S. K. SAXENA

asa is the best known concept in our traditional reflection on drama and poetry. It is, however, by no means confined to the literary arts, but relates to our music and dance as well. A navarasamālika is an important expressional number in our classical dances; and in the field of our classical music every rāga is believed to be uniquely suited to the evocation of a particular rasa. There are dhruvapada songs which say that rasa is the locus of Brahma.

Now, to speak quite generally, rasa is our word for aesthetic experience of the arts. The reality or possible occurrence of such experience is commonly admitted, though it may be difficult to define it. Further, it is also fairly easy to mark it off from other major forms of human experience, such as moral and intellectual, or our everyday experience of dealing with persons and practical problems. The way in which aesthetic experience arises is also quite distinct. To struggle to secure an article and to find it agreeable as it caters to a pressing need is one thing; to contemplate an object of art or beauty in peace, and to let it delight our senses and quicken our thought and imagination, is quite another. Both aspects of the matter—that is, the nature and the genesis of aesthetic experience—receive due emphasis in the Indian theory of rasa. The theory also fixes the right and essential relation between those who create and those who contemplate works of art. Further, it accounts for the deeply satisfying character of aesthetic experience at its best; and, what is more, brings out how such experience is related to life, both private and communal, and to reality in general. To help our understanding, the approaches hinted at here may be distinguished as genetic, phenomenological, metaphysical. The first would require us to outline how rasa arises from a configuration of objective factors and their interplay with some subjective ones; the second, to so bring out the main features of rasa-experience—as it truly feels to a rasika—that they may not appear isolated from each other; and the third, to explain how aesthetic experience is related to the basic reality of life and existence, and how it differs from the other major forms of human experience. But, of course, what we have to open with is a brief

indication of what rasa is. As for later exposition, we may follow, by and large, the commentary of Abhinavagupta on the famous rasa-sūtra of Bharata and the writings of Viśvanātha who seeks to establish rasa as the 'soul' of poetry.

Now, to turn to the question, what is rasa, we have first to attend to the various meanings of the word. It is commonly translated as taste, not in the sense of cultivated or poor taste, but in that of relish of what we eat or drink. Even in this everyday sense, however, the word 'taste' may be taken as a noun or as a verb: that is, as what is tasted (rasyate iti rasah)—or, the specific gustatory character, say, of an article of food-or as the act of taking the taste of the edible in question (rasānām rasah). As that which is tasted, rasa may well be the juice of a fruit. 'Juice' is, in fact, also a direct meaning of the word rasa. Taken in this sense, the word rasa, as an aesthetic concept, would suggest that just as its juice is the very essence of the value of a fruit, so rasa is the secret of the charm of a work of art as contemplated. The analogy, however, should not be pressed too far. For, whereas the pulp of a fruit is commonly thrown away after its juice has been extracted, a work of art-say, a good poem-remains a whole object of relish even after repeated tastings1. Generally, however, taste is regarded as a quality of whatever is edible. But though the individual taste of a simple article of food may be easily registered, a dish in the making of which various spices have been used must be tasted by a connoisseur if its distinctive taste is to be rightly perceived. Rasa too is no simple property of any given object. It is a kind of elevated delight which arises from the interplay of various factors, roughly like the sadness one may experience on being given a farewell where the feeling must be traced to the variety of sentiments expressed, or qualities of character emphasized, in speeches made on the occasion, and is therefore very different from the direct impact of a single unfortunate news. Therefore, as an object of relish, rasa, like the taste of a cleverly prepared dish, is accessible only to those who are capable of discriminating attention.

Here, however, a question may be put. If, as our aestheticians insist, in the 'tasting' of rasa the various factors which have gone into its evocation are not quite distinguished, how are training and discrimination necessary for those who expect to experience rasa? The answer is, however, easy. What is demanded and exercised here is intuitive discrimination, and no explicit analysis; and the former, though it works instantly, is the product of a long course of discipline of our apprehending powers. It would be wrong to doubt if discrimination can ever be intuitive, for differences can certainly be felt as such without being blown up into clear distinctions. It is in fact an everyday experience for a gourmet to sense the various condiments that

have gone into the making of a dish without letting his overall relish suffer for a moment because of abidance of attention on a particular condiment.

We may now give a little more thought to rasa in the sense of tasting just touched upon. As sensitiveness to a relish, tasting is not mere eating. The latter can be done absent-mindedly; the former, never². Again, the experience of tasting is so immediate that the truth of what is tasted, along with that of the experience itself, is quietly admitted in the very act. In the same way, rasa, as a kind of tasting, is itself a witness to its truth³. This tasting, however, is no mere isolated act of momentary relish (or चखना). It is the course of enjoying a relish (स्वाद लेना) . In spite of the charm that may be there in the aesthetic presentation itself, the person involved here has to put in some effort to hold on to the act. This is why the dual ability to concentrate on, and to adopt an impartial attitude towards, the aesthetic object is regarded as an essential pre-condition for the experience of rasa. This kind of effort, we may note, when rasa has come into being as experience of a relish, operates as a gentle impulse to keep oneself open or available to the bliss (bhoga). It is because of this effort of attention and self-surrender (so to say) that, when the experience is over, the rasika is often able to recall it all as his, not with any self-conscious sense of ownership or agency, but with a feeling of wonder and gratitude at the depth and gratifying quality of the experience provided to him, a fact which explains why we fail to absorb the moral message of a play if it is not able to evoke rasa4.

Two points may be made here by way of bringing out what has just been suggested.

First, the metaphor of taste serves to suggest not only that, like the relish of food, rasa is a matter of āsvāda (being tasted), and therefore a personal, self-certifying experience which needs no (further) proof, and which can only be had, not described adequately, but also that, just as a man is able to recall the relish of a delicacy precisely because he gave himself up to it unreservedly when he partook of it, so a rasika may feel quickened by the memory of his experience of rasa simply because he had immersed his ego-sense in contemplating the art-work. In either case, we may note, the ego is only submerged, not utterly undone as in mystical experience. It would be wrong to look askance at this suggestion. For, if the object can be perceived with varying degrees of clarity, why should we find it difficult to believe that in having an experience the ego can be more or less self-conscious? The truth indeed is that in the experience of rasa one's own self is neither in a state of complete occultation (tirasr or hiding) nor of emergence as a particular ego (ullikh). Were the self here wholly eclipsed, the cognition would be not merely aesthetic, but mystical or utterly free

from discursive thought and distinct apprehensions (vikalpa); and if it made itself felt as a distinct ego, the cognition would be discursive like most of our everyday ones⁵.

Second, the uncommon character of the experience of rasa, though its overtopping feel is one of admitted bliss or beatitude, may in part be brought out by distinguishing its features which make it so rich on the inside. The task will be attempted later, when we turn to the phenomenology of rasa. Here, because our present concern is (in the main) terminological, a glimpse of the inner richness of rasa may be given by considering, in brief, the other terms which have been used for it: rasanā (relish), camatkāranirveśa: (awakening of wondrous charm), bhoga (enjoyment), laya (fusion) and viśrānti (repose). All these terms, we may note, stand only for the various aspects, and not for the wholeness of rasa which may be indicated by interrelating them, say, as follows:

All actual taste is a tasting, the direct experience of a relish by someone. So rasa is the active and immediate experience of (the emotive essence of) an art-work—say, of drama or poetry—by a discerning onlooker or reader. But, it is not (we have seen) a mere moment of relish, but a bhoga, that is, a process of enjoyment. At the same time, rasa is no everyday indulgence. It appears wondrous, for it sets us free (for a while) from limitations of space-time and you-and-I, and is untroubled by the pressures of life, and by apprehension or desire. Further, we feel here that we are at one with, and not merely opposed to or looking at, the aesthetic object; and so the experience is, on the whole, one of undivided repose and tranquillity, not of any felt gap between subject and object, or between effort and attainment. Even as a kind of tasting, we may note, Bharata does not want rasa to be regarded as mere sense-indulgence. For, just as a good dish, prepared by mixing some spices judiciously, is duly relished only by a discriminating eater who thereby gains in satisfaction and health, similarly rasa, which emerges from a configuration of diverse factors, is experienced in a state of tādātmya by the rasika who thereby improves his sense of aesthetic value and acquires knowledge of the helpful ideals of life projected in works like dramatic plays⁶.

Let us consider the genetic approach. How is the experience of rasa evoked? To be sure, it does not arise on its own. The experience that is rasa is very different from our everyday emotions. They need neither the active interweaving of any elements, nor that disciplined interplay of subjective and objective factors without which rasa cannot arise. The famous rasa sūtra of Bharata says:

Rasa is elicited, we are told, by integrating three factors: vibhāva. anubhāva, and vyabhicāribhāva. Sthāyibhāva does not figure in this list, though it is undoubtedly the basis of the whole aesthetic configuration. Bharata relates the individual emotive character of every rasa to a specific sthāyibhāva, and not to any particular vibhāva or detail of anubhāva. However various be the factors that go into the genesis of, say, śrngāra rasa, it must have the feel of rati (or amorous delight); and, similarly, the rasa known as karuna, though it is of course not our immediate response to a tragic news or happening, must tend to induce a serious and sympathetic mood as a sad situation in real life does. Further, the three elements listed are all mere means to evoke, manifest, or help the recognition of, a particular sthāyibhāva in a regulated way, and thereby to lend an underrunning unity to the aesthetic presentation. This at once gives us a clue to see why the sūtra in question does not mention sthāyibhāva. It is the matrix within which—or a basic constituent of our nature as human beings with an eye to which—the whole process of aesthetic arrangement proceeds. It is not a mere element to be put together with others; it rather determines, as a basic and regulative if unobtrusive power, the whole work of configuration itself. So, because the sūtra indicates only the content, not the regulative principle, of the integrative process, the sthāyibhāva is left out. To take a rough parallel, where we seek to indicate what goes into the making of a poem, we may speak only of words, word-bound images, metre, rhyme, etc. and omit the creative role of imagination which determines the appropriate choice of all these elements. Here the underrunning, yet overtopping working of creative imagination, as that of sthāyibhāva in the genesis of rasa, is quietly accepted, and is not chosen for mention, because it is not a mere element of art. But in actual aesthetic experience, Bharata would insist, the sthāyibhāva is always at work. For abstract understanding it may suffice to indicate rasa by listing its general attributes, such as its tranquillity or repose and freedom from desire or from thoughts of reality and utility; but when we experience rasa, it is always a specific rasa, and its distinctness arises from, and retains or evokes, the unique feel of the particular sthāyibhāva it builds upon. This is a vital part of Bharata's meaning when he bases, as follows, every rasa on a particular sthāyibhāva (s.b.): rati (amorous pleasure: s.b.); śrngāra (or erotic); hāsa (love of mirth)—hāsya (comic); śoka (sorrow)—karuṇa— (pathetic); krodha (anger)-raudra (furious); utsāha (zeal)-vīra (heroic); bhaya (fear)—bhayānaka (terrible); jugupsā (disgust)—vībhatsa (odious); and vismaya (wonder)-adbhuta (marvellous).

But what exactly is a sthāyibhāva? How are we to translate this word—as permanent feeling or mood, or as sentiment or instinct? It is obvious that

whatever English equivalent we choose, it should go well with the literal meaning of the word. Now, the word sthayi means 'permanent' or 'abiding'; and bhava has two acknowledged meanings in Sanskrit: first. that which causes something to be (as in the word bhavana) and, second, that which affects or pervades. Putting the two together, a sthavibhava may be said to be a permanent something which brings about states of experience—say, some feeling or emotion—which colour our whole being when they occur. 'Feeling' (or bhava, in one sense of the word) is here to be taken. we may note, as emotion, not as organic feeling, such as the feeling of bodily welfare, nor even as intuitive appreciation and understanding, a meaning which we intend when, for example, we compliment a man on his having a feeling for colour or tone. This is borne out by a mere look at Bharata's list of sthayibhavas which includes śoka, krodha, bhaya and vismaya, all commonly acknowledged as emotions. At the same time, sthāvibhāva cannot be straightaway translated as permanent emotion or feeling. For an actual emotion (or feeling) is but a passing—and more or less conscious state of the mind. One cannot feel angry or disgusted for long and without a break8.

It is also difficult to accept the suggestion that a sthayibhava is a permanent mood⁹. A mood is always felt, however dimly. A sthayibhava, on the other hand, is said to abide in our hearts as a latent impression. Further, whereas a mood, like that of sadness, tends to affix itself to any little object, and to thereby re-arise as its parent emotion, say, grief, as when a bereaved parent re-starts crying at the unexpected sight of a dress that the child used to wear, a sthāyibhāva makes for the evocation of the uncommon experience of a specific rasa. Finally, a mood is the gradual way in which an emotion is seen to ebb. Thus, the irritable mood which follows in the wake of anger, or the sadness in which grief tapers, are both merely passing states, and by no means sthay.

But, on the other hand, we can neither equate a sthayibhava with sentiment. There is no doubt that a sentiment, like friendship or love of one's country, works as a fairly stable determinant of our attitudes and behaviour. But it cannot be said to be a part of the original equipment of our mind. We develop sentiments. Two men become friends by experiencing, say, joy, sorrow, or anxiety with regard to each other in different situations. Nor can anyone be said to be born with the patriotic sentiment. A sthāyibhāva, on the other hand, is believed to be a part of our mental make-up from the very beginning. That Bharata so believes is borne out by the way in which he posits the reality of sthayibhavas. All human beings, he argues, desire the company of the beloved, enjoy mocking others, and are saddened when their loved ones depart. So it would only be proper to

believe in the universal, if uneven¹⁰, presence of sthāyibhāvas like rati, hāsa and śoka and in that of the remaining ones, following the same line of argument. We could here argue that the deeply satisfying character of rasa when it occurs—say, the sense that the experience is very intimately ours—is better explained on the assumption that sthāyibhāvas are inborn. So, because of their being original, they may not be regarded as being identical with sentiments.

May we then equate sthayibhava with instinct? No; it would be wrong to do so. For whereas, as a native capacity to deal with a situation in terms of some overt and relatively determinate action, an instruct is (in the main) conative in character¹¹, a sthayibhava is essentially an original tendency to feel. Yet, there is much that makes an instinct very similar to a sthayibhava. Both impel us to give ready attention to objects of a particular kind. This is aesthetically relevant; for every work or presentation of art is meant to be attended to, and this end would be easily attained if the aesthetic object appeals to a sthayibhava, exactly as, because of quiet impulsion by the sex instinct, one may readily attend to members of the opposite sex. Again, both are alike taken to be (by and large) original and universal. Above all, whereas instincts are commonly regarded as original sources of psychic energy, rasānubhūti which results from an aesthetic treatment of sthayibhava is also believed to provide an impetus to pursuance of the four principal ends of life or the purusharthas. Yet, I may reiterate, because it is (in the main) a determinant of our life of feeling, a sthāyibhāva cannot be identified with instinct which determines action. I would prefer to interpret sthāyibhāva as 'original affective tendency'. But I must explain. The word 'original' must be taken here in its total meaning, that is, as 'existing at and from the beginning'; for only then would it convey the idea that a sthāyibhāva abides. By 'affective' I would mean: influencing, not arising from, emotion. 'Tendency' may be taken simply as 'proneness'. Considered in its wholeness, sthayibhava would therefore mean an original (or natural) tendency to feel or to experience some emotion in a specific situation, that is, in a situation the character of which is clearly perceived. Recognition of the cognitive element, we may note, is implicit in the very way in which Bharata infers the reality of sthāyibhāvas. The tendency to feel sad, he suggests, may be regarded as an original part of the human mind because we all feel or tend to feel sad when someone who is (known to be) an object of our love is seen to depart. The aesthetic transmutation of such a tendency into rasa would mean that it is activated in its (cognitive and) affective aspects without overt dealing with any real situation; and the thought that the tendency in question is original would provide for the truth that rasa-experience is a gratification which caters for the basic demands of our

being, and is no ordinary titillation (bhogikaraṇa) of the senses. Yet, I may repeat here, we cannot roundly equate sthāyibhāva with instinct. To speak of sthāyibhāva as being original to human nature is simply to mean that we have an inborn tendency to, or can easily feel, say, sad, angry or happy in appropriate situations. On the other hand, where we act out of (what have been regarded as) the instincts of sex, pugnacity or self-preservation, and do not meet with any obstruction, the resulting feeling is one of having been able to do what we wanted to do. The proper evocation of a sthāyibhāva in terms of a rasa just gives one the feeling of emotional exaltation, as Hiriyanna rightly puts it¹²; and so long as it is not evoked, it may be said to remain in a state of latent abidance, or as vāsāna.

The word tendency, I may add, goes well with 'bhāva', regarded as that which causes something to be; for, a tendency is nothing self-complete, but is rather a propensity to produce something or to assume a form or character. Nor can we replace 'tendency' with 'capacity' here, for whereas a capacity is exercised, a tendency is appealed to, evoked, or built upon. Such linkages in practice indeed favour 'tendency' as a good word for sthāyibhāva; for, in the field of dramatic art to which the theory of rasa is pre-eminently relevant, the dramatist and the actors alike treat the sthāyibhāva as a basic determinant of emotional behaviour which the other constituents of the aesthetic configuration—say, vibhāva and anubhāva seek only to feed, manifest, or objectify; and what the rasika comes to experience in contemplating a good dramatic performance is simply the artistically contrived evocation of a sthāyibhāva, that is, as stripped of those factors which keep it confined to individual persons in real life¹³. In any case, whatever be the way in which we translate the word, a sthāyibhāva is a part of our essential mental make-up. But the way in which sthāyibhāvas are made to conduce to evocation of rasa is different from their working in real life. In the everyday world a person often feels angry or sad in accordance with his uniquely developed attitudes. To illustrate, whereas a person who has meticulously trained himself to put everything in its proper place may at once grow a little angry or sad at the sight of even a slight displacement of books from their proper positions on his study table, his friend who believes, let us say, that some disorder serves only to lend an informal or lived-in appearance to the place of work would remain quite unaffected by the displacement in question. Further, when we experience an emotion in daily life, which always happens in a specific situation, our emphasis is (as a rule) on behaving in a particular way, so as to deal with the situation properly, not on contemplating how the emotion itself feels. Thus, if I feel afraid at the sight of a snake, I will either run away from the place or try to kill the reptile somehow. Here the urgent need for personal safety

demands quick action, and just does not give me time to attend to this feeling of fear. In other words, the loves, joys and sorrows of actual life remain tied to individual persons; and though they are certainly felt, perhaps even intensely at times, our awareness of their own inner character is only incidental to, and so is bedimmed by, the demands of practical adjustment.

Therefore, if many people are to be made to pay unconstrained, close and continued attention to an aesthetic presentation like a play, it is essential that it should seek to project an emotion¹⁴ towards which we all already have a built-in propensity, and in a way which not only lifts us above our merely individual attitudes or ways of looking at things, but frees us, for the time being, from the pressures of real life which recalcitrate contemplation of the common affective bases of our nature as human beings. The first of these requirements, it is obvious, highlights the value of sthāyibhāva; and the second, of the artistic device known as sādhāranikarana. The practical samyoga or integration of the three factors, of which Bharata's rasa-sūtra also speaks, is an endeavour to meet the two requirements by paying due attention to sthāyibhāva¹⁵ and sādhāranikarana.

What a sthāyibhāva is has been already brought out. But we must also see clearly how it relates to a work of art. A play, for example, is to be written—that is, the plot is to be chosen and developed, and the interplay of character, dialogue and incident achieved—in such a way that a steady appeal may be easily made, not to any high-browed penchant of some people who may choose to affect a cultural stance superior to the common man's attitudes, but to some sthāyibhāva which is present in us all. Such an orientation of the very writing of a play, we may note, is at once some sādhāranikarana.

But, then, let us first see what this term means in the context of (dramatic) art. The word sādhāraṇa means the simple, ordinary or the normal, as opposed to what is uniquely relevant to any one case or individual; and karaṇa means 'making', 'affecting'. So, sādhāraṇikaraṇa simply means the act of effecting a severance of the content of an aesthetic presentation from exclusive relatedness to this or that real person. It is necessary to point out here that, according to Abhinavagupta, the aesthetic concept of sādhāraṇya is quite different from, and independent of, the logical concept of generality (sāmānya)¹⁶. The logically general is that which is understood or thought of as being applicable to all or most members of a class or category. The aesthetically sādhāraṇa, on the other hand, is that which is not the private experience of any one individual but is accessible, as a presentation, to all those who are suitably equipped to

attend to it; which is why the senses that provide, to a whole gathering, simultaneous access to the same object—that is, the ear and the eye—are said to be pre-eminently 'aesthetic'. To take a rough analogy, whereas the concept of 'a public park' subsumes all parks which are open to the public, an actual public park serves as such simply because it is not any one individual's personal property. In the same way, if some content is to be experienced aesthetically, it has to be presented in such a manner that it may not be judged as belonging to any one real person alone, though its details may well be identified on the basis of our general experience of life and reality. As Mammata puts it, an aesthetic situation is independent of the following specifications:

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'This concerns me'; 'This does not concern me'; 'This concerns my enemy'; 'This does not concern my enemy'. 17
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It is precisely because of this absence of explicit reference to self that in aesthetic experience a person is able to give all his attention to the 'object' without being disturbed by any such purely individual reactions on his part as could arise were he faced with a similar situation in real life. To illustrate, if I see a friend making love to a lady in our common neighbourhood, I may feel happy because my friend is, after all, able to shake off his shyness; envious because he seems to have scored over me; or angry because the affair is likely to disturb the peace in our neighbourhood. But if the same friend impersonates an ardent lover in a dramatic performance, I will care only for the truth and subtlety of abhinaya, and my contemplation of the aesthetic object will be utterly nirvighna or uninhibited by reactions that I evince to similar situations in real life. The 'unselfish' quality of aesthetic experience is indeed noteworthy. It is not a state of indifference (or tātasthya). It is, in fact, "an active participation (anupraveśa) of the cognizing subject in the event represented"18. Yet it does not arise in the way of reactions to everyday life. Nor is it later remembered as a part of one's personal history in the way one's birth, marriage and details of educational career are.

Bhatta Nayak insists that the essence of rasa is "a pleasure which has no relationship with any real individual" 19. He adds:

The images contemplated on the stage or read in poetry are seen by the spectator independently of any relationship with his ordinary life or with the life of the actor or of the hero of the play or poem and appear, therefore, in a generalized [sādhāranikrta²⁰, sādhārana] way, that is to say, universally and freed of individuality.²¹

Abhinavagupta goes further and says that in aesthetic experience the

individual raises himself, for a while, above time, space and causality, and therefore above the manner of practical life (or sainsāra). Aesthetic experience, he believes, "opens like a flower born of magic, without relationship, in time or space, with the practical life which precedes it and which, after it, renews itself and returns to its normal course"²².

Now, what both these thinkers essentially mean is that in aesthetic experience the object or content of contemplation is not taken as related to the real life of any individual; that, if only for the time being, the contemplator too ceases to regard himself as a part of the actual, everyday world; and that, therefore, his total (aesthetic) experience at the moment does not seem to be a part of his everyday experience. We cannot take the two thinkers to suggest, categorically, that the object of aesthetic contemplation has nothing to do with life as such. For, after all, the recognition of an actor appearing as a king or as a messenger, or of some gestures as expressing a determinate feeling, is possible only in the light of our everyday experience. What is emphasized here is only the severance of the content and wholeness of the experience from what happens or belongs to persons uniquely in real life.

The sthāyibhāvas which the dramatist has to bear in mind are of course an actual part of the mental make-up of individuals. But they belong to all men, and so only help, instead of impeding, sādhāraņikaraṇa. How similar help may be provided by the three constituents that make for the evocation of rasa may now be brought out.

What is aesthetically accessible to all—and in this sense sādhāraņa—is, it is clear, no mere meeting-place, but a work or presentation which we can all appreciate in terms of a sympathetic response. This, in turn, implies that the object is open to, or can elicit, public attention; and that it can find favour with the generality of people by appealing to something that they share. Hence, I repeat, the play has to be written (and presented) with an eye to affecting a specific sthāvibhāva. But, be it noted, the creative handling of a sthāyibhāva is quite different from its direct excitation in real life. When a man's sex instinct is aroused his impulse is to appropriate the other to his fleshly need. In case the other is presently inaccesssible, the individual in question may well have to go without overt behaviour and to content himself with mere lascivious imaginings; but the impulse to make the other somehow minister to one's own needs will yet remain active, and to that extent inhibit his contemplation of how love-making feels. The other here does not so engross the individual's attention that it may be wholly taken and kept away from concern with self. The three factors of vibhāva, anubhāva and vyabhicāribhāva not only serve to minimize the possibility of this self-concern of those who may contemplate an emotional situation—

say, as presented in a play-but prevent them from relating the dramatic presentation to lives of real, contemporary individuals by packing the presentation itself with charm, striking qualities and elaborate, yet identifiable, and convincing details23. Vibhava means a situation which is lifelike by virtue of having an identifiable emotive character, though not in that of representing a real, living individual. It is lifelike also in the sense that it comprises a human focus (alambana) and a context which is commonly known as uddipana because it is favourable for self-revelation of (a particular sthāyibhāva in terms of) an emotion. To illustrate, where (a semblance of) the sthayibhava of rati is to be evoked, the togetherness of the nāyak and the nāyikā will be the focus (or ālambana) of the situation, and details like a moonlit night and a bower in the garden may serve as uddipana or stimulus to love-making. However, as a mere situation, vibhava is simply the arrangement of what there is to be seen or contemplated. It is anubhāva which makes it, the vibhāva, come alive, by projecting some movements, gestures and speeches that are seen to occur, and also by employing some superadded factors like music and dance. To put it more clearly, anubhāva comprises characters, and acting (abhinaya) of different kinds, say, the following: angika-(or bodily, as movement and posturing); vācika (relating to utterance); sāttvika (or involuntary, comprising such changes in the bodily state as serve as unerring signs of some specific emotion); and āhārya or those means of projection which are not really a part of the psychophysical being of the actors, such as costumes and sangeet. The sāttvikabhāvas are: stupefaction, loss of consciousness, horripilation, sweating, loss of lustre or colour, tremor, tears, and changes of tone. Abhinaya is made to carry conviction also by means of vyabhicaribhāvas (33 in all) which are so called because, as opposed to sthāyibhavas that form an abiding part of our mental equipment, they appear but momentarily in the course of an emotional experience. They include the following: self-disparagement, apprehension of encountering what is (nonetheless) desired, depression due to poverty and pain, perplexity, shrinking from censure, agitation caused by pleasant happenings, and drowsiness.

We may now indicate the individual value of these three factors, and also the way they are made to help each other in the process of rasa-evocation, both with the purpose of realizing how sādhāranikarana is brought about. Now, the value of vibhāva—or the emotive situation as projected in a poem or on the stage—is obvious. It is, of course, not the efficient cause of the evocation of rasa; for whereas, as in the case of a speaker producing a speech, the effect of such a cause—that is, the speech—cannot outlive the operation of the cause itself, rasa-experience can easily continue even after

the (isolated) perception of vibhāvas. Yet, on the other hand, vibhāva is a prime requisite, both as a specific objective situation in which alone a sthāyibhāva can manifest itself, and also as a kind of matrix or ground within or upon which the other two factors of anubhāva and vvabhicāribhāva may operate. The reality of sthāyibhāvas, we have seen, is inferred from their expression in everyday life. But in life they always occur as responses to specific situations. So, if the projection of a sthavibhava is to appear lifelike—and so convincing—it must be done in an appropriate situation. But a situation which is appropriate, in respect of evoking a basic emotion, to a mere individual, may not be so in relation to the generality of sāmājiks. To illustrate, whereas in a man's personal life even a passing thought of love may excite the ratibhāva, on the stage the vibhāva—or a setting which is expected to be evocative—must be typical of lovers in general, for otherwise it may utterly fail to engage the attention of the majority of spectators. The value of familiar uddipanas like a moonlit night or shady nook is therefore obvious in vibhavas that are meant to appeal to the sthāyibhāva of rati. But, be it noted, the charming quality of vibhāva also serves to objectify our attention, helping sādhāranikarana as suspension of preoccupation with self. What is more, we cannot obviously contemplate a situation as one of rati in particular unless the vibhava presented to us also shows the requisite and identifiable marks or expressions of the emotion in question; hence the importance of anubhāva, that is, acting, dialogue, etc. Rati, as felt in our personal lives, does not take time to be recognized; it only prompts us to behave in a particular way. But when we gather to witness a play we have to make a little effort to concentrate on, and to follow, what is presented to us.

Consider, in this context, a presentation of the loves of Radha and Krishna in our classical dances. The number may comprise abhinaya done on a song being sung by a vocal accompanist; and the text of the song may project such traditional details of figural beauty and embellishment as नयनबान and सोलह सिंगार. What is more, costumes and lighting may also be made to heighten the sensuous charm of the whole presentation. In witnessing all this the rasika will certainly be interpeting what he sees and hears in the light of his own experience of ratibhāva. (This is exactly why no amount of effort to make the vibhāva in question meaningful—that is, emblematic of the ratibhāva—would succeed where the audience is of young children only). In other words, the perception of vibhāvas is not merely objective. It draws upon or awakens the latent traces (saṃskāras or vāsanās) already present in the spectators. A young person will not perceive the representation of a young woman quite impersonally, or in the way of tāṭasthya or mādhyasthya which is the exact opposite of anupraveśa, that is,

personal or active participation. The truth rather is that the very description of a beautiful woman easily arouses the pre-existing state of delight in male readers. But, on the other hand, the (knowledgeable) rasika is expected not to behave erotically here, as he might in his personal life, but only to comprehend and follow the growth of a specific kind of emotive situation, so that, instead of experiencing rati in the everyday manner, he may be drawn out to contemplate how rati feels. Indeed, because it interests us as a clear manifestation of some sthāyibhāva, and also because its character is made unmistakable by appropriate anubhāva, vibhāva easily serves to take our attention away from preoccupation with self, and objectifies it, so as to make the experience of contemplating an emotive situation (in part, imaginatively) very different from personal involvement in a similar real-life situation. The change is, however, also vitally helped by two of the many qualifications regarded by Bharata as being essential for a rasika: the spectator's willingness and ability to focus on the aesthetic object. But, on the other hand, anubhāva too must appear to be a convincing manifestion of sthāyibhāva. This, in turn, demands that anubhāva (or acting) be punctuated with some sāttvikabhāvas and vyabhicāribhāvas. A sāttvikabhāva is the unmistakable sign of the real presence of an emotion; and a vyabhicāribāva—though it is but a glimpse, so to say, of a fleeting feeling—is yet an actual detail in the filling of an emotion as it runs its course in real life, like momentary apprehension as one approaches the beloved, in spite of the fact that the meeting may be, on the whole, earnestly desired. Both serve to make the acting look authentic and help the spectator in identifying the sthāyibhāva. They are therefore alike necessary. However, when the projection of a sthāyibhāva is thus made to look lifelike, it convinces the spectator not in the way of a merely imitative representation of some outer happening, but as striking a sympathetic chord in his heart, for what is here projected is an original affective tendency of his own being. The projection in question is therefore not merely identified by the spectators, but happily felt and admitted as echoing a part of their inner nature, radiating their being with the delight of felt kinship, and so transfiguring, of course with the help of other factors, the process of mere objectification of attention into a feeling of tādātmya or imaginative self-identification with the aesthetic object.

It is essential that we pause here for a while and reflect as to how the various objective factors, and the basic subjective condition, of rasa-evocation are related to one another. Vibhāva, we have seen, provides a situation which is relevant to the evocation, and so reminds us, of a particular sthāyibhāva. Anubhāva infuses life into vibhāva, and so enables us to comprehend the latter a little better. At the same time, vibhāva too is

essential for the effectiveness of anubhava. A mere classroom lecture on abhinaya (which comes under anubhāva) relating to śrngāra may be accompanied by the most accurate 'illustrations' in terms of real acting; but because the only figure present here is that of the speaker himself, and further because what surrounds the speaker is not at all suggestive of ratibhava, the impact of the 'illustrations' will be much less than that of similar abhinaya, say, in a dance recital involving a 'couple' of performers, and supported by appropriate singing. Sattvikabhavas and vyabhicāribhāvas lend a semblance of truth to anubhava itself, and so give us further help in identifying the sthayibhava which the vibhava seeks to project. So, if vibhāva be duly regarded as the objective matrix of all that happens on the stage, the various factors may be said to relate to one another in the way of concentric circles with the sthavibhava as their common centre. To put it differently, vibhāva both provides the ground for, and depends for its own enlivenment on, the play of anubhava which is similarly related to sāttvikabhāvas and vyabhicāribhāvas; and they all alike draw their aesthetic meaning from the way they serve to project the sthāyibhāva not merely as such, but (in the end) as a superpersonal, disinterested, and blissful experience.

It is, I insist, this mutual relatedness of the various factors and their common concern with sthāyibhāva which accounts for the ekaghanatā of rasa. The word, derived from the root 'ghan' meaning 'to strike', simply means unity of impact. Some scholars, like Coomaraswamy and Gnoli, ignore this derivative meaning and prefer to translate ghana as "a condensation of multiple factors without extension in space"24; and ekaghana as "dense, compact, uniform", or as the character of "a state of consciousness which does not allow the interference of obstacles"25 (or vighnas). But the prefix eka makes better sense when related to ghan in the sense of impact than as conjoined with ghana taken as condensation. Moreover, whereas the negative remark that, as an experience, rasa is not discursive or analytical (nirvichinna)—or not disturbed by obstacles seems perfectly warranted, the positive insistence that the experience in question is utterly dense or compact would tend to make rasa appear as a static something, and to merely ignore the flow, along with the quickening and illuminative character of rasa.

Such felt features, I may add, distinguish rasa very clearly from a mere sthāyibhāva. Indeed, the two differ sharply. A sthāyibhāva is a part of what we already are at birth, and is coextensive with life, though it is of course not always manifest. Rasa, on the other hand, arises from an aesthetic configuration of diverse factors and lasts only a little longer than the rasika's discriminating and sympathetic attention does. Yet, it should not be

forgotten, every rasa is grounded in a specific sthāyibhāva. This means that, however otherworldly the experience of rasa may seem to be, it yet strikes us as affecting the very roots of our being, or as very basically human, and not merely personal.

Its evocation, however, is not (we have seen) a simple matter. The different bhavas must all be made to work in accord before rasa can arise. Samyoga is essential. For, if it is taken by itself, an individual constituent may easily fail to serve as a clear pointer to a specific sthayibhava. Take tears, for instance, which make a sāttvikabhāva. The cognition that they betoken sorrow, not joy or gratitude, would arise only if the overall look of vibhāva is a sad one. The union which samyoga signifies is, however, no loose putting together. It is such a blending of elements that the whole comes to acquire a quality which cannot be traced to their individual natures or to their mere aggregation. This is suggested by the instance which Bharata takes to illustrate a general feature of aesthetic configuration: that is, the example of a dish emitting a new flavour which is not seen to belong to any of the condiments used 26. Further, a sattvikabhava like horripilation cannot be produced unless the actor (doing abhinaya, which is covered by 'anubhava') allows himself to be suffused with the distinctive feel of the vibhava as related to a particular sthavibhava. What is however important to mark here, because it is likely to be missed, is that samyoga is not an accord of the merely objective. Vibhāva, we have seen, is not any situation, but a situation having a distinct emotive character. This character will not be registered-and vibhāva will therefore remain a mere indeterminate situation—unless the rasika's mind is united with it. This is why it has been suggested²⁷ that "sainyoga . . . implies both that the determinants, etc., unite with each other to form a single whole and that the mind of the spectator is identified with them or participates actively [anupraveśa] in the situation which they determine"28. But, essential though it is, samyoga does not follow any definite rule. It is certainly not a blending of the various constituents in equal measure; for, with an eye to evoking rasa, any one of them may be emphasized. Consider, for instance, the following:

O lovely damsel! your body is the locus of the honey that love-making exudes; the shapely arch of your eye-brows is the bow of the love-god, Kamadeva, with its striking bend; and the wine that oozes from your lotus-face quickens desire by its very aroma—that is, without being drunk. In all the three worlds indeed you remain unmatched as a specially beautiful creation of Brahma.

Here, it is clear, the word-bound images and the overall meaning both

alike heighten the charm of the nāyikā who is the ālambana of the vibhāva. Vyabhicāribhāvas may be projected as follows:

This lady, possessed of liquid eyes, is repeatedly impelled to throw away the water cupped in her hands; for, though she is impatient to bedew her lover with it, she is disturbed by the presence of fish in the water as it mirrors the shape of her own eyes.

Here, it is clear, the emphasis is on *vyabhicāribhāvas*. Liquidity of eyes at the passing thought of a mischief, impatience, and agitation are obviously all transitory states. So, *saṃyoga* admits of uneven emphasis on the factors that make for the evocation of *rasa*.

The word that Bharata uses for this evocation—nispatti—is also significant. It is not utpatti; and this avoidance suggests, first, that the union of objective factors does not directly produce rasa, for our tādātmya with the presentation must be established before rasa can emerge; and, second, that in spite of its admittedly wondrous quality, rasa is not quite a new origination in the sense of being wholly unrelated to our given nature, for it is grounded in sthāyibhāvas that are already there in us. It is in fact precisely this consideration which prompts one to take the word nispatti in the sense of elicitation or bringing out. However great be the value of objective factors for generating rasa when it arises, it is felt as inwardly affirmed, and not as a mere imposition from the outside.

How rasa feels, however, calls for some analysis in the phenomenological vein. Happily, a fair amount of it has been done by our ancient aestheticians; and the more important features of rasa revealed by such analysis have been ably summed up by Viśvanātha in the following well-known utterance:

सत्वोदेकादखण्ड स्वप्रकाशानन्द चिन्मयः। वैद्यान्तरस्पर्शशून्यो ब्रह्मस्वाद सहोदरः॥ लोकोत्तरचमत्कार प्राणः कैश्चित प्रमातृमिः। स्वाकारतदिभन्नत्वेनायमास्वाद्यते रसः॥

But what is here implicit must be brought out at some length:

a. To begin with, when one experiences rasa the mind is swayed by the guna known as sattva, not by rajas or tamas. Tamas is the principle of sloth and darkness. In experiencing rasa, on the other hand, one feels quickened and lit up with understanding and delight (see प्रकाशान-दिचन्मयः). The guna known as rajas too is subservient here. Rajas, as we know, is the cause not merely of goal-directed activity, but of haste, impatience and

agitation. It is the last of these, or aviśrānti which, according to Sāmkhya, is the immediate cause of dukha. Subservience of rajas therefore accounts for the presence of tranquillity and (therefore) ananda, as also for the absence of willed overt action in the experience of rasa. Some reflex bodily changes, such as bated breath or quickened heart-beat, may of course take place during the course of such experience; but we do not here seek to do anything; we only contemplate what is presented to us. Positively, the experience of rasa is marked by an ascendancy of sattva. This is why the more important felt features here are serenity and poise, and disinterested delight or joy without craving (स्वप्रकाशानन्द). Sattva is commonly taken to make for purity, light and beatitude. In the present context, however, 'purity' cannot be regarded as a quality of what motivates us to act; for action is here neither present nor aimed at. It can only be taken to mean relative freedom from what genuine aesthetic experience is not, or from discursive thought, desire, and the impulse to act. (Kant emphasizes the tranquillity of aesthetic experience by saying that when we experience beauty, the working of our two faculties, imagination and understanding, is mutually accordant²⁹.) It is in this sense that awareness here is pure or chinmaya, roughly in the same way as music is said to be 'pure' where it is free from admixture with language and beat-measured rhythm. One who tastes rasa rests, so to say, on his own consciousness (samvit) instead of craving for ends beyond the present; and this viśrānti (tranquillity and repose) is beatitude (ananda) and light (prakasa). The latter, in the present context, is of course not physical light, but is rather "the inner radiation of being which accompanies delighted understanding, a joyous state of heightened awareness"30; and it would therefore be perhaps better to translate Bharata's characterization of rasa-ujjvalaveśātmakah-as 'whose essence is an appearance of glowing' (rather than of "burning"31).

b. As for the phrase vedyāntarasparśaśunyo, I think its distinctive meaning will be better brought out if it is taken along with another similar, but not quite identical, characterization of rasa, that is, as vigalitavedyāntara. The latter phrase cannot be taken to mean that, during the experience, nothing but rasa is at all perceived, but only that whatever else is perceived—say, the details of the dramatic presentation, quite a few of which may be correctly recalled after the experience—is softened by or made subservient or permeable to (विगलित or melted in) the overall pleasurable and undivided (अखाउ) quality of the relish. And, if it be borne in mind that sparśa or touch is (as a rule) contact from the outside, the former characterization, which is our direct concern here, would mean that rasa is the experience of a relish which is not felt as related to anything

outside of it, in the way a meeting of two lovers may be related to, or rather disturbed by, vague apprehensions about the effective pursuance of their love in spite of possible opposition from their parents. In other words, the experience of rasa is internally undivided—not empty of clearly perceived content—and free from relation to, or disturbance by, anything outside of it. Or, it is nirvichinna and svātmaparāmarša, svātmavišrānti.

Attributes such as these are in fact implicit in the thought that rasa is free from contact from all that is external to it. For the contact referred to here is no mere contiguity of things in space. It is rather a felt looking beyond the bounds of what is presently given, as is a feature of desire for some distant goal, or of wistful remembrance of something that has ceased to be. Freedom from touch so regarded therefore at once makes rasa an experience of self-repose and unbrokenness. It is therefore quite different from the mere recall of a happy experience which may be ruffled by some subdued longing; and in so far as we do not think of any unrealized end here, our attitude in rasānubhūti is also not utilitarian at all.

- c. Yet, it is not merely because of all this—that is, its tranquillity, freedom from the sense of want or felt self-completeness, and blissful quality—that rasa is said to be 'the younger brother' (सहोदर) of, or a close approximation to, the experience of 'tasting' Brahman. We must also mark the sameness that just as brahmānubhava is a very deeply satisfying experience because it answers a basic need of the ātman, so is rasa, because of its grounding in sthāyibhāvas which are a part of our native equipment. In neither case does the blissful experience appear to be the attainment of a merely objective end.
- d. Yet, as a kind of experience, rasa is quite out of the ordinary (लोकोत्तर), not merely because in an aesthetic presentation familiar objects may be seen as put together very differently from the way they are found in daily life, but because the determinants of everyday experience and behaviour—like the concepts of reality-unreality, space-time, cause-effect, and the thought of practical efficiency (arthakriyākāritva)—cease to matter here. We look at what is presented in the way of anuvyavasāya, that is, without associating the 'object' with the concepts of reality and unreality, or with the limited 'I'32. For instance, the garden that may be shown on the stage is not taken as any real individual's property. Nor do we regard it as a fit place for our evening walk. Further, even when historical characters like Rama and Sita are presented in a play, they are not perceived in their own setting of reality, say, as belonging to a bygone age, but as present before us, as objects of immediate apprehension, not of mere memory. Nor, on the

other hand, are they taken mainly as related to how we, in fact, look at them in real life; for, were they so regarded, everybody would be seeing his own Rama or Sita on the stage, whereas the truth is that the characters impersonated appear generalized (sādhāranikṛta) or essentially the same for all spectators.

The truth that generalization can take place in spite of 'the (aesthetic) individuality of the characters represented—say, Rama and Ravana—is borne out by the fact that after seeing the play the following general affirmation plays freely on our lips: "Such-and-such happens to people who do so-and-so". A personality intrudes into our practical life—and resists generalization—only when it is contemporaneous with us, that is, when it is a part of the present, and can therefore be relevant to our practical interests.

- e. Yet, the remoteness of the aesthetic presentation from the manner of our everyday existence should not be allowed to make us doubt the reality of rasa. Its very relish by a man of aesthetic sensibility—that is, the rasika or sahrdaya—is a proof of its reality as experience. The self-evidence here, we may note, is not that of a mathematical truth, which is merely objective, but the subjective one of a personal experience. Yet it may be said to be objective in the sense that it can be realized by all, though again only in terms of personal experience.
- f. The fact that one is personally involved here, and enjoys the experience, at once distinguishes rasa from inferential reasoning. Rasa arises out of tanmayatā—or from imaginative self-identification with the aesthetic object—not through reasoning; and its basic subjective condition is not the ability to reason, but hrdayasamvādātmaka sahrdayatā. The conclusion of a piece of inferential reasoning, on the other hand, is accepted quite impersonally, or without feeling involved in it, that is, in a state of acra and. The difference between the two kinds of experience may be brought out by taking an example. The doctor's reasoning that because his patient has fever on every alternate day, marked by a chilly feeling, the patient must be suffering from malaria, is one thing; but a mother's attendance on her child—similarly suffering—and sympathetic visualization, in part on the basis of her own past experience, of how sick, even nauseous, the patient's feeling probably is, is quite another.

At this point, however, two questions may be put:

First, does the alleged 'involvement' of the rasika in the experience of rasa mean that his self is totally effaced here; and if yes, how is he later able to recall the experience?

Second, if rasa is essentially a state of emotional exaltation, and not an

impulse to action or process of thinking, will not clarity of perception be adversely affected here, because of the very fuzziness of feeling?

Now, the first of these questions may be answered thus:

In experiencing rasa the self is only deeply merged, not quite lost or effaced. This may be understood by considering a simple possibility. If a rasika has just finished listening to some absorbing music, he may vet continue to 'hear' the music in his mind even though, in fact, it has ceased to be. This continued 'inner' listening, without any present objective cause, proves that the self was not quite obliterated when it appeared lost in the actual contemplation of music; and that it was somehow active during the process, however subduedly. On the other hand, such attention to a work of art as is able to generate rasa must be said to be a kind of immersion, and not mere attendance. This is demanded by the fact that when, after the experience, the rasika recollects it, the emphasis is more on the experience that seemed to possess him than on his own self as the bearer of the experience. To take a parallel instance from life, when we refer to a series of little happenings that has made us happy in the past as "quite an experience", we can of course think of it, in the way of Dewey, as a distinct wholeness jutting out of the run of our everyday life, but we can also re-live in idea the powerful impact of the experience, regarding ourselves as having only undergone the experience. The reality of rasa-experience when it occurs is not the self-conscious awareness of making something happen or of dealing with a situation, but of merely being a happy bearer, or the willing course, of the experience.

The second protest, that because of the dominance of feeling in it rasa is likely to be deficient in clearness of perception, may be met thus:

To raise such a doubt is only to confuse rasa with a mere everyday experience of emotion. When a man is gripped by violent anger he is likely to misjudge the physical tolerance of his own child he might be punishing even as one tends to exaggerate the demand of one's appetite while eating in a state of happy excitement immediately on the successful completion of an arduous task. But rasa, on the other hand, issues from, and is all along dependant on, close and patient attention to the details of acting, speech and stage-setting (in watching a play); and the experience may be easily disturbed by the slightest lapse in the presentation, such as an unintended remark by a raw actor in the manner of his casual, everyday way of talking, as distinguished from the idiom of impersonation demanded by his role in the play. The percipience of a rasika, be it noted, is not the mere notice of what the aesthetic object presents but is at once some assessment, if implicit, of the aesthetic or technical propriety or character of its details and structure. In listening to music, for instance, even a slightly exaggerated

dwelling on a particular svara-say, on komal risabh in a Puriyā recital-may ruffle the rasika's joyous experience. Such immediate disapproval is obviously possible only where listening is keen all along. Rasa not only does not inhibit, but demands watchful perception. Nor would it be proper here to protest that what is essential for aesthetic experience is our ability to contemplate and identify the expression of emotion, and not our getting infected with the emotion in the art-work; for rasa is not the direct feeling-impact of an everyday object on the onlooker attending to or dealing with it; it is rather the elaborate evocation of an experience which is both trans-subjective and trans-objective, and to which one is in fact elevated by an aesthetically induced fusion of the two sides which only oppose each other in daily life: that is, the subject and the object. A man's being struck with fear by the sight of a snake is one thing; a rasika's experience of bhayānaka rasa is quite another. The former is disturbed by fear, and the disturbance determines his behaviour. The latter only restfully contemplates what it is to feel afraid; and the contemplation is without the sting of real fear because, for the time being, the individual in question has risen above the sense of being a particular person in real life, and because his attention is too fully held here by the aesthetic object, and a bit too independently of the question of reality, to admit of any thought of personal insecurity. Yet, be it noted, the experience here is no mere detached or abstract thinking of the details of feeling afraid; it is contemplation of fear as all along attested to by aesthetic appeals to the sthāyibhāva of bhaya in the rasika's own being and as embodied in the aesthetic object, say, in the acting and utterances of actors.

Protests of the kind we have just dealt with may, however, seem to have special force in respect of vira and karuna rasa in so far as the presentation of exciting deeds of valour and pathetic situations seems clearly opposed to the tranquillity and blissful feeling which are regarded as essential features of rasa. But a general answer may be readily given here. First, just as bites and scratches, which are generally painful or unpleasant in themselves, not only become bearable in, but even add to the pleasure of, amorous dalliance, so it may be possible for the aesthetic presentation of a play to evoke an experience the overall satisfactoriness of which—provided, we may say, by sonorous music, convincing acting, interesting happenings and the interplay of expressive, racy dialogue—is able to absorb the seemingly discordant elements, and to so transform them that they come to serve as a leaven, by adding a little pungency, to the felt charm of the art-work. Second, the presentation in question may so help us rise above the determinants of our everyday experience that we may be able to contemplate exciting and sad events without getting too excited or depressed ourselves, with the result that our tranquillity is in no way disturbed. It would be of help here to mark that a measure of excitement may well be an element in *feeling elevated*, which is a quite different experience from *getting agitated*; and that concern for the sorrows of others can be real yet serene. Indeed, a person who is dedicated to service is freely seen to be both tender and meticulous in ministering to the needs of the distressed, without looking upset at all, nay, even with some visible relish of his mission of mercy.

We may now give some individual attention to the two rasas. Where a vira rasa presentation projects some killings by a brave warrior, what we react to is not merely the exciting spectacle of, say, swordsmanship, but the suggestion of the righteous cause he may be fighting for, and of the endurance he shows in quietly suffering a good deal of pain and bodily injury himself; and in so far as sensitiveness to qualities like righteousness and fortitude is at once an exercise of the sattva in us, our overall response to a spectacle of valour may be fairly unruffled, without failing to be sensitive. As for the case of karuna rasa, it may well involve projection of moving vibhāvas like the banishment of Sita to a forest, but in so far as the spectator is not dealing here with real life, but is only attending to, and following (in part imaginatively) what he sees—and has come to see, as an intentional change from his practical concerns—on the stage, even his minutely sympathetic reaction to a sorrowful vibhāva does not upset him, as it would have in real life. Further, if the difference between our everyday experiences and our aesthetic ones is duly borne in mind here, it would be easy to see that whereas in real life one may find it a little painful to refrain from openly crying in a moment of intense grief, in watching tragic happenings in a film or play, on the other hand-primarily because we all along look for charm, expressiveness or truth in what we see here—the restraint in question is induced by the very way we are disposed towards the object, and so it is no effort to keep oneself composed. Finally, is it not an indisputable fact that after seeing a good tragic play we often feel deeply satisfied though, during the process of contemplation, we might have been occasionally moved?

In the end, we may turn to a question which has been the subject of some debate. Is the theory of rasa applicable to our music and dance? My answer here is: it can be applied to some forms or presentations of these arts, but it also appears unrelated, in practice, to a considerable part of our sangeet. I must, however, explain why I say so, by giving some individual attention to the two sides of my answer:

To begin with, the question I have posed may seem unnecessary to those who are interested only in music, not in our dances. They could put forth the following argument:

Every presentation of our classical music is a raga; each raga is believed to be uniquely capable of evoking a particular rasa; therefore, it does not make sense to question the relevance of the rasa theory to our music.

I would, however, disagree with the conclusion by appealing to some forms and actual features of our musical practice today:

a. True, every rāga is believed to be related to a rasa. But, if we turn from mere theory to our actual practice of classical music, what do we find? Rāga, I agree, but without any definite rasa in many cases. Consider, for instance, the various forms of our music, every one of which must of course conform to the (grammatical) character of a rāga. Where it is properly done, ālāpa in the dhruvapada manner teems with isolated effects of depth, spaciousness, fineness, leisurely or vigorous movement, and incandescence. It may even be able to create an atmosphere of peace or repose and an elevating fineness. Nowadays, indeed, what we look for in ālāpa is these effects, not any identifiable rasa, though the grammatical requirements of the rāga are of course expected to be met in every case.

I may here buttress my contention with a simple argument grounded, again, in the evidence of fact. Whatever be the raga that he may choose to project, the singer's manner of singing generally remains, by and large, similar in his various performances. This will be borne out, I believe, by a critical look at the recitals of any of our leading vocalists over the last ten years. And except for minor differences—as, for instance, a relatively freer use of vigorous gamaks in Adānā, and an intentional softening of voice on the higher notes during expositions of ragas like Jogiya and Sohini-the way they deal with the various ragas is largely the same. How, then, can different rasas be evoked by the different ragas as they are in fact sung? After all, there is hardly any rasa or hint of expressiveness in the mere āroha-avaroha of a rāga. Besides, of course, the meaning of the words of the song, it is essentially the vocalist's gāyaki or way of singing—comprising the manner in which the vocalist applies his voice to svaras (or lagão); regulation of vocal volume which can easily work up the suggestion of a rise and fall of feeling, specially pathetic; the various formal graces such as gamak, lahak and meend; adroit interspersion of pauses in the flow of singing; varying management of aesthetic pace (or laya); the extent, order and designs of melodic patterns of tans; and of course, the very structure of the basic bandish or the sthāyi-antarā twosome-which can generate a semblance of feeling or rasa. And if the singer's employment of the elements just listed, and his way of integrating them in a recital, do not

show marked variations in the treatment of diffrent rāgas, how can the nine rasas be made to emerge in their individual characters?

- b. Be it noted that neither language nor the visible compass of a bandish is available to the ālāpiyā; and that the khyāl form, which is of course free to build upon language in sthāyî-antarā, employs no words in most of its tāns which can vary infinitely in respect of content, pace, and design, and which are, as we know, distinctive of khyāl as a form of our vocal music. How, then, can ālāpa and khyāl be expected to evoke the semblance of a rasa? Rasa, we may remind ourselves, is the experience of a state of unbroken (nirvichinna) emotional exaltation. In khyāl-singing, on the other hand, a torrent of tāns is often seen to disrupt the suggestion of feeling that may be created by the bols of sthāyī-antarā. True, language, which is a powerful means of evoking rasa, is available here to the artiste; but the fact that he can generate some rasa by using words does not prove that a rāga is itself the potential vehicle of a particular rasa; for, as is clearly borne out by the evidence of instrumental music, what is integral to a rāga is a particular arrangement of some select svaras, not any specific complex of words.
- c. Further, I ask, who looks for rasa while listening to a tarānā, triwat or tappā? Hardly anyone; yet these are all forms of Hindustani vocal music.
- d. And what shall we say of a good solo tabla recital? Here, we never expect the artiste to evoke any rasa; we only look for some individual excellences of rhythmic play, say, the following: steadfast keeping of laya; fluent, yet undimmed cutting of bols; the beauty of the designs or patterns; and the subtlety and variety of their relation to the basic laya. And yet, as is well known, a recital of rhythm can be an important part of a whole session of Hindustani music.
- e. To speak now of our dances, the whole *nritta* aspect is quite free from the requirement of generating *rasa*. However, in the region of *nritya*, *rasa* is not only expected to be, but is often, in fact, produced. Even the different shades of the same *rasa*, such as *viyoga* and *saṃyoga sṛngāra*, may be effectively evoked. But let me explain:

Suppose the danseuse sets out to create a semblance of viyogaṣṇngāra by dancing to a vocal rendering (say, in raga Pūriyā) of this Meera bhajan which opens thus: 'होरी पिया बिन लागे खारी'. Here rāga Puriyā will obviously be an apt choice; for it is commonly believed to be the right vehicle of the rasa in question. Further the text of the sthāyi—along with words of a like nature, such as सूनी सेज, which follow the basic line—may make a ready

appeal to the sthāyībhāva of rati in the rasika. Vibhāva and anubhāva will be duly provided here jointly be some subsequent images in the song, which develops thus—

सूनो गाँव, देस सब सूनो, सूनी सेज, अटारी गिणता गिणता घिस गई रेखा, आंगुरिया की सारी।

—and the purposely accordant abhinaya by the danseuse herself. But the integration (or sainyoga) of vibhāva and anubhāva is, in such cases, also helped by the underrunning thekā to which both dance and music have, in general, to conform. As for tādātmya, it is brought about here by the percipience of the rasika and the charm of the dance itself; and the imaginative fusion, of course, also makes for sādhāraṇikaraṇa, or the focussing of the rasika's interest on the aesthetic object, in place of preoccupation with self.

The relation of rasa to navarasamālikā cannot, however, be so easily established. It may seem surprising to say so about a number the very literal meaning of which is 'a garland of the nine rasas'. But my argument here is definite. When this number is actually danced, the projection of one rasa is followed pretty quickly by that of another; and what the rasika does here is simply to identify (and confirm) the expression of individual emotions like grief, wonder and disgust. He certainly does not lose the sense of being a distinct individual in the continuing relish of a rasa as contemplated. If it be remembered that rasānubhūti is (regarded as) a close approximation of brahmānanda, no one would commit the mistake of identifying rasa-experience—generated by a complex and regulated interplay of subjective and objective factors over an adequate passage of time—with the simple act of readily recognizing the individual, momentary look of what is but a mere expression, however lifelike, of the various emotions as experienced in daily life.

To conclude, the rasa theory is applicable only to some aspects of our music and dance, not to the whole extent of these arts. To believe that expressiveness, or the seeming projection of some feeling, is a necessary mark of good music and dance is merely a dogma. Do we not often admire a gat simply because it is tightly structured or lively and sparkling? And if we consider the various forms of our music, as distinguished from their elements, we find that they are not at all so closely related to feeling as some forms of literary art. I oppose, as I so speak, khyāl, dhruvapada and dhamār to lyric, elegy and tragedy.

NOTES

- R. Gnoli: The Aesthetic Experience According to Abhinavagupta, Rome, 1956, p. 60, f. (footnote)
- 2. Ibid, p. 60, 4th f.
- 3. Ibid, p. 38, 2nd f.
- Babu Lal Sukla: Nātya Sāstra of Bharata Muni, Chowkhamba Sanskrit Series Office, Varanasi, 1972, pp. 228-29 2nd f.
- R. Gnoli: The Aesthetic Experience According to Abhinavagupta, pp. 67, 68; also 2nd f. on p. 68.
- 6. Sukla: Nātya Sāstra, pp. 285-86, also footnotes.
- 7. Ibid, p. 228.
- So I hesitate to accept Gnoli's translation of sthāyibhāva as 'principal feelings of human nature'. See his The Aesthetic Experience According to Abhinavagupta, p.29, 2nd f.
- Cf. S.K. De's Sanskrit Poetics as a Study of Aesthetic, Oxford University Press, 1963, p. 53.
- 10. Śukla: Nātyasāstra, pp. 265-66.
- 11. The accepted meanings of 'instinct', we many note, are: an involuntary prompting to action, and the natural impulse by which animals are guided in their behaviour apparently independently of reason or experience.
- 12. In his Art Experience, Kavyalaya Publishers, Mysore, p. 38.
- 13. It is in this liberated form, so to say, that the sthāyibhāvas appear as "the material of aesthetic experience", Gnoli: The Aesthetic Experience According to Abhinavagupta, p.29, 2nd f.
- 14. Of course, as appearing embedded in a situation skilfully arranged.
- 15. Paying attention to, or bearing in mind, the sthāyibhāva certainly, but not integrating it by means of physical manipulation as the other constituents are.
- 16. Gnoli: The Aesthetic Experience According to Abhinavagupta, p. 29, 5th f.
- 17. Ibid, p. 51, f. 1a.
- 18. Ibid.
- 19. Ibid, pp. XX-XXI.
- 20. Ibid.
- 21. Ibid.
- 22. Ibid, pp. XXI-XXII.
- 23. Sukla: Nātya Śāstra, p.261.
- 24. A.K. Coomaraswamy: The Transformation of Nature in Art, Harvard, 1934, p. 209.
- 25. Gnoli: The Aesthetic Experience According to Abhinavagupta, p. 71, 2nd f.
- 26. Ibid, p. 31, 2nd f.
- 27. Ibid, p. 96, 4th f.
- 28. Ibid, p. 96, 4th f.

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- 29. Kant: The Critique of Judgment, tr. J.C. Meredith, Clarendon Press, Oxford, 1969, p.58.
- 30. S.K. Saxena: Aesthetical Essays, Chanakya Publications, Delhi, 1981, p. 159.
- 31. Cf. De's Sanskrit Poetics as a Study of Aesthetic, p.109.
- 32. Gnoli: The Aesthetic Experience According to Abhinavagupta, p. 108.