ This is based on the $m\bar{\imath}m\bar{a}msaka's$ view that karma yields fruit, through $ap\bar{u}rva$, but not the $devat\bar{a}$. See the discussions in paras 5 and 6 of the final decision in subsection I-3-7.

Dhyāna has been stated to be the dwelling of the mind on one thing, without the intervention of the thought of anything else. And for this concentration of mind is necessary.

9. अचलत्वं चापेक्य।

And having regard to immobility.

Having regard to immobility, earth, sky and other things are appropriately stated to meditate

Earth seems to meditate; the intermediate world seems to meditate; heaven seems to meditate; water seems to meditate; the hills seem to meditate ($ch\bar{u}ndo$, VII-6-1).

In order to concentrate his mind the meditator should be immobile like the earth and hills; and this is possible only to him that sits down.

10. समरन्ति च ।

And this is stated in the smritis.

It is stated that meditation should be done sitting.

Placing on a pure spot a firm seat for himself, neither much raised, nor very low, and covered over with a cloth, deerskin, and $ku\bar{s}a$ grass; sitting on the seat, making the mind one-pointed, controlling the functions of the mind and the senses, let him practise yoga to reach purity of the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ (bhagavad $gt\bar{a}$, VI-11 and 12).

11. यत्रैकाप्रता तत्राविशेषात ।

(The meditation should be done) where concentration of mind is possible; because (the time and place) have not been specified.

No particular place or time has been stated as suitable for the meditation, and there is mention only of concentration of mind. Whatever place or time is suitable for this purpose, that alone should be selected. The text "On a level place, pure, and free from pebbles fire and sand, etc." (sveta., II-10) refers to a place where alone concentration of mind may be attained; but it does not restrict the choice to particular places; for further on it is said "suitable to the mind," i.e., to concentration of mind.

SUB-SECTION 6

12. आप्रयाणात्तत्रापि हि दृष्टम् ।

(The meditation should be done) till one departs from the world. For there also it is seen:

The question for consideration is whether meditation may be completed in one day, or whether it should be continued every day till death. The *first view* is that as the injunction will be carried out by doing it for one day only, it should be completed on one day (1). The *sūtra* says—'No.' It is seen that meditation

⁽¹⁾ Objection. As this text contains no word to indicate an injunction, it merely sums up the teaching with a statement of the fruit. Reply. As the injunction has not been given anywhere else, it should be treated as an injunction. Objection again. In this text reference is made to good deeds only, but not to meditation. Reply. As the good deeds are referred to as the means of reaching the Brahma-world, and as they are calculated to make meditation grow, the mention of good deeds implies the continuance of meditation also throughout.

is done from its commencement up to departure from this world, and throughout this period—"Thus living all his life, he reaches the *Brahma*-world" (*chāndo*., VIII-15-1).

SUB-SECTION 7

In the remainder of this chapter the fruits of meditation are described. In this section such fruits, as come to the meditator while he remains in his gross body, are dealt with.

The *veda* states that when one has attained meditation, his previous evil *karma* is destroyed, and that subsequent evil *karma* does not attach itself to him. The following are the texts:

As water does not stick to a lotus leaf, so no evil $\kappa arma$ will stick to one, that thus meditates $(ch\bar{u}ndo., IV-14-3)$. The $\bar{u}tm\bar{u}$ that knows the nature of Brahma, on knowing Him is not polluted with evil deed (brihad., VI-4-23).

These texts describe non-attachment of subsequent evil deed.

When one knows this and makes offerings, all his evil deeds are burnt up, as the cotton of the $ish\bar{\imath}ka$ plant thrown into the fire is burnt up $(ch\bar{\imath}ndo., V-24-3)$; His karmas are destroyed, when He is seen, as compared with whom all superior beings appear as inferior beings (munda., II-2-9).

These texts describe the destruction of past karma. The question to be considered is whether it is right to regard these two results as the fruit of $vidy\bar{a}$ or no.

First view. They cannot be the fruit of $vidy\bar{a}$; for it is said:

Karma, the fruit of which has not been experienced, is not destroyed even by the lapse of a thousand millions of kalpas (world-age).

As the *vedic* texts conflict with this verse, and as they follow the teaching of meditations on the highest $Atm\bar{a}$, they must be regarded as mere praise $(arthav\bar{a}da)$. Nor can they be regarded as enjoining meditation in expiation of evil karma; for they teach the reaching of Brahma as the fruit—"One that meditates on Brahma attains the highest" $(\bar{a}na., I-1)$. "If one meditates on Brahma, he becomes Brahma indeed" (munda., III-2-9).

Final decision. This is stated in the sūtra:

13. तद्धिगम उत्तरपूर्वाधयोरक्छेषविनाशौ तद्भपदेशात् ।

On the attainment of this (meditation) there result the destruction of previous evil karma, and the non-attachment of subsequent evil karma; because this is declared.

By the expression "attainment of meditation" is meant the reaching of the stage, in which meditation becomes as vivid as sense perception; for the text is "When He is seen". It is appropriate that these results should flow from vidyā; for it possesses great efficacy; and this efficacy is referred to in the expressions "No evil karma will stick to one that thus meditates"; and "all his evil deeds are burnt up". There is no conflict as stated in the first view; for the texts relate to different matters. The verse confirms the efficacy of karma to produce its fruit; while the upanishad

texts quoted declare that meditation on the highest $Atm\bar{a}$, when attained, destroys the capacity of past evil deeds to yield their fruits, and that it obstructs the accrual of similar capacity in regard to subsequent evil deeds. There is no more conflict between them than there is between the capacity of fire to produce heat, and the power of water to allay it.

- 2. The opponent's view that meditation is not expiation is not correct. It is enjoined merely to destroy *karma*; and when it is destroyed, and the obstruction is removed, the attribute *jnāna* expands of itself; and other fruits come to the meditator in the same way (*adhi.*, 460).
- 3. What is meant by the non-sticking of evil deeds? Evil deeds produce in a person a tendency to do evil deeds of the same kind, make him unfit to perform the duties imposed upon him by the *veda*, and lead to unwelcome fruit. Obstructing the accrual of this capacity is non-sticking of evil deeds. The destruction of evil deeds is the destruction of this capacity, when it has already accrued. This capacity is the displeasure of the highest $Atm\bar{a}$. The meditation is His worship, and removes His displeasure, when it has accrued, and obstructs its accrual, when it has not.
- 4. This declaration of the non-sticking of subsequent evil karma refers, it should be noted, to karma done unconsciously. The text "who does not desist from evil deeds, etc." (katha., II-24), indicates that complete withdrawal from evil doing is the means by which meditation may be perfected.

SUB-SECTION 8

14. इतरस्याप्येवमसंश्लेषः पाते तु ।

In regard to the other also (i.e., good deeds) similar destruction of the previous and non-sticking of the subsequent one. But the destruction takes place, when the body falls away.

The sūtra extends to good deeds also the effects stated in the preceding sūtra in regard to evil deeds and for the same reason. Good deeds are on the same level as evil deeds as to their antagonism to the fruit of meditation. There is also vedic declaration on the point. Referring to both good and evil deeds, it is said "All evil deeds depart from Him" (chāndo., VIII-4-1); "Then he shakes off good and evil deeds" (kaushītaki, 1-37). Good deeds also are denoted by the term pāpma, as their fruits are unwelcome to one seeking release from karma.

- 2. The need for a new sub-section arose from the fact that good deeds are allowed by the *veda*, and that their fruits are seen to be welcome to some persons. It might therefore be presumed that they are not antagonistic to meditation. This presumption had to be removed.
- 3. Objection: To the meditator rain, food and other helps are desirable, to enable him to complete his meditation, which, as stated, requires certain duties as helps. How can it be said that they are antagonistic to meditation, and that they are destroyed. The last portion of the sūtra replies. Such good deeds as yield

fruits, that are helpful to the meditation, are destroyed only after death.

SUB-SECTION 9

The question is whether in this destruction of the past deeds, both good and evil, all deeds are included without distinction, or only those that have not begun to operate.

First view. The first alternative is the correct one; for the text quoted refers to 'all deeds'; and no reservation is made. No karma is needed to account for the continuance of the body, as like the potter's wheel set in motion, it may remain from the impetus given to it when it was first made.

Final decision: This is stated in the sūtra:

15. अनारब्धकार्ये एव तु पूर्वे तदवधे: ।

But the previous karma, which is destroyed, is only what has not begun to yield fruit; because a limit (in the form of delay in the falling away of the body) is stated.

The statement is made in the text:

For him (that thus meditates) there is delay only so long as he is not released (from his body); then he is united (to Sat) ($ch\bar{a}ndo$, VI-14-2).

Here a limit is fixed, beyond which the reaching of the goal will not be delayed; and this limit is the continuance of the body, which was brought about by the *karma*, which has begun to yield fruit; and this fruit must be experienced. The opponent's analogy of the potter's wheel does not hold; for nothing prolongs the life of the body other than the pleasure or displeasure of the highest Atmā, brought about by good or evil deeds; and there is no authority for believing that anything else exists that will prolong its life.

SUB-SECTION 10

The question to be considered in this sub-section is whether agnihotra and other duties of one's stage of life should be done. Seeing that even good karma sub-sequently done does not stick to the meditator, and that the duties of the stage of life are included under that expression, if one does not wish to do them, may he cease to do them? The sūtra separates agnihotra and other duties of the stage of life from other good deeds, and states that they should be performed.

16. अग्निहोत्रादितु तत्कार्यायैव तद्दर्शनात्।

But agnihotra and the rest (should continue to be done); because they are required for its completion. This is seen.

The fact that the fruits do not attach to the meditator does not apply to these good deeds. They must therefore be done; for they are done only because they are needed to help meditation. This is seen from the text "Him, students of the *veda* wish to meditate on by recitation of the *veda*, etc." (*brihad.*, VI-4-22). Meditation becomes every day more

and more powerful by practice; and in order that this may happen the duties of the stage of life should be daily performed. Otherwise, the mind will become impure, and meditation will become impossible.

Here a doubt arises: Of the good deeds of a meditator some help $vidy\bar{a}$; some have been expended by enjoyment; and what remains have to be experienced, and this is what has begun to yield fruit. In the text "His sons take his property; his friends his good deeds" to what good deeds is reference made? The next $s\bar{u}tra$ replies:

17. अतोऽन्यापिह्येकेषामुभयोः।

Among good deeds previous and subsequent those other than these (considered under $s\bar{u}tra$ 16) indeed exist. This is referred to by the text of some.

There are endless good deeds, the fruits of which have been obstructed by more powerful karmas; and the text under consideration refers to them; as also the text declaring destruction and non-sticking of karma.

The possibility of one karma obstructing another already mentioned, is recalled in the next sūtra:

18. यदेव विद्ययेति हि ।

"That alone done with meditation" (has been stated already).

The text referred to in the $s\bar{u}tra$ ($ch\bar{a}ndo$., I-1-10) states that meditation on $udg\bar{u}tha$ removes obstruction

in the way of reaping the fruit of a *kratu*. This indicates that the fruit of one *karma* may be obstructed by other *karma*.

SUB-SECTION 11

19. भोगेनित्वतरे क्षपयित्वाऽथ सम्पद्यते ।

But expending the rest by enjoyment, one then is united (to the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$).

By the term "the rest" reference is made to the good and evil deeds, other than those that are destroyed by meditation, or that are said not to stick to the doer, *i.e.*, those that have begun to operate. Is one united to the highest $Atm\bar{a}$, when the body, in which meditation is attained, perishes, or after other bodies are taken up and thrown away.

First view.—The former alternative is the correct one; for it is stated to take place, when the meditator is released from the body. The sūtra states that these deeds should be expended by enjoyment. If this can be done while the meditator is in the body, in which meditation is attained, then the result follows, when that body falls. If not, he must take up as many bodies as may be needed to expend them fully. For the karma must be expended by enjoyment.

2. The opponent relies on the text "For him there is delay only so long as he is not released"; but this only shows that the *karma*, that has begun to operate, must be expended before one is released; but there is

no mention of a limit coinciding with the perishing of the body (1).

3. The conclusion is: The endless karmas, good and evil, that were done in the beginningless past, before meditation was attained, and of which the fruit has not been experienced, are destroyed by the merit of brahma vidyā, excepting those that have begun to yield their fruits. The karmas done, after it is attained, do not attach themselves to the doer. Of these all good karmas go to the friends of the meditator; and evil deeds to his enemies. The conclusion is therefore sound.

भगवते भाष्यकाराय महादेशिकाय नमः ।

सन्यापना जायन

⁽¹⁾ The opponent may also derive support from the text—"This jiva rises from this body, reaches the highest Light and appears in his natural form (chāndo., VIII-12-2). But the term 'this body' does not state that release is attained when the particular body falls down at death. For smṛitis state that men doing brahma vidyā like Vidura are reborn. Hence release is attained, when meditation becomes perfect in the last body. The intention in referring to 'this body' is merely to compare it to a prison; this view is confirmed by the bhagavad gītā (IX-33), where Srī Kṛishṇa refers to the body and observes 'This world, perishable and full of misery'" (adhi., 471 and 472).

भगवते भाष्यकाराय महादेशिकाय नमः ।

CHAPTER IV

SECTION 2

IN this section the mode by which the meditating jiva gets out of his body in death is examined. See Vedic Texts.

SUB-SECTION 1

The following text occurs in chandogya:

The speech of the person, my dear, that departs (from this world) unites with the mind; the mind with $pr\bar{a}na$; $pr\bar{a}na$ with the element fire; fire with the highest $Devat\bar{a}$ (VI-8-6).

The first sentence is considered in this sub-section. The question is whether reference is made only to the function of the organ of speech, or to the organ of speech itself.

First view. Reference is made only to the function of speech. The term used in the original is sampadyate, which may mean either dissolution of a product in its cause or merely union; but its usage in the former meaning is more common. Now speech, not being a

108

product of mind, cannot be dissolved in it. Reference is therefore made to its function; and as it depends upon mind, it may be said to be dissolved in it.

Final decision. This is stated in the sūtra:

1. वाङ्मनिस दर्शनाच्छब्दाच ।

Speech (unites with) mind; because this is seen, and is stated in the *veda*.

Speech—*i.e.*, the organ of speech itself—unites with the mind; for it is seen that when speech has ceased to function, the mind continues to work (1).

2. Objection. This fact may be explained with reference to the cessation of the function of speech. Reply. What is seen is supported by the text under consideration, which uses the term $v\bar{u}k$ (speech). If the term be understood to mean the function of speech, it will be resorting to a secondary meaning. This is one objection. Another is that if the organ of speech remains, but that its function only has ceased, it must be perceived; but it is not. Hence it may be concluded that the organ itself is merged in the mind. The term sampadyate is used not in the sense of dissolution, but in the other sense of mere union (2).

⁽¹⁾ It is appropriate that what has ceased to work should be merged in what is still active; as fire, that is quiescent, is dormant within wood, which is variously utilised.

⁽²⁾ It may be thought that this is not the recognised usage. Be it so. But the *first view* is not free from objection. If the term *sampadyate* be taken to mean dissolution then it is not correct to say that the function of speech is

2. अत एव सर्वाण्यनु ।

For the very same reason all the other organs follow it (speech).

Because speech unites with the mind, but is not dissolved in it, all the other organs—sensory and motor—are appropriately stated to follow speech and to unite with the mind. The statement is thus made "With the senses uniting with the mind without the possibility of their return from it".

SUB-SECTION 2

3. तन्मनःप्राणउत्तरात् ।

That mind (unites) with $pr\bar{a}na$; this appears from what follows.

"That mind"—the mind united to all the senses. The union is of the mind itself, and not merely of its function.

While the argument in the preceding sub-section applies to this case also, the reason for adding a sub-section is this. From the *chandogya* text "The mind,

dissolved in the mind; for its material cause is the organ of speech itself, while the mind is only the operative cause and dissolution of a product is in its material cause only. Hence, the term sampadyate will be used in a secondary sense, as also the term $v\bar{u}k$ (speech) as already stated. The final decision is open to criticism on one point only—viz., that a meaning is adopted for the term sampadyate, that is not the common one. Hence, the conclusion stated in the $s\bar{u}tra$ remains unshaken. The two reasons stated in it constitute but one reason; for they are interdependent.

my dear, is a product of earth" (VI-6-5), the mind appears to have evolved from earth; and the text "They (water) created earth" (Ibid., VI-2-4) states that earth came from water. Hence one might presume that the mind has evolved indirectly from water. The text "Prāna is a product of water" (Ibid., VI-6-5) connects water and prana as cause and effect, and it may be assumed that in the sentence "the mind unites with prāņa" the term prāņa stands for water; and it may then mean that mind is dissolved in water. that this view is erroneous this sub-section has been added. The error will be evident, when it is remembered that the mind evolves from ahamkāra, and prāna is a variety of air. And in understanding prana to mean water, the primary meaning of the term is ignored for no sufficient reason. What then is the meaning of the texts quoted? Reply. The meaning is that mind receives strength from food, which is a modification of earth, and prāna from water.

सयम्ब इपन

SUB-SECTION 3

4. सोऽध्यक्षे तदुपगमादिभ्यः।

It (prāna) unites with its lord; (this is seen) from its approaching him and the rest.

The third sentence of the text quoted under the first $s\bar{u}tra$ is now considered, viz., " $pr\bar{a}na$ (unites) with the element fire". The first view is that as in the other two cases $pr\bar{a}na$ unites only with the element fire and for the same reason; viz., the statement in the text.

The sūtra states the final decision, which is that prāṇa first unites with its lord, i.e., the jiva, and along with him it unites with fire. Here is an analogy. When it is said that the Jamna unites with the sea, it means that it first joins the Ganges, and then reaches the sea. That this is what takes place will be seen from the following texts:

In the very same way all $pr\bar{a}nas$ proceed towards this $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ (jiva) at the time of death (brihad., VI-3-38). By the expression 'the rest' in the $s\bar{u}tra$ reference is made to the departure of $pr\bar{a}na$ with the jiva:

Him, going out of the body, $pr\bar{a}na$ follows out of the body (brihad., VI-4-2).

Reference is also made to its remaining with the jiva:

What is it on the departure of which from the body I also depart, and on the staying of which I also stay (prasna., VI-3).

These are the words of a *jiva*, and reference is made to *prāṇa*. From this intimate connection with the *jiva*, *prāṇa* first goes to him, and with him it unites with the element fire.

SUB-SECTION 4

5. भूतेषु तच्छूते:।

(It unites) with the elements; this is stated by the veda.

The union of *prāṇa* and *jiva* with the element fire has been stated. Does this union take place with that element only, or with all the elements compounded?

The *first view* is that it is only with the element fire; for that only is mentioned. The *sūtra* states the *final decision*. For it is stated:

This jiva is "full of earth, full of water, full of air, full of ether, full of fire" (brihad., VI-4-5).

This shows that the jiva wanders connected with all the elements.

Does $pr\bar{a}na$ unite with these in order with one of these at each step? The text quoted will permit of this view being taken. The next $s\bar{u}tra$ replies:

6. नैकस्मिन् दर्शयतो हि।

Not with one at each step; for the veda and smritis show this.

For, the elements were unable to do anything, each acting by itself, and they were therefore compounded. This is stated:

I will enter these three $devat\bar{a}s$ as the inner ruler of this jiva and make diverse names and forms. Of them I will make each triple $(ch\bar{a}ndo., VI-3-2 \text{ and } 3)$.

This states that the elements were compounded in order that they might become fit for the making of diverse names and forms. This is stated in a *smriti* also:

When the products, beginning with mahat and ending with the great elements, remained separate, they had different capacities. They were unable to create the products of evolution without mixing and combining with one another. Mixing and combining with one another, they formed the egg-shaped universe (vishņu, I-2-53 and 54).

Hence by the term "fire" reference is made to fire compounded with the other elements.

SUB-SECTION 5

The question for consideration in this sub-section is whether the mode of departure herein described applies to all equally, or only to those that do not do meditation. The *first view* is that the latter alternative is the correct one. For the meditator is said to attain immortality even while he is here; there is therefore no need for him to depart. This is stated:

When all the desires, that were in his heart, are released, then the mortal becomes immortal; here he enjoys Brahma (brihad., VI-4-7).

The final decision is stated in the sūtra:

7. समानाचासृत्युपक्रमादमृतत्वं चानुपोष्य ।

(The mode of departure) is common up to the beginning of the path. The immortality is merely what is to be attained without burning (the connection with the body).

Even the meditator departs from the body in the manner pointed out, until the path commences, *i.e.*, until he enters the blood vessel. For, it is stated that he too gets out through a particular blood vessel:

There are one hundred and one blood vessels of the heart; of them one goes to the top of the head. He, that rises through it, attains immortality; the other blood vessels are for other ways of getting out (chāndo., VIII-6-6).

As it is clear from this text that even the meditator passes along a particular blood vessel, he cannot avoid departure from the body. The mode of departure is the same, until this point is reached; for there is no mention of a difference. When the blood vessel is entered, the divergence begins as stated in the following text:

With that light this $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ gets out through the eye, through the top of the head or through other places of the body (brihad., VI-4-2).

As this text has the same meaning as the *chandogya* text, departure through the top of the head pertains to the meditator, and the other ways pertain to the others.

2. This being so, the text relied on in the first view must be explained in another way; and this is done by the second part of the sūtra. The immortality referred to is only such as can be attained before the connection with the body and the senses is burnt up; and this is the destruction of previous karma and the non-sticking of the subsequent one. And the enjoyment of Brahma here is the enjoyment, that one has during meditation.

In the next four $s\bar{u}tras$ the same conclusion is supported by other arguments:

8. तदापीतेस्संसारव्यपदेशात्।

It (explanation offered) holds; because until Brahma is reached, samsāra is said to remain.

It will be explained that *Brahma* is reached by going to a particular place by the path known as

devayāna. Until then there is samsāra, meaning connection with the body. See the following texts:

For him (who thus meditates) there is delay only as long as he is not released (from his body); and then he is united to Sat ($ch\bar{a}ndo$., VI-14-2); Shaking off sin as a horse shakes off the hair on its body, released from the body, as the moon is released from the mouth of $r\bar{a}hu$ (in an eclipse), throwing off the body, I will reach the eternal Brahmaworld, the purpose of my life having been attained ($ch\bar{a}ndo$., VIII-13-1).

9. सूक्ष्मं प्रमाणतश्च तथोपलब्धे: ।

A subtle body remains; because it is so seen from vedic texts.

A subtle body continues on the *devayāna*. For it is said that he enters into a colloquy (1) with the moon; and this implies that he has a body. Hence his bondage has not been burnt up.

10. नोपमर्दनात:।

Hence immortality by the destruction of bondage is not meant.

'Meant'—by the text quoted by the opponent. This $s\bar{u}tra$ is intended to refute the view that one may be released, while he lives in a body here (2). This is opposed to numerous vedic texts, such as those enjoining meditation, which continues to the close of one's life,

⁽¹⁾ The meditator has to go to the moon on the $devay\bar{a}na$; and he is asked by the moon "who art thou" He replies $(kaush\bar{\imath}taki, I-13)$.

⁽²⁾ The view that one may be released, while he remains in his body was held by Sankara; and it is refuted in sub-section 4 of chapter I, section 1, the refutation being put into the mouth of the second illusionist. The statement

and describing departure from the body, journey on the *devayāna*, and release from all bonds on reaching a particular place. It is also opposed to sense perception.

that one remaining in a body is released is as contradictory as to say 'my mother is barren'; for to be in a body is bondage; being without a body alone is release.

Sankara. While one appears to be in a body, if he knows the appearance to be unreal, he is released from the body, i.e., he is a jivan-mukta.

Critic. No; if a person is released by the knowledge that the appearance of being in a body is unreal, how can the person be said to be jivan-mukta? What is the difference between this release and the release of one that is without a body? From him too the unreal appearance of being in a body has been removed.

Sankara. The appearance of being in a body has been nullified; but it continues like the perception of the moon as double by one with a cataract in the eye. Such a person is jivan-mukta.

Critic. You cannot allege that the appearance has been nullified; and that it yet continues. In the case of the double moon its appearance is due to a real defect in the eye; this is not removed by the assurance of a reliable person that there is but one moon; and the appearance therefore continues, even though the person's erroneous But in the case under impression has been removed. consideration the knowledge, that removes the misconception, covers everything other than Brahma. Avidyā, karma and the rest, which are the causes of the unreal appearance, have been removed along with that appearance by the knowledge. The view that one may be released while he remains in a body is opposed to *vedic* teaching. "For him there is delay only so long as he is not released (from his body); then he is united to Sat" (chando., VI-14-2). This shows that the release of one doing sad vidyā awaits only the falling away of the body, and thus denies jivan-mukti. It is also denied

11. अस्यैव चोपपत्तेरूष्मा ।

The warmth (perceived in some parts of a dying man's body) belongs to the subtle body alone; and this is appropriate.

When the meditator is about to die, a warmth is perceived in a part of the gross body, which does not pertain to it. If it did, it would be perceived throughout as stated in the text "It heats its body from the foot to the head" (nārā., 11-10). The warmth is therefore due to the subtle body, as it withdraws gradually from the gross body. The conclusion is that until the path is entered, the mode of departure of even the meditator is the same.

The opponent brings up two other texts as expressly denying departure of the meditator. This objection is stated in the next *sūtra*, and is then refuted:

12. प्रतिषेधादिति चेन्न शारीरात्स्पष्टोह्येकेषाम् ।

If it be contended "Departure is denied", the reply is —"No; because departure from the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ is denied; and this is clear in the text of some."

See Vedic Texts—brihad., VI, sec. 4. The first verse states that the dying man takes his senses, and comes out of the heart. The second verse describes the mode

by $\bar{A}pastamba$. "Let one abandon the deeds leading to worldly fruits, this world and that world, and seek the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$. The view that release comes from the knowledge of texts is refuted by texts dealing with release. If release did take place from mere knowledge of texts, one should not then experience pain even here."

of departure; the fourth verse shows how he attains a new body, and in verse 6 the subject of the departure of one that does not do meditation is brought to a close. Then this text relating to the meditator occurs:

Next, as to one that does not desire. Of him that is without desire, from whom desire has departed, that has no further desire, and whose desire is centred on the $\overline{A}tm\overline{a}$, $pr\overline{a}nas$ do not depart. Being Brahma alone, he attains Brahma (brihad., VI-4-6).

Similar denial of departure is contained in the texts which describe the colloquy between Artabhaga and Yajnavalkya (brihad., V-2). Verse 10 refers to the overcoming of death (So the opponent understands the text); and verse 11 runs as follows: "When this person dies, do the pranas depart from him or no?" To this question the following reply was given "No," said Yajnavalkya, "They are dissolved in him; he swells and inflated lies dead." The opponent concludes that the meditator attains immortality here alone.

The sūtra replies that what is denied is the departure of the prāṇas from the jiva, not from the body. The term taṣya (of him) in the first text refers to the jiva described in it as without desire, but not to the body, of which no mention is made in the context. Objection. By its termination the term taṣya indicates merely the connection of prāṇas with the jiva, but not the place from which departure takes place. That from which the departure takes place is the body alone. Reply. When it is said that the prāṇas do not depart, one will wish to know the place of departure; and he will naturally take hold of the jiva, who is mentioned

as connected with prāṇas and who is at hand, in preference to the body, to which no reference whatever is made. Again, there is no object in understanding the termination to indicate connection of prāṇas with the jiva; for this connection is already well-known. The connection in general, which is expressed by the termination, may be taken to refer to a particular form of connection, viz., the place of departure. There is an analogy in the sentence "He hears of the naṭa" (dancer), (naṭasya), the meaning being he hears from him'. It is unnecessary to discuss the question further; for in the text of the māndhyandinas the jiva himself is stated to be the place of departure, the term used being tasmāt (from him) instead of tasya (of him).

- 2. Objection again. There was no question whether prānas depart from the jiva; and its denial would therefore be inappropriate. Reply. When it is said "For him there is delay only so long as he is not released from the body" (chāndo., VI-14-2), one will carry away the impression that the meditator would reach Brahma, when he throws up his gross body, and that then prānas would leave him. If this were a fact, it would not be possible for him to proceed on the devayāna path, and reach Brahma. To remove this erroneous impression the upanishad declares that prānas do not depart from the jiva. That is, they do not separate from him, until the journey is finished and the goal is reached.
- 3. The other text, on which the opponent relies, should be explained in the same manner, if it referred to the meditator. But it does not; for in the questions and

answers preceding the text (See Vedic Texts) there is no reference to meditation on Brahma. The subjects discussed are the nature of the senses and of the corresponding sense objects referred to by the terms graha and atigraha, fire being the food of water, the non-separation of prāṇas from one about to die, the continuance of the departing jiva's good or evil repute, and his reaching a goal suitable to his karma. The words in verse 10 "He overcomes death" states that one that knows water to be the death of fire overcomes fire, but not death. There is therefore no mention here of one doing brahma vidyā. The statement that prāṇas do not depart from the dying person means that they do not leave him as the gross body does, but that they cling to him as the subtle elements do and go with him.

13. स्मर्यते च ।

And it is stated in the smritis also.

The departure of the meditator through the blood vessel going to the head is thus stated:

There is one among them, which goes upward; one going by this pierces the orb of the sun, and passing beyond the world of $Brahm\bar{a}$, attains the highest goal $(y\bar{a}jna\ smriti,\ III-167)$.

SUB-SECTION 6

It has been shown that the jiva with the senses, the mind and $pr\bar{a}na$ unites at the point of death with the elements in a subtle condition; and the view that departure from the body does not happen to the meditator

has been refuted. It will now be considered whether the subtle elements go on to do the work suitable to the jiva's karma or meditation, or whether they unite with the highest $Atm\bar{a}$. The first view is that they go on to do their work. For there is no object in going to the highest $Atm\bar{a}$, as no pleasure or pain has to be experienced by the jiva by doing so. The $s\bar{u}tra$ states the final decision:

14. तानि परे तथाह्याह ।

They unite with the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$; for so says the veda.

For it is said "Fire unites with the highest devatā" (chāndo., VI-8-6). It should be assumed that a purpose exists in accordance with the vedic statement; and the purpose is to give the jiva some rest after the fatigues of the departure. This is analogous to the rest taken every day in deep sleep, and in the dissolution of the universe.

SUB-SECTION 7

15. अविभागो वचनात ।

By 'uniting' is meant a union in which the united things cannot be separated; because this is stated.

This union with the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ —of what nature is it? Is it like the merging of a product in its cause as in final dissolution, or is it an intimate union as the union of speech with the mind? The $flrst\ view$ is that it is the former, as the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ is the material

cause of everything. The final decision is stated in the sūtra. In the text "Fire with the highest devatā" the word sampadyate (unites) is brought down from the beginning of the sentence and is added. In the other clauses the term denotes a particular kind of union; and there is no authority for taking it to denote anything else here. Nor is any purpose served at the time of departure by the body being dissolved in the cause. If this were the intention, there would be mention of creation following the dissolution as in other places; but this is not observed.

SUB-SECTION 8

The mode of departure from the body of the meditator and of others has been described; and it has been stated to be the same. Now begins the divergence. The further progress of the meditator is stated in the following text:

There are one hundred and one blood vessels of the heart; of them one goes to the top of the head. He, that rises through it, attains immortality; the other blood vessels are for other ways of getting out (chāndo., VIII-6-6).

The question for consideration is whether this text fixes that the meditator should go out through the blood vessels going to the top of the head, and that others should go out through others, or whether he may do so by any other. The *first view* is that the blood vessel is not fixed; for the blood vessels are numberless and very minute; and the departing *jiva* cannot distinguish

the particular blood vessel from the others, and enter it. The text merely states what may happen occasionally. The *final decision* is stated in the $s\bar{u}tra$:

तदोकोऽप्रज्वलनं तत्प्रकाशितद्वारो विद्यासामर्थ्यात्तच्छेषगत्यनु-स्मृतियोगाच हार्दानुगृहीतश्शाताधिकया ।

That place is lit up at the entrance into the blood vessel. Favoured by Brahma in the heart, he sees the entrance and goes out through the one hundred and first blood vessel. The favour is secured by the merit of the meditation and the daily thought of the path as a part of it.

The meditator gets out only by the blood vessel, which rises to the top of the head. For, his meditation, being the worship of the highest $Atm\bar{a}$, pleases Him; and being present in the heart, He enables him to see the entrance to the blood vessel, and to pass out through it.

SUB-SECTION 9

Getting out of the body, the meditator is said to go on to the sun, along with his rays:

When he gets out of this body, then he goes up only with these rays (of the sun) $(ch\bar{a}ndo., VIII-6-5)$.

The question for consideration is whether this limitation is appropriate or not. The *first view* is that it is not; for when one dies at night, how is he to proceed, the sun's rays being then absent? The text quoted relates to the case in which such departure is possible. The *sūtra* disposes of this doubt.

17. रश्म्यनुसारी।

He proceeds, following the sun's rays

The meditator goes on only along the sun's rays; for this is affirmed by the particle eva (only). If this were only one of several ways, then the particle would be meaningless. The difficulty pointed out in the first view does not exist; for even at night the sun's rays are available, as one may know from the experiencing of heat during summer. In winter the heat, being overpowered by cold, is not perceived as on a rainy day. The ever-present connection of blood-vessels with the sun's rays is declared in a vedic text:

As a long high road enters two villages, this and that, in the very same way these rays of the sun enter two worlds—this and that. They extend from that sun, and enter these blood vessels; they extend from these blood vessels and enter that sun $(ch\bar{u}ndo., VIII-6-2)$.

SUB-SECTION 10

To proceed to consider whether the meditator dying at night reaches the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ or no. The first view is 'No'; for dying at night is condemned, and dying by day is praised.

The day, the bright fortnight and the half-year of the sun's northward progress are praiseworthy to the dying; the contrary is condemned.

The praise and condemnation are based on the fact that death in the day leads one upward and death at night leads one downward. Death at night therefore leads one downward, and cannot lead him to the highest $Atm\bar{a}$.

The final decision is stated in the sūtra:

18. निश्चनेति चेन्न सम्बन्धस्य यावदेहभावित्वाद्दर्शयति च ।

If it be contended "One dying at night (does not reach Brahma)" the reply is "No; because one's connection with karma lasts only as long as the body remains; and this is shown".

The meditator is released from all karma at death. That portion of the previous karma, that had not begun to yield fruit, perished when meditation was attained. The remainder lasted only till the last body was thrown away. And any karma, that might be done unconsciously since the attainment of meditation, does not stick to him. Thus, there being no karma, that can lead one downward, the reaching of the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ is certain. That this is the case is shown by the following text: "For him there is delay, only so long as he is not released (from the body); then he is united to Sat' (chando., VI-14-2). The opponent's text applies to those that do not do $Brahma\ vidy\bar{a}$.

SUB-SECTION 11

19. अतश्चायनेऽपि दक्षिणे ।

And for the same reason even in the case of death in the half-year of the sun's southward progress. The reason urged in the case of death at night applies with equal force to the case of death in the half-year of the sun's southward progress. *Question*. Why then is a new sub-section added? *Reply*. Because there is a further doubt in this latter case. Here is a text which states that one dying in the half-year of the sun's southward progress reaches the moon:

Next one, that dies in the half-year of the sun's southward progress, attains the greatness of the *pitris* and becomes like the moon $(n\bar{a}r\bar{a}., anu., 52)$.

Another text states that those, that go to the moon, return to the earth, when that (karma) of those ends; then they return by the very same path $(ch\bar{a}ndo., V-10-5)$. There is also the example of Bhishma, who was a meditator, and who waited for the half-year of the sun's northward progress to die. The conclusion is that one that dies in the half-year under consideration does not reach the highest $Atm\bar{a}$.

This doubt is thus removed. One going to the moon returns to earth, only if he did not do brahma vidyā. In the case of the meditator the going to the moon is merely for the purpose of taking rest on his way to the highest heaven. For a sentence that follows the text states:

The $br\bar{a}hmana$, that meditates, overcomes both the greatness of the sun and of the moon, and after that he attains the greatness of Brahma.

Even without this text the reaching of *Brahma* is certain; for, as already stated, there is no more *karma* to bind him. As to the case of *Bhishma* cited, it should

be remembered that owing to the practice of yoga he was able to select the moment of death, and that he waited for the half-year of the sun's northward progress in order to show its superiority to the world.

The opponent now refers to certain verses of the bhagavad gitā, which in his opinion refer to particular times, dying at which the meditator returns to earth. The verses are:

I will declare that path $(k\bar{a}la)$, proceeding along which yogis will not return, and that path also from which they will return. The light—fire, the day, the bright fortnight, the six months of the sun's northward progress—persons meditating on Brahma go along this path and reach Brahma. Smoke, the night, the dark fortnight, the six months of the sun's southward progress—the man of good deeds goes along this path, reaches the light of the moon, and returns. These paths—the bright path and the dark path—followed by the world are considered to be eternal. By one path one does not return; by the other he returns (VIII-23 to 26).

20. योगिनः प्रतिस्मर्यते स्मार्ते चैते ।

And those two paths to be meditated on are taught to meditators.

The verses were not intended to say when persons should die. The object was to tell those that meditate on *Brahma* to include the two paths in their daily meditation. So the subject is concluded:

Knowing those paths, no yogi (meditator) is deluded. Therefore at all times meditate on them ($git\bar{a}$, VIII-27).

The references to the light—fire, and to smoke are to the two paths—the devayāna and the pitriyāna. Hence, the reference to time in the opening verse is to the devatās in charge of time, who are among those that carry the meditator to his goal. If the term kāla (time) were understood in its primary sense, it would be inapplicable to fire.

भगवते भाष्यकाराय महादेशिकाय नमः



भगवते भाष्यकाराय महादेशिकाय नमः।

CHAPTER IV

SECTION 3

IT has been shown how the meditator gets out of the body at death, and how through the grace of the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ in his heart he enters on the path to the goal by passing through a particular blood vessel. This path is examined in this section.

SUB-SECTION 1

The descriptions given of this path in the various upanishads differ. See Vedic Texts. Two texts of the chāndogya describe the path thus: Light, day, halfmonth, half-year, year, the sun, the moon and lightning. The purusha in the last takes the jiva to Brahma. Brihad āranyaka, chapter VIII, section 2, gives the following items: light, day, half-month, half-year, devaloka, the sun, and lightning; the purusha in lightning carries the jiva to Brahma-world. Chapter VII, section 10 of the same upanishad mentions the following—Vāyu, the sun, and the moon. The kaushītaki has agni loka and the

worlds of Vāyu, Varuņa, the sun, Indra and Prajāpati. The jīva then goes to the world of Brahma. Hence the doubt arises whether the path beginning with light is the only one prescribed by all the texts, along which the meditator reaches Brahma or whether there are other paths with option to the jīva to proceed along any one of them. The first view is that there are many paths, as their descriptions differ, and as they are independent of one another. The final decision is stated in the sūtra:

1. अचिरादिना तत्प्रथिते: ।

Along the path beginning with light; because this is well-known.

This one path alone is described in all the texts; and the meditator goes by that alone; for this alone is recalled, when the various descriptions are perused. This being so, it is concluded that the same is described in all the texts with additions or deductions. In the case of meditations, where the intention is ascertained to be to teach but one meditation, the attributes mentioned in one place are taken into account in another. Similarly, in the case of the path the items mentioned in one place should be taken into consideration in others (1).

⁽¹⁾ There is this difference between the two cases. In meditations, though the subject is one, as the attributes are endless, it is not possible to meditate on all of them; and it was settled that meditations are different, when the attributes differ. But in the case of the path, as the items do not exceed twelve at the most, they can be meditated on; and in accordance with the recognition of the path as one it is decided to be one.

In the *chāndogya* the description in the *upakosala* and five-fires *vidyās* is the same. In the *brihad āranyaka*, chapter VIII, section 2, the same is repeated with two variations. In the other two texts the items fire and the sun indicate that the path is one.

SUB-SECTION 2

The variations are reconciled in this and the next sub-sections.

2. वायुमब्दादविशेषविशेषाभ्याम् ।

 $V\bar{a}yu$ after the year. This is known from the general term and the particular term.

Comparing the chandogya texts with the first brihad āranyaka text, it will be observed that the year intervenes between the half-year and the sun in the former, and devaloka (world of the devas) in the latter(1). The path being one, both the year and the world of the devas should be included in it. The question is which should come first. The order is indicated by the case-termination of the term māsa (māsebhyas) in the two texts and this is sruti, and both srutis are of equal validity. But as the terms denoting periods of time are

⁽¹⁾ The original quotes portions of the four texts at each step; but as they are shown in one place in the Vedic Texts, the quotations are omitted here. The items of the path being stated here in the order in which they are enumerated, the discussions may be followed easily.

so arranged, that periods of shorter duration are followed by periods of longer duration, one's mind goes to the year from the half-year. The year should therefore be placed after the half-year. Then will come the world of the devas. This is stated in the first half of the sūtra.

- 2. In the second brihad āranyaka text Vāyu is mentioned before the sun; while the kaushītaki text places him after Agni. The order in the latter is the order of enumeration in the text; while in the former the order is expressly stated by the word ūrdhva (above). This is order stated by sruti, and being of greater validity, it cancels the other order, and Vāyu is given a place immediately before the sun. See Introduction, para 26.
- Thus after the year and before the sun, there 3. are the two items—the world of the devas and $v\bar{a}yu$; and it has now to be considered whether they indicate different things, or one thing only. The first view is that they are different. As by the term ūrdhva and the termination of the fifth case both are stated to be between the and the sun, as the order is vear indicated by sruti in each case, and as there is no reason to make a difference, the meditator may go to either. The second half of the sūtra states that they are one. and that the meditator after leaving the year should go to Vāyu. For, the expression 'the world of the devas' refers to Vāyu in general terms; as it is stated elsewhere "That which blows is the house of the devas". other term vayu is a particular term, and both indicate

but one $devat\bar{a}$. The term $v\bar{a}yuloka$ in the kaushttaki text should be understood like the expression agniloka to mean $V\bar{a}yu$, who is a world.

SUB-SECTION 3

Take the kaushītaki text. The first item is agniloka; and this is synonymous with archis (light) in the chāndogya text. It therefore comes first. $V\bar{a}yu$ is placed after the year. The sun though mentioned after Varuna, the order is cancelled by the order indicated by sruti in the brihad āranyaka text, and he is placed after $V\bar{a}yu$; thus nine items on the path and their order have been settled. The position of Varuna, Indra and $Praj\bar{a}pati$ mentioned in the kaushītaki text has to be determined. Are they to be placed after $V\bar{a}yu$ following the order of enumeration in that text, or whether they come in after lightning.

The first view is as follows: To bring them in anywhere would conflict with the order expressly stated in the texts; and to place them after lightning would be objectionable, as the $ch\bar{a}ndogya$ text states that the person in lightning leads the jivas to Brahma. There is therefore no room for them anywhere; but as the teaching should not become meaningless, it is necessary to break the order somewhere. Following the order of enumeration, Varuna should be placed after $V\bar{a}yu$. The order between $V\bar{a}yu$ and the sun being thus broken, Indra and $Praj\bar{a}pati$ may as well go in only there.

The final decision is stated in the sūtra:

3. तटितोऽधिवरुणस्सम्बन्धात् ।

Above lightning Varuna; because of the connection between them.

Varuna is connected with lightning. He is the lord of waters and controls clouds; and lightning appear in clouds. This connection of lightning with Varuna is well known in the world and in the veda. This is the order suggested by appropriateness, and should cancel the order of enumeration. The function of the superhuman personage to carry meditators to Brahma should be accepted as subject to intervention by others. Indra and Prajāpati, having been also mentioned, should find a place; and should come after Varuna, on the principle that new comers should come at the end (Introduction, para 27).

SUB-SECTION 4

Who are these—light, day, and the rest up to Prajāpati mentioned in connection with the path—are they landmarks on the path, or places of enjoyment, or carriers deputed by the highest Atmā? The first view is that they are landmarks; for so they appear. When one has to go to a village, directions are given to him as follows: Starting from this go to that tree; then to that stream; then to the side of that hill; and then you will reach the village. Or they are places of enjoyment. For, four of the items are well-known to denote periods of time and cannot appropriately indicate marks on the road; and the other items do not denote

periods of time. On the other hand they are stated to be places of enjoyment in the following text: 'They alone are worlds—viz., day and night, half-months, months, seasons and years.' This fits in with the description of the path by the kaushitaki text, using the term loka (world).

The final decision is stated in the sūtra:

4. आतिवाहिकास्ति छिङ्गात्।

They are persons deputed to take meditators to Brahma; because there is indication of this.

There is a mark of their being carriers in the text "That person, not human, leads them to Brahma" (chāndo., IV-15-5 and 6). This is found at the end of the context; and as there is no difference in this respect between lightning and those mentioned before, it is concluded that this description applies to all of them. The terms light, day and the rest denote certain devatās, who control what is ordinarily denoted by them. This usage is similar to "Earth said to him".

Question. If this be so, how can Varuna and the other two, who come after him, be reckoned as carriers? The next $s\bar{u}tra$ replies:

5. वेद्युतेनैव ततस्तच्छ्रुतेः।

After that the carrying is only by the person in lightning; because it is so stated.

"After that" means after lightning. The text quoted refers only to him. *Varuna* and the other two assist him; and for that reason they also are reckoned as carriers.

SUB-SECTION 5

It has now to be considered who are the meditators that are carried.

6. कार्य बादिररस्य गत्युपपत्तेः।

One meditating on $Brahm\bar{a}$, the product; so $B\bar{a}dari$ thinks. In him progress on the path is appropriate.

This $s\bar{u}tra$ states one view. This being, the four-faced one, abides in a limited place, and to reach him, going along a path is appropriate enough. But the highest $Atm\bar{a}$, the final cause, the all-knowing, the inner ruler of all, is omnipresent; and the meditator need not go anywhere to reach Him. For He is ever present with him. What meditation has to do is merely to remove his $avidy\bar{a}$ or ignorance in regard to the highest $Atm\bar{a}$. Hence the carriers carry the meditators only to the four-faced one.

7. विशेषितत्वाच ।

And because the goal is particularised.

The *brihad āranyaka* text refers to the worlds of *Brahma* as the place to which the meditator is carried. The word "world" and the plural should be noted; and they refer to a being living in a particular world. There

is another text, which is clearer still—"I will go to the house in the form of the hall of *Prajāpati*" (*chāndo.*, VIII-14-1). So does one think, that has travelled on the path and approaches the four-faced one.

The holder of this view anticipates two objections: The first objection is that in the $ch\bar{a}ndogya$ text the expression used is brahma, but not $brahm\bar{a}nam$, which would be the proper form, if reference were made to the four-faced one. This objection is replied to in the next $s\bar{u}tra$:

8. सामीप्यानु तद्व्यपदेशः ।

But that expression has been used, because of his nearness to Brahma.

Because the four-faced one was the first to come forth, he is near to the highest $Atm\bar{a}$, and is denoted by the term brahma. That this is the proper view is decided for the reasons stated in the two preceding $s\bar{u}tras$.

सन्यम्ब जयन

The second objection is that the person, that goes on the path, attains immortality, and does not return to samsāra. This could not happen, if the four-faced one were the goal. For he is a product of evolution and his life being two parārdhas, he must perish at the end. This is stated:

All the worlds including the world of Brahmā are perishable; and one that goes to them must return (bhagavad gītā., VIII-16).

One that goes to him must return. The next sutra replies:

9. कार्यात्यये तदध्यक्षेण सहातः परमभिधानात् ।

When the evolved world perishes, along with its lord the meditator goes from thence to the highest $\widetilde{A}tm\overline{a}$. This is stated.

'The evolved world,' the world of Brahmā, the four-faced one. 'Along with its lord'—with the four-faced one, an officer in the economy of nature. He goes when the term of his office expires. He too meditates on Brahma in the midst of his duties; and if the jiva too, that goes to him, meditates, they both reach the highest Atmā. Hence the attainment of immortality and non-return to this world, stated as the results to be reaped by going along the path, are appropriate enough. This is known from the following text also: 'All of them, when the last body falls away, reach the highest Being free from mortality in His world and are released' (nārā, 10-22).

10. स्मृतेश्व । सन्यमेव जयते

And this is stated in the smriti.

When the time for dissolution comes, all of them along with $Brahm\bar{a}$ enter the highest goal, attaining their true nature $(k\bar{u}rma\ pur\bar{a}na)$.

Bādari's view is that the carriers take only one that meditates on the four-faced one.

In opposition to Bādari's view Jaimini comes forward with his own view:

11. परं जैमिनिर्मुख्यत्वात्।

The goal is the highest $\overline{A}tm\overline{a}$; this is the view of Jaimini; because this is the primary meaning of the term brahma.

In the text "He takes them to Brahma" (chāndo., IV-15-6) the term brahma denotes only the highest Atmā primarily. It is only when it has been decided on sufficient authority that it denotes the evolved being known as Hiranyagarbha, that the adoption of a secondary meaning is permissible. What has been urgedthat to reach Brahma progress along the path is inappropriate-is no authority. Though the highest Atmā is everywhere, the meditator should go to a particular place, before his avidya can disappear. As one attains meditation with the help of the duties of his caste and stage of life, and as he needs also purity (saucha), right conduct (āchāra) and particular place and time, so the perfection of meditation down to the entire disappearance of avidya requires that the meditator should go to a particular place. This is known from the texts describing the path. The objections to the departure of the meditator from the body have been already disposed of. See chapter IV, section 2, subsection 5.

2. The other argument that the term 'world' and the plural termination point to a being living in a particular world may be easily disposed of. By a rule of mimāmsā (See Introduction, para 29-iii) the term brahmaloka means Brahma, who is the world. When oneness of the thing has been ascertained, the plural should be

ignored as stated in Introduction, para 34. Further, there are many worlds which have been created by the will of the highest $Atm\bar{a}$, which pertain only to Him, and which are made of a substance other than matter. That such worlds exist may be seen from the veda, the smritis, $itih\bar{a}sas$ and $pur\bar{a}nas$.

12. दर्शनाच ।

And because this is stated.

The *upanishad* shows that one, that gets out of the body through the blood vessel going to the top of the head, and proceeds along the path, reaches the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ —

This jiva rises from this body, reaches the highest Light and appears in his own form ($ch\bar{a}ndo$., VIII-12-2).

13. न च कार्ये प्रत्यभिसन्धिः।

And the thought of the meditator is not of what has evolved.

In the text "I will go to the house in the form of the hall of $Praj\bar{a}pati$ " ($ch\bar{a}ndo$., VIII-14-1), the thought is not of the four-faced one, but of the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ alone. For, the remainder of the text runs as follows:

I am the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ of $br\bar{a}hmaqas$, the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ of kshattriyas, the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ of $v\bar{a}isyas$, etc.

This shows that the meditator thinks that he would be released from all $avidy\bar{a}$, and that he would be identified with the inner ruler of all. Immediately before this is the following text:

Shaking off karma, as a horse shakes off the hair on its body, released from the body, as the moon is released

from the mouth of $r\bar{a}hu$ (in an eclipse), and throwing off the body, I will reach the eternal Brahma-world, the purpose of my life having been attained ($ch\bar{a}ndo$, VIII-13-1).

This shows that the world to be reached has not been made. This is the literal meaning of the term akritam (not made) in the original; and release from all bondage is expressly stated. Hence, the meditator is carried by the carrying devatās to Brahma, the highest Atmā alone.

Bādarāyaņa accepts Jaimini's view and supplements it in the next sūtra:

अप्रतीकालम्बनान्नयतीति बादरायण उभयथा च दोषा-त्तत्रतुश्च।

(The devatās) carry all except those that meditate on pratīka; this is Bādarāyaṇa's view. Both the other views stated are erroneous; and there is the rule that one becomes what he thinks on.

The view that those that meditate on the four-faced one are carried along the path is not sound; nor is the limitation to only those that meditate on the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ correct. Those that are not carried are those that meditate on pratikas, i.e., on things other than Brahma. Meditation on the four-faced one would be of this class. Under this description come all those that meditate on any product of evolution either in itself or as being the highest $Atm\bar{a}$, like one that meditates on devadatta as a lion. Only two classes of meditators are carried along the path—those that meditate on the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ as

stated by Jaimini, and also those that meditate on themselves as divested of all material vehicles and as forming a body of the highest Atmā, their inner ruler.

The views of both Bādari and Jaimini are The view of the former conflicts with the text faulty. "This jiva rises from this body, reaches the highest Light" (chando., VIII-12-2); and the other view is inconsistent with the text which states that one that does the fivefires viduā is carried on the path. The text is:

Those that thus meditate on it (the nature of the jiva), and those that in a jungle meditate on Brahma (tapas) with eagerness, etc. (chāndo., V-10-1).

What is stated in this text is justified on the principle "as one meditates, so he becomes". Those that do the five-fires vidyā are said to go on the path; and those that go on the path reach the highest Atmā and never Hence, meditation on the jiva as divested of all material vehicles and as forming a body of the highest Atmā must be recognised. As to those that meditate on names and other products of evolution, they are without either of the meditations mentioned in the chandogya text: they cannot proceed on the path or reach Brahma. Their meditation is on something blended with matter, and the principle referred to applies.

This difference of treatment is shown by the upanishad itself:

15. विशेषञ्च दर्शयति ।

And the veda shows difference.

The text is "As far as names go, so far is he able to wander at pleasure" (chāndo., VII-1-5). There are similar statements in the same chapter of the upanishad regarding those that meditate on other pratikas up to prāna. All of them reap fruits of a limited nature, which do not require their going on the path. The conclusion is: The carriers do not carry those that meditate on an unintelligent object or on a jiva connected with it, either as Brahma or in itself; they carry those that meditate on Brahma, and those that meditate on themselves as divested of material vehicles and as forming a body of Brahma.

भगवते भाष्यकाराय महादेशिकाय नमः।



भगवते भाष्यकाराय महादेशिकाय नमः ।

CHAPTER IV

SECTION 4

IN the first three sections of this chapter the abandonment by the *jiva* successively of *karma*, of the gross body and of the subtle body was described. In this last section his bliss without limit and non-dependences on any accidental cause are examined. The first three sub-sections deal with his appearance in his natural form, and the remaining three sub-sections with his power to do what he pleases. Both of them come of themselves, subject only to the control of the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ (adhi., 518).

SUB-SECTION 1

Here is a text:

In the very same way this jiva rises from this body, reaches the highest Light, and appears in his own form $(ch\bar{a}ndo., VIII-12-2)$.

Does this text mean that the person described is again connected with a body to be made like the body of a *deva*, or that his own form appears.

The *first view* is that the freed *jiva* is united to a newly-made body. Otherwise the teaching as to release would point to something undesirable. For, one's natural form in itself is seen to be undesirable. When a person sleeps, and the activities of his body and senses cease for the time being, his natural form by itself does not seem to be what one will desire.

2. At this point two views of one's goal are put forward, which the opponent demolishes. The first view is that the mere removal of grief is the goal reached. This is objectionable. Man desires not only removal of grief, but also the attainment of happiness. The goal stated being devoid of happiness, release would not differ from samsāra. And vedic texts state that the freed jiva attains imperishable bliss.

It is one unit of the bliss of Brahma; and of one that knew the veda and was not affected by desires, *i.e.*, of a freed jiva; Attaining rasa (Brahma), this jiva becomes blissful.

3. The second view is that one's nature is mere perception, which is bliss without limit, that it was prevented from appearing by avidyā during the life of samsāra, and that it emerges when the highest Light is reached. This also is objectionable. The nature, which is perception, cannot be prevented from appearing; and perception being of the nature of light, its being prevented from appearing, if it were possible, would be its annihilation. Further, mere perception cannot be bliss. What is bliss must be agreeable to one; it must be bliss to one that can experience it; but mere perception without a perceiver cannot experience it.

4. In the view that one's natural form is attained, the *vedic* text would become meaningless; for it has ever been with the freed *jiva*. Hence, he is united to a new body made for him. Then the term *abhinishpadyate* in the original will have its primary meaning; as also the term *svena* (his own); for the *jiva* will attain a body which will be his own.

The final decision is stated in the sūtra:

सम्पद्याविर्भावस्स्वेन शब्दात् ।

On reaching (the highest Light) own form appears; because the term svena is used.

The state, to which one comes on reaching the highest Light, is own form, that then appears. No new form comes into existence. This is indicated by the words 'In his own form' in the vedic text. If the freed jiva were to take on a form, that did not exist before, and that is newly made, the expression 'in his own form' would become meaningless. For even without this expression the freed jiva would according to the first view get a body, which would be his own; for he would not be given a body that belonged to another.

The view stated in para 4 of the *first view*, that one's natural form has been ever present, and that the *vedic* text would be without meaning, is refuted in the next $s\bar{u}tra$.

2. मुक्तः प्रतिज्ञानात् ।

The freed jiva (is referred to in the text); because it was this that it was proposed to describe.

By the expression 'Appears in his own form' reference is made to one whose connection with karma has ceased, who is released from bodies brought about by it, and who appears in his natural form. Hence, though this natural form has been ever present, it was prevented from appearing by avidyā in the form of karma; and this obstruction is now removed. This is what is meant by the appearance of the natural form. How is this known. In section 7, chapter VIII of the chāndogya the teacher proposed to give instruction as to the nature of the jiva, released from the waking, dreaming and deep sleep conditions, and released also from bodies made by karma and leading to pleasure and pain. Again and again he offered to explain this and concluded with the text under consideration. The word nishpadyate is also used in the sense of appearing after some obstruction or difficulty is removed (1) Compare with the sentence 'This point appears from argument'.

सन्यम्ब अयन

Next, the argument in para 1 of the *first view*—that one's natural form is not a desirable thing, as might be seen in the deep sleep condition—is refuted.

⁽¹⁾ Even if the terms be understood as the opponent does, the attainment of a new form may be explained. The jiva's natural form was under the influence of $avidy\bar{a}$, and owing to its destruction the same in a pure condition emerges. Another explanation is that his attribute $jn\bar{a}na$ fully expands—a condition that did not previously exist. A still another explanation is that he now fully realises his natural form, which is a new thing (adhi., 523).

3. आत्माप्रकरणात ।

The jiva (has a natural form worth striving for); this is seen from the context.

In his natural form the *jiva* is known from the context to be the seat of qualities beginning with freedom from *karma*, and ending with omnipotence. This is the text:

The $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$, who is free from karma, free from old age, death, grief, hunger and thirst, who has unchanging objects of desire and who has an unfrustrated will, should be sought. It was explained under $s\bar{u}tra$ I-3-18 that this context relates to the jiva and not to the highest $Atm\bar{a}$. This natural form was during the stages of $sams\bar{a}ra$ prevented by $avidy\bar{a}$ in the form of karma from appearing, and when the highest Light is reached, it appears by the destruction of $avidy\bar{a}$.

This is stated by bhagavān Şaunaka:

As by washing a precious stone from dirt, its lustre is not made, so the $jn\bar{a}na$ of the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ is not made by the abandonment of karma. By digging a pond, water is not made; only what existed before is made to appear; how can a thing appear, that does not exist? Similarly, by the destruction of undesirable elements, $jn\bar{a}na$ and other qualities appear, but are not made; for they are permanent qualities of the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$.

Hence *jnāna*, bliss and other qualities, that had contracted owing to the influence of *karma*, fully expand on reaching the highest Light, and on the consequent appearance of the natural form; and it is not inappropriate. Hence the statement made in the *sūtra* is sound.

SUB-SECTION 2

Does the freed jiva see himself as separate from the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ or as not separate, as being His aspect? The $first\ view$ is that he sees himself as separate from Him. For vedic texts and smriti describe their being together, their being alike, and their possessing like attributes:

He enjoys all divine qualities along with Brahma, the all-knowing (āna., I-1 and 2); When the meditator sees the Purusha, shining like gold, the world-cause and the ruler of all, he throws off good and bad deeds, and free from all touch of matter, he attains the highest likeness to Him (muṇḍa., III-1-3); Resting on this wisdom, they have reached My likeness; they do not become the objects of either creation or destruction (bhagavad gītā, XIV-2).

The sūtra states the final decision:

4. अविभागेन दृष्टत्वात्।

As not separated; because his true nature has been seen.

Owing to the destruction of avidyā, the freed jiva sees his natural form, in which the highest Ātmā is his inner ruler, and he himself is His body and an inseparable attribute (1). This was explained in sūtra I-4-22. The freed jiva enjoys Him without separating himself

⁽¹⁾ This is stated in the following texts: "That thou art; This $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ is Brahma; All this is identical with that (Sat); All this is indeed Brahma; Who stands in the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$, who is within the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$, whom the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ does not know, whose body the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ is, who rules the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ from within, He, the inner ruler, is your immortal $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$; He has entered into men and controls them; he is the $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ of all."

thus—I am *Brahma*. The texts referred to by the opponent state that while remaining an inseparable attribute of the highest *Atmā*, the freed *jiva's* nature is similar to His nature; and that abandoning material vehicles, whether *deva* or human, he becomes as pure as He is. The text about being together refers to his enjoying Him, whose attribute he is, and His qualities. There is therefore no conflict. Because the freed *jiva* is an inseparable attribute of the highest *Atmā*, the statement that he is not separate from Him, and the remark in sūtra 8 infra that he can do anything by mere will do not conflict; nor with sūtras II-1-22 and III-4-8.

SUB-SECTION 3

In sub-section 1 it was decided that the freed *jiva*, appears in his own form. What this is has now to be considered; owing to different descriptions in the *upanishads* on this point. The first two *sūtras* put forward divergent views. The first is the view of *Jaimini*, which the *sūtra* states:

5. ब्राह्मेण जैमिनिरुपन्यासादिभ्य: ।

(The freed jiva appears) with the qualities pertaining to Brahma; this is the view of Jaimin; because of the description and the rest.

These qualities are freedom from *karma*, and the rest up to omnipotence; and they are stated as pertaining to *Brahma* in *chāndogya* (VIII-1-5). And these are described as the natural qualities of a *jiva* also

in the teaching of $Praj\bar{a}pati$ (Ibid., VIII-7-1). By the expression 'and the rest' reference is made to certain actions, which flow from the possession of omnipotence, and which are also enumerated in section 12, verse 3, of the same chapter of the upanishad. It follows from this that Jaimini rejects the view stated in the next $s\bar{u}tra$, that the freed jiva is mere perception.

6. चिति तन्मात्रेण तदात्मकत्वादित्यौडुलोमिः।

As mere perception; this is the view of Audulomi; because that alone is his own form.

The authority for this view is the text:

As a piece of salt has no inner parts, no outer parts; all its parts are salt only; so dear, this $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ has no inner parts; no outer parts; the whole is $prajn\bar{a}na$ -ghana only (brihad., VI-5-13); He is $vijn\bar{a}na$ -ghana only (Ibid., IV-4-12). The affirmation of this by the term only (eva) shows that nothing else is his natural form. Hence, as he cannot have any attributes, the terms 'free from karma, etc..' indicate that the jiva is devoid of change, pleasure,

pain and other effects of avidyā.

Bādarāyaṇa now states his own view and closes the discussion:

7. एवमप्युपन्यसात्पूर्वभावादिवरोधं बादरायणः ।

Even so, there is no conflict. So $B\bar{n}dar\bar{n}yana$ thinks; because of the statement that the attributes first mentioned do exist.

'Even so'—assuming that the text states the *jiva* to be mere perception as pointed out by *Audulomi*. He may also be free from *karma* and the like stated before; for

the attributes, being stated by a vedic text, do exist. When two texts are of equal authority, it is not justifiable to regard one as cancelling the other. Opponent. As the attributes conflict with the natural form, they should be regarded as produced by avidyā. We ask—there being no difference in the validity of the texts, why should not the reverse be the case? Hence we reject your view. As the particle only (eva) cannot be explained without regarding either text as cancelling the other, some other explanation must be found. the expression 'even so' in the sūtra the author expresses his dissent from Audulomi's view, that his texts should be understood as he does. Question. What then is implied by the particle only (eva)? Reply. It means that the whole of the jiva is self-proved, and that no portion of his svarūpa, however small, depends upon anything else for its appearance. This is clear from the text itself. One text refers to the jiva's svarūpa. the seat of attributes, and states it to be self-proved; while the other text states that he possesses certain attributes. There is therefore no conflict between the two. A piece of salt has the same taste throughout, as shown by taste; but this fact does not conflict with its possessing a form, colour, and hardness perceived by other senses. In a juicy fruit like the mango there is difference of taste in different parts of it; but in a piece of salt the taste is the same throughout. Similarly, the jiva's svarūpa is self-proved throughout. This is the meaning of Audulomi's texts.

SUB-SECTION 4

Regarding the freed *jiva* the following text describes certain actions as following from his omnipotence.

There he enjoys Him all round; he eats; he enjoys (as he pleases); he amuses himself with women, carriages or cousins $(ch\bar{a}ndo., VIII-12-3)$.

The question for consideration is whether in reaching cousins the freed jiva has to make any effort other than willing, or whether they come to him by merely willing it, as they come to the highest Atmā. The first view is that in the world those, that are reputed to possess an unfrustrated will like kings, are yet seen to make some further effort; and that the freed jiva is like them? The sūtra states the final decision:

8. संकल्पादेव तच्छ्ते: ।

By mere will; because this is stated.

This is stated thus:

If he desires to see those that were his fathers (in previous births), by his will alone the fathers come up $(ch\bar{a}ndo., VIII-2-1)$.

And there is no text that states that some other effort on his part is needed. If it did exist, it might be necessary to understand the particle alone (eva) in the expression 'by his will alone,' as it was understood in the expression 'vijnāna-ghana only'. But there is nothing to obstruct his will (1).

⁽¹⁾ It cannot be karma, as in the jiva's bound condition; for he has no more karma. It cannot be the highest $\tilde{A}tm\bar{a}$; for it is only what He desires that will be attempted

9. अत एव चानन्याधिपति: ।

And for this very reason he is not subject to any ruler.

'For this very reason'—because he is capable of doing what he decides on. The freed jiva was subject to control, when he was bound, by having to obey commands and prohibitions of the veda; and in that condition exercise of his will except in accordance with those commands and prohibitions was liable to be opposed at every turn. Hence, the text, that teaches that he can now do what he pleases, states that he is freed from this limitation. Hence it is stated 'He becomes his own master' (chāndo., VII-25-2). This affirms his freedom only in regard to others than the highest Atmā; but subjection to Him remains unaffected (adhi., 533).

SUB-SECTION 5

The next question regarding the freed jiva is whether he has a body and senses, or whether he is without them, or whether their possession or non-possession depends upon his will. One view is stated in the next $s\bar{u}tra$:

10. अभावं बादिरराहहोवम् ।

Non-possession (of body and senses). This is $B\bar{u}dari's$ opinion; for so states the veda.

The text is:

One, that is in a body, is caught by welcome and unwelcome things; from one in a body welcome and unwelcome things do not depart; and one that is without a body they do not touch $(ch\bar{a}ndo., VIII-12-1)$.

905

Stating thus that so long as one is connected with a body, it is impossible for him to avoid pain, the text adds "This *jiva* rises from this body, reaches the highest Light, and appears in his own form" (*Ibid.*, VIII-12-2). Thus the *veda* states that the freed *jiva* is without a body.

The opposite view is stated in the next sūtra:

11. भावं जैमिनिर्विकल्पामननात्।

Jaimini thinks that he possesses them; because the veda declares manifoldness.

The text is:

He appears as one; appears as three; as five; as seven $(ch\bar{u}ndo., VII-26-2)$.

As the *jiva* is one and indivisible, he cannot appear as many. This must therefore happen through the possession of bodies. The text as to his being without a body refers to the absence of a body brought about by karma; for that alone leads to pleasure and pain.

 $B\bar{a}dar\bar{a}yana$ now states his own view, and closes the discussion on this point:

12. द्वादशाहवदुभयविधं बादरायणोऽतः।

In both ways in the opinions of Bādarāyaṇa; for the same reason; as in the case of the twelve-days' kratu.

The expression 'for the same reason' refers to 'by mere will'.

The freed jiva is without a body, and with a body also. On this view both the texts will be reconciled; for the reason is that he has an unfrustrated will. In regard to the twelve-days' kratu, here are two texts "Those that desire prosperity should do the twelve-days' kratu" and "If one desires offspring, he should be made to perform the twelve-days' kratu". Here the two injunctions point to difference of resolve, according to which the same kratu belongs to the class of satra or of ahina (1), as the case may be.

The next question is whether when he has a body and senses, they are made only by himself. The next two sūtras reply:

13. तन्वभावे सन्ध्यवदुपपत्तेः।

(Because enjoyment is possible) in the absence of a body made by himself, as in the dream state.

⁽¹⁾ In a satra kratu the soma offerings are made on twelve days or more; in an $ah\bar{\imath}na$ on days from two to twelve. In the former the $yajam\bar{\imath}nas$ are many, the number ranging from seventeen to twenty-four; in the latter there is but one $yajam\bar{\imath}na$.

In this case, *i.e.*, when he has no body and senses made by himself, it is possible for him to obtain enjoyment with things made by the highest $Atm\bar{a}$; though omnipotent, he does not make them. As the bound jiva enjoys pleasure or pain in the dream state with things made for him by the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ (see sub-section III-2-1), so the freed jiva utilises what things are made by Him and obtains enjoyment.

14. भावे जाप्रद्वत् ।

As enjoyment is possible in the existence (of a body), as in the waking condition.

Sometimes he makes bodies, senses and other means of enjoyment for himself. In this case he obtains enjoyment with them, as the bound jiva in the waking condition does. The highest Atmā makes for Himself fathers like Daṣaratha and Vasudeva, acts like a mortal and obtains amusement. Similarly, and for the same purpose, He sometimes makes fathers for the freed jivas. Sometimes they themselves, being omnipotent, make fathers for themselves; who continue to be part of the instruments of amusement of the highest Atmā.

Question. How can a jiva, who is of the size of an atom, regard many bodies as his own. The next sūtra explains:

15. प्रदीपवदावेशस्तथा हि दर्शयति ।

He enters them like a lamp; for so does the veda show.

As a single lamp remaining in one place pervades other places with its light, so the jiva remaining in one body may pervade all other bodies with his attribute jnāna. Even in the same body the bound jiva remains in one place, viz., the heart; but with his attribute jnāna he pervades the whole body and regards every part of it as his own. There is this difference. The bound jiva's attribute being limited by karma, he cannot pervade other bodies in such a manner as to regard them as his own; but when he is freed, there being no such limitation, he may at pleasure enter into all bodies so as to perceive them as his own, and such entrance is not inappropriate. For, this is stated:

If a hundredth part of the end of a hair be divided into hundred parts, the jiva should be known as one such part; yet he is capable of infinity (sveta., V-9).

Karma determines in regard to the bound jiva; only his own will in the case of the freed one (1).

⁽¹⁾ The text quoted raises a doubt: The reference to 'capable of infinity' shows that when the jiva is freed, he becomes omnipresent also; he may therefore control every body that he may take up. This view is supported by the fact that when a jiva withdraws from a branch of a tree, that branch withers. This view is erroneous. It is the view held by the jaina, as pointed out and refuted in chapter II, section 2, sub-section 6. Further, an explanation is available in the example of Saubhari, who took up as many bodies, as he had wives. This explanation being available, why should the theory of expansion at the moment be assumed? The withering of the branch may be explained by the withdrawal of the jiva's notion that the branch was his own. This is seen in the case of a piece of land, which one takes or abandons at will; but he does not himself extend to it (adhi., 538 and 539).

Objection. It is stated that one that has reached the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ loses all knowledge of what is within or without. Here is the text:

This jiva embraced by the all-knowing $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$, does not know what is outside, does not know what is inside (brihad., VI-3-21).

How can it be said that the freed jiva is all-knowing. The last $s\bar{u}tra$ replies:

16. स्वाप्ययसम्पत्योरन्यतरापेक्षमाविष्कृतं हि ।

It has reference to one of the two-deep sleep or death. For this is explained in the context itself.

This text does not refer to the freed jiva. It states what happens in deep sleep or death. In both of them the jiva goes to the highest $Atm\bar{a}$, and falls into unconsciousness. That this result follows in these cases and that the freed jiva becomes all-knowing is explained by the veda itself. Regarding deep sleep it states:

He does not then know himself thus—'I am this'—nor these beings. He has surely reached annihilation. I do not see anything to like in this (chāndo., VIII-11-3).

In the same context referring to the freed jiva it states:

He sees with this divine eye—viz., the mind—those divine qualities that are in the Brahma-world and rejoices $(ch\bar{a}udo., VIII-12-5)$.

Compare with the following also:

The seer sees everything; he attains everything everywhere ($ch\bar{a}ndo$, VII-26-2),

which is clearer still. In regard to loss of consciousness in death it is stated "When they (these elements) dissolve, he perishes with them" (brihad., IV-4-12). The term 'perishes' (vinasyati) means 'does not see'.

SUB-SECTION 6

The last question for consideration regarding the freed jiva is whether among his attainments should be included the activities concerned with the evolution and dissolution of the universe and with the control of everything, which have been understood as relating to the highest Atmā alone. The first view is that they are included. For it is stated "Free from all touch of matter, he attains the highest likeness to Him" (munda., III-1-3). He is also said to have an unfrustrated will; and these will not be appropriate, unless the freed jiva has also the control of the world, that is the peculiar function of the all-Controller. Hence he has a share in such control. The final decision is stated in the sūtra:

17. जगद्धापारवर्जे प्रकरणादसनिहितत्वाच ।

Without the world-activities; this is seen from the context, and from absence of reference to him.

By the 'world-activities' reference is made to the control of the coming into existence as objects, of the continued existence and of the movements of all intelligent beings and non-intelligent objects. They do not accrue to the freed jiva; but he enjoys the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ without any limitation. The world—activities have been stated as pertaining to Him. See bhriguvalli, which enumerates them as constituting a definition of Brahma.

If He had to share them with freed *jivas*, it would cease to be a definition. For, a defining mark is found only in that which is defined. See also the texts quoted at the foot of the page (1). In the *antaryāmi brāhmaṇa* the control of the whole world is described as connected with the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ only. Nor is there any mention made of the freed jiva in these places.

The next $s\bar{u}tra$ states an objection, and then refutes it.

18. प्रत्यक्षोपदेशानेति चेन्नाधिकारिकमण्डलस्थोत्तेः ।

If it be contended "No; because the *veda* states it"; the reply is "No; because reference is made to enjoyments in the worlds of officers in the economy of nature".

The opponent refers to the following texts:

He becomes his own master; the capacity to wander at will in all the worlds comes to him (chāndo., VII-25-2);

⁽¹⁾ Before creation, my dear, this was Sat only; one only; without a second. He willed I will become many, and to that end I will evolve'. He created fire (chāndo., VI-2-1 to 3); Before creation this was Brahma; one only. Being single, He had no greatness. He created superior bodies knows as kshatra, excelling everything, i.e., those that are kshattriyas among devas, Indra, Varuna, Soma, Rudra, Parjanya, Yama, Mṛityu, Īṣāna (bṛihad., III-4-11); Before creation this was Ātmā; one only; nothing else existed. He willed I will create the worlds'; He created these worlds (aitareya., I-1); Nārāyaṇa alone was; brahmā was not; Īṣāna was not; these—heaven and earth—were not; no stars, no water, no fire, no moon, no sun. Being single, He found no pleasure. He meditated, and from Him came forth a girl, and the ten senses (mahopanishad).

Taking any form that is liked he wanders in these worlds enjoying whatever enjoyment occurs to the mind (bhrigu., 10-5),

and observes that they clearly teach world-activities as pertaining to the freed jiva. The $s\bar{u}tra$ replies: No; for, these texts teach that when the jiva is freed, and his $jn\bar{a}na$ is no longer obstructed by karma, he enjoys according to his pleasure the worlds, that are subject to change and are under the control of the four-faced one, and other officers in the economy of nature, and that he obtains enjoyment. They do not refer to world-activities.

Objection again. If like the bound jiva even the freed one needs the enjoyments to be found in the worlds of change, then his enjoyment, like that of the other, is petty and perishable. To this the next $s\bar{u}tra$ replies:

19. विकारावर्ति च तथा हि स्थितिमाह ।

And what is not subject to change; for the veda so teaches his being.

The freed jiva enjoys the highest $Atm\bar{a}$, who is not touched by any form of change, who is free from all imperfections, and who is the seat of all good qualities and of bliss without limit. This enjoyment extends to all the things controlled by Him and to all His good qualities. As included in this, *i.e.*, the things controlled by Him, the worlds of change become objects of enjoyment to him. That the freed jiva enjoys the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ as thus described is stated:

When in order to attain freedom from fear, he dwells steadily with his mind on this (the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$) unseen, unembodied, unnamed and unsupported, he will attain freedom from fear $(\tilde{a}na., 7-2)$; He is bliss; for on reaching bliss, one becomes blissful (Ibid., 7-1);

The universe, which is controlled by Him, remains in Him alone:

All the worlds rest on Him; no one excels Him (katha, II-5-8).

Hence the freed jiva, enjoying Brahma along with what He controls, enjoys also what is to be found in the worlds of change in charge of His officers. And no reference is made in the texts to world-activities.

20. दर्शयतश्चेवं प्रत्यक्षानुमाने ।

The veda and smritis show this.

'This'--that the world-activities pertain only to the highest $Atm\bar{a}$.

From fear of Him the wind blows; from fear the sun rises; from fear of Him fire and Indra (go about their business); death, the fifth, runs about (ana., VIII-1); By the unobstructed command of that Akshara, Gārqi, the sun and the moon stand supported (brihad, V-8-8); He is the ruler of all; He is the lord of beings; He is the protector of beings; He is the protective bund, that keeps these worlds from being confounded (Ibid., VI-4-22). With Me to direct, prakriti sends forth from itself the world with the moving and unmoving things. From this cause the world goes round (bhagavad gītā, IX-10); I remain holding all this world with a fragment of My power (Ibid, X-42).

2. The freed jiva, even though he becomes omnipotent, gets his bliss as a gift from the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$.

He alone causes bliss (ina., 7-1). By adoring Me with unswerving bhakti-yoga one surmounts these gunas, becomes fit to be brahma. For I am the principal

cause of one's becoming brahma, immortal and imperishable, of the attainment of never-ending power and of the bliss reached with single-minded devotion ($bhagavad\ gtt\bar{u}$, XIV-26 and 27).

3. The qualities beginning with freedom from karma and ending with omnipotence no doubt belong to the jiva by nature; and they appear, when the obstruction that prevented them from appearing, goes; nevertheless the fact that they do so depends on the highest $Atm\bar{a}$; as also his eternal existence. That the jiva should be eternal is His eternal wish. There is therefore no conflict between their being bestowed by the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ and their being eternal. Similarly the means of His enjoyment in the worlds of change as well as in the worlds not subject to change, is eternal, as one may learn from the veda; because such is His eternal wish. Hence the freed jiva's omnipotence and likeness to the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ do not extend to the world-activities.

The next $s\bar{u}tra$ explains the scope of the utmost likeness reached by the freed jiva.

21. भोगमात्रसाम्यलिङ्गाच ।

And because of the mark indicating likeness in enjoyment only.

The mark is the statement made in the text:

He enjoys all good qualities with Brahma, the all-knowing $(\bar{a}na., 1-2)$.

The likeness of the freed jiva to the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ is stated in general terms; and here is a particular case

of likeness in the matter of enjoyment. Hence, the general statement should be limited to the particular case, following the rule explained in note (1) on page 51. The freed jiva's likeness to the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ and the possession of an unfrustrated will should be explained so as to fit in with the control of the world, that pertains to Him alone.

Question. If the attainments of the freed jiva are the gifts of the highest $Atm\bar{a}$, will He send him back; for He is His own master, and may will the jiva's return. The last $s\bar{u}tra$ replies:

22. अनावृत्तिश्शब्दादनावृत्तिश्शब्दात् ।

There is no return; it being so stated.

The veda shows that the highest $Atm\bar{a}$ exists, who is an enemy to all imperfections, and the one seat for all good qualities, who is the cause of the evolution, sustenance and dissolution of the world, who stands apart from all, who is all-knowing, who has an unfailing will, who is full of love for those that come to Him, who is full of mercy, who is without an equal or superior, and who is known as the highest Brahma. The same authority states also that He is pleased with the worship of Himself in the form of meditation; that He removes the meditator's $avidy\bar{a}$ in the form of karmas done in the beginningless past, endless, and incapable of being got rid of; that He gives him bliss without limit in the

form of enjoyment of Himself; and that He will not make him return. The text is:

Thus passing all his life, he attains Brahma-world, and does not return $(ch\bar{u}ndo., VIII-15-1)$.

This is also stated by Bhagavān Himself:

Those great minds after reaching Me do not come again to birth, and take up a body that is perishable and full of misery. For they have reached the highest goal. The worlds, including the abode of $Brahm\bar{a}$ are perishable; and one that goes to them must return to rebirth. But for one that comes to Me, there is no re-birth (bhayavad yītā, VIII-15 and 16).

2. And there is no room to suspect that the freed jiva will ever return. First, he will not himself desire it; for his bondage to karma has been broken; his attribute jnāna has fully expanded; his nature is to enjoy the highest Atmā alone; that alone is dear to him; and he is enjoying Brahma who is bliss without limit. How can he desire anything else, and make efforts to procure it? Next, the highest Atmā, will never send him back, after having taken immense trouble to get him to Himself; for the jiva is immeasurably dear to Him. This is stated by Himself:

To the $jn\bar{a}ni$ (one that loves Me for Myself) I am immeasurably dear; and he is immeasurably dear to Me. All these are liberal indeed; but the $jn\bar{a}ni$ is in reality My $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$; that is My opinion; for he regards Me only as the highest goal; and his mind wishes to enter upon My yoga. One becomes a $jn\bar{a}ni$ at the end of many lives (of good deeds), and then comes to Me, with the thought that $V\bar{a}sudeva$ is everything to him. A great mind of this description is very rare (bhagavad gita, VIII-17, 18 and 19).

And there is no one that can oppose Him, wh he wishes to keep the jiva; for His will is nev frustrated.

The repetition of the $s\bar{u}tra$ is to show that the wo has been completed. All is well.

> मगवते भाष्यकाराय महादेशिकाय नमः। श्रीमते वेदान्तरामानुजमहादेशिकाय नमः ।





सन्यमेन जयने

GLOSSARY

OF SANSKRIT WORDS USED IN THIS WORK

- $Abh\bar{a}va$. Non-existence (page 481, note 1 and page 523.)
- Abhivyakti. Manifestation (page 468).
- Adrishta. The capacity generated in a person that does a $y\overline{a}ga$ (page 111, para 2, See also page 517).
- Adhikarana. Sub-section, containing the $s\bar{u}tra$ or $s\bar{u}tras$ dealing with one topic (page 32).
- Adhvaryu. One of the helpers in a $y\bar{a}ga$. He does all the manual work, including the preparation of the materials, the handling of the instruments, and the making of the offerings (page 3, note).
- Adhyayana. Learning the text of the reda (page 67).
- Adhyāhāra. The addition of a new word (a word not appearing in the previous sentence) to complete the sentence (page 15, para 1).
- Adhyāsa. The perception by an intelligent person of the attribute of one object in a different object (page 514).
- Agnihotra. The name for the daily offerings made by a house-holder at about sunrise and sunset (page 442).
- Agnishtoma. The name of a soma $y\bar{a}ga$ (page 442).

- Ahamkāra. A product of matter formed from the product known as mahat (page 435).
- Aihika. Fruits to be enjoyed here and now (page 2, para 3).
- Akshara. A product formed from matter in the subtlest condition known as tamas (page 435, note 1).
- Amşa. Part of a whole; one element in an aggregate of several elements (page 604, para 2).
- Anga and Angi. What renders a service to another is anga; that which receives the service is angi. They are also known as sesha and seshi (page 16, para 18).
- Anu. An atom (page 588).
- Anushanga. The addition of a word appearing in a previous sentence to complete the sentence (page 15, para 17).
- Anūchāna. One that has learnt the whole of a branch of the veda and the six angas (page 67, note 2).
- Anyathā siddha. What may be explained otherwise (page 604, para 3).
- Apaccheda. The break, which may occur in the procession in a soma yāya of the yajamāna and five of his helpers starting from the havirdhāna to the north-east corner of the sacrificial grounds (page 26).
- $Ap\bar{u}rva$. This is the name given to adrishta by the $m\bar{t}m\bar{v}msaka$. See under that term (page 13, para 14).
- Arthavāda. Texts of the veda, that praise the karmas prescribed by injunction-texts (page 3, note).
- Atharvan. A portion of the reda (page 3, note).
- Atideșa. The application of the ritual of prakriti yāgas to those known as vikriti yāgas (page 26, para 31).
- Avidya. In the view of Sankara a positive substance that prevents Brahma from appearing as He is.
- Avyakta. A product formed from matter in the condition known as akshara (page 435, note 1).

- Avyākrita. Matter, which in the subtlest condition is without diverse names and forms (page 582).
- Achamana. Sipping water thrice with mantras—a ceremony that is a preliminary to all karmas enjoined in the veda and smritis.
- $\bar{A}ch\bar{a}ra$. The practice of great rishis, who knew the veda fully (page 11, para 10).
- $\overline{A}dh\overline{a}na$. The establishing of the three fires by a householder, which are prescribed by the veda (page 24, para 29-1).
- $\bar{A}havan\bar{\imath}ya$. One of the three fires maintained by a householder under vedic injunction (page 21).
- $\overline{A}kriti$. The form that is common to all the members of a class (page 12, para 12).
- $\bar{A}kshepa$. The reasoning on which the meaning of a word like 'go' is extended to an animal possessing the $\bar{a}kriti$ (page 12, para 12).
- \widehat{A} mushmika. Fruits to be enjoyed there, i.e., in svarga (page 2).
- Ananda. Bliss.
- Asrama. A stage of life, as the stage of the student, of the house-holder, of the forest-dweller or of the mendicant (page 76).
- $Brahmavidy\bar{a}$. Continuous, vivid, loving meditation on Brahma.
- Brāhmaṇa. (1) The portion of the veda, consisting of commands and prohibitions (page, 3, note).
 - (2) One that has learnt a little of the veda (page 67, note 2).
- $Bh\bar{u}van\bar{u}$. The common element in all finite verbs; it consists of an action, that serves to bring about what is desired (page 12, para 13).

- $Bh\bar{a}vya$. What is produced by the $bh\bar{a}van\bar{a}$ (page 12, para 13).
- Bhoga. Experiencing—either enjoyment of pleasure or suffering of pain (page 455, para 3).
- $Bhr\bar{u}\eta a$. One that has learnt the whole of the veda, its six angas and the kalpa $s\bar{u}tras$, and teaches the last to others (page 67, note 2).
- Brahma. A thing which has the attribute of being immeasurably great in its substance, and in its attributes. The Being who answers this description is Purushottama, the ruler of all (page 60, para 2).
- Brahmacharya. Leading a student's life (page 796). It also means abstention from sexual intercourse.
- Chamasa. A four-sided wooden basin with a handle (page 21, para 25).
- Chit. Light: A thing that shows itself or other things, and makes them fit to be spoken about (page 107, para 6).
- Darsa. The name for three offerings made on the first day after the new moon (page 15, para 16).
- Devatā. A being superior to man, who receives the offerings made by him, and gives what he desires.
- Devayāna. The path by which the freed jivas journey to the highest heaven.
- Dharma. Karma prescribed in the veda as the means to a fruit—like $y\bar{a}gas$, gifts, meditation (page 690).
- Gārhapatya. One of the three fires maintained by a householder (page 18, para 20).
- Graha. A wooden vessel, in which the juice of the soma creeper is received and offered to various devatās (page 19, para 22).
- Guna. A quality. When the term is used in the plural, it often denotes the qualities satva, rajas, and tamas.

- Hetu. A thing, by connection with which another thing is known in an inference (page 109, note 1).
- Hota. One of the helpers in a $y\bar{a}ga$, whose functions is to recite verses of the veda, when offerings are made (page 4, note).
- Itikartavyatā. Offerings, that help the principal offerings in yielding their fruits (page 12, para 13).
- \bar{I} syara. One that controls. As this feature is found in the highest degree in the highest $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$, it denotes Him (page 313, para 4).
- Jada. What does not show itself or other things, and make them fit to be spoken about (page 107, para 6).
- Japa. Repetition of mantrus and thinking of their meaning as they are recited (page 819).
- Jāti. The peculiar feature of a species (page 172, para 7).
- Jiva. An intelligent being, who is the 'I' in every person. Jivaghana. A bound jiva (page 318).
- Jivan-mukta. One that is released from bondage, while he remains in a body (page 866).
- Jnuna. A thing that shows itself or other things, and makes them fit to be spoken about. Both the jiva and his attribute possess this character, the jiva showing himself, and his attribute showing other things (page 591, note 1).
- $Juh\bar{u}$. An instrument for making offerings to $devat\bar{a}s$.
- $K\overline{a}mya$. A karma, that is done as the means to some fruit (page 75, note 1).
- Kapāla. Small, flat, circular pieces made of earth and burnt (page 773).
- Karana. The principal offerings, that yield the fruit through an apūrva (page 12, para 13). It is known as vishaya, when it particularises an apūrva (page 129, note 2).

- Karma. Good and bad deeds done by a jiva.
- Kāraka. The object of an action, the means with which it is done, or the place in which it takes place (page 86 para 2).
- $K\bar{a}rya$. Something to be attained by kriti (mental effort). It is a $y\bar{a}ga$; but in the opinion of $Pr\bar{a}bh\bar{u}kara$ it is the $ap\bar{u}rva$ created by the $y\bar{a}ga$ (page 85, para 1).
- Kriti. Mental effort in the form of willing (page 92, para 5).
- Kratu. A karma, in which many offerings are made to many devatās, like a soma yāga (page 759, note 1).
- Lakshanā. The extension of the meaning of a word to something connected with it (page 12, para 12).
- Linga. The capacity of a word to denote something (page 16, para 18—ii).
- Mahat. A product formed from matter in the condition of avyakta (page 435, note 1).
- Mantra. Texts of the veda, recited when a karma prescribed in the veda is performed (page 3, note).
- $Mim\bar{a}msaka$. One that has commented on $Jaimini's s\bar{u}tras$ (page 4, paras 5).
- $Mim\bar{a}ms\bar{a}$. The examination of the teaching of the veda as a whole (page 4).
- Mrityu. Matter known as tamas; it is so called, as it is the means of the contraction of the $jn\bar{u}na$ of all jivas, and as this is an unwelcome thing (page 436, note 2).
- Moksha. Release from bondage to matter (page 53, note 2).
- Naimittika. A karma, that is to be done on the occurrence of a contingency (nimitta) (page 75, note 1).
- Nimitta. A contingency, on the occurrence of which an action should be done (page 130, note 1).
- Nir-viṣesha. An object that alone exists, and that is therefore without differences (page 106, note 2).

- Tis-sreyasa. The highest good—a superior kind of fruit, that will endure for ever (page 2).
- Titya. A karma that is compulsory (page 75, note 1).
- ²aryudāsa. Exclusion of a thing from something, that is mentioned, by connecting the particle na with a word in the sentence other than the verb (page 30, para 36).
- Paşu. A four-footed animal, that is offered to a $devat\bar{a}$ (page 182, note 1).
- Pitriyāna. The path by which men of meritorious deeds go to the moon.
- Pradhāna. The cause, from which the universe evolves, which according to the sānkya consists of the three substances satva, rajas, and tamas in equipoise (page 506, para 3).
- Purodāṣa. A ball of fried rice flour to be offered to a devatā (page 27, para 31—iii).
- Purushārtha. A fruit sought by an intelligent person (page 2).
- Pūrņamāsa. The name for three offerings made on the first day after the full moon (page 15, 16).
- $P\bar{u}rva$ -paksha. The first or superficial view put forward on a subject (page 32).
- Prakarana. Two or more sentences connected by mutual need, which makes them a context (page 16, para 15—IV).
- $Prak\bar{a}ra$. The aspect, in which an object appears (page 179, note 2).
- Prakriti. A yāga for which the ritual is explained in the veda in full detail, and from which the ritual for vikriti yāgas is adopted (page 26, para 31).
- Pralaya. Complete cosmic rest (page 431, note 2).

- Pramāṇa. An authority on which statements are accepted, or injunctions are obeyed (page 10, para 10).
- Prasanga. The receipt of service rendered to principal offerings by an offering of minor importance, that is connected with them (page 30, para 38).
- Pratishedha. Prohibition conveyed by connecting the particle na with the verb in a sentence (page 30, para 36).
- Pratika. Part of a thing; meditation on pratika is meditation on what is not Brahma (page 891).
- Prārabdha. Karma that has begun to yield fruit (page 46, para 54).
- $R\bar{u}dhi$. Conveying the meaning of words established by usage (page 11, para 11).
- Rik. A portion of the vedu (page 3, note).
- Rishi. (1) A seer. (2) One that has learnt the whole of the veda, its six angas and kalpa (page 4, note 4).
- Ritu. A group of two months (page 436, note 1).
- Ritvik. A helper in a $y\bar{a}ga$ (page 3, note).
- Sastra. A number of verses from the rik veda recited by the $hot\bar{a}$ before certain offerings of the soma juice are made (page 728, note 1).
- $S\bar{a}kh\bar{a}$. A branch of the veda (page 769, note 1).
- Şesha and Şeshi. See under Anga.
- Sruti. The sound of a word (page 16, para 18-1).
- Strotriya. One that has learnt the whole of a branch of the veda (page 67, note 2).
- Samashti evolution. Evolution of the great elements and of the jiva's instruments—the senses and the mind (page 627).
 - jivas. Jivas without name and form in the condition of cosmic rest, as opposed to vyasti jivas, which they

- subsequently became by assuming names and forms (page 317, note 1).
- Samavāya. The relation of the whole to its parts, of a substance to its attributes or actions, of an individual of a class to the generic character (page 523).
- Samavāyi cause. That of which a thing is made (page 479, para 3).
- Samākhyā. The meaning of words by yoga or derivation (page 17, para 18—vi).
- Samsāra. Cycle of births and deaths (page 56).
- Sumskāra. Giving of a fitness for some work (page 66, para 6).
- Savisesha. A thing that exists along with another thing, or has an attributive, and that is therefore with difference (page 106, note 2).
- Sādhya. What is to be proved in an inference (page 109, note 1).
- $S\overline{a}man$. A portion of the ceda (page 3, note).
- Siddhānta. The final decision in a topic under discussion (page 32).
- Smriti. A work written by a great rishi, who knew the veda fully (page 17).
- Stotra. Certain mantras in verse, that are sung by the udgātā and his two assistants before certain offerings of the soma juice are made (page 728, note 1).
- Sthana. Two places in the veda connected by mutual need.
- $S\overline{u}tra$. A short, condensed, yet clear statement in prose (page 4).
- Svara. The variation in tone in the recitation of vedic texts (page 769, note 2).
- Svarūpa. The substance of a thing, which is the seat of attributes.

- Svarga. A place of unalloyed enjoyment.
- Svādhyāya. The text of the veda (page 64).
- Tamas. Matter in the subtlest condition (page 435).
- Tanmātra. An intermediate stage, through which one great element passes before it becomes the next element (page 434, note 1).
- Tantra. The serving of several principal offerings by doing an anga once only (page 30, para 37).
- $Ta_{P}as$. Diminution of sense enjoyment.
- Tarka. A help to a source of knowledge; it determines that it shows a particular thing by discussing either its nature, or the materials from which that thing is known (page 448, note).
- Tatva. A substance, like the twenty-five tatvas of the $s\bar{a}nkhya$, or like the three tatvas, matter, jivas and $\bar{I}svara$.
- Uddesya. The subject in regard to which an injunction is given (page 19, para 22).
- Udgātā. A helper in a yāga, whose function it is to sing vedic mantras before certain offerings are made (page 4, note).
- $Udg\bar{\imath}tha$. The second part out of five parts, into which every $s\bar{\imath}man$ is divided.
- Upanishad. The later portion of the veda (page 1).
- Upādhi. (1) A condition that must co-operate with the hetu in producing an effect, when it is present in the examples, but is absent from the subject under consideration (page 110, note).
 - (2) Matter in an atonic form contacting Brahma and bringing about the jiva condition (page 477).
- Varna. Caste, as the caste of brāhmaņa, kshattriya, vaisya,

- Vāsanā. Tendency created in a person by thinking or by doing an action.
- Veda. A book not made by anyone, and regarded as the highest authority among the Hindus (page 1, para 2).
- Vidyā. Continuous, vivid meditation.
- Vikalpa. Option to do only one thing out of two or more things enjoined (page 30, para 36).
- Vikṛiti. A yāga, for which the ritual has to be adopted from a prakṛiti yāga (page 26, para 31).
- Vișeshana, Vișeshya. A word, that connotes an attribute, and through it separates an object that has the attribute from other objects. The object separated is vișeshya (page 102, note 1).

Vishaya. See under karana.

Vyashti Evolution. Evolution of products with diverse names and forms (page 627).

Yajamāna. One that does a yāga (page 15).

Yajus. A portion of the veda (page 3, note).

 $Y\bar{a}ya$. An offering made to a devata.

- Yoga. (1) Denoting the meaning of a word by its etymology (page 11, para 11).
 - (2) Meditation. स्थापन जपने
- $Y\bar{u}pa$. A post for tying a goat, that is to be offered to a $devat\bar{u}$ (page 20, para 23).



सन्यमेन जयने