# लाल बहादुर शास्त्री राष्ट्रीय प्रशासन अकादमी L.B.S National Academy of Administration

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# AKŞARA

## A FORGOTTEN CHAPTER

IN THE

#### HISTORY OF INDIAN PHILOSOPHY.

#### Inaugural—Dissertation

zur

Erlangung der Doctorwürde der

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#### MOTTO:

Pañcavimsam yad etat te proktam Brāhmaṇasattama | tathā tan na tathā c eti tad bhavān vaktum arhati ||

"This Twentyfifth [of the Aupaniṣadas] (i.e. akṣara) which has been described by you, O best of Brahmins, pray tell me whether it is so or whether it is not so."

MBh. XII. 318. 58.

## ERRATA.

Page.	Li	ne.			
5,	2:	read	mailra	for	matira.
11,	6:	read	vadanti	"	vadnti.
11,	27:	insert	a comma after (	amṛta	ı).
24,	<b>2</b> 8:	read	karman or yoga i	nstead	l of karma
					or yogan.
<b>2</b> 5,	32:	,,	Sāṃkhya	for	Samkhy.
42,	40:	,,	avyakta	,,	āvyakta.
43,	1:	,,	budliyamāna	,,	budhydmāna.
44,	21:	,,	a–vidyā	"	a-vidya.
41,	23:	insert a	a comma after Viși	111.	
55,	14:	read	"itself"	for	"itsvlf".
55,	14:	read	"there"	,,	"rhere".
55,	36:	"	"that"	,,	"what".
56,	16:	delete	semicolon.		
59,	34:	read	"L. Mahābhārata"	"	"Mahābhārata".
6 <b>2</b> ,	2:	read	viddhi yogān	,,	vīddhi yogan.
63,	24:	,,	"invulnerable"	"	"invulnarale".
63,	26:	"	"believed"	,,	"belived".
66,	24:	,,	buddhaka	,,	buddhak.
68,	<b>2</b> 3:	.,	eli	,,	eli.
71,	<b>7</b> :	,,	"not"	"	"note".
71,	42:	"	tallvasaṃjñitaḥ	"	tattvsaamjñita <b>ḥ.</b>
76,	10:	delete	"and" after	ind	lentity.
<b>7</b> 8,	19:	read	"from"	for	"f•r".

Page.	Line	e <b>.</b>			
78,	39:	read	"(reference)"	for	"(refence)".
80,	8:	,,	"differentiated"	"	"differentisted".
80,	11:	,,	"twentyfive"	,,	"Twentyfive".
80,	20:	"	"Twentyfifth"	,,	"Twentifitth".
80,	11:	"	tālmabhāvāna	,,	tāmabhāvana,
94,	19:	delete	"the" before "mo	ore".	
96,	17:	,,	"this".		
97,	7:	read	"throughout"	for	"throught".
99,	27:	,,	eșa	,,	esa.
100,	15:	substitu	ite "The views of b	oth"	for "Both".
114,	23:	read	"offered"	for	"done".
123,	27:	"	"beings"	,,	"begins".
138,	5:	delete	"the" before	"Kn	owledge"and
					t-Knowledge."
138,	36:	"		Bh. (	Gi."
141,	6:	insert	"second" before	"Im	perishable."
<b>1</b> 43,	27:	read	"(8)"	for	"(6)"
144,	15:	"	adhibhūta	,,	adhibhuula.
145,	5:	,,	"would"	"	"will".
146,	6:	,,	"penetrated"	"	"penitrated".
152,	5:	. ,,	"their authors had	""	"they have."
152,	7:	"	"to have found"	,,	"that we have."
154,	27:	. "	"need"	,,	"would"
166,	29:	,,	Upalabdhi	,,	Upalabahi.
170,	31:	,,	"moon, sun"	11	"Moon, Sun."
175,	7:	"	akşare	"	akṣara.
177,	4:	,,	"studied at"	,,	"visited"

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#### INTRODUCTION.

Translations of the Bhagavadgitā abound, and their number is constantly increasing, but not so the help for interpreting that famous text, such as Colonel Jacob's "Concordance to the

Principal Upaniṣads and Bhagavadgîtā." It is curious, indeed, that even now, more than a century after the first translations and A. W. von Schlegel's critical edition of the Bhagavadgîtā, the one work which ought to precede any translation, viz., the book on the terminology of the Gîtā, has yet to be written. There exists so far but a single contribution to it, viz., Franklin Edgerton's Paper "The meaning of Sāmkhya and Yoga," which appeared in 1924 in Vol. XLV of the American Journal of Philology.

Accepting Prof. Schrader's suggestion I, therefore, proposed to supply this want and began by The term akṣara. examining what seemed to us the most puzzling of the metaphysical terms of the Gîtā, viz., akṣara; and the inquiry on it grew to such an extent that it has become the sole subject of this Thesis.

The following table will give an idea of the present condition of our problem. There are altogether Its meaning.

fourteen passages in the Gîtā in which the word akṣara occurs. Three of these (viz., VIII. 13, X. 25, and X. 33) may be dismissed at once, because in them the meaning "letter" or "syllable" is incontestable. In the remaining eleven places (Bh. Gî. III. 15 b; VIII. 3a, 11a, 21a; XI. 18a, 37d; XII. 1c; 3a; XV. 16b and d, 18b), where it may be supposed to mean a metaphysical principle or an adjective qualifying the same, it is understood as follows by the two best known Indian commentators and four European translators:—

Bh. Gî.	Śańkara.	Rãmãnuja.	Garbe.
III. 15b	The Supreme Soul (m.).	The individual soul.	The Imperishable (cause of prakṛti).
VIII. 3a	Brahman (n.).	The One of the form of the aggregate of individual souls (kṣetra-jñasamaṣṭiruþa).	Imperishable (adj.).
11a	n	The Immutable posessing the attributes "not-gross" etc.	"
21a	(Not explained.)	A liberated soul.	" in VIII. 19 (adj. to avyakla bhāva i.e. puruṣa in VIII. 22).
XI. 18a	Brahman (n.).	The Immutable.	Imperishable (adj.).
37d	(Not explained.)	The principle (called) the individual soul (jīvāt-matattva).	
XII. 1c	Brahman, the Supreme Atman.	The nature of the inner self (pratyagātmasvarūpam).	
3a	The One presiding over the power of Illusion.	n	Imperishable (adj.).
XV. 16b,d	The Lord's power of Illusion.	The liberated person.	The Imperishable (the individual soul)
18b	The seed of the world-tree (i.e. the power of Illusion).	The liberated soul.	dual soul).

Deussen.	Barnett.	H i 1 l.	Bh. Gî.
The Imperishable (cause of Veda–Word).	The Imperishable (cause of "Word-Brahman").		III. 15b
The Imperishable	. The Imperishable (Vāsudeva). a	The Imperishable (Vāsudeva).	VIII. 3a
The Imperishable (also the Syllable Om).	The Imperishable (the Abode).	The Imperishable (the Praṇava).	11a
"Akṣara (imperishable)" (identical with avyakta bhāva in VIII. 19; adj. to puruṣa in VIII 22).	The Imperishable (identical with purușa in VIII 22).	The Imperishable (identical with purusa in VIII 22).	21a
The Imperishable	. The Imperishable.	The Imperishable	XI. 18a
**	"	19	37d
n	(the Absolute).	(Vāsudeva).	XII. 1c
n	The Imperishable.	(Do.)	3a
Imperishable (adj. to purușa).	(the World-Soul).	(the soul, individual and	XV. 16b, d
The Imperishable.	The Imperishable.	universal). The Imperishable.	18b ·

It will be seen from the above that, while the Indians feel at liberty to understand, in each case, the The Present Situmenton.

The Present Situmenton word in the sense in which it fits best into their own philosophical Systems, the Europeans show a certain tendency towards giving the word so far as possible on e consistent meaning. But it is clear that none of them, Indian or European, has endeavoured to study the word in the light of previous and later texts, not even Deussen who, having translated sixty Upanisads and most of the philosophical texts of the Mahābhārata, was best equip-

ped for that study. The reason for this neglect is, of course, the supposed irreparable vagueness of the terminology of the

Gîtă.

The terminology of the Gita is, however, not so vague as it is generally believed to be. There are The Gîtă Termicertain words which are known to the Gîtā as samjñās "technical terms," while nology not very vague. there are others which are yet in the To the former class belong making. words like karman (VIII. 3), avyakta (VIII. 18), adhyātma (XI. 1), ksetra, ksetrajña (XIII. 2), gunātīta (XIV. 25), asvattha XV. 1), dvandva (XV. 5), purusottama (XV. 18), sad (XVII. 26–27), a-sad (XVII. 28), sannyāsa, tyāga (XVIII. 2,11; VI. 2), sthita-prajña (II. 55,56), adhidaiva, adhiyajña (VII. 29-30; VIII. 1-4) and many others. There are some terms which the Gitā uses in two or more technical meanings, e. g., yoga (V. 4; VI. 23; II. 48), sāmkhya (V. 4; XVIII. 13-14), etc. Moreover, pravadanti "they declare," prahuh "they say", ucyale "it is called," abhidhiyate "it is named", samjñitam "called", smrtam "known (in tradition)", udāhrtam "illustrated (by people)", prathitali " well-known ", proktam " said to be "-all such expressions which often occur in the Gita indicate the existence of a fixed terminology to which the author had recourse. But there are also a number of words which are used in two or more meanings without there being an indication of their having had at that time any technical sense. Such terms are prakṛti, guṇa, māyā, mahad biahman, svabhāva,

niivāṇa, buddhi, param, ajñāna, adhiṣṭhāna, mad-bhāva, mat-sādharmyam, aṇṣṣa, matira, karuṇa, sāmya, siddhi, etc. It is to be noted that while expressions such as saṇṇñitam, proktam, prāhuḥ, etc. frequently accompany the words of the former class, they are not to be found in the passages where the words of the latter group occur. This shows that the Gîtā had certain fixed terms at its disposal.

Was akṣara a technical term in the days of the Gitā? III. 15, aksara is introduced as if it were Aksara, a technivery well-known to the reader. In VIII. 3, akṣara is given as the explanation of cal term. Brahman; this shows that its meaning was considered to be less ambiguous and better fixed than that of the term Brahman. In VIII. 11. aksara is that one "which the Veda-knowers declare". In VIII. 21, aksara is the designation of the higher avyakta othervise "called" paramā gati. The Lord is said to be aksara which is "the highest to be known" (XI. 18) and "akṣara, sad, asad, and whatever is bevond these" (XI. 37). In XII. 1, the contrast between the meditators on aksara and on Krsna (i. e. purusa) is introduced as if the distinction between the two were quite well-known; the question is not whether both are objects of meditation, but it is, which of the two is better. The description of aksara (in XII. 3) is given not because it is unknown, but because thereby the author wants to point out the difficulties that surround the akṣaia-mediator (XII. 5). In XV. 16, kṣaia and akṣara are contrasted ( almost in the same way as in Sve. Up. I. 8) and kutastha is said to be the "designation" of aksara (kūtastho Sksara ucyate). So, it is quite clear that the author of the Gîtā uses the term akşara in the unambiguous sense of a technical expression. He has inherited it from very old traditions, viz., from the traditions of the Oldest Prose and the Earlier Metrical Upanisads.

In addition to the internal evidence that the Gitā itself supplies to us, we have ample material to Aids to interpret recover the meaning or meanings of the it.

The metaphysical terms of this work. First of all, we have the Earlier Metrical Upanisads, to which the Gitā itself refers (XIII. 4). These are the

immediate predecessors of the Gîtă. A glance at Colonel Jacob's

"Concordance of the Principal Upani-The Earlier Metsads and Bhagavadgîtā" will show that the terms *prakrti*, *māyā* etc., which are not known to the Gîtā as technical terms,

occur not at all or rarely in these Upaniṣads, while the terms like sāṃkhya, yoga etc., which the Gitā knows as used in more than one technical sense are known to these Upaniṣads but not as technical. For the term akṣara, these Earlier Metrical Upaniṣads supply a good deal of information, as can be seen by referring to passages like Sve. Up. I. 8,10, Sve. Up. V. 1, and Mu. Up. II. 1. 2. The relation of akṣara and puruṣa in the Gitā is based upon the same in these Upaniṣads. The Muṇḍaka Upaniṣad in particular has rendered an important service in this respect.

The Mahābhārata philosophical texts, especially the chap-

The Mokṣadharma Section in MBh. XII. ters of the Mokṣadharma Section of Book XII, show the stage immediately following that of the Gîtā teaching, just as the Earlier Metrical Upaniṣads record the preceding one. The terms like sākṃhya

and yoga, which have in the Gîtā two or more technical meanings, have here only one, and the terms like prakrti etc., for the exact sense of which in each verse of its occurrence in the Gîtā we have to depend mainly on the context, are in the Mahābhārata fixed technical terms. The aksara-doctrine of the Gitā has undergone a great development and in place of the one System of the Gita, we have in the Mahabharata at least four Schools, each of which has its own conception of aksara. This latter deserves to be fully examined in order to make out the sense of the term aksara in its later historical relations. In the course of my investigation it was found that the aksara-burusa doctrine as embodied in these (four) Mahābhārata Schools which are the descendants of the Gîtă doctrine had been misunderstood, in consequence of the Gîtă doctrine itself having been previously misunderstood. So the laborious task devolved on me of reconstructing as best I could the several systems of those Schools, and thus the Chapter on "Akṣara in the Mahābhārata" in this Thesis has come to be the largest one (though it is only the summary of a much bigger work to be published on a later occasion, if that should be desired). The Mahābhārata philosophical portions have proved to be specially useful, as they have preserved for us the history of the akṣara-doctrine of the Gîtā in its development prior to Sankara, the earliest commentator on the Gîtā whose commentary is available to us.

The Brahmasūtras, though not a regular commentary on the Gîtā, were intended to explain not only the Upanisads but also the Gîtā in The Brahmasūtras. so far as it agrees or seemed to agree with them. They, thus, have a right to be examined for the present inquiry. It is well-known that "api ca smaryate" and similar expressions in the Sūtras refer always to the Gîtā. Though the verses of the Gîtā are referred to in the Sūtras only as a witness for the view of the Sūtrakāra about the Upanisads, and though unlike the latter, they rarely form the vişayavākya of an entire adhikaraņa, the Sūtras' attempt to fix the meaning of the Upnisads which had greatly influenced the Gîtā doctrine is really useful to us for our present purpose. The Sūtrakāra had to consider, among many others, the same terms with which we are confronted in the Gîtā; avyakta (I.4.1-7, in Ka.Up.I.3.11), aksara (I.2.21-23, in Mu.Up.I.1.5-6; and I.3.10-11, in BrUp.III.8.7-8), dhrti (I.3. 16, in Bh.Gì XIII.6), prakṛti (I.4.23), yoni (I.4.27, in Bh.Gì. VII. 6, XIV.3-4), samādhi (II.3.39, in Bh.Gì.II.44.53), para (II. 3.41, III.2.11 etc., in Bh.Gî.II. 59, III.19), avyakta (III.2.23), purusa (I.2.26)—these and many other terms have been either discussed or are used during discussion by the Sūtrakāra. Among the many useful remarks that the Sutrakara makes regarding the terminology concerning akṣara and puruṣa, I may here point out Br. Sū.III.3.52 where he says that "Akṣara and purusa have the same designations in common, but the application of terms in each case to either of them is to be determined by the frequency of their occurrence " (Appendix IV). But what is more important is the aksara-doctrine of the Sūtras in its relation to the purusa-doctrine. As one would expect from an author who lived some centuries after the Earlier Metrical Upanisads, the Gîtā and the Mahābhārata, (and the Buddistic philosophy), we have in the Sūtras an independent view based upon these texts, revealing an age of criticism, that yet remembered the Gîtā doctrine and was thus much earlier than that of Saṅkara. When I discovered that the Sūtrakāra's akṣara-or-puruṣa doctrine was directly based upon the still unforgotten traditions of the akṣara-and-puruṣa doctrine of the Gîtā (though the Sūtrakāra understands them in his own way), the difference between the Sūtrakāra's own teaching and that of his commentators appeared so great that I had to undertake an independent interpretation of the Sūtras concerned, leaving aside the question of critcising the other interpretations. Thus, the Sūtras have given an unexpected help in settling the sense of the term akṣara in the Gîtā.

In this way it will be seen that for fixing the terminology of the Gîtā we have an amount of useful materials coming to our aid.

I must here note that the Gîtā uses a number of expressions Synonyms of akṣara, such as prakṛti, parā prakṛti, mahad brahman, kṣetra, yoni, avyakta, brahman, ātman. A systematic account of these had to be postponed owing to the bulk that this dissertation reached already during the investigation of the term "akṣara", though almost all of these and also some of the terms for the lower Nature had to be indirectly dealt with in course of the study, not only in the light of the evidence of the Gîtā but also in that of the other literature connected with the

Regarding the results of my investigation I feel tempted

Result of the Author's Investigation.

subject.

to say with Kālidasa: "Balavad api sikṣitānām ātmany apratyayam cetaḥ" (Sākuntala I. 2). I confess, I really have such a feeling as regards some of the details of the

interpretations I have given to the various texts. I think however, that my dissertation will show that till now we have either missed or not properly realised the significance of one very important Chapter in the History of Indian Philosophy. The history of the akşara-puruşa conception covers a very long period of metaphysical thought definitely beginning with the age of the Earlier Metrical Upanisads. The view of these was confirmed and amplified by the Gita. This led to the origin and development of the four great philosophical Schools of the Mahābhārata, including the Mahābhārata Sāmkhya School. These, in their turn, were responsible for the establishment of the Vedanta as a system in opposition to other Systems, the earliest account of which can be said to have come down to us in the Brahmasūtras, which, henceforth, became the philosophical Text Book of all the various Branches of the Veda. If my interpretations of these texts, taken in their entirety, are not wrong, that will prove not only the importance of the akṣara-puruṣa doctrine in Indian Metaphysics, but it will also explain the as yet unsolved question of the origin of the Classical Sāmkhya, which should be ultimately traced to the Gîtā theory of two Natures. Moreover, it has been here discovered that the idea of a transcendent God, as we have it in the Classical Yoga School, originated in the rejection of the Upanișadic identity of Jîva and Paramātman. Regarding the texts here dealt with, it is hoped, that the new interpretation given to many verses of the Gita and the reconstruction of the Schools of the later Mahābhārata made in this work will show that this "Great Epic of India" is a much more consistent and much more useful account of the philosophical movements of those days than it has been hitherto believed to be. it is left to the reader how far the pioneer effort made here to present an independent explanation of parts of the Brahmasutras is successful in its aim of discovering the original meaning of that aphoristic work.

In conclusion, it remains to be stated that I have as a rule used the Bombay edition of the Mahabharata; wherever the Kumbhakonam edition was used, it has been so stated. Similarly in case of numbering the Sūtras I have followed Sankara's pātha; otherwise, I have made a note. A list of translations and interpretations of the various texts used by me is given overleaf. I am indebted to most of these for supplying me with a stimulating pūrvapakṣa on a fairly good number of passages.

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The Bhagavadgîtā (Bh. Gî.).

The Brahmasūtras (Br. Sū.).

The Earlier Metrical Upanisads (EMU).

The Later Mahābhārata i.e. the Mahābhārata excluding the Bhagavadgitā (L. MBh.).

The Mahabharata (MBh.).

The Oldest Prose Upanișads (OPU).

#### CHAPTER I.

#### AKŞARA IN THE UPANIŞADS.

The conception of the impersonal Absolute goes back to the Rgveda: "That which is one the wise The Impersonal speak of in various ways" (ekam sad and the Personal in the Vedas. "That one (n.) breathed by its own power in absence of air" (ānīd avātam svadhayā tad ekam-RV. X. 129. 2.). The idea of the personal is also to be traced to the same source: "Purusa alone is all

is also to be traced to the same source: "Puruṣa alone is all this" (puruṣa ev edam sarvam-RV. X. 90. 2).

Again, the Oldest Prose Upanisads know both these conceptions: "Across what then, pray, is the In the Oldest Ether woven, warp and woof? (Br. Up. Prose Upanisads. III. 8.7); He said: 'That, O Gārgî, the Brahman-philosophers call the Immutable (akṣara). It is not coarse, not fine, not short, not long, .....(Br. Up. III. 8.8). Verily, O Gārgî, at the command of that Immutable, the sun and the moon stand separately sus-

tained (Br. Up. III. 8. 9).....Verily, O Gargî, that Immutable is the unseen seer, the unheard hearer, the unthought thinker, the ununderstood understander. Other than it there is naught that sees; other than it there is naught that hears; other than it there is naught that thinks; other than it there is naught that understands' " (Br. Up. III. 3. 11). The personal atman also is described in the same terms in Br. Up. III. 7. 23. About purusa we read: "So much is his greatness, yet purusa this; all beings are one-fourth of him: greater than three-fourths of him, the Immortal (amrta) is in heaven" (Chā. Up. III. 12. 6, RV. X. 90. 3). The purusa in the eye and in the sun are mentioned in Cha. Up. I. 7. 5 and I. 6. 6. The "Golden purusa" is found in Br. Up. IV. 3. 11. Br. Up. also states "I am Brahman" (I. 4. 10.) and "He who is yonder, yonder purusa—I myself am he " (V. 15.1).

Neither the Rgveda nor these oldest Upanisads feel it

The two Conceptions not yet connected.

necessary to consider whether the final reality is personal or impersonal. The Br. Up. even ascribes personal attributes like that of 'commanding' (prasāsana) to the impersonal akṣara. Both the ideas

of akṣara and puruṣa are mentioned here independently of each other. Akṣara is neither identified with puruṣa, nor is it lower than puruṣa. Each by itself is the highest object of human life. The direct effect of akṣara is the first element called Ether; and between akṣara and the Ether, there is no other principle.

But when we come to the Earlier Metrical Upanisads, we find as if their authors were engaged in the problem: "Are akṣara and puruṣa two or one? In what relation do they stand?"

The Mundaka Upanisad in one place preserves an earliest effort aimed as if at solving this problem.

Earliest Solution It thinks it best to identify the two and

Earliest Solution of their Relation.

It thinks it best to identify the two and thus to speak of akṣara-puruṣa "the Immutable [or] the Puruṣa" (Mu. Up. I.2. 13;

Appendix I). The author of this passage was confronted only with the Oldest Prose Upaniṣadṣ; he did not know the "Spiritual Dualism" contained in the "Pluralistic Dualism" of the Mahābhārata Aupaniṣadas, of which we shall have to speak hereafter. He tried to answer the problem of his age: "Is the final reality personal or impersonal?" He acquiesced in simply putting the two conceptions side by side. He may have been encouraged in doing so by those who held that "This shining, immortal puruṣa who is in this earth ...........is just this ātman, this Immortal (amṛta), this Brahman, this All" (Bṛ. Up. II. 5. 1).

But this identification did not satisfy the philosophers of

Further Development: The Impersonal lower than the Personal. the Earlier Metrical Upanisads, who seem to have gone on reasoning "How could the personal and the impersonal be identified? Were they not both of them mentioned separately in the Oldest Prose Upanisads? If they should be kept

separate, what could be their relation? Can the impersonal be

the master of the personal? No. The personal must be higher than the impersonal." This seem to have been the view prevalent during the age of the Earlier Metrical Upanisads. All of them agree in placing puruşa above akşara (Mu.Up. II. 1. 1-2, III. 2. 8; Appendix I; Pr. Up. V. 5. 7; App. I; Sve. Up. I. 7-12, V. I; App. I). The Katha Up. says "Purusa is higher than avyakta" (Ka. Up. III. 11), and in Avyakta, a syno-Tai. Up. II. 5, we read: "Brahman is the nym of aksara. tail (of the blissful atman of the form of purusa)." Such a tendency is already found in Br. Up. where atman (who is identical with aksara in Br. Up. III. 8. 8-11) and purusa called "Aupanisada Purusa " are separately described in the same terms (Br. Up. III. 9. 26) and yet purusa is said to be the last resort (parāyaṇa) of ātman the All (Br. Up. III. 9. 10-17); and where amrta (a synoym of akṣara as in Sve. Up. I. 10) is distinguished from purusa because it is his devatā (Br. Up. III. 9. 10).

But though the impersonal is thus definitely said to be lower than the personal, both of them are the goals (gati, the summum bonum) Both eternal: both for those who desire to be free from the goals: both vidyās. world (Mu. Up. III. 2.8, I. 1.5, III 1.1; App. I). The Mundaka Upanisad (II and III) aims at teaching that both aksara and burusa are objects to be independently pursued by men, though those who meditate on purusa go beyond "the bright one" i. e. akṣara (Mu. Up. III. 2. 1, App. I). The Pr. Up. says that " jivaghana brahmaloka " i.e. aksara is the lower brahman and purusa is the higher brahman (Pr. Up. V. 2, 5-7 App. I). Akşara and puruşa are said to be the goals respectively in Sve. Up. IV. 18, I. 11. Again, the teaching of aksara as well as that of purusa is vidyā "the Lore" (Mu. Up. I. 1. 5, I. 2. 13, II. 1. 10, III. 2. 10). Moreover, both aksara and purusa are eternal and unborn (Mu. Up. I 1. 6, II. 1. 2, Sve. Up. I. 9). To this conception of the impersonal and the personal is to be traced ultimately the earliest germ of the Mahabharata and the Classical Samkhya as we shall see later on.

But, if akṣara and puruṣa are both of them "goals," both

Akşara, a Conscious Cosmic Principle also.

of them "Lores," and both of them eternal, why should the former be lower than the latter? The reason was more a cosmogonical one than either theological or onto-

logical. Brahman or akṣara or avyakta which is lower than the punuṣa (Mu. Up. II. 1. 2; Sve. Up. I. 1. 8; Ka. Up. III. 11) is a living principle (jīvaghana-Pr. Up. V. 5, App. I; prajñānaghana-Br. Up. IV. 5. 13; jīva ātman Chā. Up. VI. 3. 2, VI. 11. 1.); and both akṣara and puruṣa are jointly to produce the world (Mu. Up. II. 1. 5 c-d).

How can these animate and conscious principles produce

Akṣara, the Matrix (yoni).

the inanimate, the unconscious? Here the Earlier Metrical Upanisads contemplate on the nature of the relation between akṣara and puruṣa. The Sve. Up.

has gone further in solving this problem than either Mundaka or Prasna Upanisad. The Mu. Up. said that akṣara is the matrix, yoni, in respect to puruṣa (Mu. Up. III. 1. 3b), and that "the male pours seed into the female" (Mu. Up. II. 1. 5). The Sve. Up. confirms this idea of the relation (Sve. Up. I. 2; VI. 16a, V. 6), but explains it further: akṣara is a power of the

Akṣara, the Power (sakti).

Lord (Sve. Up. III. 3), an unborn female (I. 9); akṣara is the māyā or prakṛli and puruṣa is 'the māyin' the possessor of māyā (IV. 10); and in this respect, not "goal" akṣua is "the ruled" and hunas

in so far as it is a "goal", akṣara is "the ruled" and puruṣa is "the ruler" (while the Jiva is a "not-ruler", Sve. Up. I. 8).

Akşara, a dharma of puruşa. The Sve. Up. is the first to use these terms for explaining akṣara. To put it in the terms of Vedanta philosophy, akṣara is dharma, puruṣa is dharmin. This

seems to be the sense of the higher—ness (paratva) of the purusa, and it is quite consistent with the statement that both akṣara and puruṣa are eternal, that the knowledge of both is Brahmavidyā, and that both are goals. The paratva has

The Doctrine of 'Dualistic Monism.' to do with creation, not with absolution. There is a "Spiritual Dualistic Monism"; together with the Jîva, akşara and puruşa form a Triad, but not three principles (Sve. Up. I. 9, 12).

With the above relation, akṣara and puruṣa set out to

Two Natures in the Earlier Metrical Upanisads.

create the world. At this stage, a new conception enters the field of Indian Philosophy. The authors of the EMU thought that the unconscious world (jada jagat) could only be produced out of an

unconscious principle. They could not think that "the Ether" (ākāsà) was directly the effect of akṣara, as Yājñavalkya had really believed (Br. Up. III. 8. 11; see P. 12 above). said, the unconscious Nature is an effect born of aksara when this falls into pregnancy through purusa (p. 14 above). This Nature is called brahman in Mu. Up. I. 1, 8-9. The Sve. Up. savs that bradhana is the Mutable (I. 10). The Ka. Up. meant the same when it placed mahān ātmā between buddhi and avyakta (III. 10-11, VI. 7). The Ka. Up. is the first to enumerate the principles making the world, in the form of an evolutional series such as becomes common in later philosophy. This Nature from which the world is directly produced is inanimate, while aksara is the animate Nature. As we shall see later on, this distinction between the two Natures continues to be maintained in the Aupanisada School during the period of the Gîtā and the Mahābhārat.

There are many synonyms of akṣara, which rise up during this period of the EMU. The most important of these for the history of Higher Nature.

Indian Philosophy are avyakta (Sve. Up. I. 8; Ka. Up. III. 11) and vidyā (Sve. Up. V. 1, App. I); "prakṛli" may also be noted here (Sve. Up. IV. 10).

The unconscious Nature was called the brahman which is born (Mu. Up. I. 1. 8-9), avidyā (Sve. Terms for the Up. V. 1); kṣara (Sve. Up. I. 8, 10), Lower Nature. and pradhāna (Sve.Up. I. 10). Pradhāna was so called because it was thought to be the first of the produced things. It had not become a technical term even in the days of the Mahābhārata and the Brahmasūtras where we find the word used by different schools in different meanings as it suited them. (See Ch. IV.)

The conception of the paths to reach akṣara or puruṣa has also advanced during this period. Paths leading to This is clear when we contrast the simple akṣara and puruṣa. mention of "jñāna" and "devayāna" in the Oldest Prose Upaniṣads with the statements on the same topic in Mu. Up. III and Sve. Up. VI. 13. This shall be considered along with the teaching of the Gitā on the same subject.

If we compare the idea of aksara in the EMU with that in the OPU, we find that, unlike the Br. Up. (III. 8.9) which makes aksara, Progress during the EMU Period. the impersonal principle, "a ruler" or commander" sustaining by its " a command the world, the Sve. Up. definitely separates the functions of aksara and burusa, and makes only the latter the ruler and sustainer. Sve. Up. I. 8 says that the Lord, aksara and the Jiva are the ruler, the ruled and not-ruler respectively. Sve. Up. I. 9 a-b and IV. 5 state that all these three are "unborn". Sve. Up. I. 12 explains the same three as "the inciter", presitr, "the object of enjoyment", bhogya, and "the enjoyer", bhoktr. The lower Nature is kşara or pradhana (Sve. Up. I. 10) or vyakta (Sve. Up. I. 8); it is called vyakta because the Sve. Up, which mentions aksara as the only avyakta, does not yet know the theory of two avyaktas of the Gîta (Bh. Gî. VIII. 19-21, App. I and II); but this lower Nature is not "unborn" and is not to be included in the Triad. The term "brahmam" seems to have been used here for the Triad specially to distinguish it as a whole from akşara Idea of Trinity or isa either of which could be called in the Sve. Up. Brahman (n.). Though the "brahmam" may mean a Brahman-song elsewhere, such a sense cannot be reasonably attributed to the term here. "Brahmam" (Sve. Up. I. 9,12) is equivalent to "paramam brahma" in Sve. Up. I. 7. The three are traya or three (Sve. Up. I. 7,9), but they form a three-fold reality called "trividham brahmam" (Sve. Up. I. 12). We shall see later on how the authors of the Mahabharata (XII. 217) used this passage of the Sve. Up. to express their own idea of a Tetrad.

## CHAPTER II.

# AKSARA IN THE BHAGAVADGITA.

The Gita accepts the distinction between aksara and purusa, taught originally in the Earlier Metrical Upanisads. Akṣara is not to be identified with puruṣa (Bh. Gî. VIII. 3-4, 10-11, 21-22; XII. 1-4; XV. 16-18; App. II.); purușa is beyond (para) akṣara (VIII. 21-22; XV. 18; Aksara and purusa App. II); as an object of meditation and two "goals" as in as a "goal" akṣara is not dependent on purusa (VIII. 11; XII. 1). The aksara-EMU. meditators may even be said to reach the burusa (Bh. Gî. XII. 4); or else those who have reached aksara or Brahman, make a further progress and reach the purusa (Bh. Gî. XVIII. 53-55; App. II). In this last point the Gîtă seems to develop the earlier akșara-doctrine. The Gîtă prefers the meditation on purusa to that on aksara, because the former is easier than the latter (Bh. Purusa the Pre- Gî. XII. 5). Purusa is the "presiding deity", adhidaivata (VIII. 4, 22; App. II), siding Deity. and presides over aksara which is his "abode" dhāman (Bh. Gî. VIII. 21, 3, 11). This idea of dhaman appears originally in the Mu. Up. (III. 2.

Akṣara, the abode. 1-4; App. I) and the Gîtă develops it.

The word "pada" is used for "dhāman"
in Bh. Gî. XV. 4 (as probably in Ka. Up. III. 11.)

One older word for akṣara, used in the Gitā is Brahman.

It should be here pointed out that the Brahman, a Sy-Gitā is always careful not to identify nonym of akṣara.

puruṣa with Brahman, because the latter stands for akṣara which is different from and lower than puruṣa. Kṛṣṇa is identified with puruṣa, and

not with Brahman. Even Garbe finds that in reply to Arjuna's

Brahman, not identified with Kṛṣṇa or puruṣa.

question: "What is that Brahman?" (Bh. Gî. VIII. 1), Kṛṣṇa does not say "I am that Brahman", but says that Brahman is akṣara (Bh. Gî. VIII. 3;

App. II). It would have been better if Garbe had accepted as genuine this position of the Gîtā

Brahman in Gîtā VIII. as genuine this position of the Gîtă as regards the relations of Brahman or akṣara and puruṣa, as he actually found it in the Gîtā itself. In Bh. Gî. XIV.

26-27, puruşa or Kṛṣṇa who is identified with puruşa is stated to be the foundation, pratişthā, of Brahman In Gîta XIV or aksara. If we accept this statement of

In Gîtă XIV. or akṣara. If we accept this statement of the Gîtā that Kṛṣṇa or puruṣa is different

from akṣara or Brahman, we can clearly understand the teaching of the Gitā. Bh. Gi. VI. 27-29 explains the method of dhyāna as applied to Brahman (the word "ātman" was also used in those days for

In Gîtă VI. "ātman" was also used in those days for akṣara or Brahman, as in Mu. Up. II. 2.

3-5, see App. I), and the same is said also of Krsna i.e. purusa in VI. 30-32. Bh. Gi. VI. 27-32 is no interpolation, because it does not say that "Kṛṣṇa is Brahman"; it distinguishes the two and only teaches the same method as to the attainment of In Bh. Gî. VIII. 1-4 Brahman is explained as akşara, and purușa or Kṛṣṇa as the adhidaivata; the adhiyajña (VIII. 4c-d) is not "an answer by Kṛṣṇa regarding himself"; it refers to the Yajña-philosophy of the Gîta according to which every act of a man is a yajña and every man is the purusa. That the purusa mentioned in VIII. 4b is "the answer by Kṛṣṇa regarding himself" can be easily seen by a glance at VIII. 5-14 which verses speak of Krsna as if he were identified with purusa. Kṛṣṇa's being pratisthā " the foundation" of Brahman (XIV. 26-27) means that purusa is the adhidaivata of akṣara. (VIII. 3-4); Kṛṣṇa is identified with purusa, not with "the God", or "a demi-god", or "the Impersonal". In XVIII. 50-53, 54-55, Kṛṣṇa is not identified

In Gîta XVIII. with Brahman; but it is said that after reaching Brahman one can by further development reach purusa who is higher than aksara.

Vāsudevah sarvam (Bh. Gî. VIII. 19, XI. 40) is not different from purusa ev edam sarvam (RV. X. 90. 2). Similarly, the other verses of the Meaning of "Vāsudevah sarvam" in seventh Adhyava of the Gita will be explained without any difficulty, if we Gîta VII. accept the Gîta's own words that puruşa is higher than akṣara, and if we remember that this puruṣa is the Aupanisada purusa, and that according to the Gita both of them are "goals" to be reached by the same methods. In Bh. Gî. X. 12; XI. 18, 17; VII. 19; XI. 40 it is not that the re-editor has not "shrinked from asserting out and out the identity of Krsna with Brahman" (Garbe, IBG, p. 7) as he had done in Bh. Gi. VIII. 1-4; but Krsna is here said to be both Brahman or akşara and purusa (X. 12; XI. 18; XI. 37-38); Brahman in Gîtā X and XI. similarly he is also Vāyu, Yama, etc. etc. (XI. 39). When in the famous Rg-verse the one Being is identified with Agni, Varuna, Indra, etc., or when in Nārada's prayer in MBh. XII. 338, Nārāyana is said to be Purusa (8), Pradhāna (12), Sacrifice (67), Pāñcarātrika (67), Samkhya, Yoga (78) etc., we should suppose that each of these passages was composed at different periods part by part as the different identifications arose, if we accept Prof. Garbe's explanation of Bh. Gi. X. 12 etc. A comparison of Bh. Gî. V. 14-17 with V. 18-26 will show that they teach the attainment of purusa and Brahman respectively through the same means In Gîta V. viz., the path of Yoga; in V. 19 Brahman is said to be free from faults and impartial, while the same is said of prabhu, the Lord, in V. 14; as distinguished from the Yogas following the path of purusa, who dedicate their intellect and mind, and devote themselves to purusa or prabhu (17), the Yogas following the path of akṣara are here taught to turn their mind inward and find pleasure and peace and light within themselves (24 a-b, 21 lb). One can dedicate all his actions to Brahman (IV. 24, V. 10) or to purușa (IX. 16). Bh. Gî. IV. 35 and In Gita IV. VI. 30 say that one can see all beings in Kṛṣṇa or puruṣa and vice versa; the same is said of akṣara or ātman in VI. 28-29 where the word ātman is used for Brahman. In fact there are two or Grahman and puruṣa or Krsna; and there are many paths

to attain either of the two. If the Gîtā offers any teaching regarding these two, it is that the two are never to be identified. Both can be reached by the same means, as said in XII. 1 and therefore the Gîtā is against their identification All the so-called Vedantic interpolations assumed by Prof.

Garbe can be understood as genuine Prof. Garbe's parts of the Gîtā if we accept the Gîtā's View untenable. own view regarding the relation of akṣara and puruṣa. Kṛṣṇa is puruṣa, not akṣara.

This can be easily seen if we contrast the Gîtā with the Pāñca-rātra texts of the Mahābhārata (see Ch. III) or with the Bhāgavata Purāṇa.

Though, as a goal akṣara is independent of puruṣa, in the process of creation this is not the case. The Gita's doctrine of akṣara as one of the two goals is the same as that of the EMU. What the Gita particularly seems to contribute to the philosophy of those days is its teaching about akṣara

as a partner of the *puruṣa* in the act Gìta's Distinction of creation, and this was done by disbetween the two tinguishing *akṣara* from the unconscious Natures. Nature or *brahman* of Mu. Up. I. 1. 9.

Let us therefore briefly notice the Gîta's

contrast of the higher Nature with the lower one. Akṣara is here also a conscious living Nature Akṣara, the High- (VII. 5; cetanā in XIII. 6) as in Pr. Up.

Akṣara, the Higher (VII. 5; cetana in XIII. 6) as in Pr. Up. er Nature, a V. 5 (see p. 13) and the upholding Living, Spiritual (dhṛti) of the world is here also one of its functions (Bh. Gî. XIII. 6; VII. 5; Bṛ. Up. III. 8. 9; Br. Sū. I. 3. 10, 16). For

this reason it would not be accepted as the direct cause of the

world. So akṣara is in the Gîtā the cause of brahman "the lower Nature", as in the Muṇḍaka Upaniṣad (Bh. Gî. III. 15; Mu. Up. 1. 1. 9); and this

lower Nature becomes (through activity or karman) the

cause of the creation ( III. 15; App. II ). This relation of aksara and this brahman is the same as that in Mu. Up. I. 1. 9 i. e. the latter is "born" of the former. Aksara may be called parā prakṛti, and the brahman aparā prakṛti (VII. 4-5); in contrast with the latter which is called brahman

Synonyms of akşara.

(III. 15) akṣara may be called mahad brahman (XIV. 3). The higher Nature may be called the sanatana avyakta or aksara (VIII. 20-21); the lower Nature

is avyakla technically so called (VIII. 18; XIII. 5; App. II).

Gîta's Theory of two avyaktas or two prakṛlis.

The union of the higher Nature and the purusa leads to the birth of "all beings" (VII. 6; XIV. 3; XIII. 26). Akṣarā is called also ksetra (XIII. 6, 26) or simply prakrli (XIII. 19) and is eternal (anādi

or sanātana, as in VIII. 20) like purusa (XIII 19). associates the three gunas only with the lower Nature (III.

The Higher Nature, eternal.

27, etc.), and "karman" activity is the latter's special attribute (III. 15). Māyā in here the lower Nature (Cf. 27 with VII. 14-15). But though the

The Lower Na-Material ture, a Principle.

Gîtā thus makes a minute distinction between the lower Nature, the higher Nature and the purusa, it should be noticed that these three are not enume-

rated in the Gîtā as three principles; the lower Nature is twice said to be the effect of aksara (III. 15; IX. 7-10), but the higher Nature is eternal like

Difference between the Gîtā and the L. MBh.

burusa as we saw above, and the relation of these last two may not have been considered by the Gîtā to be really more than that of dhaimadhaimibhava.

This is clear from the statement that even the akşara-worshippers, in a sense, reach the purusa.

Unlike the Sve. Up. (I. 8) and Ka. Up. (III. 11) the Gîtā knows two avyaktas (VIII. 18-20, XIII. 5), and while the Sve. Up. understood kṣara to mean pradhāna and explained kṣara as vyakta; the Gîtā says

Progress durings the Gîta Period.

that kṣara consists of "all beings" (Bh. Gî. VIII. 18-19;

VIII. 4; III. 14-15; XV. 16) and that "all manifestations" vyaktis arise from the lower Unmanifest which is lower than the higher or "cternal" avyakta called akṣara (VIII. 18-21). Equally important with the mention of these two avyaktas is that of two prakṛtis in the Gîtā, while the Sve. Up. (IV. 10) knew only one principle called prakṛti which is the higher one of the Gîtā. These two avyaktas and two prakṛtis were the chief points round which, as we shall see in the next Chapter, the Mahābhārata philosophers centred their discussions.

Of greater historical worth than its contribution to the metaphysics of the day, was the Gita's ethical and religious teaching. This was its doctrine about the three great paths of absolution: the sāmkhya, the yoga, and the upāsanā or the bhakti paths. The Gitā says that akṣara or puruṣa can be reached by any one of the many paths

The Three Great (Bh. Gî. IV. 11, 25-30; IX. 15). Bh. Gî. Paths of the Gîtā. XIII. 24-25 gives the names of these as dhyānayoga, sāmkhyayoga, karmayoga,

and the path of pure  $up\bar{a}san\bar{a}$  i.e.  $up\bar{a}san\bar{a}$  not accompanied by knowledge. The first three are also mentioned under the names of dhyāna, jūāna and karmaphalatyāga in Bh. Gî. XII. 12. The three paths of bhakti, jūāna and karman are also to be found in Bh. Gî. IX. 13-14, 15 and 16 respectively. The path of devotion is preached throughout the Gitā (XIII. 25; IV. 10; VII. 16; IX. 13-14, 32-33; XII. 1-2; XVIII. 55). The path of complete self-surrender and divine grace may have been meant in XVIII. 62, 64-66 and XI. 47-48, though the Gitā does not seem to distinguish it from the path of devotion, in the way it distinguishes between  $s\bar{a}mkhya$  and yoga or  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$  and karman. Each of these is not exclusive of the rest, but one particular idea is prominent in each. Dhyāna may have been helpful to all those who aspired after liberation.

Here we are concerned chiefly with sāmkhya and yoga. These terms occur only once in Sve. Up. viz., VI. 13, where the context shows that they are names of paths to reach the goal; there is no word to indicate that they stand there for philosophical schools of those names; on the contrary it seems that in the Sve. Up. they are less sharply contrasted with each

other than in the Gita. That the Gita knows these terms only

Sāmkhya and yoga in the Gita, only two Paths, not two Schools.

as paths can be proved from the fact that Arjuna is asked to follow either of the two paths sāmkhya and yoga (II. 39; III. 3; V. 1-5; VI. 1-2; XIII. 24; XVIII. 1, 49-55, 56). If sāmkhya and yoga had been two schools of those names at

that time, the author of the Gitā who belonged to neither of these but to the Aupaniṣada School, would not have asked Arjuna to follow either of these. Sāṃkhya is a synonym for sannyāsa (V. 1-5; VI. 2; XVIII.1; XVIII. 50-55) or jñāna (III.3; IX. 15; XII. 12, XVIII. 50-55); and yoga means the path of action, the more complete name being karmayoga (III. 3; V. 1-2, 4-5; XIII 24d; XIII. le; XVIII. 56). If these terms had any other signification at that time, who could have profited by these explanations assigned to them in the Gitā?

I should here draw attention to the necessity of rendering " $s\bar{a}mkhya$ " in the Gîtā by "renunciation" rather than by "knowledge". The origin of the  $s\bar{a}mkhya$  path is to be traced to the belief in  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$  or  $vidy\bar{a}$  as a means for absolution; and this word " $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ " was originally used to imply renunciation

Sāṃkhya, sannyāsa rather than jñāna. of actions though the latter may have meant only sacrificial actions. "Avidyā" meant sacrificial rites (Ka. Up. II. 4-5; Cf. Mu.Up. I. 2. 8), and vidyā the Aupanişadic

knowledge in contrast to these; when the term parā vidyā was used for the latter, aparā vidyā was used

Jñāna, the reverse of karman i.e. sannyāsa in the EMU.

for the latter, apara viaya was used for the former, as in Mu. Up. I. 1. 4. where vidyā is contrasted with the Vedic rites. But the contrast between these two careers for life (niṣṭhā) is brought out most clearly in Mu. Up. 1. 2. Avidyā

(in Mu. Up. 1. 2. 9a) is explained as karman in "Yat karmiṇah......" (Mu. Up. I. 2. 9c); and so the life of begging, bhaikṣacaryā (Mu. Up. I. 2. 11.), stands for vidyā. This passage of Mu. Up. is a record of the later form of a conflict between the followers of the Vedic path of actions and those of "renuncia-

tion of those actions" called jñāna, such as we read of in Chā. Up. V. 10 which uses the term "pathas" for the two paths (Chā. Up. V. 10. 8.), characterises them as "light" and "smoke" (Chā. Up. V. 10. 1 and 3) and calls them "devayāna" and "pitṛyāṇa" (Chā. Up. V. 10. 2, 4). The same two paths are described in Ka. Up. 1. 3. The words "in the forest" (araṇye-Chā. Up. V. 1. 1) and "the life of begging" (bhaikṣacaryā-Mu. Up. I. 2. 11) are indicative of "renunciation" sannyāsa, a word not known to these earlier Upaniṣads and therefore not to be expected therein. This latter term came into vogue for the first time in the days of the Gîtā, which uses both the terms

Yoga in the Gita, inclusive of jñāna i. e. the Knowledge of Atman.

jñāna and sannyāsa as synonyms (Bh. Gî. III. 4, V. 1-2). In the Gîtā, karman or karmayoga or yoga, as it is often called, is not unaccompanied by knowledge, as it was the case with the path of "karman" in the earlier Upaniṣads. Bh.

Gî. II. 53 says that the sthitaprajña described in II. 54-72 is a follower of the yoga and a glance at his picture will show that he lacks no knowledge. Bh. Gî. III. 3-4 will show that sāmkhya is primarily concerned with sannyāsa, and yoga with action, while neither is particularly a path of knowledge. Whenever Arjuna is asked to perform the actions of his life, he is advised to do so after having attained knowledge (IV. 15). The illustration of Janaka as follower of the path of karman proves the same (III. 20). Karman or yoga by itself attains the same fruit as sāmkhya or sannyāsa (V. 4-5). Instead of jāāna, sannyāsa is opposed to karma or yogan in V. 1-2 and other places. It is well known that the predecessor of Sankara had

Yoga, jñana plus karman.

explained jñānakarmasamuccaya to be the teaching of the Gîtā. If the Gîtā opposed pure action (i.e. action without knowledge) to knowledge or renunciation

and said that either of the two leads to the same goal, one fails to understand how it could teach such a doctrine. When the Gîtă sometimes uses the term  $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$  in place of the clearer term  $sanny\bar{a}sa$ , it does so because it retains the older usage of the term while it admits or probably employs for the first time

the new expression.

Sāmkhya, jñāna plus sannyāsa.

All these points show, that in the Gîta sāmkhya is an equivalent of sannyāsa, i. e. jñānasamuccitasannyāsa, just as voga is one of karman i. e. jñānasamuccitakarman. Lastly, if we look to the

L.MBh. we find that the Samkhya is specially associated with asceticism, and, as I shall show later on, the L.MBh. Yoga has its own metaphysical theories (Ch. III), which could not have developed if yoga in the Gîta had meant actions without knowledge. For these reasons, I believe, it would be more accurate to explain the term sāmkhya in the Gîtā as renunciation than as knowledge (Bh. Gî. III. 4; V. 1-2). In the Gita "knowledge" does not imply renunciation (Prof. Edgerton, AIP. XLV, 1924), but it is renunciation itself. In the Gita sāmkhya differs from the yoga only renunciation as this o f actions concerned. There is hardly any other point of difference

Prof. Edgerton's View untenable.

between the two paths, so far as the Gita is concerned. The association of sāmkhya with renunciation is not incidental but inherent (Edgerton, AJP, p. 32). To say otherwise is to deprive the Gîtā of its special contribution to the Indian religion and ethics.

The above discussion as regards the meanings of sāmkhya

Meaning of "Sāmkhya and yoga are one" in the Gîfa.

and yoga shows that when the Gîta says: "Sāmkhya and yoga are one" (V. 5c-d), it means that both are independent paths to either of the two "goals" of the Gîtā, akşara and puruşa. A confusion has arisen

regarding the meaning of this and similar statements in the Gîtā. because such statements are also made with regard to the Sāmkhy and Yoga Schools of the L. MBh. and the Classical ones. It seems that at each of these three periods in Indian Philosophy, the saying about the unity or identity of the two had quite different meanings and therefore we must interpret

not of Paths.

it always with reference to the context. Identity of Goals, The Gîta explains it in the words: "The same place (i.e. akṣara or puruṣa) as is reached by the samkhya-followers is also

reached by the yoga-followers" (V. 5 a-b), and "One who has

properly resorted to either of the two, gains the fruit of both" (V.4c-d). They are two independent paths, not two steps on the same path as Sankara believes, nor does

Prof. View untenable.

it mean that "the same system is both Hopkin's Samkhya and Yoga, the system being double but the teaching being identical," as Prof. Hopkins holds. As we have seen,

the path of sannyāsa accompanied by knowledge was already known before the Gîta was written, though under the names of

Yoga Path, the Gîta's special contribution.

bhaikscaryā etc., and the path of actions not accompanied by knowledge was also well known (Mu. Up. I. 2. 9-11). The Gita was the first to put forth systematically a third path viz., the path of actions

accompanied by knowledge and in doing so said that the first and the last are the only paths, the middle one being considered fit to be condemned (Bh. Gî. II. 41-45 and Mu. Up. I. 2. 1-9); and that out of the remaining two the latter was preferable (II. 40; III. 4; V. 2; VI. 1-2).

But the Gîtă as we have it before us betrays more than the knowledge of sāmkhya as a mere path. Though the expression "guna-samkhyāna" cannot in itself suggest any reference to sāmkhya as a school, because "the discrimination of the three constituents" seems to have originated in the Aupanisada School (of the Gîtă) and to have been adopted later on by all the philosophical schools that followed it; yet "sāmkhye kṛtānte"

Gîta XVIII. 13, a Reference to Samkhya as a School.

(Bh. Gî. XVIII. 13) is the one undoubted reference in the Gîtā to a philosophical school of the name of sāmkhya which could not be directly described as a darsana or sastra but only as the "samkhya

in which the teaching is settled" ( kṛtānta-siddhānta ). This expression, though not implying a complete system of philosophy, as is shown by its contents, goes against Prof. Edgerton's

view that nowhere in the Gîtā, the sām-Prof. Edgerton's khya has to do with the discussion of philosophical truth (AJP. Vol. XLV. View untenable. 1924). The followers of the path of samkhya believed that "all action" belonged to prakrti, the

lower Nature, as did also the followers of yoga and bhakti. But a few of the former who seem to have differed on the point, held that the individual soul is one of the agents (XVIII. 15). While the Gitā as a whole objected

Individual Soul, an Agent.

to attributing a n y agency, kartriva, to the individual soul, these sāmkhya-separatists, as we may aptly call them, obiected to attributing the whole agency

to the individual soul. Both the followers of sāmkhya and the sāmkhya-separatists must have accepted akṣara and puruṣa as the "goals"-the then prevailing conceptions of summum bonum. The belief that the individual soul is an agent must have been originally the reason why the Sāmkhya-followers insisted upon sannyāsa. Bh. Gì. XVIII. 12-16 only shows that some of the followers of the samkhya-path of the Gîta had begun to take interest in philosophical discussions, especially in that on the origin of kartytva, the most burning question of the time when the Gîtā was written. These sāmkhya-separatists seem to have survived in the form of the later Mahābhārata Sām-

Survival of that View in L. MBh.

khyas, who also held that the Atman is an agent (MBh. XII. 315.7-9; see Ch. III ). But the sāmkhya-followers of the Gîta seem to have merged into the

Aupanisada School of the Mahabharata, the question of sannyasa having probably come to rest by the doctrine of the four āsramas or stages of life of which the Gîtā knows little. Thus, as regards the Gita, not only is the samkhya to be understood

as brahmavidyā (Dahlmann, Nirvāna, Dr. Dahlmann's View, amplified.

P. 165), but even yoga and bhakti or ubāsanā are also brahmavidya or rather we should say, all the three are paths

to brahmavidyā, because in the Gîtā as in the EMU, the brahmavidyā deals with akṣara and puruṣa, and sāmkhya, yoga, and bhakti are means to it.

Regarding yoga, the reader may be reminded that the Gîtă knows two technical meanings of **Technical** Two the term, viz., "karmayoga" and "dhyana-Meanings of "yoga", yoga", both of which had no special in the Gîtă. metaphysical doctrines of their own (except that the "goal" was aksara or purusa). In the days of the later Mahābhārata, they reach the status of philosophical Schools, as also do the sāmkhya-followers.

The Gita's path of bhakti, upāsanā, grace or complete self-surrender (Bh. Gi. XI. 47-48; XVIII. 65-66; IX. 26; X. 9) arose from an earlier movement (Sve. Up. VI. 18, 23; Mu. Up. III. 2. 3-4). In the Gita, bhakti leads to aksara or to

votion and Medita. tion.

purușa (see "bhaktāh" in Bh. Gî. XII. 1) The Path of De- because upāsanā is not yet completely separated from bhakti. But this upāsanā or bhakti is according to the Gita "oneminded" (VIII. 22; IX. 22; XI. 54; IX.

30), and that of the personal purusa is preferable because it is easier than that of the impersonal akşara (XII. 5).

The point to be noticed most of all is that the Aupanisadas of the Gitā admit the alternative of On e Aupani- akṣara and puruṣa, so that the Gitā has sada School with only one Aupanisada School, and not two. Moreover the samkhya- yoga- and three Paths. bhakti-paths of the Gitā do not discuss what are the final principles, what is their number, and how they are mutually related These and other problems are attempted for the first time in the later Mahābhārata. the Gîtă has only one philosophical school with three paths.

Lastly, if it be asked, whether there was a re-edition of the "original" Gîtă, I would venture to suggest that at first the Gîtă taught the The Possible Resāmkhya and yoga paths to reach aksara edition of the Gita. or purusa, and afterwards the path of bhakti was added to these. We have already seen that the path of pure karman and that of pure jñāna which must have arisen from the Vedas-and-Brahmanas and Upanisads respectively, were supplanted by the Gita's teaching about yoga i. e. jñānakarmasamuccaya. This latter may have been in course supplemented by the path of bhakti, which also admitted the possibility of a compromise between pure action or karman and pure knowledge or sannyāsa (see Bh. Gî. V. 29; IX. 24, 27; cf. also the performance of sacrifices in the L.MBh. Pañcaratra School). And this was incorporated into the Gita as a third alternative career (niṣṭhā) in addition to the two it had already, viz., sāmkhya and yoga. During all these

stages the philosophical theory inherited

No Doctrinal Change in the Reedition.

from the time of the EMU continued unaltered, and the sāmkhya and yoga continued to be mere paths, and not schools. Thus, when the bhaktivoga

was recognised as a path, it was a path to akṣara or puruṣa (Bh. Gî. XII. 1). Puruṣottama was substituted for puruṣa, but then akṣara and kṣara came to be described as puruṣas (Bh. Gì. XV. 16-18; App. II). This shows that the re-edition must have taken place long before the formation of the Mahābhārata Pāñcarātra School which identified akṣara and puruṣa (see Ch. III).

### CHAPTER III.

# AKSARA IN THE LATER MAHĀBHĀRATA.

When one speaks of the later Mahābhārata philosophy, he must distinguish not only between four different Schools but also between the Chapters describing them. MBh. XII. 182-253, 302-317, 308, and 334-352 respectively deal with the MBh. Aupaniṣada, Sāṃkhya, Yoga and Pāñcarātra Schools. The words Sāmkhya and Yoga are almost entirely wanting in

Distinction between the Chapters of the Four Schools in L. MBh. necessary.

182-253 and if they occur they invariably show that the author is referring to those Schools by way of explaining his own (i.e. Aupaniṣada) School. Thus, 234. 28--30 is found to be a cursory reference to the Sāṃkhya and Yoga Schools, if we look to what precedes and follows these verses.

Similarly, 210. 9-10 and 14 refer to the Pañcaratra School by such words as "viduḥ" and "vadanti"; the doctrine contained in these verses is that which we find in the Narayaṇiya Section (MBh. XII. 334-352). On the contrary 302-307 and 309-317 give the principles which are common to both Saṃkhya and Yoga, and also those which are peculiar to Saṃkhya only, and even Prof. Hopkins says that 308 records the teaching of the

Yoga School only. Prof. Edgerton's Prof. Edgerton. contention that the principles described in 308 belong to both the Sāṃkhya and Yoga (Schools) is based upon the grave misunderstanding that the terms "sāṃkhya" and "yoga", even in the later Mahābhārata, denote only two paths of these names and in no way two

Prof. Hopkins and Prof. Hopkins have not admitted Prof. Deussen.

This four-fold division of the Chapters of MBh. XII; they have not distinguished the Aupanişada School (182-253) from the Samkhya and Yoga

Schools (301-317); and this mistake has led them to a great confusion as regards the teaching of these Schools, as is evident from Prof. Hopkins' constant complaint that the author or authors of the Mahābhārata have tried to Vedanticise the Sāṃkhya doctrine, and also from the wrong interpretations of the MBh. philosophical texts given by Prof. Deussen in his Translation, which shall be pointed out in the following pages.

Even Dr. Frauwallner who deals with Dr. Frauwallner some of the Chapters (182-253) as "non-Sāṃkhyist texts" seems to understand these as containing a pre-Classical Sāṃkhya doctrine, but not an Aupaniṣada one (JAOS. Vol. 45, p. 201, p. 203, p. 204), though, as he himself points out in most of the cases, the verses (in Ch. 194, 219, 201-206) are closely connected with the Upaniṣads. Prof. Jacobi's belief that the basis of the Epic

Sāṃkhya was the Classical Sāṃkhya is Prof. Jacobi. Sāṃkhya was the Classical Sāṃkhya is founded upon what he understands to be contradictory statements in the Mahābhā-

rata, viz., that "the Sāṃkhya teaches only twentyfive principles" (MBh. XII. 307.47; 308.14; 318.35), and, again, that, "Brahman is the Twentysixth" (e. g. MBh. XII. 308). (See Prof. Jacobi, Ueber das urspruengliche Yogasystem, p. 4.) He thinks that the series of twentyfive principles was the original one and then Brahman was added as the Twentysixth. His chief reason is that Brahman stands as the Twentysixth. But if we look to the Earliest Metrical Upanisads and the Gîtā, we

The Series of 26
Principles older alrethan their Enumeration and Numerical Designations.

learn that the series of twentysix principles was already known though the principles were then not counted and consequently the numerical designations. Twentyfourth,

Twentyfifth, and Twentysixth not given to the highest three principles. Thus, five (subtle) elements, five (gross elements or) "objects" (viṣayas or arthas), ten organs of sense and action, the Mind, the Self-consciousness, the Intellect, the lower Nature, the higher Nature, and puruṣa make up a series of twentysix principles; and such a series, at least that including

the last six of these is already mentioned in Ka. Up.III. 10-11, Bh. Gî. VII.4-6; and the two Natures and burusa are also to be found in the numerous passages from the Gîtā and the Earlier Metrical Upanisads quoted in Ch. I. This shows that the series of evolution was known long before the number and numerical designations of the principles came into vogue. Neither the Ka. Up. nor the Gita knows any thing about these latter. this sense the series of the twentysix principles was the original one and that of the twentyfive was arrived at by rejecting one (viz., the higher Nature) of the twentysix, as we shall see. The Mahabharata Samkhyas were the philosophers to count principles and at the same time to reject the higher Nature; but, then, at the same time the Mahābhārata accepted the fashion Aupanisadas the day by counting their including the principles higher Nature. It is always said in the Mahabharata, as Prof. Jacobi himself notes, that the Samkhyas have twentyfive and only twentyfive principles; and I must add that when a twentysixth principle is mentioned, it is never said to belong to the Samkhya School ( see below ). Thus, Prof. Jacobi's contention that the series of twentyfive was the original one is only partly right; it is right in so far as the counting is concerned, but not from the standpoint of the series itself. Therefore, I believe, my proposal to divide the Chapters of MBh. XII in the manner I have done above, will prove acceptable.

I have already said above that immediately after the Sāṃkhyas started the mode of counting and numbering the metaphysical principles, the Aupaniṣadas adopted the fashion. It should be mentioned further that this was the case also

Numerical Designations adopted by all the Four L. MBh. Schools.

with the Yogas and the Pāñcarātras of the days of the MBh. All the four Schools gave numerical designations to their more important principles. The Sāṃkhyas had only twentyfive principles 47: 308 14:318 35); they held that

(MBh. XIII. 307. 47; 308. 14; 318. 35); they held that

the Nature, which for them is only one, is the Twentyfourth and that the Lord or Visnu who is identical with the Jîva is the Twentyfifth Samkhya, a School of only 25 Princi-(302. 38, 39; 305. 37–39; 306. 36; 306. 39, 40, 42, 43-44; 307. 2, 8, 9, 40). ples. The Yogas called the Nature the Twentyfourth, the Jiva the Twentyfifth, and Brahman or the Lord the Twentysixth. This differ e n c e between the L.MBh. Samkhya Yoga, a School and Yoga Schools has been till now of 26 Principles. overlooked. The Yoga Chapter in the MBh. (XII. 308) is emphatic in asserting that the only twentyfive principles (XII. 308. Sāmkhyas have 14, 25; see also 307. 47) and the same chapter is equally emphatic in stating that from the Yoga-standpoint the Jîva is the Twentyfifth and Brahman the Twentysixth (308.6,7). MBh. XII. 348. 17 clearly says that "The budhyamana (i. e. the Twentyfifth) is 'devoid of intellect (buddhi)' (as compared) with the prabuddha the Twentysixth; this is said to be the difference (nanatva) of the Yoga School from the teaching of the Samkhya Sruti". This very idea is given in verses 6-7 of the same Chapter where we read that " The Twentyfifth knows the Unmanifest (i. e. the Nature) but even he does not know the Twentysixth who eternally knows the Twntyfifth and the Twentyfourth (i. e. the Nature)". In my opinion this should leave no doubt that the Brahman which is described as the Twentysixth in this Chapter (308) is neither a Samkhya nor an Aupanisada Twentysixth, but only a Yoga Twentysixth. The non-admission of this evidently clear statement of the L. MBh. is one of the causes that have led my predecessors in the field to various curious theories such as those pointed out above. As we shall see later on, there was another Yoga School in the days of L. MBh., which regarded puruşa as the Twentysixth. Another fact which we have to admit is that the Aupanisadas of the L. MBh. had also a Twentysixth principle; and this was Aupanisada, a naturally the puruşa; they did not distin-26 School of guish the Jîva from this purusa, and Principles. consequently they held the

to be the Twntyfifth but called it the unfallen

5

Nature

Twentyfifth (acyuta pañcavimsaka-318. 57ff.) in order to distinguish it from the Twentyfifth of other Schools, specially the Samkhya. According to these Aupaniṣadas, the lower Nature was the Twentyfourth. This nomenclature of the L.MBh. Aupaniṣadas has been preserved for us in MBh. 318. 55-82. The Chapter (318) as a whole states the Aupaniṣada doctrine and clearly says that the Twentyfifth (i.e. the higher Nature) of the Aupaniṣadas was rejected by the Samkhya and the Yogas. Prof. Hopkins' explanation of "acyuta pañcavinisa" as denoting an attempt of the Aupaniṣadas to foist their own view that "the Jiva is destructible in Paramātman" on the

Mistakes of Prof. Hopkins and Prof. Deussen. Sāṃkhyas who rejected it, is quite unacceptable ( Prof. Hopkins, GEI p. 137). This is so because no Indian School of philosophy has ever said that the Jîva is destroyed in Paramātman and also beca-

use the context (sāsvata avyakta-318.56) clearly shows that the "acyuta pañcaviṃsa" is the higher Nature of the Aupaniṣadas. The same has got to be said with regard to Prof. Deussen's translation of the verses in question (VPTM pp. 665 ff.). His interpretation of verses 318.56 etc. seems to suggest that he himself had a doubt as regards what he was writing. Lastly I have to note that even the Pañcarātras did not withhold

Păñcarătra, a School of 25 Principles.

themselves from following the usual custom of the philosophical Schools of the day. They named their highest principle (i. e. puruṣa identified with the higher Nature, as we shall see later

on) the Twentyfifth (MBh. XII. 339. 24), and therefore their Twentyfourth would be the Nature which they regarded as "born" of the Twentyfifth (see Ch. III). If we do not lose sight of this fact of the nomenclature of those days, the number of the so-called inconsistent statements in the L. MBh. will be reduced a great deal.

## 1. The Aupanișada School.

It is noteworthy that MBh. XII. 182-253 which gives the chief Aupanişada doctrine exhibits a complete unity of teach-

Impressive Consistency of the "para-ladder" Accounts of the Aupanisada School.

ing if we examine it in the light of the EMU and the Gitā. This becomes evident if we try to understand the "para-ladders" so called by Prof. Hopkins. These are found in L. MBh. XII. 204. 10-11; 204. 19-20: 210. 14, 23, 26-28; 210. 35-39; 213. 12; 247. 3-4, 7. Most of these give

a complete list of all the steps in the ladder. The main difficulty that has till now been experienced by the various

*Jñāna*, the Lower Nature. interpretors of these passages seems to center in the term " $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ " (204. 10c-d, 11 a, 19c-d; 213. 12c.). Prof. Hopkins seems to confound this technical term

of the Mahābhārata age with the word "jñāna" in the sense of knowledge leading to absolution (GEI. p. 136 and p. 131). Dr. Frauwallner ventures the conjecture that jñānam in these passages comes from or is an abbreviation of iñānātmā ( see the footnote to p. 193, Band XXXII. "Wiener Zeitschrift fuer die Kunde des Morgenlandes"). Prof. Deussen translates jñanam as conciousness (VPTM p. 225) and does not explain why the intellect is here the effect of that consciousness ( jñānam, as he understands it ), in contradiction to the usual description according to which the latter is the effect of the former. As a matter of fact, all these conjectures are not necessary, if we do not lose sight of the text of the L.MBh. itself which describes the L. MBh. Samkhya and says that "The Samkhyas called the jñana (of the Aupanisadas) avyakta (MBh. XII. 306. 40 and 307. 9) and prikṛti" (MBh. XII. 318. 40). These verses leave no doubt that the jñānam in 204. 10c-d, etc., is the lower Nature of the Aupanisadas, which the Samkhyas adopted as their own Nature (avyakta or praketi). This meaning of the technical term inanam together with the fact that the theory of two Natures given in these ladders (e.g. in 247. 3-4, 7) was already mentioned in the EMU and the Gita, is a sufficient help for reconstructing the evolutional series contained in them, the last three numbers of which are the same as those in the earlier Aupanișada Schools viz., the lower Nature, the higher Nature and the purusa. The para-ladder passages are too numerous to be abandoned as "a loose exploiting of the Sāmkhya in terms of Brahmaism" (Prof. Hopkins, GEI. p. 131).

These Aupanisadas, like those of the Gita, accepted the aksara-and-burusa doctrine of the EMU. Both akṣara and puruṣa are "goals" for The aksara-andburusa Doctrine as them. In XII. 211.15 aksara is called sattva, and purusa ksetrajña. in EMU and Bh.Gî. mentions "param brahma" and "dhātā prabhuh". In 213.2 Vișnu and avyakta or aksara, His residence, 217.6-12 is an adaptation of Ka. Up. III. 11. are mentioned. According to 237.31-33 sattva or aksara and ksetrajña are two The higher Nature and the Lord are found stated in 240. 16-23,28; 240. 31-32, 34; 241. 22, 36;243. 3,15, 18,19,20; 247. 3-4; 248.20-24; 249.1-2, 10-11; 285. 36-37; 301. 21-23. Purusa is said to be higher than aksara in these passages and also in 210. 23, 36, 8. We have already The lower Nature seen that the lower Nature called jñāna as in EMU and etc., is also mentioned in these texts. all these respects the EMU, the Gita and Bh. Gî. L. MBh. Aupanisadas can be said to have the same teaching.

But what is of particular interest to us, is the emphasis that this Aupanisada School of the L. MBh. lays on the nonidentity of akşara and puruşa on the one hand and on that of aksara and the lower Nature on the other. The latter point is more vigorously put forth than the Non-identity of former. This was done in two ways, viz.,

the two Natures by showing that akşara is a conscious principle while the lower Nature is not emphasised. so, and by explaining that it is eternal as

distinguished from the non-eternal lower Nature.

The following statements emphasise the living nature of aksara:---

- (1) "The Subtle (sūkṣma, i.e. the higher Nature) is able to see the lower Nature, buddhi, etc."

  Akṣara the Higher (MBh. XII. 204. 20).

  Living Nature.
- (2) "Sattva (i.e. akṣara) and kṣetrajña are both of them Atmans" (MBh. XII. 237. 31-33). Prof. Deussen does not explain why sattva which he understands as prakṛti is called Atman (VPTM. p. 353). The same statement is found also in MBh. XII. 285. 36; 248, 20-24; 249. 1-2, 10-11.
- (3) "Puruşa has himself become akşara and kşara" (MBh. XII. 240. 31-32).
- (4) MBh. XII. 213. 12-13, 242. 18-20 and 252. 10c-d say that akṣara is the Life-principle (Cf. jīva-bhūtā in Bh. Gî. VII. 5). It acts and animates the All (XII. 242. 20b); its designation is jīva, and in company of Akṣara designated Time and Action it revolves the world jīva and kṣetra (XII. 213. 13); it is jīva and yet it is called kṣetra (XII. 249. 11 ff); it is the seed of all individual souls (XII. 213. 13).
- (5) The fact that akṣara is "living" and is called "kṣetra" (XII. 249. 10. 11f; 252. 11 ff.; 307. 14; 318. 111) agrees well with Bh. Gî. XIII. :6 which states that kṣetra includes cetanā "consciousness" and dhṛṭi "the sustenance of the world." (Cf. also jīvabhūtā and dhār yate in

Mistakes of Prof. Bh. Gî. VII. 5.) All these passages Deussen and Prof. metioning kṣetra, which stands for akṣara as possessed of "life" jīva were not considered by Prof. Hopkins; and Prof.

Deussen who translated the term "jīva" in this connection as "the seed of the embodied" and "the individual soul" (VPTM p. 256, 368, 398) did not notice the inconsistency involved in calling that "individual soul" sattva or kṣetra, and in saying that the "individual soul" is "the seed of the embodied".

(6) The lower Nature is "not-seeing", a-pasya, the higher Nature is "seeing", pasya, and puruşa is "always seeing" sadā-pasya (XII. 318. 72, 73, 82).

Note.—As the terms pasya and a-pasya forming the compound pasyāpasya occur in 318. 82 and also elsewhere in the MBh., I propose to read "Pasyam tathaiva c āpasyam pasyaty anyaḥ sadāsnagha"—in XII. 318. 72a-b. The meaning of the proposed reading given by me here will also testify to the correctness of my suggestion. For the same reasons I read "pasyam" in place of "pasyan" in 73 a of the same Chapter.

- (7) To point out the consciousness of akṣara, it was called "the awakening Twentyfifth" Other Synonyms budhyamāna pañcaviṃsaka (MBh. of akṣara in L.MBh. Kumb. ed. 323. 70) in contrast to the abudhyamāna "lower Nature"; and also
- (8) "the awakening Unmanifest" budhyamāna avyakta (MBh. XII. 305. 34) as distinct from the "apratibuddha avyakta" the lower Nature.
- (9) For the same purpose of distinguishing akṣara from the lower Nature, the former was celled sāsvata avyakta "the eternal Unmanifest" (Cf. Bh. Gî. VIII. 20: sanātana avyakta), implying that the lower Nature (or the Nature of the Sāṃkhyas) was not eternal in so far as it did not eternally remain in the same condition (MBh. XII. 318.56);
- (10) "acyuta pañcaviṃsaka", "the unfallen Twentyfifth", as distinguished from the Twentyfourth which was "fallen" (XII. 318.57);
- (11) "the first deity" ādya daivata (XII. 318.83, not "the origin of gods," as Prof. Deussen says); and
- (12) "the primeval Twentyfifth" ādya pañcaviṃsa (XII. 318.82).
- (13) The same aim was desired to be served by giving numerical designations to these three The Numerical important principles. Though the higher Designations.

  Nature was eternal and differed from the lower because the latter was not eternal and as such logically they could not have been counted

were also numerically two, firstly because "He (i. e. a meditator) who sees the Twentysixth does not see "the seeing" (pasyam-see notes above), the Twentyfifth i. e. akṣara" (XII. 318.73a-b), and secondly because "The Twentyfifth (i. e. akṣara) can think that 'There is none higher than I," (XII. 318.73 c-d). Kṣetra which is a term for the living conscious Nature as we have already seen is said to be the Twentyfifth (MBh. XII. 307.14c-d, 15).

Note.—According to the reading in 72 a-b proposed above, the verse means, "The other (i.e. the Supreme Being) sees eternally pasya (i.e. akṣara) as well as a-pasya (i.e. the Twentyfourth). The Twentysixth sees (both) the Twentyfifth and the Twentyfourth". Thus the latter half of the verse expresses in numerical terms what the former half does in the terms of the attribute of consciousness or "seeing". Verse 73a-b says that the meditators of akṣara (pasya) and those of puruṣa (the Twentysixth of 72c referred to by "enam" in 73b) realise only the object of their meditation and not both the objects of meditation. 73 c-d asserts the self-consciousness of akṣara or the Twentyfifth and the fact that as a goal it is independent of puruṣa. The interpretations of Prof. Hopkins and Prof. Deussen, which are not discussed here, are based upon an incorrect reading and hence fail to present any consistent meaning.

The above-mentioned sharp distinction between *prakṛti* (above which "stands" *akṣara*-XII. 314. 10-11), *akṣara* and *puruṣa* was necessitated by the opposition of the Sāṃkhya and Yoga Schools with which the Aupaniṣadas found themselves confronted, as can be seen from the passages which mention

that distinction given above. The latter Progress in the thus made each of these three principles Aupanisada School an individual entity; they accepted during L. MBh. vyaktibheda between akṣara and puruṣa, though puruṣa was above akṣara and in

that sense the latter was yet subordinate to the former. The EMU and the Gîtă had also distinguished

between these three but the mutual difference between them had never before been considered sufficient to justify their being enumerated as three principles, as we have seen in Chapters I and II. The EMU and the Gîtā had maintained dualistic monism of aksara and burusa.

The Doctrine of "Pluralistic Dualism".

The MBh. Aupanisadas admitted a dualism of these, while, on the other hand, their doctrine was a non-pluralism in so far as the lower Nature which was

counted as an entity was not eternal like the other two, but was born of the higher Nature. Thus it is not possible to describe this system as a pluralism. It is very difficult to find out an accurate expression from Western Philosophy which would convey the exact sense of the metaphysical position of these Aupaniṣadas. Under the circumstances it would not be wrong to speak of it as "Pluralistic Dualism" of the L.MBh. Aupaniṣadas.

It should be specially noted that, just as in Sve. Up., so with the L. MBh. Aupanisadas the *dehin*, though counted separately, is not actually considered a different principle from the *puruṣa* (but somehow as an aspect of the latter). It is only the L. MBh. Yogas, as we shall see, who achieved the separation. The "tetrad" of the Aupanisadas is merely the

The "Tetrad" of the L. MBh. Aupanişadas.

"triad" or Sve. Up. with vyakta added to it (Cf. Retrospect, foot-note) and with a less theistic conception of the highest principle which is here not so much the "ruler" as in Sve. Up.

On account of the above-mentioned position of the chief L. MBh. Aupanisadas, it is but natural that we find, in the

The Rise of another Aupanișada School in L. MBh.

same text a second Aupaniṣada School which seceded from the former. These separatists were called "saints" sādhavaḥ (MBh. XII. 318. 56, 78). They held that the two (eternal and non-eternal)

forms of the Unmanifest, avyakta, should be looked upon as one and the same end of the evolutional series, or that the

eternal Unmanifest should be looked upon as the one end in

Numerical Unity of the Lower and the Higher Natures.

Numerical Unity of akşara and purușa.

The Doctrine of " sthānabheda " in aksara-and-puruşa.

so far as it stands above the (lower) prakrti, which is non-eternal and an effect of the former (MBh. XII. 318. 56; see also the v. l. in the Kumb. ed.). Regarding the relation of aksara and purusa these "saints" said that "One should look upon them on account of their as only one (mutual) position" (MBh. XII. 318. 79), or that "One should look upon them as one and the same because the Twentysixth resides in the Twentyfifth " (according to the v. l. in the Kumb. ed.). Thus the second Aupanisada School also believes that aksara is the residence

"sthana" of the purusa, and thus accepts "sthānabheda" but it rejects "vyaktibheda" in aksara and burusa and also in aksara and prakrti. Prof. Hopkins is not right in identifying these "saints" with either the

Samkhyas or the Yogas who only quoted the "saints" in support of their own views. (His interpretations of verses 56, 78 are also misguided.)

The position of these Aupanisadas thus supported in a

Further Proof of the Existence of the School of these

"saints".

their doctrines, and gave rise to such an Aupanisada School as the author of the Brahmasūtras belonged to. In Brahmasūtras III. 2.11-21 and 32-38 both of these L. MBh. Aupanisada Schools are criticised by the Sūtrakūra (see Ch. IV; App. IV).

way the Sāmkhya and Yoga Schools in

#### Sāmkhya 2. The School.

The doctrine of the Samkhyas of the later Mahabharata Age has been preserved to us in MBh. XII. 300-307 and 309-317. We can Sámkhya Chapbriefly summarise it under three headings; ters in L. MBh. (a) What the Samkhyas are here said to have rejected, (b) What they are said to have accepted, and

(e) How they differ from the Classical Samkhyas.

- (a) What these Samkhyas are said to have rejected:—
- (1) The Sāmkhyas and the Yogas rejected "budhyamāna avyakta", (MBh. XII. 305. 32-35). This passage mentions two avyaktas and two budhyamanas and ironically says that if the enlightened Samkhyas and Yogas understood the

Sāmkhyas' Rejection of "avyakta budhyamāna" i. e. the Higher Nature.

budhyamana avyakta, they will equate [ their doctrine to the Aupanisada one ] (305. 34), and mentions three principles avyakta, budhyamāna avyakta, budhyamāna (305. 32-35). The middle of these, which the enlightened did not

know (i. e. did not accept as a principle) is akşara or the higher conscious Nature of the Aupanisadas, who invented this designation to distinguish the latter from avyakta the lower unconscious Nature and from budhyamāna, the Lord, both of

which were accepted by their fellow-

Mistakes of Prof. Deussen.

philosophers. Prof. Hopkins finds the Hopkins and Prof. plurality of souls in this passage! (See GEI. p. 124-125.) He and Prof. Deussen show utter ignorance of the L. MBh.

terminology according to which all these terms are technical (see MBh. XII. 306-308; and also Ch. III.)

NOTE.—Prof. Hopkins, in finding in the passage in question (MBh. XII. 305. 32-35) a reference to the doctrine of plurality of souls, ignores that aprabuddha "the nonawakened" is in the MBh. a name for the Nature (305, 32, see Deussen, VPTM. p. 623), His interpretation of aprabuddha as "the conditioned soul" is based upon an ignorance of the L. MBh. terminology. In contrast to this aprabuddha, the soul was called budhyamāna (305. 31; 307-308). Again, Prof. Hopkins is not quite just to the text because he drops verse 34 and connects 33 with 35. As a matter of fact verse 34 is the most important of the whole group; it mentions budhyamana avyakta and says that "If the enlightened (Samkhyas and Yogas) know the budhyamana avakta, then they will equate their doctrine [to that of Aupanisadas]". This budhyamana avyakta was rejected by the Samkhyas and the Yogas, as will be seen from the fact that the passage ironically asserts the ignorance of the "enlightened". This "budhyamana avyakta" is different from the avyakta which is aprabuddha

(verse 32) and from the "budhydmāna" which is not avyakta (verse 31); i. e. in brief we have here three principles, avyakta (the lower Nature of the Aupanisadas and) the Nature of the Samkhyas, budhyamana avyakta or aksara which the "enlightened" Samkhyas and Yogas did not know, and budhyamāna, the Supreme Soul not distinguished from the individual one; all these three are meant by the plural number of the compound "budhyamānāprabudahānām" (gen. plu., verse 35c). Prof. Deussen takes the verse (34) to mean: "When the enlightened know Prakrti (i. e. the lower Nature), they will teach Brahman". Is not this interpretation a strange one? Even Prof. Deussen shows complete ignorance of the L. MBh. terminology when he translates budhyamana as the awakened ones and aprabuddhas as the unawakened ones, in verse 35 (VPTM. 623;); this was the way he adopted to explain the plural number of the compound just noticed.

- (2) The Saṃkhyas and the Yogas also rejected what the Aupaniṣadas called acyuta pañcaviṃṣˈaka Sāṃkhyas' Re- "the unfallen Twentyfifth" (MBh. XII. jection of "acyuta 318.56-57, 79; see p. 34 above where pañcaviṃṣˈa". Prof. Hopkins' interpretation has been criticised). The Twentyfourth of the Aupaniṣadas, the Sāṃkhyas and the Yogas was a "fallen" (cyuta) Twentyfourth.
- (3) The Sāṃkhyas and the Yogas refused to admit sāsvata avyakta which corresponds to Sāṃkhyas' Re-sanātana avyakta of the Gîtā (VIII. 20) jection of "sāsvata" and which was a designation given by the avyakta". L. MBh. Aupaniṣadas (see p. 38 above).

NOTE.—It should be noted that Prof. Deussen takes acyuta and sāsvata as independent designations of pañcavimsaka and avyakta and explains the pañcavimsaka (thus separated from acyuta) as the individual Soul, as if the topic of the discussion (in XII. 318) were the latter. Nowhere in the Indian Philosophy is sāsvata an independent designation, and never in the L. MBh. is acyuta used in that sense. Both Prof. Hopkins and Prof. Deussen have lost sight of the great problem that busied the philosophers of the Mahābhārata, who followed the Age of the Gîtā.

All the passages reffered to above show that the Samkhyas and the Yogas rejected the akşara of the Aupanişadas in so far as it was a higher Nature different from their conception of the Nature.

- (b). What the Samkhya are said to have accepted:—
- (1) The terminology of the L. MBh. Samkhyas betrays their descent and at the same time dissent from those who

Connection of the Samkhya Terms with those of the Aupanisadas.

had the traditions of the EMU and the Gîtā. If we study the Sāmkhya terms in MBh. XII 302-307 and 309-317, we find that the Twentyfourth or the Nature of these Sāmkhyas bears the names which belonged originally to the lower Nature

and to akṣara (in its capacity as the higher Nature) of the Aupaniṣadas and that their Twentyfifth has such designations as had mainly belonged to the Aupaniṣada puruṣa and akṣara (in its capacity as a "goal"). The former shows that the Sāṃkhyas have identified the two Natures, and the latter that they have identified the two "goals" of the Aupaniṣadas. To the former class of terms are to be traced such words as a-vidya, kṣelra, avyakta, jñāna and to the latter vidyā, nirguṇa, īśvara, Viṣṇu avyakta (306. 34, 38). These occur too often in the Sāṃkhya and Yoga Chapters (XII. 302-317) to be specially pointed out here. A detailed list of them is given in the L. MBh. itself (XII. 318 37-47). As an illustration of my standpoint

The Terms a-vidyā and vidyā.

I would draw the attention of the readers to two of the terms just mentioned, viz.,  $a-vidy\bar{a}$  and  $vidy\bar{a}$  which the Sāmkhyas used for their Nature and puruṣa respe-

ctively (XII. 307.2-3). Prof. Hopkins has expressed great surprise at this usage of the terms in question

Confusion of Prof. Hopkins.

(GEI. p. 136). The presence of these terms cannot be explained by referring them to the Knowledge and Ignorance

taught in Sankara's theory of Illusion; because, as Prof. Hopkins

Prof. Deussen. correctly points out, the Mayavada is not known to the Mahabharata; and though Prof. Deussen adds no explanatory notes

to his translation of these terms, I believe he would not have

differed from Prof. Hopkins on this point. The fact seems to be that these Sāṃkhyas had got to explain the terms which the Aupaniṣadas used. In the terminology of the latter a-vidyā and vidyā stood for the lower Nature and the higher Nature respectively. They were used in that sense in Sve. Up. V. 1 (see App. I). The Sāṃkhyas having used "a-vidyā" for their own Nature, had no other course but that of applying "vi-lyā" to their puruṣa the Twentyfifth. In doing so they tried to give a new sense to these terms (307. 3-8). This was an effort similar to their effort to explain the Twentyfifth as both kṣara and akṣara (see below).

(2) The Sāmkhyas accepted "kṣara" and "akṣara" of the Aupanisadas, but explained these terms in their own way. They said that the same Nature is aksara when it withdraws the manifestations within itself, and it is The terms kṣara kṣara when it puts forth these manifestations (307. 10-17); in other words, aksara and akşara. is Nature as one, kşara is Nature as m a n y (305. 36-39). This explanation of kṣara and akṣara was necessitated by the fact that the Samkhyas identified the two Natures of the Aupanisadas, who held that ksara or pradhāna was the lower Nature and akṣara was the higher Nature (Cf. Sve. Up. 1. 7-11; App. 1). In extending the kṣara-akṣara standpoint to the purusa (MBh. XII. 307. 18-19), the Samkhyas sought a justification for their position regarding the Nature.

Note.—Regarding MBh. XII. 305. 36 it should be noticed here that ekatva and nānātva in "ekatvam akṣaram prāhun nānātvam kṣaram ucyate" (36c-d) are explained as what the soul sees and what it does not see when it proceeds on the right path having placed its belief in (the doctrine of) the twentyfive (37); and the same topic is continued in the following chapter where ekatva and bahutva are both said to belong to the Prakṛti only (306. 33) and it is said that ekatva comes into existence during the dissolution and bahutva when the

Nature creates the creation (306.33). Prof. Hopkins who says that a real plurality of souls is mentioned in these passages (GEI. p. 124) and Prof. Edgerton who would like to find here an emperical plurality (AJP) have no justification for their incorrect conjecture except that the words *ekatva* and *nānātva* or *bahutva* occur here (though they do not refer at all to the plurality of souls). How can the "many" souls be called *kṣara* "perishable"? These interpretors have not considered the context at all. Prof. Deussen translates the terms, but suggests no explanation (VPTM. p. 623, p. 627).

- (3) The Sāṃkhyas accepted jñāna "the lower Nature" of the Aupaniṣadas and also the avyakta

  The term jñāna. of the latter; but they called these Prakṛti, and this was for them the one and only

  Prakṛti (XII. 318.40, 39).
- (4) The Sāṃkhyas accepted kṣetra, the conscious Nature or the Twentyfifth of the Aupaniṣadas (see p. 37 above); but identified it with their own Nature. MBh. 307.14c-d, 15 says, that "They (i. e. the Aupaniṣadas) call The term kṣetra. (the akṣara mentioned in verse 13a-b) kṣetra because it is adhiṣṭhāna, the residence (of the puruṣa); this is that Twentyfifth (of the Aupaniṣadas). But when it withdraws the net of constituents within its unmanifest self, then along with those constituents the Twentyfifth dissolves". Prof. Deussen does not note that the kṣetra is here said to be the Twentyfifth and that the dissolution of the Twentyfifth within itself is taught here (VPTM. p. 630).
- (5) The Sāmkhyas taught that Prakṛti is both "moving" and "unmoving", "changing" and "unchanging"; it is also "imperishable", "unborn" etc. They herewith intended to show

Sāṃkhyas' Nature, a Combination of the two prakṛlis of the Aupaniṣadas.

that there is no necessity of accepting two prakṛtis. They combined the two prakṛtis of the Aupaniṣadas into one and naturally rejected the view that the(lower) Nature is "born" as a distinct entity—the view of the EMU and the Gita (MBh.

XII. 318. 37-47).

(6) Samkhyas took the term *prakṛti* from the Aupanisadas but made it a teachnical term in their School. "The

The Sāṃkhyas first to emphasise (but not to originate) the Theory of Evolution.

Sāṃkhyas hold the view of Evolution (lit. the Sāṃkhyas evolve) and speak of the Evolving Matter, Prakṛti". This idea is expressed in a very terse sentence: "Sāṃkhyāḥ prakuvate prakṛliṃ ca pracakṣate (MBh. XII. 306.42). Although the Aupaniṣadas of the Gîtā knew the

Evolution and used the term *prakṛti*, the first philosophers in India to be called "Evolutionists" are these L. MBh. Saṃkhyas. They are *prakṛtivādinaḥ* (306.27). These Saṃkhyas henceforth restricted in the above sense the application of the tern "*prakṛti*" (318.39-40).

- (7) The Sāṃkhyas accepted the puruṣa of the Aupaniṣadas (318. 39, 42) and said that puruṣa Sāṃkhyas' Acalone is conscious (and not akṣara also). ceptance of the Their acceptance of the term jāāna for Aupaniṣada puruṣa. their Nature was only a technical matter; it did not mean that the Nature was a conscious principle.
- (8) They accepted the *Isvara* of the Aupanisadas but called him "nirguna", a name of akṣara in the MBh. Aupaniṣada School.
- (9) If any positive proof is needed for the conclusion that the L. MBh. Sāṃkhyas were not atheists, it will be found in MBh. XII. 318. 79e-f, where it is said that the Sāṃkhyas and the Yogas accepted the Twentysixth of the Aupaniṣadas.

Theistic Chararesupposition that the Sāṃkhya School cter of the L. in the L. MBh. was atheistic, and then MBh. Sāṃkhyas.

to argue that MBh. XII. 318 is an interpolation or is influenced by Classical

Sāṃkhyas. It should be also remembered that though the L. MBh. Sāṃkhyas admitted the Twentysixth of the Aupanisadas they called it the Twentyfifth, because they rejected the Aupanisada Twentyfifth. This is the sense of MBh. XII. 318. 79e-f, which has been noticed above. Prof. Hopkins' and Prof.

Jacobi's views about this verse have been mentioned and refuted in the beginning of this Chapter. So these Samkhyas were theists, though not in the Western sense: they believed (as the Aupanisadas did) in one Supreme Being which somehow appears as an individual soul striving for liberation (i. e. self-realisation).

In MBh XII. 302. 138, it is clearly said that the Twenty-fifth of the Sāṃkhyas was Viṣṇu. But as said just above, the Sāṃkhyas did not distinguish it from the Jîva, and this accounts for the objection in MBh. XII 300. 3 "How can 'one without the Lord' (anīśvara) be freed?" This refers to

Explanation of "antsvara" in MBh. XII. 300.

one who does not believe in God as distinct from the Jiva. This sense of XII. 300. 3 is clear from the fact that this objection (in MBh. XII. 300.) comes from the Yoga School;

while the statement that the Samkhyas accept the Twentysixth (of the Aupanisadas) is from the Aupanisada School. In order to understand this one has to go a little deeper study of the L. MBh. Schools. into the In 308 where the Yoga doctrine is mentioned, it is explained that the L. MBh. Yogas for the first time separated Jiva and Isvara, unlike the Samkhyas who identified the two (see MBh. XII. 308 below). This will be fully dealt with in the next Section about the Yoga School. But it should be only stated here that MBh. XII. 300. 2-7 where the disputed words "anisvara" and "moksa" occur, is explained nowhere except in MBh. XII. 308. 10-35, particularly 25-26 which undoubtedly refers to 300. 2-7, as the topic in both the passages shows. A comparison of these two passages will prove that anisvara only means "one without a Lord separate from himself". The liva who is the not-Lord (Sve. Up. I. 8) as compared with Paramatman who is the Lord, has never had the term anisvara applied to it as a designation; there is no passage where anisvara is used as a syngnym

Prof. Edgerton's for Jîva the individual soul; and there is View untenable. no text in the EMU, the Gîtă or the L.

MBh. where Jîva is said to be anisvara in the sense "because there is no Isvara above him" (Prof.

Edgerton, AIP. 1924), though the L. MBh. Samkhyas regard. ed the Jiva as ultimately one with the Supreme Soul. Even when the Gîta uses the term isvara with reference to the Iîva it does so only in an etymological sense, viz., with regard to the Jiva's "ownership" of his subtle body (Bh. Gî. XV. 7-8). And as Prof. Schrader points out to me there are other words used with reference to the liva in the same sense as "isvara"; thus the Samkhyas used the term "svāmin", according to Garbe (Samkhya-Philosophie, p. 305, 287, etc.), for the soul in its connection with the Upādhis, i. e. as a Jîva; and in a similar use the term is also met with in MBh. XII. 311. 20; "Indriyāṇam tu sarveṣām īsvaram mana ucyate", as compared with Bh. Gî. X. 22: "Indrivanam manas c āsmi;" also see Ahirbudhnya-Samhitā XII. 22 where svāmin is given as a Sāmkhya term for manas (see Prof. Schrader in Z. D. M. G. for 1914). Moreover, MBh. XII. 300. 3 and Gita XV. 7-8 describe the "bound" soul, and it would be to no purpose if the authors were using antivara or tsvara in the sense that the Iîva is identical with the Lord; the contrary, such a statement would only lead to confusion. MBh. XII. 306. 41 refers to isvara as a term higher Nature of the Aupanisadas, and therefore an equivalent of ksetra and sattva, and says that the Samkhyas regarded it to be anisvara. Thus, this passage refers to neither theism nor atheism in Sāmkhya. For these reasons, I cannot accept the interpretation of anisvara in MBh. XII. 300 as "having no-lord, supreme", given by Prof. Edgerton, though, of course, I do not deny that anisvara elsewhere can mean anutlara "supreme" (Prof. Edgerton AJP, pp. 8-12).

Thus, the terminology of the L. MBh. Samkhyas clearly

Terminology of the L. MBh. Sāmkhyas, a sure Witness of their Descent from the Aupanişadas. shows that they accepted the lower Nature of the Aupanişadas, but identified with it the akṣara or the higher Nature of the latter and thus admitted only one Nature. It also indicates that these Sāṃkhyas approved of the puruṣa or tsvara of the Aupaniṣadas but to him

they attributed all such characteristics and designations of the Aupanisada, akṣara, as could not be consistently assigned to their own Nature.

7

(c) How the later Mahābhārata Sāmkhyas differ from the Classical Samkhyas:-

The mere difference between these two Schools bearing

Difference between the L. MBh. Samkhya and the Schools.

the same name cannot in itself show that one is later than the other, though Prof. Hopkins would say the reverse. should be examined carefully which of Classical Samkhya the two Schools has a more primitive form. If one of them is more primitive than the other and if the texts con-

cerned have not the appearance of a dishonest report, then the possibility of the system described in them being the older form of the two cannot well be denied.

There may be many other points of difference between the L. MBh. Samkhya and the Classical School of that name than those given below, and these may be found out by a more detailed enquiry into the Mahābhārata, than it was possible for the present writer to undertake; he simply collects here those points which seemed to him to be very striking during his enquiry for aksara into the chapters concerned.

- This Samkhya does not know the terms of the Classical Samkhya, like vikrti, prakrtivikrti, etc. It mentions "eight prakrtis"; and the Ignorance of the " prakrti-Prakṛti is then called paṛā prakṛti (MBh. term XII. 310. 10) a term which though used vikṛti. by the Aupanisadas for their aksara (Bh. Gî. VII. 5) these Samkhyas could apply only to their Nature.
- (2) The Mind, not the ahamkāra as in the Classical Samkhya, is here the cause of the five Primitive Con- elements (XII. 306. 27–28). ception of the Mind.
- Instead of the more advanced view of regarding Prakrti as the female and Purusa as the Prakrti described male, the L. MBh. Smakhya has got the as Male, not as cumbrous classification (based on an agnostic scheme much in vogue at the Female. Buddha's time) of "the male" "the nonmale", "the male-and-non-male" and "the neither-male-

nor-non-male". "The male" is the Prakrti and "the neithermale-nor-non-male" is the Purusa (of these Samkhyas) (MBh. XII. 305. 25-29).

This Samkhya uses the terms abuddha for its prakṛti

Terms, unknown to Classical Samkhya.

and budhyamāna for its purusa who is Jîva and becomes buddha, the Lord, in the state of absolution (MBh. XII. 305.31). These form a part of the L. MBh. terminology; it would be wrong to explain them as having only the etymological sense, to the exclusion of

the technical one as will be shown later on.

The Twentyfifth of these Samkhyas is "the Lord", Isvara of the Aupanisadas, and not only Identity of Jiva of the Jîva as in the Classical Sāmkhya School (MBh. XII. 305.32-33a-b; see and Isvara. Theism. p. 48 above). Thus the L. MBh. Samkhya is theistic, like the L. MBh. Aupanisadas.

(6) Not only is the conception of the grounds on which

Primitive Conof ception the Grounds for Purusa's Existence.

the existence of Purusa the Twentyfifth is supported in this Samkhya, quite primitive when compared with the one given in Sāmkhya Kārikā 17; but it is also noteworthy that L. MBh. Samkhya has four instead of the five grounds of the

Classical Sāmkhya (MBh. XII. 315.9c-d, 10).

(7) One of the grounds for the existence of the Twentyfifth is that the Twentyfifth is "an agent" karlr (MBh. XII 315.7-9a-b). L. MBh. Purusa, an Agent. Samkhyas did not say that he is bhoktr, because they did not yet distinguish kartriva from bhoktriva as did the Sāmkhya Kārikā (17). Thus these Sāmkhyas seem to be the descendants of the "sāmkhya-separatists" of Bh. Gi. XVIII. 13-16 (see Ch. II. p. 27).

(8) The Classical Samkhya idea of emphasising the non-identity of the Purusa and Absence of the the Prakrti is not found in the Mahabha-Classical Samkhya rata, though all the Mahabharata Schools Idea of "viveka". taught that the Twentyfourth should begiven up ("heya"). This is so because the Mahabharata does not know anything about the identity of these two, which the Classical Samkhya treats of as the a-viveka "want of discrimination", though the former knows that the Prakṛti is of the nature of attachment (sāsangā) and the Puruṣa is by nature devoid of attachment (niḥsanga) as is said in MBh. XII. 315. 13-16.

(9) The most important fact to be noticed in this connection is that the L. MBh. Sāṃkhya No Plurality of did not know the doctrine of the plurality Souls. I have examined and interpreted all the passages that Prof. Hopkins, Prof. Edgerton and Prof. Deussen have put forth in support of their views in this respect (see Appendix III, where even XII. 350.2 is discussed). They either refer to the doctrine of two Natures of the L. MBh. Aupaniṣadas, which the Sāṃkhyas criticised or they discuss the unity and diversity

Prof. Hopkins' and Prof. Edgerton's Views, untenable.

of the Twentyfourth and do not at all refer to a real (as Prof. Hopkins thinks) or an empirical (as Prof. Edgerton holds) plurality of individual souls. Even the L. MBh. Yogas who separated the Jîva and Paramātman did not know of this

plurality (MBh. XII. 308).

These points of difference between the L. MBh. Sāṃkhya and the Classical Sāṃkhya seem to me to bear witness to the historical priority of the former.

Dr. Frauwallner's View amplified.

Dr. Frauwallner (Journal of the American Oriental Society, Vol. 45, and Wiener Zeitschrift fuer die Kunde des Morgen-

landes, Band XXXII) has shown the same on the ground of other similar points. But I must say that some of the passages used by him belong definitely to the L. MBh. Aupaniṣada School (see p. 31 above), while some others quoted by him would lose their strength if the author or authors of the Mahā-bhārata really attempted "a loose exploiting of Classical Sāṃkhya in terms of Brahmaism" (Prof. Hopkins, the Great Epic of India, p. 131). I have examined all such passages that have been pointed out by Prof Hopkins, and I must confess

that to me they appear to be only an honest attempt on the part of the Mahābhārata authors to preserve for us the then existing philosophical doctrines. The difference on most of the vital points like *kartıtva* of the Jîva and the plurality of individual souls, and the child-like ingenuousness

The L. MBh. Samkhya much prior to the Classical Samkhya.

with which these views are placed before us in addition to the evidence of the terminology and to that of the fact that these Sāṃkhyas rejected the higher Nature of the Aupaniṣdas, should be regarded as a sufficient proof of the great

antiquity of the L. MBh. Sāmkhya School.

The special contribution of the Mahābhārata Sāṃkhyas to the history of the Indian Philosophy lies in the fact that they are

Progress made by the L. MBh. Sāṃkhyas. the first to separate Matter and Spirit as the Unconscious and the Conscious. The contrast between the (lower) Unmanifest and puruṣa is put forth in the Sāṃkhya chapters of the Mahābhārata as

emphatically as the distinction between akṣara (the higher or living Nature) and puruṣa was in the Earlier Metrical Upaniṣads and the Gitā (MBh. XII. 318. 37-44). The one was saguṇa, the other was nirguṇa; the one was ajña, the other was jña; the one was avedya, the other was vedya; the one jñana, the other jñeya; the one avidyā, the other vidyā (MBh. XII. 307. 2); the one a tattva, the other nistattva; the one sāsanga, the other niḥṣanga; the one abuddha, the other budhyaṇāna. Such is the distinction between Matter and Spirit that one finds in the Mahābhārata Sāṃkhya for the first time in the history of the Indian Philosophy, and at a period much prior

Complete Separation of Spirit and Matter.

indeed to that of the Classical Samkhya School. The Aupanisadas of the EMU and the Gîta and even those of the L. MBh. had not realised this most striking phenomenon in the every-day world.

because they had believed in the higher Nature intervening between the pure Matter (i. e. the lower Nature) and purusa. The L. MBh. Aupanisadas could accept the inherited view

that Matter is an effect of Spirit and for this reason they accepted also the spiritual akṣara which connected the two viz., the lower Nature and the puruṣa. The great contrast itself between Spirit and Matter may have been the ground on which the Sāṃkhyas based their view and parted company with their fellow-thinkers. That this disentanglement of Spirit and Matter from the causal relation which the Aupaniṣadas always believed in, was achieved through the rejection of akṣara "the higher Nature" is a fact which the Mahābhārata most emphatically teaches. This point cannot be insisted upon strongly enough. The sāsvata avyakta or acyuta pañcaviṃsa was flatly refused by the Sāṃkhyas. Most of the philosophers of the days of Mahābhārata were engaged in the discussion of this problem. The Mahābhārata

Contents of the Works of Āsuri and Pañcasikha: Rejection of the Higher Nature.

credits Āsuri and Pañcasikha and also Kapila with having expressed their views on this problem. From the context in which their names occur in the Mahābhārata, they seem to have been the pioneers in rejecting the distinction between the two Natures of the Aupaniṣadas (MBh.

XII. 318. 59 ff). The origin of the Mahābhārata Sāmkhya and Yoga Schools should be traced to what they are expressly said in the Mahābhārata to have refused to accept (see pp. 42–43 above). Compare the "motto" at the beginning of this Thesis. To the followers of the EMU and the Gîtā who accepted a Dualistic Monism of two Spirits, and to the Aupaniṣadas of the Mahābhārata who believed in a Pluralistic Dualism of three principles (apart from the Jîva), one material and two spiritual, this purely dualistic attitude of the Sāmkhya could not have come as a great surprise, because these latter did any how accept the Twontysixth of the Aupaniṣadas, the puruṣa of the EMU, one of the two "goals". It is for this reason that the L. MBh. Aupaniṣadas sympathised with the Sāmkhyas and often praised them (MBh. XII. 318. 57, 79).

Finally, we have already seen that some followers of the sāmkhya-path of the Gîtā had begun taking interest

in doctrinal questions (see pp. 26-27 above ). These sāmkhyaseparatists believed the Atman to be an agent (Bh. Gî. XVIII. 13-16), while the sāmkhya-followers as a whole believed in two Natures the higher of which was not at all "active" while

Rise of L. MBh. Samkhya School from the sāmkhya Path of the Gîtă.

the lower possessed "all the activities", as did the followers of yoga and bhakti paths. From the fact that the Samkhya philosophers of the L. MBh. hold Atman to be an agent, I have already suggested that it were the sāmkhya-separatists of

the Gita who are responsible for the Samkhya School of the L. MBh. (p. 27). The latter's rejection of the higher Nature seems to have been due to their belief in the Atman's kartriva, When the Atman was itself an agent, rhere was no necessity of beliving in two Natures, neither of which would be in this case Though a verbal statement expressive of this argument is wanting in the (later) Mahābhārata which starts with the very idea that the Samkhya is an independent School, the period intervening between the Gita and the L MBh. must have seen the sāmkhya-separatists reasoning as above. These latter, like other followers of the sāmkhya-niṣthā were ascetics; the follower of the L. MBh. Samkhya School were also ascetics as already emphasised by Prot. Hopkins. For these reasons the sāmkhya-nisthā of the Gita is the ultinate origin of the Samkhya School of the L. MBh.

Resemblance between the sāmkhya and yoga Paths of the Gita and the L. MBh. Schools of those names.

But even then the L. MBh. Samkhya did not entirely cease to be a path or nistha like the sāmkhya-path of the Gita, because both of these accept the purusa (and the latter, the aksara also) as their "goal". The same is true also of the L. MBh. Yogas, who like the Rudrite Yogas, accepted the purusas or like the Hiranyagarbha Yogas, the aksara of the Aupanisadas as

the "goal", as we shall see in the next Section. standpoint one can say what the L. MBh. Samkhya and Yoga Schools do share the Nature of being "paths" for the same goal as the L. MBh. Aupanisadas. The statements in the L. MBh. that "the Samkhya and the Yogas see the puruşa or

the Twentysixth of the Aupanisadas" (XII. 318, 79) or that all these Schools are equally good for the attainment of liberation from this world, are expressive of what was then a real fact.

## 3. The Yoga School.

It is more necessary to point out that the Yoga in the L. MBh. forms a metaphysical system of its own than it was to do the same with regard to the Sāmkhya. The problem is

Yoga an inde-

exceedingly important because, while Prof. Edgerton, so far as I know, is the pendent School of only one to hold that in the (later) Maha-Thought in L.MBh. bhārata, "Sāmkhya" does not stand for a School but only for a path of salvation, the

view that in Mahābhārata at least the Twentysixth is a principle either foisted upon the Sāmkhya or said any how to belong to them, and therefore in that sense the Samkhyas and the Yogas of the L. MBh. have the same metaphysical principles; is held by almost all scholars who have worked in this field and is generally believed in all over India also. My study has led me to think that the metaphysical principles in both these Schools were idntical neither in number nor in their nature; on the contrary, there is evidence to believe that unlike the Classical Schools of these names, the L. MBh. Sāmkhya and Yoga Schools agreed mostly as regards the non-philosophical matters.

There are striking statements in the L. MBh. itself on

Statements regarding the Difference of Doctrines Identity and Practice between L. MBh. Samkhya and Yoga School.

this point. Just as the Samkhya is a Sāstra, so is Yoga a Darsana (XII. 307.44, 48d). Again, "Both the Systems have the same career of life" (ekacaryāu tāv ubhau-XII. 316 2c). "Purity, accompanied by penance and compassion for all beings are equally taught in both. The observance of vows also is the same in both: but the doctrinal teaching

not the same in the two Schools". (darsanam na samam tayoh-XII. 300, 8-9). Moreover, "The Yogas and Samkhyas who have made the definition

of the metaphysical principles according to their own individual Scriptures see that this (visible world) is the action of the Unmanifest and the Manifest" (MBh. XII. 310. 100c-d, 101 a-b). Whenever the Sāṃkhya and the Yoga are mentioned together in the Gîtā, it was intended to show that they were concerned with "renunciation" and "action" respectively, but in the L. MBh. this is not the case at all; it aims at pointing out some philosophical differences and sometimes resemblances also between the two Schools (MBh. XII. 307. 47-48; 308. 1). In the Gîtā an aspirant is advised to accept either of the two paths, sāṃkhya or yoga; the Mahābhārata, on the contrary, complains that the Sāṃkhyas and Yogas do not accept some philosophical principles of the Aupaniṣadas (MBh. XII. 318. 56-57, 79; 305. 32-35), and therefore no Aupaniṣada would be asked to follow either Sāṃkhya or Yoga.

Prof. Hopkins' and Prof. Edgerton's Views untenable.

These statement go againsts the view that "This system is both Yoga and Sāmkhya, the systems being double but the teaching being identical" (Prof. Hopkins, GEI. pp. 133-134) and also against the other view that "Nowhere is

there any suggestion that the Sāmkhya-or Yoga either-means any particular system of metaphysical truth" (Prof. Edgerton, AJP. p. 5 and p. 7). They had their own doctrines and these were recorded in writings not available to us now (XII. 307. 46a-b).

But while I emphasise the importance of the hitherto statements neglected regarding the doctrinal differences between the Sam-Meaning of "Sāmkhya khyas and the Yogas, I should not ignore and another type of sentences which say that Yoga are one" in L. MBh. "Whatever is the Scripture of the Samkhyas is also the teaching of the Yogas"

(MBh. XII. 307. 44) or that "The two Schools are one" (MBh. XII. 305. 19; 316. 4; 305. 31; 310. 8, 26; 318. 71, 100-101). These passages are not in conflict with those noted in the above paragraph. For their meaning we have to depend upon the context, as we have done in the case of similar

statements in the Gîtă (see. pp. 25-26). They generally refer to the theory of the Nature which was common to both the Samkhvas and the Yogas (XII. 307. 44; 310. 8, 26, 71, 100-101; and also 311, 312, 313). It was this part of the doctrine which the Samkhyas were the first to make their own and which the Yogas accepted exactly as the Samkhyas taught (XII, 308. ld.). Otherwise, such statements refer to the sameness of the "goal" in the two systems (XII. 300. 8-9). They never intend to say that the conception of the individual soul was the same in the two Schools; rather, as we shall see later on, this and as a corollary to it, the nature of absolution were the very points on which they differed. It is where the interpretors of the L. MBh, have extended the application of the statements concerning the unity or identity of the Sāmkhya and the Yoga to such doctrinal matters as are not meant by the context, that they have actually gone beyond the text of the Mahābhārata.

In this connection it would not be wrong once again to refer to the statements in the L. MBh. which always say that

The Twentysixth never said to be a Principle of the Samkhya School. the Sāmkhyas have only twentyfive principles (XII 302. 38; 306. 43-44; 305. 38; 307. 2, 47; 308. 14). The other statements which mention the Twentysixth always refer either to the two Yoga Schools or to the Aupanisada

School of the later Mahābhārata. There is no verse in the L. MBh. where it is said that the Sāṃkhyas had a Twenty-sixth principle. "The Sāṃkhyas see the Twentysixth" (XII. 318. 79) means that they believe in the Twentysixth of the Aupaniṣadas, which they call the Twentyfifth in their own System. Even XII. 308. 14-17 which refers to the Twenty-sixth of the Yoga is wonderfully accurate when it says that the Sāṃkhyas mention "twentyfive principles" (XII. 308. 14). The Sāṃkhyas believed that the budhyamāna becomes the buddha, but they never said that the Twentyfifth becomes the Twentysixth, because in their School the budhyamāna is always numerically identical with buddha.

Thus we have seen that, so far as the statements about the number and nature of the principles in the two Schools of the

Comparison of the Statements with the actual Teaching.

Sāmkhya and Yoga are concerned, they do admit of doctrinal difference between them, though they also refer to the identity of some points of the teaching. Let us now see how far these statements are

corroborated by the actual teaching itself.

The Yogas had rejected the higher Nature of the Aupanisadas, just as the Sāṃkhyas had done.
Rejection of the Whenever the Sāṃkhyas are described as not having accepted the budhyamāna avyakta, šāśvata avyakta or acyuta pañcavimsa, the Yogas are always mentioned as their companions

( see p. 42–43 ).

The second point of similarity between these two Schools is that they have the same view about Prakṛti or the Nature; and this follows as a natural consequence of their joint rejection

The Conception of Prakṛti.

of the higher Nature of the Aupanisadas just noticed above. The statement, "The same is the doctrinal teaching of both these Schools" (MBh. XII. 307. 44), is

immediately followed by other statements: "I have narrated to you the highest principle of the Samkhyas" (307.47), and "The teaching of the Yoga is said to consist of budhyamāna and buddha" (307.48). These sentences restrict the sense of 307.44 and show that only the doctrine of the Nature, which has been given in the verses that precede 307.44, is the same in the two Schools; thus we are not allowed to say that "The Systems are two but the teaching is the same," as Prof. Hopkins

Prof. Hopkins' and Prof. Edgerton's Views untenable.

holds, or that the Sāmkhya and the Yoga have no part in the discussion of philosophical teaching but are only two paths even in the Mahābhārata, as Prof. Edgerton believes. My interpretation of 307. 44 is proved by 308. 1, where we read:

"[The followers of the Yoga] making the Atman multiple (i.e. twofold, as we shall see below), relate the same (twentyfour) principles (ālmānam bahudhā kṛlvā tāny eva pravicakṣate)." This is followed by: "The budhyamana transforming this ( etad i.e. the avyakta ) in this way ( i. e., in the way taught by the Samkhyas in the preceding chapter ) does not know ( ceases to be a knower)" (etad evam vikurvāņo budhyamāno na budhyate - 308. 2a-b) These two verses (308. 1-2) are to be taken with 307, 46 and 48, and 308. 1a-b which clearly say that the author describes the Yoga School in 308 with which we are concerned here. "Tany eva pravicaksate" and "etad evam vikurvāṇaḥ" show that only the doctrine of the Nature is common to the Samkhya and the Yoga, while " atmanam bahudhā krlvā" establishes beyond any possibility of doubt my thesis that the Yogas differed from the Samkhyas in so far as they (i.e. the Yogas) believed in the Jiva to be different from the Brahman or purusa (as we shall see below). giving here other passages (enumerated above) or explaining further the meanings of the above verses, I refer my reader to

Prof. Deussen's Interpretation also incorrect.

the following note which will convince him that Prof. Hopkins and Prof. Deussen have failed to understand even the fundamentals of this Yoga School. It is sufficient to say here that the Yogas accepted

the twentyfour principles, but unlike the Sāṃkhyas, said that the Jîva is the modifying agent of the Twentyfourth as distinct from the Supreme Soul.

Note.—As the whole of Chapter 308 is misunderstood by my predecessors, I must here say something to justify my interpretations. (1) "Atmānam bahudhā kṛtvā" is explained by Prof. Hopkins as: "The Lord-Spirit divides himself into many" (GEI. p. 134, 136). This is quite wrong; kṛtvā can refer only to the subject of pravicakṣate, which must be in the plural number: it were the Yogas who "made the Atman multiple (i.e. two-fold)." It is indeed surprising to find that even Prof. Deussen has committed the same mistake (VPTM, p. 633). (2) It should also be pointed out that none of these scholars seems to have understood "tāni eva" in "tāny eva pravicakṣate:" the expression undoubtedly refers to the "lwenty-four principles," and explains 307. 44. (3) Prof. Hopkins explains vikurvāṇa (308. 2) as vikṛti and budhyamāna as Brahman! I see no reason for not explaining vikurvāṇaḥ as nom. sing. of the present participle of vi + kṛ. According to

the Yoga School budhyamāna was the individual soul (see below) and is quite different from the Supreme Soul whom they called buddha; and therefore Prof. Hopkins' interpretation is due to a grave misunderstanding regarding the fundamental doctrines of this Yoga School. Prof. Deussen shares the same blunder (VPTM. p. 633).

The third point of similarity to be noticed here is the conception of the summum bonum in the The Conception two Schools, which they had in common with the Aupanisadas and in a certain of summum bonum. sense with the Pancaratras. To explain the situation of those days, akṣara and puruṣa were both of them regarded as the goals of life. This idea was inherited from the EMU and the Gita. As a result, all philosophers who accepted either of these two singly (like the Samkhyas and the Yogas) and also those who identified the two into one (like the Pancaratras, see Sec. 4 below) could be, in that sense, said to have recognised the same summum bonum. While describing the numerical designations in all the four Schools of the days of the later Mahābhārata (pp. 32-34), and also the doctrines which the Samkhyas accepted from the Aupanisadas (pp. 44-47), while showing that the idea of God was the same in the Samkhya as in the Aupanisada School and therefore the former was not atheistic (pp. 47-48), and lastly while pointing out that the L. MBh. Samkhya is in a way like the samkhyapath of the Gîtā (p. 52), I had occasions to refer to the fact that the purusa ( not to be distinguished from akşara in its capacity as the "goal" and not yet to be identified with it ) was the "goal" of the Samkhyas. Now, I shall show that the "goal" of the Yogas was also not different from that of the Aupanisadas.

But before we can properly understand the "goal" in the L.MBh. Yoga, it is here necessary to T w o Yoga point out that the L.MBh. mentions Schools in L.MBh. two Yoga Schools. One was taught originally by Hiranyagarbha (XII. 308. 45), while the head of the other was Rudra (316. 5; 318. 52). "O you, controller of your enemies, know the

Yogas with Rudra at their head to be other Yogas" (rudrapradhānān aparān vīddhi yogan anindama-316. 5a-b), and, "They move about in all the ten quarters with the self-same body till the dissolution of the world" (316. 6). "Aparān yogān" (316.5) refers to the distinction between these Rudrite Yogas and the Yogas described in the Chapter and the verses that precede 316.5. The origin of these two Schools of Yoga

The Germ of both present in the Gita.

is undoubtedly to be trace to the Bh. Gî. which knows the term yoga to have two technical meanings (Bh. Gî. II. 48, 50 and VI. 23; see Introduction, p. 4). While the Gîtā did not enumerate the

Yoga Schools as two because they were then in their infancy, the definite statement in the later Mahābhārata noticed above is indicative of the progress of thought during the period intervening between the composition of the two works. It

Their Priority to the Classical Yoga.

also shows that the L.MBh., as we have it, is prior to the Classical period of Indian Philosophy which knows only one Yoga School viz., the *dhyānayoga* 

which the Gîtā explains as duḥkhasaṃyogaviyoga (Bh. Gî. VI. 23) and the L. MBh. as rudrapradhānayoga. The Gitā uses the terms yoga and karmayoga for the other Yoga; the later Mahābhārata seems to refer to a later development of this Yoga when it mentions the Hiraṇyagarbha Yoga School (308. 45). In interpreting the Gîtā and the L.MBh. we must not lose sight of these two meanings of the word (in the former) and two Schools having the same name (in the latter). When these texts themselves explain the term yoga to have two independent technical meanings recognised as such in the days of their composition, it is not reasonable to identify "karmayoga" with "dhyānayoga" (through the word yogakṛtya

Prof. Edgerton's and prof. Hopkins' Views untenable.

"practices or exercises of Yoga" used for "dhyānayoga" in the L. MBh.), and to say that "there was only 'one method' called Yoga but the word had two interpretations", as Prof. Edgerton has

done (AJP, pp. 40-46). Again Prof. Hopkins and others who argue that the Mahabharata (the Gîta included) is an

effort to render the Classical Samkhya theistic on the analogy of the Classical Yoga, seem to have been led to such a conclusion, partly at least, on account of having overlooked the distinction between the two Yoga Schools of L. MBh. and therefore the notice I have here taken of this fact will not be deemed unnecessery.

The Conception the summun bonum different in two Yoga Schools.

Now, we shall not be surprised to find that these two Yoga Schools have two different conceptions of the final goal, both of which were recognised as equally good, at that time. Hiranyagarbha (308.45) is mentioned as the teacher of the Yogas described in 308, and verses 31-51 of that Chapter described aksara to be their goal or

highest principle which (akṣara) they called the Twentysixth (308.7-8) These Yogas rejected akşara as the higher Nature but accepted it as the goal; and as the Gîtā had already made this twofold distinction in the conception of aksara it is quite natural that the same discrimination is made by these Yogas. Unlike these Hiranyagarbha Yogas, the Rudrite Yogas contemplated on purusa. "Having thus enumerated (their principles upto Prakrti, as stated in the preceding verse), they meditate on the absolute eternal, infinite, pure, the woundless (avr.ma), constant purusa, the invulnarale, ageless, deathless, eternal, unchanging Lord and the unchanging Brahman (316.16, 17, 25)". Thus, the two Yoga Schools respectively belived in aksara and purusa as the goal.

Besides the two passages (308.31-52, 7-8 and 316.16-17, 25) we have to consider one more passage on this subject, viz., 318.79e-f. It says that "The Samkhyas and the Yogas accept the Twentysixth". I have already explained how it describes the

Samkhya doctrine of those days (see p. 47

above). As regards its application to the The Yogas' Actwo Yoga Systems I do not think we have ceptance the of any difficulty in understanding it. Chap-Twentysixth. ter 318 mainly deals with the Aupani-

sada doctrine (see p. 34 above), and therefore the verse in question means "The Yogas see the Twentysixth of the Aupanisadas", and this applies easily to the Rudrite Yogas whose Twentysixth was the purusa. But the verse can also mean "The Yogas see their own Twentysixth", and this would be correct with reference to both the Schools of the Yoga, because according to both the Twentyfifth was the individual soul, and so the Twentysixth was akşara (as the goal) with the Hiranyagarbha Yogas and purusa with the Rudra Yogas. Thus, according to the verse (318.79 e-f) the Twentysixth of Aupanisadas, viz., the purusa, was accepted by the Samkhyas (but as the Twentyfifth in their System) and also by the Rudra Yogas (with whom the purusa was the Twentysixth). As Rudra is mentioned in the list of the teachers in that Chapter (318.52) and as Hiranyagarbha is wanting in the same, I am inclined to believe that the author had in his mind the Rudrite Yogas (in 79e-f), though the verse applies also to the Hiranyagarbha Yogas if we construe the text in a way not uncommon to the Sanskrit literature. (The views of Professors Hopkins and Jacobi on "the Twentysixth" in 318. 79, and elsewhere in MBh. have been already discussed on p. 30 ff. above).

There is one more point in which the Yogas seem to have

The Conception of the Career of Life.

resembled the Sāṃkhyas. It is said that "The practice or observance (i. e. the career of life) followed by the Sāṃkhyas and the Yogas is the same" (tāv ubhāv ekacaryau--MBh. XII. 316. 2c, quoted

above on p.56). In the L.MBh. though the Samkhyas are said to be Yatis (ascetics), the Yogas are not said to be karmayogins which they are actually and most emphatically declared to be

The L. MBh. Conception of Three nişthās, without Reference to Schools.

in the Gîta. Moreover, instead of contrasting Sankhya and Yoga on the basis of renunciation and action, the L. MBh. mentions three niṣṭhās "careers of life" independently of any special reference to any philosophical Schools though, of course, they can be traced to have been

particularly favoured by one or other of these latter. They are called kevala jñāna (traceable in the Sāṃkhya School), kevala karman (most probably referring to the Pāñcarātras who were

Yatis devoting themselves to big sacrifices offered to Narayana), and iñānakarmasamuccaya followed by Janaka. These are described in MBh. XII. 320, 39-40 and 345, 92. It is most striking that, though Janaka himself refers to the Schools under the names of "sāmkliyajñāna", "yoga", and "mahīþālavidhi" (i. e. the Path of Devotion, cf. rājavidyā and rajaguhya in Bh. Gî. IX. 2) in 320. 25 and again to the three nisthas, mentioned above, in 320, 39-40, still he does not connect them with each other; on the contrary, he says that Pañcasikha taught the jñānakarmasamuccaya niṣṭhā, though he was himself a Samkhya philosopher. Thus, in the of the L.MBh. the careers of life independent o f the metaphysical doctrine. This, again, is in consistency with the progress of thought during the priod intervening between the Gîtā and the L.MBh, during which the sāmkhya and the yoga paths became Schools of these names.

Before we begin to examine the points of difference between the L.MBh. Yogas and Sāmkhyas, it is necessary to make a few remarks regarding the terminology of the Yogas. The Yogas seem to have specially favoured the designations a-pratibuddha or a-prabuddha, budhyamāna, and buddha (rather than the Twentyfourth, the Twentyfifth and the

Twentysixth-which they also used in Terminology of pursuance of the fashion of the day. is probable that these expressions refer-Yoga L. MBh. ring to the presence or absence of Schools. " consciousness" in the philosophical principles were originated by the Yogas and accepted by the Samkhyas and the Aupanisadas with such additions and alterations as would suit their own Systems. This fact should be carefully noted because as yet these terms have not been definitely recognised as technical terms by those who have interpreted the Mahabharata. There is ample evidence that these (terms) are used in the L.MBh. in a conventional and not in the etymological sense, though the latter must have been the basis of the former. In 307. 47 the author brings to a close his description of the Samkhya doctrine (samkhyanam tu param tativam yathāvad anuvarnitam—307.47c-d) and then thus begins the Yoga teaching: "Buddha and budhyamīna, because he (the latter, i. e. the soul) is not in reality the prati-

Evidence for the same.

buddha, budhyamāna and buddha, they declared to be the Yoga doctrine " (307. 48). (The Kumbhakoṇam ed. reads

"buddham apratibuddham ca budhyamanam ca tattvatah" in place of 307.48a-b of Bombay ed., which is intended to show that three principles of these three names are taught by the Yogas.) Now, hear the following gunavidhi (classification of the principles?) [concerning] buddha and abuddha. Yogas] (see above 307.48) making the Atman multiple (bahudhā, i.e. twofold; see below) assert the same (tāny eva, i. e., the twentyfour principles of the Sāmkhyas, described in 307) (308.1). The budhyamana modifying this [Unmanifest or abuddha mentioned in verse 1] in this way does not know (i. e. ceases to be a knower of the Twentysixth?). He upholds the constituents, he creates and withdraws them. He does so continuously for the sake of mere sport (308.2,3a-b). they call the budhvamāna [so] because he knows the Unmanifest (308.3c-d). But the Unmanifest being itself possessed of the constituents never. (na kadācit) knows [ the budhyamāna who is 1 the Constituentless; [therefore] they call it (n.) abratibuddhak (308.4). But when this Twentyfifth (n., sc. tattvam) knows the Unmanifest, the budhyamana certainly becomes attached to the world; so says the Sruti (of the Yogas). this reasson [the Yogas] call the unfallen Unmanifest (acyuta avyakta) "apratibuddha" (308.5). And they call the Twentyfifth "budhyamāna" because he knows the Unmanifest; but even he does not know the Great Atman (mahātman) (308.6). Twentysixth (n.), the buddha, which is pure, incomprehensible, eternal, knows eternally (satatam.....budhyate) the Twentyfifth and the Twentyfourth (308.7). Here, the Unmanifest ( i. e. the Twentysixth ), the absolute Brahman, which is by its very nature permeating the visible and the invisible, is, O friend of great lustre, the [sole] Knower in this world. The Twentyfourth does not see the Absolute (kevala) and the Twentyfifth" (308. 9a-b).

From this quotation it would appear that verse 307.48 associates budhyamana and buddha and (according to the Kumbhakonam ed.) apratibuddha (also mentioned in 308.4) specially with the Yoga School. Secondly it is clear from the verbal forms vadanti (308.3d, 6b) and ahuh (4d) that these are samjñās "technical names". If we look to what follows, we also find that apratibuddha, budhyamana and buddha are the names of the principles (308.21c-d, 22a-b). It is also clear from the above that these Yogas called them respectively the Twentyfourth, the Twentyfifth and the Twentysixth. It is further evident that the three are defined here in such a way that the possibility of their being reduced to two at any stage of development is precluded. Apratibuddha is "never a knower" (4a, c), i. e. one which can never become budhyamāna or buddha. Buddha is "eternally a knower" (7c-d); so the budhyamāna can never become the buddha. The three must eternally remain three; and we shall see later on that this position is maintained throughout by the author of this Chapter. They are also numbered as three. The remarks concerning these terms made already (on pp. 42-43 and p. 51) and the following note will convince the reader that 'Professors Hopkins, Deussen and Edgerton have committed grave blunders in not interpreting these terms as technical.

Note.—The fact that the interpretors of the L. MBh. School have not till now recognised these three as three principles of these names becomes clear if we look to their interpre-Prof. Edgerton translates 307.48 as follows: "The (soul) becoming-enlightened and that-is-enlightened is declared to be (also) the substance of Yoga teaching '(so that there is, as stated, no difference in the Samkhya and Yoga views of truth)". Besides other objections to be raised against this translation later on, I would here point out that Prof. Edgerton has failed to understand that budhyamana and buddha are two principles of those names and not two conditions of the same soul. This is evident from the fact that he has done away with the repeated "ca" in 308.44c-d. While 307.48 clearly says that the budhyamana is budhyamana "because in reality it is not pratibuddha (or, to use the usual form, buddha) and while 308.3-7 distinguishes budhyamana as a knower (of the Nature) and buddha as an eternal knower (of the other

two), Prof. Hopkins sees the identity of the individual spirit and the Lord-Spirit in verse 307.48. In doing so, he neglects the context. If the budhyamana became the buddha (or, in other words, if the Twentyfifth became identical with the Twentysixth), how could the Twentysixth be said to be "eternally knowing the Twentyfifth and the Twentyfourth"? shows that budhvamāna and buddha are here two principles and not conditions. (Prof. Hopkins, GEI. p. 134). I have alreaday mentioned Prof. Hopkins' and Prof. Deussen's explanations of 308.1 above. Prof. Hopkins explains apratibuddha in 308.4, not as a name for the Unmanifest, but as that of the individual soul (GEI. p. 135). Prof Deussen interprets "etad (n.) evam vikurvānah" (308.2) as "As he changes himself in this way.....," and "budhyamana" (in 308.5c) as "knowing" (i. e. as an adj.) though in 307.48 he interprets the same word "the Awakening" (i.e. as a noun): this proves that even Prof. Deussen did not decide for himself whether these are terms or adjectives (VPTM. 633). 308.6a-b means according to Deussen: "Through him, the Prakrti has not yet been [fully] known (apratibuddha— Prof. Deussen does not understand that according to the context apralibuddh eli stands for "apralibuddha — not apralibuddhā-+iti" i.e. for aprabuddham iti), so they say with reference to the Unmanifest, Imperturbable". No more examples will be necessary for proving that the terminology of the L MBh. Yogas (and, in a sense, that of other L. MBh. Schools who also used the same terms with modifications) has been till now not correctly understood. Henceforth I shall restrict myself to giving a consistent interpretation of 308 as I believe it to be, and request the reader to compare it with those of Professors Deussen and Hopkins wherever these be available. (Abuddha in 308.1 is a short form of apratibuddha in 4 and 5 and also in 21, used metri causa).

Now, we shall be able to understand how the L. MBh.

Points of Doctrinal Difference between L. MBh. Yogas and Samkhyas.

Yogas differed from the L. MBh. Samkhyas. The most prominent point of difference was the distinction of the Jiva from the Paramatman, which these Yogas made for the first time in the history of Indian Philosophy, just as the Samkhyas separated the Nature from the

Purusa for the first time by the rejection of the higher Nature.

As we have seen (in 308. 1) the Yogas made the Atman "multiple" bahudhā. The meaning of bahudhā must depend upon the context Distinction bet-Iîva and which, as we can learn from the verses that follow 308. 1, shows that unlike the Paramatman. Sāmskhyas, the Yogas have two Atmans, the budhyamana and the buddha, the Twentyfifth and the Twentysixth. It will have been also noticed that the budhyamāna is here the creator and destroyer (308. 2-3) while the buddha is permeating the visible and the invisible world without taking any part in the creation. The buddha is (at first) not known even to the budhyamana (308. 6c-d) and has apparently nothing to do with creation and destruction on account of its seeing the other two eternally. Thus, bahudhā is used for dvidhā partly because of meterical reasons and partly because, as in those days when only one Atman was known to the Samkhyas there was no possibility of its being confounded if the Yoga doctrine was contrasted with their view. Thus, there is no support to the interpretation of bahudhā as implying plurality of souls. (Moreover, as already said, it is not the "Lord-Spirit who makes himself many", as was interpreted by Prof. Hopkins; see p. 60 above.) The following verses (308. 9c-d, 17) bring out this fundamental difference between the two

"When the budhyamāna thinks of himself that he is of a different nature [from the Twentysixth], then he is 'Unmanifest-eyed' avyaktaləcana because he is possessed of Prakṛti (9c-d, 10a-b)¹. But when he knows the supreme knowledge pure and unimpure, he attains to 'the state of the buddha' (buddhatva) like the Twentysixth² (10c-d, 11a-b).

Schools quite distinctly:-

Then, he gives up the Unmanifest which Evidence for the is of the nature of creation and dissolution (11c-d). Then, he who is devoid of the attributes knows the Nature (prakrti) as possessed of attributes and as deviod of consciousness. Then, he comes to possess the attributes [buddhatva etc.] of the Absolute (i. e. the Twentysixth—

308. 8.), because of his having seen the Unmanifest (i.e. Brahman, as said in 308. 8) (12). Having come into contact with the Absolute, the liberated soul will reach the Atman<sup>4</sup>" (13a-b). "This non-principle, ageless and deathless, they (i. e. the Samkhyas) call 'principle' Samkhyas (taltvam)<sup>5</sup> (13c-d). But it is not [to be The criticised by the dealt with ] as a principle (tattvavat na) 'because it resorts to the principles' Yogas. (tattvasamsrayanāt). Learned people (i. e., the Samkhyas) speak of twentyfive 'principles' (tattvas)<sup>6</sup> (14). But he is not 'possessed of principles' (tattvavān); rather this intelligent one is a 'non-principle' (nistattva)8. He leaves far behind (i. e. is entirely different from ) the (Sāmkhya) principle of which buddhatva is predicated (by the Sāmkhyas). The highly conscious one ( prājāa ), the ageless and deathless, the Twentysixth, when being conceived of [ by the Twentyfifth or the Jiva ] with the notion of 'I' (i. e. I am the prājāa) becomes identical [ with the meditator ] undoubtedly only through force (kevalena balen eva) [but not in reality ]10 (16). By [ the side of ] the Twentysixth i. e. the prabuddha, even the budhyamana (i. e. the Twentyfifth) is ignorant<sup>11</sup>. This is said to be the distinction<sup>12</sup> [ of the Yoga

Notes.—1. These two verses (9c-d and 10a-b should be construed together (Prof. Hopkins, GEI. p. 135, differs). "Of a different nature" stands for anyah, because, as said in verse 26ff, the liberation of the soul from the world lies in the Twentyfifth becoming like the Twentysixth. Prof. Hopkins' translation: 'thinks that I am the other', is based upon a complete misunderstanding of the Yoga doctrine in this Chapter. 'Avyakta-locana' is confirmed by Kumbh. ed.; the reading proposed by Prof. Hopkins, viz., 'vyakta-locana' is not necessary; so also his proposed reading aprakrimān in place of prakrimān. "Avykla-locana" means "one who sees through the influence of the Unmanifest, the Nature" and also "one whose eyes are not annointed with collyrium (and therefore cannot see clearly)". 2. Yathā ṣadvimsah gives the standard of comparison for buddhatva, the sādharaṇa dharma which would then belong to both the budhymāna and the buddha. Prof. Edgerton's interpretation, "the budhyamāna,

School ] from the teaching of the Samkhya Scripture (17).

as the Twentysixth (sadvimsah yathā) will attain to budhatva", is, besides being in itself meaningless, in disharmony with the context, which shows that the badhyamana never becomes the buddha (see also Prof. Deussen VPTM. p. 634). 3. dharmā and 'kevalena samāgamya' in verse 13 shows that "sadvimsah yathā" is the upamāna here, and that the Twentyfifth does note become the Twentysixth in the state of absolution. Prof. Deussen's translation of "kevaladharmā bhavati" as "and becomes the Absolute" is inaccurate; so, also his translation of kevalena samāgamya as "having become one with the Absolute". Atmanam apnuyat is an expression for the state of liberation; it cannot mean "reaches his real self" if such an expression implies any theory of Illusion (Prof. Deussen, VPTM. p. 634). "Ahuh" in 13 shows that a School other than that in 308 is probably referred to here and verse 14 shows that this other School is the Samkhya School (see 307. 40, 47; 306. 43 etc. where the Samkhya is said to have only twentyfive princi-Etad nistat!vam in 13c-d refers to kevala in 13a. Ajaramaram 13d-the Yogas would never allow that the Supreme Being becomes subject to old age and death, unlike the Samkhyas who held that the Supreme Being itself is bound and again liberated. This postion of the Yogas is quite consistent with their view that the budhyamana (and not the buddha) is the creator and destroyer and that the Twentysixth knows the Twentyfifth and the Twentyfourth eternally (308. 2, 7). The buddha serves for the budhyamāna as an ideal as it were (308. 11). The budhyamāna becomes kevaladharmā, not kevala itself (12-13); he can come into contact with the kevala and hope to be thereby liberated only if the latter is eternally bondage and liberation (13). 5. In my opinion we have here a protest of the Yogas against the custom of the Samkhyas who called the Supreme Being (the Twentysixth of the Yogas) "a tattva" on the ground that it resorts to the tattvas. According to the Yogas, the Supreme One never resorts to the tattvas as we have seen in 308. 6-8, and therefore it can never be called a *tattva* even in the secondary sense. words, the Yogas do not admit that the budhyamāna becomes the buddha in liberation; the buddha never resorts to the principles at all during its eternal existence. The position of the Samkhyas, "tattvasamsrayanat tattvam", is often met with in the L. MBh. e. g. in 302. 38:

<sup>&</sup>quot;Pañcaviṃsatitamo Vișnur nistattvas tattvsaamjñitaḥ | tattvasaṃsrayaṇād etat tattvam āhur manīṣiṇaḥ" ||

See also 306. 41; 307. 47; 306. 43; 302. 38; 6. "But he is not possessed of principles" amounts to "he never resorts to the principles". 7-8. Here the followers of the Yoga emphatically assert their view that the Supreme Being is in no sense a tattva; he is a nistattva. 9. i. e., He is not a 'principle with the characteristic buddhatva, but is no principle at all, though he should be called the Twetysixth, as these Yogas do. The followers of the Yoga object to the term tattva being applied to the Supreme Being and, for this reason, are bound to reject the Supreme Being of the Samkhyas whom they called "buddha" and also "tattva". Again, "buddhatvalakşanam tattvam", "a principle (and again) called buddha", is to be found only in the Samkhya School, not in the Yoga; the latter would accept buddhatvalaksanam nistattvam. This seems to be the sense of verse 15. As regards the position of the Samkhyas, 306. 44 when considered along with 307. 37 would mean that the Twentyfifth who, when influenced by prakrti, is called budhyamana, becomes kevala (306. 44d) and buddha ("now I am buddha" 307. 37c) when he knows himself (306. 44c). The Yogas refused to accept the identity of the two. 10. The repetition of ajarāmara (in 13, 16) shows that it forms an important argument of the Yogas; the Jiva is subject to death and old age, the Supreme Being is according to Yoga eternally free from these; there is no possibility of there being complete identity between the two even after the former's Aham iti grhyamanah refers to the method of meditation, in which the object of meditation is thought of as identical with the self of the meditator. "Kevalena balena eva" is a simple expression and means "only per force" i. e. "never in reality"; the reason is, as explained above, that the sadvimsa is not like the pañcavimsa; there can be no real identity between the two; the identity achieved during the meditation is an unreal conjectural one, as it is based upon mere force and on no reasonable Prof. Hopkins has failed to notice the emphasis underlying the expression "kevalena balen eva" and then he comes to the conclusion quite contrary to the one given above (see GEI. p. 135). Prof. Edgerton interprets it as, "by the mere abstract power" and adds, by way of explanation, "the power of this knowledge"; I do not think "balena" should be here interpretedas "the power of knowledge"; the context shows that all identity of the individual soul with the Supreme One is denied here (Prof. Edgerton, AJP, Vol. XLV, 1924). Prof. Edgerton, seems to have followed Prof. Deussen (VPTM p. 635). All the three interpretors believe that in the present verse the

identity is taught by the Yogas. But the next verse solves the problem. 11. This seems to mean: The Twentyfifth never becomes identical with the Twentysixth because though the former is budhymāna, the latter is brabuddha. This was already said in verse 6: "Even he (i.e. the budhyamana) does not know the Great Atman". "Prabuddha" shows that the buddha eternally knows the budhyamana who knows the former only during liberation. 12. "Nānātva" in verse 17 refers to the difference between the Yogas and the Sāmkhya Schools. In 13 and 14 the Samkhya doctrine has been introduced as the view of an opponent; and the word "tu" in 13c shows the same. Again, the remarks, "it is not like tattva" (14b) and "That intelligent one is nistattva, and has no tattva" (15a-b) indicate that here the Samkhya view has been rejected; because elsewhere in the Samkhya text (302-307) it is always said that though the Twentyfifth (of the Samkhyas, of course) is a non-principle, it is yet a principle because it resorts to principles. over we are given here the facts that the buddha or the Twentysixth of the Yogas is "no principle characterised as buddha"; that the identity of the Jiva and the Supreme Soul is a forced one; and that the budhyamāna, as compared with the buddha is ignorant. All these arguments show that the difference between the Yoga and the Sāmkhya Schools is meant here by the word "nānālva". In 308. 1.c-d we are told that "the Yogas having made the Atman multiple (i. e. twofold, as already shown above) describe the same (n. plu.) (principles)"; and it is exactly in agreement with this statement that these verses (308. 9c-d-17) explain the difference between the two Schools on the problem of the Yoga view of Atman. The Yogas actually taught two Atmans, the Twentyfifth and the Twenty-Verse 14 has clearly said that the Samkhyas accept only twentyfive tattvas including the Twentyfifth as tattva because it resorts to the tattvas; there is no indication here that the Sāmkhyas accepted the Twentysixth. Prof. Deussen translates verse 17 as follows: "But when he has become awakened through the awake Twentysixth, he [still] continues being ignorant (so ist er weiter erkenntnislos, 17a-b which, howeve, has nothing like "weiter"), because this [opposition of the subject and the object in the act of knowing ] is explained to be still a plurality according to the view of the Samkhyas and the Scripture (17c-d)". And Prof. Hopkins (10c. cit. p. 135) explains the same in the following manner, "That separateness of spirits (nanatva, M.) which is part of the exposition of Samkhya is really (explained by) the conditioned spirit (budhyamāna? M.) when not fully (? M.

enlightened (abuddhimān, M.) by the (fully) (? M.) enlightened Twentysixth".\* Prof. Edgerton takes "ctan nanatvam ity uktam" (17c) to mean "This (consciousness) implies plurality" (Prof. Edgerton, AJP. Vol. XLV, 1924). It will be seen that all these interpretors have not realised the importance of the terms budhyamana and buddha as names of metaphysical principles. It is difficult to understand what meaning Prof. Deussen makes out of 17a-b. Though the term nanatva can mean "plurality", it can also mean "difference", as in the present case. Moreover, I do not think that in 308 we have anywhere "the opposition of the subject and the object". As regards Prof. Hopkins' translation, I have shown that the L. MBh. Samkhya knows nothing of the plurality of individual souls implied in his words "separateness of spirits". (There is a separateness of spirits here, viz., that of the Twentyfifth and the Twentysixth; but this is far from Prof. Hopkins' meaning.) Moreover, his translation is too free to be of any value in understanding the text. There are other minor differences between my interpretation and those of others; these have not been noticed here. It will be seen that the second point of difference between the two Schools of L. MBh, to be presently noticed, will also prove the correctness of the interpretation proposed by me above.

The above translation of 308. 9c-d—17 and the notes added to it, which fully refute the incorrect interpretations of Prof. Hopkins and Prof. Deussen, prove that the L. MBh. Yoga differed from the L. MBh. Sāṃkhya as regards the Atman. The Yoga believed in two Atmans, the Twentyfifth and the Twentysixth, while the Sāṃkhyas believed in only one viz., the Twentififth. The Twentififth of the Yoga is the creator and destroyer, and their Twentysixth has nothing to do with the world. The Yogas objected to calling the latter a tattoa and rejected the Sāṃkhya view on that point.

As a natural consequence of the separation of the Jiva from the Supreme Being, which this Yoga School taught for

<sup>\*</sup> Bracketed additions marked M. (Modi) are my own.

the first time in the history of the Indian Philosophy, they

The Conception of the summum bonum: the Jiva becomes like Paramatman, not Paramatman Himself.

reject led were tο existing view about then nature of liberation from or release worldly But as this Yoga School existence. found itself confronted specially by the Sāmkhyas, the explanation of their teaching on this point, like that on the ques-

tion of the separateness of the Jîva from the Lord, has assumed the form of a criticism of the Sāṃkhya view on the same topic. This has been already suggested in the verses translated above. The "bondage" was said to consist in the budhyamāna becoming attached to the world (308. 5). It was said that the budhyamāna does not know the Great Atman [during his bondage] (308. 6), and that when he thinks himself to be other [than the Twentysixth] he comes into possession of Prakṛti (308. 9c-d, 10a-b), and that when he "knows (i. e. acquires) the pure knowledge" he attains the buddha-state like (that of) the Twentysixth. The fact that he does not himself become the Twentysixth was made clear by stating that in absolution he becomes (not kevala but) kevaladharmā (308. 12c). This last one is the point emphatically stated in verses 18-30 to be now examined.

"The identity (ekatva) of this Twentyfifth united with the Conscious One (cetanena sametasya), takes place, when he (i. e. the Twentyfifth) does not cognise [any longer] by means of the intellect<sup>2</sup> [and not when he merges himself into the Supreme l'eing, the Twentysixth, as Prof. Hopkins implies] (18). When the budhyamāna attains equality (samatām yāti) with the prabuddha, he 'whose nature was attachment' (samgadharmā) becomes unattached³ (19). Having reached

the unattached, the Twentysixth, the un-Evidence for the born and omnipresent, the omnipresent same. [Jîva] abandons the Unmanitest, the Twentyfourth, when he knows it to be

worthless, through the knowledge of the Twentysixth (20-21a-b)<sup>4</sup>. Here the apratibuddha, the budhyamāna and the buddha havé been to-day described to you in their proper way according

to the teaching in the [Yoga] Sruti (21c-d, 22a-b). The similarity and the dissimilarity (ekatva and nānātva)<sup>6</sup> [of the budhyamāna and the buddha<sup>6</sup>] should be seen from the teaching in the [Yoga] Scripture as follows (etāvad) (22c-d): The dissimilarity (anyatva) between these two [the budhymāna and the buddha] is like that between the fruit of the tree of Ficus Glomerata and the worm [residing in it]; the distinction (anyatva) between the two can be perceived also as that between the fish and the water<sup>7</sup> (23). Only thus (evam eva) should be understood the non-identity and identity and of these two. This [knowledge of the identity and the non-identity]

together with the knowThe Sāṃkhyas ledge of the Unmanifest
criticised by the (i.e. the Nature, the apratibuddhaka, the
Yogas.
Twentyfourth) is called [in the
Yoga School] the liberation

(24)9. They [i. e. the Samkhyas] say that this one here, viz., the Twenty fifth who lives in the [various] bodies [by turn] is to be made free from the sphere (or power) of the Unmanifest (25)10. It is the decision [of the Yogas] that he [i.e. "the Twentyfifth in the body"]11 might be released only in this way and not otherwise<sup>12</sup>. Having associated<sup>13</sup> with the Highest<sup>14</sup> he comes to possess the attributes of the Highest (26). come into association ("sametya," occuring four times in 27-30) with the pure (suddha), the Awakened (buddha), the [ever-] liberated (mukta) the one whose nature is [eternal] separation [from prakrti], who possesses absolution, whose nature is pure, who is absolute and independent, -- the Twentyfifth comes to possess as his attributes purity, awakening (buddhi), liberation, separation (Kumbh. ed.), purity..... and becomes independent" (308. 27-30)18.

Notes.—1. Compare this with "kevalena samāgamya" in 13 above. 2. i. e., ceases to be "Unmanifest-eyed" (10b). "Yadā buddhyā na budhyate" cannot here mean "has no longer any consciousness (of self)" (Prof. Hopkins, GEI. p. 135).

3. The liberation consists in the samgātmaka (5d) becoming niḥsamgatmā (19d). 4. Verses 21c-d and 22a-b have been

already explained. They mention three independent principles and thus indirectly show that the preceding verses (.8-21a-b) are not intended to mean that the budhyamana becomes identical with the buddha even in liberation. 5. Nānātva and ekalva 22c-d cannot be other than those mentioned in 24b (see below). Nānātva is explained as anyatva in 23. 6. That the similarity and dissimilarity intended in 22c-d is that between the two viz., the budhyamana and the buddha, is proved not only by my interpretation of 13-17a-b and by the fact that there can be no question of apratibuddha being compared with any of these two, but also from elayoh in 23b, d and 25b. 7. The Yoga Twentysixth (buddha) is here compared with the fruit itself and the Jiva (the budhyamana, the Yoga Twentyfifth) with the worm within it. Glomorata is never known to be without a worm or worms The idea underlying these similes as given here seems to be that just as the fruit and the water are greater than the worm and the fish, so the buddha is greater than the budhyamāna and therefore the two are "never identical". The repetition of anyatva shows that here the non-identity of the two is emphasised as in 13-17 also. 8. "Only thus", implies a protest against the Sāmkhyas. It means that the buddha is like the budhyamana, but is also greater than the latter. Both are knowing principles, but the buddha's knowing is eternal, the budhyamana knows the buddha only when he is liberated. 9. should be noted that verse 24 gives the Yoga view of liberation. This view maintains the non-identity (though likeness also) of the Twentyfifth and the Twentysixth even during absolution. After having stated their own view (24), it is just proper for the Yogas to mention the Samkhya standpoint, which they wanted to refute. Prāhuh (25c) shows that the hostile view is mentioned here and the statements about the pañcavimsalika leave no doubt that the Samkhya is meant here. expression, though used by the Samkhyas, applies well to the Twentyfifth of the Yogas also and therefore they welcome it. The emphatic expressions: evam....nānyathā (23), iti viniscayah (26) and evam eva (24) are not meaningless, only if we suppose that the Samkhya view is criticised here from the Yoga standpoint. So, the Yogas do not accept the Samkhya view, that the budhyamana becomes buddha in liberation or that the Twentyfith is both the individual and the universal soul. 13. Note the Yogas' emphatic use of "sametya" (26). Cf. sametasya in 18 and asadya in 20. 14. I follow the v. 1. in the Kumbh. ed. which runs as follows:-"parena paradharmā

ca bhavty eşa sametya vai". The reading in he Bombay ed., parasca paradharma ca bhavaty esa samelya vai", is inconsistent with the word "sametya" in it and seems to have been introduced by some one who believed the Yoga to teach the identity of Jiva and Paramatman. 15. After reading all the verses (18-30) it would appear clear that Prof. Deussen and Prof. Hopkins are not right in understanding nanatva (in 22,24) to refer to the doctrine of the plurality of individual souls (VPTM. p. 635; GEI. p. 135). It is evident that nanatva here (as invariably in all other places where Prof. Hopkins takes it to mean plurality of souls-see App. III) is explained by the text itself as anyatva (308.23) and both nanatva and ekalva of 22 refer to only two (and not to many) in 308.24. We have here (22-24) not "the two theories of separateness [of many souls] and unity [of two, the Jiva and the Lord], but only one theory of the identity and non-identity (bhedābheda in a sense) of the Iîva and Isvara.

The above interpretation of 308.18-30 and the notes on the same will have shown that the Yogas differed for the Sāmkhyas on the point of the nature of liberation. Verses 13-17 show that the Twentyfifth and the Twentysixth of the Yogas (or, in other words the individual soul and the Supreme Being) are different in their very nature; thus they mean indirectly that the two are not identical during bondage

Yoga.

(samsāra); and verses 18-30 aim at No Identity of emphasing their non-identity even after Iîva and Paramat- the liberation of the Jîva. According to man, in L. MBh. the Yogas, the Jiva never realises himself as the Supreme Being which is never involved into bondage. So also their

identity conceived of during meditation is a forced one (16). The liberated soul (the Twentyfitth in liberation) and the Supreme Being (the Twentysixth) are quantitatively though, as regards their attributes they may be said to be qualitatively one.

That the Samkhya is criticised here is proved not only by the Yogas' persistence on the method salvation described here (24, 26) and by the reference to the Samkhya method of the same (25) which (refence) finds its parallel in 14, but also by another passage viz., XII.

300. 3-4 which unequivocally says that
Further evidence. the Samkhyas and the Yogas differed in
their method and idea of absolution.

The Yogas had said: "Anisvarah katham mucvet" How soul be released if he had could the no God (apart from himself)? The answer of the Samkhyas, which did not admit of God as distinct from the Iîva, is given in 300. 4-5. It was the moksadarsana (300. 5) on which the two Schools differed. "Pratvaksahetavo Yogah Sāmkhyāh sāstraviniscayāh" (300. 7) should therefore refer to the fact that the Yogas for the first time went against the Scriptures in separating the Jiva from Isvara. They argued from direct cognition (pratyaksa). To them, the idea that God has become bound or that the bound soul becomes God would have appeared most inconsistant. Yet both the Schools had a good number of followers (300. 8). To sum up: The L. MBh. Yogas had made the Atman " multiple " bahudhā i. e. twofold : the Jîve and the Isvara, while they accepted the same twentyfour principles as the Sămkhyas (308. 1).

The above explanation of 308. 1-30 contains no indication that the Yogas knew the theory of the plurality of souls.

No Plurality of Souls in the Yoga Schools.

The expression bahudhā (308. 1) means dvidhā according to the context, as explained above. Nānātva in 308. 17 or in 308. 22 and 24 has no reference to that theory, as is evident from my transference also shows that even the L. MPI.

lation and notes. I have also shown that even the L. MBh. Samkhya did not believe that the souls were many (except in 350. 2 for which see App. III). For all these reasons, both

Mistaken Interpretation of L. MBh. XII. 308 by Prof. Deussen and Prof. Hopkins. Prof. Deussen (VPTM, p. 635) and Prof. Hopkins (GEI, p. 135) must be said to have failed in their efforts to explain nānātva (in 308. 17, 22 and 24) as plurality of souls. The latter's interpretation, according to which nānātva (22, 24) refers to the plurality or separateness of

individual spirits and ekatva mentioned in the same breath

refers to the unity of the Twentyfifth and the Twentysixth looks absurd, even independently of the context which restricts both  $n\bar{a}n\bar{a}tva$  and ekatva to "the two" in 308. 24 (and not to "the many" of Prof. Hopkins).

It will have been noticed that throughout this Chapter (308) the Twentysixth is distinguished from the Twentyfifth (or, that the Jîva aspect of the Twentyfifth of the Sāṃkhyas has been fundamentally differentisted from the Isvara and Mukta aspect of the same so as to make them numerically two). Again, the Sāṃkhyas are twice said to have only Twentyfive principles (308. 14, 25); these statements are exceedingly important because they occur in the midst of other statements mentioning the Twentysixth (308. 7 11, 16, 17, 20, 21). So, the Twentysixth mentioned here is that of the Yoga School, not that of the Sāṃkya. Moreover, I have already shown that the Twentysixth in XII. 318. 79e-f is that of the Aupaniṣadas and does not belong to the Sāṃkhyas as their Twentisixth, though the Twentysixth of

the Aupanisadas is not different from the Twentifith of the Samkhyas. Finally, never becomes the Twentysixth in the Twentysixth in the L.MBh. Schools.

the Aupanisadas is not different from the Twentifith of the Samkhyas. Finally, as yet nobody has shown any passage in the entire Mahabharata stating that the Twentyfifth becomes

the Twenty sixth in the state of liberation. This was, indeed, impossible (a) in the Aupaniṣada School because their Twentififth and Twentysixth were respectively akṣara and puruṣa; (b) in the Yoga Schools because they denied that the Twentysixth, akṣara (with the Hiraṇyagarbha Yogas) or puruṣa (with the Rudra Yogas) and the Twentififth were numerically one; and lastly (c-d) in the Sāṃkhya and the Pāñcarātra Schools because they believed only in twentyfive principles. The effort of Prof. Hopkins to find the Twentysixth (of the Sāṃkhya School!) in 307 which nowhere mentions the name "Twentysixth" but on the contrary says that the Sāṃkhyas have no principle higher than the Twentyfifth (307. 47) is not a well guided one. The "friend" (bandhu) mentioned in 307. 27, who is neither

explicitly nor implicitly said to be the Twentysixth, should be construed like the two "friends" in Sve. Up. IV. 6, which knows nothing about the separation of the Jîva and Isvara (see Prof. Hopkins, GEI. p. 133).

Just as the origin of the Classical Samkhya is to be traced to the rejection of the higher Nature, so we find, according to the above interpretation of the LMBh., that the origin of the Classical Yoga lies in the rejection of the traditional identity of the Jîva and Isvara inherited from the days of the Earliest Prose Upanisads. The idea of God in the Yoga System was not arrived at by

Discovery of the Origin of the Classical Yoga Doctrine of Transcendent God: Abandonment of the Upanisadic Identity of Iîva and Brahman.

superimposing it on an atheistic Sāmkhya System with twentyfive principles, but by distinguishing the Jîva from God on practical grounds, viz., (1) on the argument that the actual experience (pratyakṣa) shows that they should be always numerically two, though not qualitatively, and thererefore the Scripture (sāstra) may be set aside on this point (300. 4-5); (2) on the belief that God is eternally beyond

old age and death, while the Jiva undergoes bondage (samsāra) (308. 16c.); (3) by making the Jiva (who is separate from God from the beginning) the creator and destroyer of the world (308, 2); and finally (4) by keeping him distinct from God both during bondage and liberation:—in short by the rejection of the identity of Jiva and God (i. e. akşara or burusa, as the case may be ) taught in the Oldest Prose and Earlier Metrical Upanisads and in the Gita and inherited by the L. MBh. Samkhyas. Not only is this origin of the Yoga conception of a transcendent and supercosmic God supported by the text (308), but also there is nothing unreasonable in the process of its being obtained by the rejection of jivesvarayor abheda instead of its being attributed, rather superficially, to a nirisvara Samkhya. It is probable that originally the word ninsvara may have meant what the word anisvara means in the L.MBh. ("one not having any God separate from the Jiva300. 3). Thus the Chapter (XII. 308) clearly shows that the idea of a supercosmic God who serves, as it were, only as an ideal for the Jîva, had been reached long before the theory of the plurality of souls was known.\*

The importance of Chapter 308 of MBh. XII is as great as that of the passages which show that the Samkhyas and the Yogas rejected the higher Nature of the Aupanisadas. This

Historical Importance of MBh. XII. 308.

Chapter (308) clearly proves that the Yoga was one definite philosophical School in the days of the L. MBh.; that it differed from the Sāṃkhya on the nature

of the Jiva and Isvara; that the Yogas had a Twentysixth principle but the Sāṃkhyas had only twentyfive; and lastly that the origin of the idea of God in the Classical Yoga is to be traced not to a superficial ascription of God to an atheistic Sāṃkhya System, but to the rejection of the Upanisadic oneness of God and the soul. If the importance of this Chapter (308) and the passages which refer to the rejection of the higer Nature had been realised, the four Schools of the later Mahābhārata would have been clearly distinguished from each other.

I have already suggested that the new teminology of aprati-

Adoption of the L. MBh. Yoga terminology by other contemporary Schools.

buddha, budhyamāna and buddha, which probably originated in the L. MBh. Yoga School (307. 48), was also adopted by the other Schools. It would be therefore interesting here to note the different conceptions of the principle called bu'lhyamāna in the three different Schools

with which we are here concerned. The Aupanișadas called

<sup>\*</sup> The one soul of this L.MBh. Yoga was omnipresent (308. 20), and this must be the reason that when, in the later history of Sāmkhya and Yoga Schools, the doctrine of the plurality of souls arose, the many souls were also taught to be omnipresent.

their higher Nature budhyamana avyakla "the knowing

The Conception of "budhyamāna" in all the Schools.

Unmanifest" because their akṣara is a living conscious principle (MBh. XII. 305. 31-35, see pp. 38, 42 above). The Sāṃkhyas gave the name of budhyamāna to the bound soul which became

buddha in the liberated state (MBh. XII. 306. 44, 307. 37). This was their highest principle, the Twentyfith (MBh. XII. 306. 43; 304. 9; 302. 32; 307. 47; 308. 14). The Yogas said hat the budhyamāna obtains the state of the buddha (buddhatva) i.e. becomes like the buddha, but the two are eternally two, as

Origin of the term "buddha" older than Buddhism.

we have seen above. (This was perhaps the crigin of the term buddha which later on in the days of Buddhism became the property of the Buddhistic School with a definite sense.)

Thus, the Yoga is a System of what may be appropriately termed a Double Dualism, viz., one dualism of Matter and Spirit, as that of the Sāṃkhya; and another of two Spirits,

Progress made by the L. MBh. Yogas.

i.e., the Jîva and the impersonal Brahman or the personal purușa. The special contribution of this L. MBh. School of Yoga lies, as already stated, in the fact that it consciously separated the individual from

the Supreme Soul for the first time in the history of the Indian Philosophy. This Spiritual Dualism should be distinguished from the Spiritual Dualistic Monism of the EMU and the Gitā which consisted of the higher Nature and the puruṣa both of which are called Atmans. The L. MBh. Aupaniṣadas had a Pluralistic Dualism because they enumerated akṣara, puruṣa and the lower Nature as three principles, but the last was not

The Doctrine of "Double Dualism of Spirit and Matter."

considered to be eternal while these Yogas who regard the Jîva as an independent principle like the Twentyfourth and the Twentysixth have really three eternal principles which, however, as explained

above, stand to each other in the relation of a Double Dualism. The Oldest Prose Upnişads knew nothing about any dualism or Dualistic Monism. They had said: "Brahman is on e on ly, without a second". That was not yet the age of synthesis and antithesis but that of mere thesis. The Age of the Earlier Metrical Upanisads, the Gîtā, and the later Mahābhārata, although it started with the intention of providing a synthesis for the Oldest Prose Upanisads (Remember-Mu. Up. 1. 2 does nothing except placing akṣara and puruṣa side by side) is really an age of antithesis, when we compare it with that of the Brahmasūtras. But this latter had its forerunner in the L. MBh. Pāñcarātra School, which we shall examine in the next Section.

## 4. The Pancaratra School.

The text of the L. MBh. Pāñcarātras is the Nārāyanaṇiya Section (MBh. XII. 334-351). Whenever their views are quoted elsewhere in the Mahābhārata, the text Pāñcarātra Chaprefers to these as belonging to another ters in the L. MBh. School i.e. the School of the Pāñcarātra.

An example of the latter is found in MBh. XII. 210. 10-11 and 14 (see p. 30 above). The accuracy with which the views of the Pāñcarātra School are mentioned in the L. MBh. is a sufficient guide to distinguish its doctrines from those of other Schools.

The most striking phenomenon that we find in the Pañcaratra School is its complete identification of aksara and purusa. "This (Nārāyana) is the on e Identification of auspicious form of that which is the akşara and puruşa. Immutable (aksara), the Unmanifest (avyakta), the Lord. the cause of the world, the Unchanging (kiltastha), the Agent ( kartr), devoid of "the pairs" ( dvandvas), whom they knew as the non-Agent (akartr)......" (XII. 342. 125-126). In another passage Nārāyaṇa is "the unborn ancient puruṣa", "the Lord", and also the source of the world, the abode of the Immortal, "the Subte" (suksma) ..... (XII. 346. 21-22). There are many other passages of the same type, which identify the impersonal with the personal (XII. 334. 29-31a-b, 339.

29; 340. 44; 351. 17-18). The terms for akşara in the EMU and the Gîtā are thus included here in Revival of the those of the *burusa*; as a result Nārāyana Oldest Description could be described as he who is not to of aksara. be seen with the eye, not to be touched with the sense of touch etc., i.e. exactly in the fashion of the description of aksara in Br. Up. IV. 5. 15. Especially noteworthy is the term vidyā which the Sve. Up. (V. 1) used for aksara, and the L. MBh. Sämkhya for purusa or the Twentyfifth The term vidyā. (307. 1-2; see pp. 44-45 above) and which these Pañcaratras could only use for an innate power of the purusa, always in his "company" though he is "alone" (MBh. XII. 339. 68, 72; 342. 95; 344. 12 c-d; 347, 19). the historical development in the meaning of vidyā and avidyā is lost sight of, a great confusion is inevitable ( Prof. Hopkins, GEI, p. 104 and p. 136). Its position in the L. MBh. Pañcaratra School shows that the latter identified aksara and purusa. Even the later development of the Pañcaratra Sect also confirms this view ( see Prof. Schrader, Introduction to the Pāñcarātra, pp. 62-64 and p. 78). This combination of aksara and burusa Nārāyana, named under the name of Nārāyana was called the Twentyfifth. by the Pancaratras "the Twentyfifth" (XII. 339. 43).

Note.—The three passages mentioning vidyā as conceived of in the three Schools may be quoted here for facilitating their comparison:—

(1) Dve akşare brahmapare tv anante vidyāvidye nihite yatra gūḍhe |

kşaram tv qvidyā hy amṛtam tu vidyā vidyāvidye Isate yas tu soSnyah ||

( Sve. Up. V. 1)

(2) Avidyām āhur avyaktam sargapralayadharmi vai | sargapralayanimuktām vidyām vai pañcavimsakaḥ ||

(MBh. 307. 2). Cf. also MBh. 307. 11a-b where we read about the same two: Ubhāv ev ākṣarāv uktāv ubhāv etāv anakṣarau."

(3) Ekākī vidyayā sārdham viharişye jagat punalı | tato bhūyo jagat sarvam kariş yāmīha vidyayā || (339. 72)

Or

vidyāsahāyo yatrāste bhagavān havyakavyabhuk | (344. 12c-d).

If we remember that in its original conception this vidyā is a living, conscious principle (see p. 15 above), we can also understand the great religious movement of the Sākta Sect and also Sakti- or Devî-worship prevalent even now in some form or other all over India. It could not have originated from a personification of the dead, inanimate, unconscious Nature or prakṛti of the Classical or L. MBh. Sāṃkhyas. The first root of it is in the "sakti" of Sve. Up. I. 3 and the jīvabhūtā parā prakṛti of the Gîtā (VII. 5).

Another point in the doctrinal teaching of this School is that the Nature or prakrti which should be regarded as the

The Nature, the Twentyfourth, "born" of Nārāyaņa.

Twentyfourth of this School is said to be "born of Nārāyaṇa". This is undoubtedly the natural result of the Pāñcarātras' conception of Nārāyaṇa who is puruṣa identified completely with akṣara (as the

goal) and yet having as his "sahāya" vidyā, as said above. This Nature which is thus the lower Nature of the Aupaniṣadas (born of akṣara the higher Nature—Bh. Gì. III. 15, Mu. Up. I. 1. 9) is often described in the Nārāyaṇîya Section: 'From Him (i. e. puruṣa in 334. 30) is born the Unmanifest possessed of three guṇas" (334. 31); "The Unmanifest dissolves into the actionless puruṣa" (339. 29-31); "He whom the Sāṃkhyas and the Yogas call Paramātman.......From Him is born the Unmanifest which the wise know as pradhāna (340. 28c-d, 29c-d; see also 347. 16a-c).

Like Nature, the Jîva or individual soul is also described as emerging from and returning unto the puruṣa. A reference to App. III. which discusses among others the two chapters of the Nārāyaṇiya Section on the plurality of souls would show that the puruṣa of the Pāñcarātras is called the yoni (i. e. "source", or "matrix") of the souls, and this agrees with other passages, such as 334. 42 and 335. 2 where an individual soul is said to have "come forth" (praṣṛta) from the Atman (ātma-prabhava). But though in one passage (343. 14) Nārāyaṇa is

called the "creator of the self" (sarvabhu-

tāmabhāvana), we may justly doubt that

The Individual Souls and their Relation to Narayana.

this means an abandoning of the general lation to Narayana. Indian belief that transmigration, i. e. no beginning. For, in another the individual God Brahman is said to have passage (350) created and go on And there can be but little doubt that here. the later Pañcaratra, the liberated are thought though united with and similar to Nai advaitic phrases like mām pravišya (339. 43) bhavisvati (349, 48) should not mislead us (Cf. Introduction to the Pañcaratra, p. 91 fll.). For, the inhabitants of Syetadyipa are all of them "awakened", i. e., liberated (pratibuddhās ca te sarve), and God is "pleased in their company" (taih sārdham ramate) (343. 53-64). Indeed, Svetadvîpa is nothing else than the place of the liberated (and, according to Prof. Schrader, identical mutatis mutandis with the umbrellashaped "rock of the liberated" of the Jainas). And though a further progress from Svetadvipa to the "Thousand-rayed God is indicated (339.129-130; cf. 339. 19-20), which presumably takes place when pralaya comes (cf. the kramamukti in Sankara's Vedanta), we may safely assume that, as in the later Pañcaratra, the difference between the liberated and the non-liberated continues even during the cosmic Night, and that, when the latter ends, it is the non-liberated who are "created", i. e., sent out again into the world. There would. indeed, be no sense in teaching liberation at all, if in pralaya

both the liberated and the non-liberated would get rid of individual existence.\*

Thus, what the history of Indian Philosophy owes to these Pañcaratras is the identification of aksara and *purusa* into one goal. This identification is not to be found in the whole made Progress of the Gîtā, except in Bh. Gî. XIII. by the Pancaratra 12-17. What Garbe has said about the School. conception of the Supreme Being in the Gîtă applies to this passage o n l y out of the entire Gîtă and to the entire Nārāyaniya Section of the Mahābhārata. the Pāncarātra Doctdualism No Dualism. rine we have no of any kind whatsoever; and puruşa are not aksara because distinguished; and prakrti "born" of Nārāyana. is

Though both the Pancaratra and the Samkhya are Systems recognising only twentyfive principles, Comparison of the former has only one eternal principle the Pancaratra with (the individual souls, though eternal, not other Schools.

being counted as different from the Universal Spirit, but admitted as existing

within that Spirit itself), while the Sāṃkhyas teach two eternal entities viz., Spirit and Matter. The Yoga Schools and the Aupaniṣada System differ from the Pāñcarātra in so far as each of them accepts twentysix principles while the latter has only twentyfive. The Pāñcarātra however is nearer to the Aupaniṣada than to the Yoga because the Pāñcarātra like the Aupaniṣada does not distinguish the Jîva as an independent and numerically one principle, and believes that the Nature is not eternal. Moreover, in so far as the Pāñcarātra identifies the akṣara with the puruṣa, it may be looked upon as more Upaniṣadic than the Yogas who gave up the akṣara as the higher Nature and also as the goal (as did the Rudra Yogas) or gave up the puruṣa (as was the case with the Hiraṇyagarbha Yagas).

<sup>\*</sup> I am indebted to Professor Schrader for this information about the conception of the Jiva in the Pancaratra.

One result of this Pancaratra doctrine of the identity of akṣara and puruṣa is that the Supreme

sitorum.

The Doctrine of Reality is now conceived to be possessed coincidentia oppo- of contradictory attributes. It is both saguna and nirguna, kartr and akartr, etc.; that is to say: it is saguna, kartr, etc.

like puruşa, and nirguna, akartr, etc., like akşara. We may say that the Supreme Being is both satyakāma, satyasamkalþa (Chā. Up. VIII. 1.5) and anaņu, ahrasva, adirgha (Br. Up.

III. 8. 8). As the Gîtā puts it, it is Its Original Mean-possessed of feet etc. (like the visvarapa buuşa in Bh. Gî. XI) and it is also

ell senses (Bh. Gî. XII. 13-14).

the aksara=burusa It is important to f

Its Meaning ac- of this concept. cording to Ācāryas.

ing.

explanation the the chief problems in Philosophy. Sankara, who sa positive attributes of Brahman are un

and the negative ones are real, went against the historically correct view which regarded both of them as real, (and by " positive attributes " Sankara, understands a 11 attributes i. e., both those given in the Srutis which refer to purusa and those that are denied of aksara). Rāmānuja who held that Brahman has all auspicious (kalyāṇa) and no objectionable (heya) attributes, or, in other words, that Brahman is full of compassion etc., and devoid of cruelty, etc., did not understand the originl sense of passages like Bh. Gî. XIII. 13-16. Vallabha who explained the texts in question as implying that Brahman is possessed of all divine (alaukika) and devoid of all worldly (laukika) attributes seems to have come to that conclusion after examining exactly what is actually denied and asserted of the Supreme Being in the positive and negative texts of the Scriptures,

Is the Pañcaratra a development of the Gîta doctrine like the later Mahabharata Samkhya and Yoga, or is it 12

the protest riased by those who possessed the traditions of

Origin of the Pañcaratra School: Reconciliation or Revival of Vedic Religion under the Bhakti-teaching of the Gita.

the Oldest Prose Upanisads? To me it appears that predominantly neither of these was the case. The Pañcarātra was in reality a revival of, or a reconciliation of Asceticism with, the Ritualism of the Brāhmanas. This is clear from the importance of rites and ceremonies preached in the Nārāyaniya Section; but these were to be performed in the way in

which the Gîtă had asked man to perform his worldly duties, i.e., as a dedication to the Supreme Being. The Gîtā taught that acts can be dedicated to the impersonal as well to the personal (Bh. Gi. IV. 24 and IX. 16); and under the influence of this allegorical Yajña philosophy of the Gita the Pañcaratras revived the old Vedic call. The traces of such a revival of or probably reconciliation with the Vedic religion are found in the Cits itself (see p. 28 above). Also the same devotional spirit (hhabi) of the Gita, which pervades throughout the Marayaniya Section) led them to the mystic identification of akşara and puruşa. Their "one-mindedness" (ananyatā of Bh. Gî. VIII. 14, 22; IX. 30, 13, 22; XI. 54; XII. 6) was more intensive than that of the Gîta because in the latter it was either for akṣara or for puruṣa (Bh. Gî. XII. 1), while the former could not think that there was the possibility of an option being given to a devotee as regards the choice of the object of his meditation or devotion, and therefore identified the two then known objects of reverence.

A similar rejection of the idea of "two goals" resulting in a similar admission of only one goal was achieved by the Sāṃkhyas and the Yogas on a quite rationalistic basis, as is clear from their rejection of the higher Nature. There is no wonder, therefore, that the text of the L. MBh. represents all these three and also the Aupaniṣada School as having been on friendly terms with one another. In a sense all of them felt to be on an equal level (MBh. XII. 348. 82-83; 249. 1 etc.),

That they had all of them the same goal is a fact repea-

Păñcarătra. School also, a Path to the same Goal.

tedly mentioned in the Nārāyanîya Section (XII. 349.68c-d-70, 73). As we have seen, the goal in all of them was akşara, or puruşa, or both (see p. 55 above); and coming undoubtedly after

the much revered Gîtā which consistently taught either of these to be the goal, none of these four Schools was likely to quarrel with the others for the cloctrine concerning the Supreme Being. In the light of the teaching of the Gîtă they all felt that each of them and therefore all of them were in a way —and only in a way because they had their own doctrinal differences—different paths to the same sumum of the Acaryas and in our own Thou days this for ympathy may seem incomprehensible, it was eta Age because the catholic spirit and teaching forgotten.

Under the influence of the Gîta, though much

sūtras.

the Mahabharata, a further philosophic. Further Develop- movement also took place, which exment, the Brahma- plained and in so doing modified the Pāñcarātra doctrine of the identity of akşara and puruşa. The result of this

movement was recorded in the Brahmasūtras. The Pancaratras never discussed with their fellow-philosophers doctrinal differences which we have noticed above. Nārāyaniya Section unlike the other Sections of MBh. XII, avoids all arguments and reasonings. There is a kind of mysticism about the union of akṣara and puruṣa. (The "Aniruddha-theology" is not any reasoned-out doctrine against any other School.) It is the author of the Brahmasūtras who gives reasons for the equality of aksara and purusa, and in doing so he acts like the "saints" mentioned in MBh. XII. 318. 56, 78 (see p. 40 above). This further development of the doctrine which came into existence with the Earlier Metrical Upnisads we shall examine in the next Chapter.

## CHAPTER IV.

# AKSARA IN THE BRAHMASUTRAS.

The aphoristic language of the Brahmasūtras is a real obstacle to the right interpretation of the Sūtras and does not assure as much success as one may expect in the case of the Mahābhārata. Yet, if once the key of their proper explanation is found out, this very obstacle becomes a help because though aphoristic the Sutras are arranged intercertain groups of aphorisms which are connected with each other in a logical. train of ideas. The writer of this Thesis believes to have

Claim of the Sutras.

discovered this key and though he may for the not have—and he does feel that he has Discovery of the not-been able to understand correctly Original Meaning every one and every word of the aphorisms he has attempted to interpret, he thinks, the general sense

the Sūtras cannot, originally, have been very different from what he has suggested it to be. And thus it is that he has ventured to include their discussion in this work.

First of all it should be noticed that even Sankara had not always the original readings or divisions (adhikaranas) of the Sutras before him, and in most of such cases all the later Bhāsyakāras too will be found to have shared the same fate. This will be seen from the suggestions made in Appendix IV, regarding Sūtras III. 3. 26, 38-39, 42,

Mutilation of the 43, 45-46, 50-51. One more example of this loss of the old tradition may be Original Sūtras. given here. Br. Sū. II. 3. 18 is " jnosta

eva" which means "the Atman is possessed of consciousness (lit. is conscious), on account of the same reason (i. e. "because of the Srutis", as said in Br. Su. II. 3. 17)". Now, it is quite probable that the next two apohrisms formed only one and

meant, "And because out of [ the three possible movements that he makes during his worldly life, viz., ] departure from the body, going to the other world, and coming back, the last two are to be made by himself alone " (Br. Sū. II. 3. 19-20). It is a well-known fact that at the time of the departure from the gross body, the God of death or his messengers are supposed to come and take away the Jiva from the body, according to the Scriptures. This leaves no room for the use of the soul's consciousness then. But in the other two cases, the soul exercises its power of knowing and itself directs its way to and from the other world. Thus, the Sūtrakāra supports his argument for  $j\bar{n}atva$  "knowerness" of the Jîva. But the fact that Sankara and his successors divide the origin-Su t w o and explain them as embodyally one ing a purvapaks the size of the individual soul shows how far the manufacture as had been already forgotten even at the time of the Burney emembered by Sankara. This is confirmed by some production reserved by Sankara of these predecessors of his. Sū. I. 4. 1-3 (explained later on in this Chapter) that a new interpretation need not be wrong because i widely from that of the commentators.

If we study the Sūtras, the most conspicuous point that immediately attracts our attention is a discrimination between aksara and Sūtrakāra makes and which amounts to

puruşa.

a d u a l i s m which he is not ready to call a dualism of metaphysical princi-

ples, but which he would have us understand as samjāābheda "a Non-identity of Names" (Br. Sū. III. 3. 8) in contrast to "arthābheda" "Identity of Goal" (Br. Sū. III. 3. 5). For the sake of convenience we may call this a dual method of meditation on the Highest One (para). This Duality of Names is the sole teaching of Br. Sū. III. 3. 1-55 (App. IV). An enumeration of some of the points on the strength of which this duality is put forth by the author of the Sūtras will bring home to the reader the first and foremost problem that the Sūtrakāra has discussed in his work:

(1) First of all, as said above, the goal in a 11 the Vedanta texts is one and the same, but a distinction in its names is admissible, and on this distinction the Sūtrakāra will base his teaching of two types of the method of meditation, the means to reach the goal (Br. Sū. III. Designa- 3. 8, 10, 16, 33). These two names are Their pradhāna (III. 3.11) and akṣara (III. tions. 3.33). (For the terminology of the Sūtrakāra see (9) below.) By pradhāna is meant puruşa. In Br. Sū. III. 2. 23 the Sūtrakāra says that the Highest One (para-Br. Sū. III. 2.11) is the Unmanifest (avyakta) and in the same connection he says that "Because it has both the designations (i.e. purusa and aksara), the case is like that of the words "ahi" (the name of a serpent without any reference to its posture)

(2) Another discrimination between the two is that pradhāna has a form, akṣara is formless; and because the latter is the more important than the former (Br. Sū. III. 3. 44), the Supreme Being itself is formless (Br. Sū. III. 2. 14). The fact that pradhāna or puruṣa has a form is used as an argument for deciding the topic of Mu. Up. II. 1 in Br. Sū. I. 2. 23.

and "kundala" (the name of a serpent with special reference

to its posture of coil)

- (3) A third point of discrimination is that in the case of the meditation on purusa "the collection "Collection" of of thoughts" (upasamhāra) is obligatory, their Thoughts. while in that on akṣara it is voluntary and is to be observed only in the case of those attributes of akṣara which are mentioned in the text of the particular School ("Branch") to which the meditator belongs (Br. Sū. III. 3. 11, 33, 39, 40, 41).
- (4) The Sūtrakāra differentiates between the functions (kāiya) of pradhāna and akṣara. They Their Functions. are respectively "maintenance" or "sustenance of the world" saṃbhṛti and "heaven-pervasion" dyuvyāpti (Br. Sū. III. 3. 18, 23).

(5) The author of the Sūtras distinguishes between three kinds of thoughts or attributes: (a) those of the purusa (b) those of the aksara and (c) some of both of these which are interchangeable, i.e., which primarily belong to purusa but which are mentioned Interchange their Thoughts. by the Srutis with reference to aksara also. The Sūtrakāra illustrates the last by quoting Tai. Up. II.1 (satyam jñānam anantam brahma) where, he says, satya and those that follow it, though really the attributes of purusa, are however mentioned as those belonging to aksara. The utility of all these attributes is mentioned above in (3). (See III. 3. 37-43; App. IV.) Even in Br. Sū. I, where given his explanations of the Sruti-texts, he has kep "Scriptural Interchange". It appears that in Br. Sū. I. fra has dealt with those texts which according to him Sū. I. 3-4 those which primarily deal where to it such attributes as properly belong to original scheme of the Sutras is suggested by "āyatana" in Br. Sū. III. 3. 39, which undoubtedly refers to dyubhvādyāyatanam in Br. Sū. I. 3.1 (see App. IV).

Option of Choice puruşa for the purpose of meditation is between akṣara and vigorously upheld by him. Liberation puruṣa is achieved in either way. If this option of choice is not admitted, then the Scriptures would be violated (Br. Sū. III. 3. 28-30). Both akṣara- and puruṣa-meditations are Vidyās "Lores leading to Salvation", as in the Muṇḍaka Upaniṣad which is referred to by the Sūtrakāra on this point (Br. Sū. III. 3. 47). The attainment of puruṣa which results in the eternal enjoyment of all objects of desire by the liberated in the company of turuṣa is not to be understood as the attainment of a world (loka, like the world of the moon etc.), though there is a common feature between the two (Br. Sū. III. 3. 51; App. IV).

The dual method of meditation or, as the Sūtrakāra

(7) The sūtrakāra finds it necessary to give his opinion regarding the question: which of the two, Comparative Importance of akṣara and puruṣa, is more important?

He says that the former is "the stronger" (baliyaḥ) because it is mentioned in more texts than puruṣa is. But at the same time the option of choice from either of the two, given to the meditator, is strongly maintained by him, as already said above (Br. Sū, III. 3, 44-45).

(8) I may here draw attention to Br. Sū. III. 2. 35 ( sthānavisesāt prakāsādivat ) which Discrimination of answers a purvapaksa argument basing " Place" in the the distinction of aksara and purusa (with their individual attributes) as two prin-Supreme Being. ciples on the fact that aksara is connected on the one hand with mahat and on the other with purusa ( as in Ka. Up. H. 11). The Sutta (III. 2. 35) replies this by saying that this "connection" (of the two) refers to the "distinction of place" in the Supreme Being. The light is called the Sun, the Moon, and the Stars in connection with its presence in various places; the same is the case with the Supreme Being which is also like the Light as said in Br. Sū. III. 2. 26 (Br. Sū, III 2, 32, 35; App. IV).

(9) The distinction that we have seen above is also visible in the Sūtrakāra's terminology. In this connection I wish to point out parti-The Sūtrakāra's Terminology. cularly three terms para, pradhana and akṣara, which are used by him respectively in the sense of the Supreme Being (irrespective of the personal or the impersonal aspect), the personal, and the impersonal. In using "para" for the Highest One, the Sutrakara's intention seems to The term "para". be to avoid a term which would suggest solely akaşra or solely puruşa. This word occurs in Br. Sū. II. 3. 41 ("The Jiva derives his power of action from para 'the Highest One"), II. 3. 46 ("The Jiva's being 'a part', amsa, [ of the Supreme One ] is like the case of the Light etc. 'The Highest One' para is not such "), III. 2. 11 ("The twofold statements [containing the coincidentia oppositorum] cannot belong to 'the Highest One', para, even from the standpoint of place......'), III. 2. 5 ("[The real nature of the Jîva] is concealed on account of the desire of the 'Highest One' (para) [that it should be so].....'), and IV. 3. 12 ("Jaimini says that the liberated soul goes to the 'Highest One' para.....'). All these passages show that throught the Sūtras "para" is used consistently for the "Highest One", as said above. It is so used in Br. Sū III. 3. 54 (Appendix IV). The term pradhāna occurs in Br. Sū III. 3. 11 and (as I have suggested in Appendix IV).

The term " pra-dhāna".

dix IV) in III. 3. 43. In both these places where the term is used as a metaphysical principle, the context shows that it is contrasted (in III. 3. 11, III. 3. 33) or

compared (III. 3. 43) with akşara ( see App. IV for the interpretation of the Sūtras ). This fact shows that the word pradhāna is consistently used for puruşa. In using this term in this sense, the Sūtrakāra seems to have adopted the terminology of his own days, as he does in the case of many terms like sūkṣma and others (Br. Sū. I. 4. 3; see below). "Pradhāna" was used in the days of the Mahābhārata exactly for the persoaspect of the Supreme Being as understood by the "He, who is always thus ready and whose mind is pleased, reaches, without delay, that Brahman seeing which one comes to know  $d h \bar{a} n a$ . He is not to be seen with the eye, nor even with all the senses. The Great Atman is seen only by the lamp of the mind. He has the ends of his hands and feet on all sides, the eyes and faces in all directions; he possesses ears in all places in the world, and [thus] he stands pervading all" (MBh. XIV 19. 47-49 also see. 18.32). There can be no doubt as to the meaning of the term bradhana in this passage. It is so used probably also in MBh. XII. 340. 39. The Sūtrakāra does not avoid using the older term for the personal aspect of the Supreme Being, I mean, the word purusa (Br. Sū. III. 3.24; I. 2. 26, see below). This, by the way, is an instructive example for the totally different meanings which the same word as a technical term may have in different Schools (bradhana = brakrti esp. as avyakta, in the Classical Samkhya; =the lower Nature in Sve. Up. I. 10). As regards "akṣara",
Sūtra III. 3. 33 clearly shows that the
The term 'akṣara'. Sūtrakāra restricts its usage only to the
impersonal aspect. So, there can be no
doubt that even the terminology of the aphorisms reveals the
differentiation between akṣara and puruṣa.

(10) The last noteworthy point in the Sūtras in this respect is that in the first Adhyāya of the work certain Śrutis are explained as not referring not only to (the Sāṃkhya)

Prakṛti and the Jîva but also to akṣara.

"Akṣara" as a Sankara and other commentators could pūrvapakṣa in Br. not understand that akṣara could have Sū. I. been the pūrvapakṣa in the interpretation

of certain Vedanta texts. In some cases, if we cast a glance at the original viṣayavākya it would at once appear that the pūrvapakṣa views stated by the commentators had never had the least possibility of having represented any hostile School. Such pūrvapakṣas look ridiculous; and the wonder is that they have not yet been question-

Dr. Thibaut and Prof. Deussen.

ed by any scholar and that they had escaped the critical eyes even of Dr. Thibaut and Prof. Deussen who were, so far as I know, the only persons to take a thorough study of the Brahmasütras and comments.

make a thorough study of the Brahmasūtras and commentaries on them.

Thus, Br. Sū. I. 2. 24 discusses the topic of the vaisvānara Section of the Chāndogya Upaniṣad (Chā. Up. V. llff.) The Section begins with the words: "Ko nu ātmā kim brahma" (Chā. Up. V. ll. l) and the text is meant to teach the meditation on the vaisvānara Atman. Sankara's pūrvapakṣas are expre-

ssed in "Kim vaisvānarasabdena (1) Vaisvānara in jāṭharognir upadiṣyata uta (2) bhūtāgnir Chā. Up.V., puruṣa, atha (3) tadabhimīninī devatā athavā not akṣara. (4) sārīra āhosvit (5) paramesvaraḥ" (Sā

Bhā. Br. Sū. I. 2. 24). It would at once appear that out of these the second and the third are the pūrvapakṣas discussed in Br. Sū. I. 2. 27, but not in I. 2. 24. The fourth seems to have been refuted in 26, not in 24-25.

There was not the least possibility of the "abdominal fire" having been one of the antagonistic views. The only pūrva-pakṣa refuted in 24-25 seems to have been one about akṣara being the topic of Chā. Up. V. llff. This is clear from the fact that the Sūtrakāra refers to a text which mentions "vaiṣvānara even as puruṣa" (Br. Sū. I. 2. 26). Sankara has hit upon the exact Sruti referred to in this Sūtra; but he did not understand why a text mentioning puruṣa was specially referred to by the Sūtrakāra. The Jîva is called puruṣa, but, as the Sūtra (26) shows, the Jîva is to be refuted; so the Sruti with the word puruṣa is used to refute akṣara. ("Tathādṛṣtyupa-desāt" and "asaṃbhavāt" refute the Jîva view.) In the Gītā (Bh. Gî. XV. 14) vaisvānara is identified with Kṛṣṇa who stands for puruṣa and not for akṣara; so the Sūtrakāra is also right in referring to the Bhagavadgītā.

Let us take another example. Br. Sū. I. 2. 18-20 discusses the topic of the famons anlaryāmibrāhmaṇa (Br. Up. III. 7. 3ff). Sankara presents the various posssible views in the words: "Sa (i.e. antaryāmī) (1) kim adhidaivādyabhimānidevatātmā kascit (2) kiņvā prāptāṇimādyaisvaryaḥ kascid yogī (3) kiņvā paramātmā (4) kiņvār thāntaram kimcit..........." (Sā Bhā. Br. Sū. I.

Antaryāmin in Bṛ. Up. III, puruṣa, not akṣara.

2. 18.). The last supposition shows that even Sankara felt doubtful if (1) and (2) could have been the pūrvapakṣas though he himself proposed them as such. A:

glance at the Sruti which repeats "esa ta ātmāsntaryāmy amṛtaḥ" with every setence will show that the possibility of Sankara's pūrvapakṣas stands precluded even by the original Vedanta text. As is clear from the Sūtras and Sankara's commentary on them, it is Sankara who himself raises these objections and himself gives their refutations. As the "sārīna" is refuted in 20, he could not be the pūrvapakṣa in 18 and 191 Moreover, the Nature [of the Sāmkhyas] is refuted in 19 and not in 18; and "ca" in na ca smartam....... "(19) shows that one view has been already refuted in 18. So, akṣara only (which is not the Nature of the Sāmkhyas and not the sūrīna also) is the pūrvapakṣa in 18. This is also suggested by the

word "smārtam" (19). The Sūtrakāra has in his mind śraula avyakla and smārta avyakla: the Gîtā mentions these two avyaklas and the word smārta may as well suggest the lower Nature of the Gîtā which is called a Smṛti. The Sūtrakāra does not believe in this lower Nature. So, "ca" and "smārtam" (in 19) distinctly show that the "śrauta avyakla" i. e. akṣara is refuted in 18. The attribute (dharma) referred to in 18 seems to be the one implied in "yamayati" i.e., the act of controlling; according to the Sūtrakāra the governing over the creation (prašāsana-Br. Sū. I. 3. 10-11; saṃbhṛti-Br. Sū. III. 3. 23) is a function of puruṣa, not of akṣara.

Br. Sū. III. 3. 18-24 discusses whether Tai. Up. II. 8 mentions akṣara or puruṣa (see App. IV).

The above examples will be, I believe, sufficient to prove that even in Br. Sū. I the Sūtrakāra distinguishes between akṣara and puruṣa. It is quite probable that even the Aupaniṣadas differed as to whether the topic of certain Srutis was akṣara or puruṣa, because in those days both of these were accepted as the objects of meditation.

The foregoing points will show that the discrimination between akṣara and puruṣa, which the Sūtrakāra exhibits throughout his work is so explicit and is so unambiguously expressed that one cannot fail to observe it after the first three Chapters of this Dissertation have been written or read. This differentiation is always present in the mind of the author of the aphorisms

Thorough Distinction between akşara and puruşa in the Sūtras.

and serves him as the guiding principle whether he discusses (1) the names of the "goal", (2) its form or formlessness, (3) collection of its attributes, (4) its functions, (5) the "thoughts" about it (or attributes belonging to it),

(6) the option of choice regarding the object of meditation, (7) the comparative importance of the two "names", (8) the doctrines of other Aupanisada Schools, (9) the question of the terminology or (10) the textual interpretation. This differentia-

tion of akṣara and puruṣa appears to me to be the most arresting point in the Sūtras and therefore it has been mentioned first and that too with some details.

We have seen above that the distinction between akşara and puruşa is known to the Sūtrakāra. Before trying to ascertain the exact nature of this differentiation, I wish to point out what seems to me to be an indication to the

Identification of the two Natures: akṣara or puruṣa is also the (only) Nature (prakṛti). Sūtrakāra's knowledge of the distinction between the two Natures of the EMU and the Gitā, though the Sūtrakāra himself does not accept it. This problem is discussed in Br. Sū. I. 4. 23–28. Having described avyakta or akṣara (in I. 4. 1–23), the Sūtrakāra

says that "It is also prakṛti [the word used for the lower Nature by the Aupanisadas of his time, and for the Nature by the Sāmkhyas ] because the Proposition and the Illustrations [given in Chā. Up. VI. I. 3, VI. 1. 4-6] are not to be obstructed [in their sense]" (23). "Ca" (also) in the Sūtra shows that the author identifies aksara understood in the previous Sūtras with prakrti, so that according to him there is only on e Nature viz., the higher Nature or, to speak more accurately, the Supreme Being, which may be called akṣara or puruṣa, is also the Nature of the creation. The Sruti referred to by him does not mention the lower Nature of the EMU and the Gita, but describes the creation as directly taking place from "that by (hearing) which the unheard becomes heard......" (Chā. Up. VI. 1. 3). "And [ aksara is also prakti ] because 'thought' ( abhidhyā ) is predicated [ of the Essential Cause of the Universe in the Scriptures)" (24). Here the author refers to a text like "soskāmayata bahu syām ....." (Tai. Up. II. 6. 1), which shows that the Nature of the world is a thinking one

Akṣara, the Conscious prakṛti.

and therefore goes against *prakțti* or the lower Nature which is devoid of consciousness according to the EMU and the Gitā. "And [ akṣara is also prakṛti ] be-

cause both [ the evolution and the dissolution of the world ] are, in the Scriptures, stated as directly taking place [ from

and into it ]" (25). "Directly" ( sākṣāt ) is a clear proof that the Sutrakara rejects the lower Nature. For that purpose he refers to texts like "Sarvāņi ha va imāni bhūtāny ākāšād eva samutpadyante | ākāsam praty astam yānti "-Chā. Up. I. 9. 1. The fact that "ubhaya" in the Sutra (25) refers to the evolution and the dissolution of the world and that "sāksāt" refers to "eva" in the Sruti, goes against Sankara who holds that this Adhikarana is intended to describe aksara as the "nimitla" and at the same time the "upādāna" cause of the world. "[ Akṣara is also prakṛti ] because [ the world is ] a modification, pannāma, of ātmakrti i.e. of Brahman or akṣara itself creating itself as the creation" (26). The vişayavākya is "Tad ālmānam svayam akuruta"-Tai.Up. II. 7. This Sruti says that the creation or what the creator has made is itself the self of the creator ( aksara ). This is in agreement with Br. Sū. II. 1. 14 and 20 The modification (parinama) cannot be the Atman of aksara if it were to take place from the lower Nature. "And [ aksara is also prakrti ] because it is said to be the source, yoni, of the world in the metrical compositions," (27). In this Adhikarana

yoni passages.

this is the only Sutra where the author re-Evidence of the fers to the EMU and the Gita, and in doing so he has hit upon a very important statement in these works which always

describe akşara as the yoni wherein the puruşa lays the seed and from which "all beings" are born. Such passages are Kau. Br. Up. I. 6; Sve. Up. I. 2, VI. 16, V. 6; Mu. Up. I. 3; Bh. Gi. XIV. 3-4, VII. 6. In these, akasa (meaning Atman), ālman, Brahman, mahad brahman, or jivabhūtā parā prakṛti is "the source" voni. So, the lower Nature cannot be the voni described in these words. And because aksara is the yoni, it is also prakrli (the lower Nature of the Aupanisadas or the Nature of the Samkhyas). In Br. Su. II. 1. 23, the author

Evidence "jivena ātmanā" in Chā. Up. VI.

says that in the Sruti "anena jivena ālmanānupravisya nāmarūpe vyākaravāṇi " ( Chā. Up. VI. 3. 2 ), "jīva ātman" refers to the living self of Brahman because the cause of the world is

not devoid of consciousness and cannot be explained to be like inanimate objects e.g. a stone etc. All these Sutras prove

that the Sūtrakāra knows the theory of the two Natures and rejects the lower Nature in so far as he identifies it with the higher one, which is for him the Supreme Being.\*

The Sūtrakāra's rejection of the lower Nature was not a novel feature in the history of Indian philosophy. "saints" (sādhavah) in MBh. XII. 318. 56 are said to have held that "One should look upon the two forms of the eternal Unmanifest as one and the same end [of the series of evolution]."

Various forms of the Identification of the two Natures.

The doctrine of these saints on this particular point seems to have been the same as that of the Sūtrakāra. over, in identifying the lower Nature with the higher one, the author has gone

exactly in the opposite direction of what the L. MBh. Sāmkhyas are found to have done (see above pp. 42-44). Both of them are the results of a movement of the same character, but their conclusions are quite different from each other. Sutrakara says that the created world is a living, conscious modification (parinama) of the Atman; the Samkhyas said that the world is devoid of consciousness.

In this connection we may examine the exact meaning of akṣara as the Nature, as taught in the Sūtras. Avyakta in the evolutional series of Ka. Up. III. 10-11 is discussed in Br.

The Sūtrakāra's Sū. I. 4. 1-7.

Sū. I. 4. lff. The Sūtrakāra says that it is not "the principle established by infer-Theory of akṣara ence by the Sāmkhyas" (ānumānika) as the Nature: Br. because "its comprehension (grahiti, interpretation) is presented in the allegory of the body [and the chariot]" and that

"the Sruti shows it." The "allegory" says that the end of the journey is the Highest Abode of Visnu (Ka. Up. III. 9); so according to the Sutrakara "avyakta" is "Visnoh paramam pad-

<sup>\*</sup> Though the Sūtrakāra's doctrine of the identity of the lower Nature with the higher one is not entirely different from Sankara's doctrine of "abhinnanimittopadana" according to which he explains Br. Su. I. 4 23-28, the standpoint from which each of these two discusses the problem, reveals a contrast rather than a resemblance between the two views.

am" mentioned as the terminus of the journey in the allegory. " Darsayati ca" in the Sūtra refers to Ka. Up. III. 15 which describes what is said to be "beyond mahat" and avyakta is also "beyond mahat" in Ka. Up. III lla which is the vişayavākya. In the second Sūtra (I. 4. 2.), the same avyakta is said to be the suksma because it can be properly so called. In the days of the Sūtrakāra "sūkṣma" was a synonym for akṣara ("The suksma sees all these, the lower Nature "jñana", the Intellect, etc. etc.-MBh. XII. 204. 20). So, he uses a current word to explain the Srauta term. \* Among his other arguments, he says that in the same passage "mahat" is stated to be lower than avyakla and higher than buddhi; and as according to the Samkhyas buddhi is the direct effect of their avyakla, this mahat (in Ka. Up. III. 11) cannot be a Samkhya principle; so also avyakta (Br. Sū. I. 4. 7).

Now, the fact to be noticed here is the Sūtrakāra's view of avyakta or akṣara as the Nature, and this is given in the Adhikarana discussed above. He says, avyakta is 1 o w e r than puruşa because the former is dependent on the latter, just as the objects of sense (arthub in Ka. Up. III. 10.) are said to be lower than the mind because they are dependent on the latter for being perceived. The Sutrakara seems to

"Puruşa is higher Up. III. 11).

reject a purvapaksa view which regarded Meaning of avyakta in the capacity of the higher Nature (in Ka. Up. III. 10-11) to be than avyakta" (Ka. lower than purusa from "the standpoint of the place" (sthāna-Br. Sū. III. 2. 11) of the two.\ Thus, according to the Sutra-

kāra, avyakta as the subtle principle (sūksma) i. e. as the

<sup>\*</sup> Sankara's explanation of suksma and avyakla as the subtle body as distinguished from the gross one is a proof that he had not an uninterrupted tradition. He depends upon his predecessor who, taking avyakla to refer to the gross body also, was in no better position than Sankara himselt.

<sup>§</sup>Those who believed that avyakla is spatially lower than burusa, also believed that the nirguna texts refer to avyakta and saguna to puruşa. The Sutrakara rejects their view (Br. Su. III. 2. 11-21; see App. IV. 2).

(higher and only) Nature depends upon puruṣa. In other words, in the Highest Being, the personal aspect governs the impersonal one as far as the act of creation is concerned (Br. Sū. I. 4. 3). This would be the Sūtrakāra's explanation of avyakta or akṣara in such texts as Ka. Up. III. 10-11.

As regards the evolution from akṣara, we have seen already (pp. 101-102 above) that the Sūtrakāra does not distinguish

Rejection of the lower Nature, the Intellect and the Mind, as links in the Series of Evolution.

the lower Nature from the akṣara. This means that he does not accept the lower Nature. In the same way he rejects the creation of buddhi and manas (Br. Sū. II. 3. 15) and begins the evolution from akṣara with the direct creation of the Ether (viyat—Br. Sū. II. 3. 1) from it.

He says that the world is identical with its cause (i. e. Atman) and gives as a proof of it the example of the vital breath (Br. Sū. II. 1. 14, 20). In dropping the three links, the lower Nature, the Intellect, and the Mind (—the problem of ahankara does not arise for him, as also for the authors of the Mahābhārata in many places—), the Sūtrakāra has directly set aside the teaching of the EMU, the Gîtā and the L. MBh. Aupanişadas.

Before we summarise the Sūtrakāra's view about the nature of the Highest Being (para), it would be both interesting and instructive to note the doctrines of some Aupaniṣada (Vedanta?) Schools, which the Sūtrakāra has refuted. The adversaries of the Sūtrakāra were those who held that the

Two Aupanișada Schools criticised by the Sūtrakāra. Vedanta texts mention more "goals" than one (i. e. two) (Br. Sū. III. 3. 1-4) and that the (two) goals are not identical (Br. Sū III. 3. 5-9). The former he confronted with such texts as Bh. Gî. VIII.

11 and Ka. Up. II. 15 which the Sūtrakāra could interpret as teaching unity of the goal of the Vedantas (III. 3. 4). With the latter he argued that non-identity of the goals was inconsistant with the omnipresence of each of them taught in the Sruti (III. 3. 9). He held that there was only one goal but it had two names, *pradhāna* and *akṣara*. The former of these

two hostile Schools seems to have regarded puruṣa and akṣara as two independent goals; the latter who said that the two were not identical may have thereby meant that akṣara is the Abode and puruṣa lives in it and therefore they are in that sense one, but they are not identical. The exact views of these opponents are not given in Br. Sū. III. 3. 1–9; yet they could be inferred to have held some such doctrines as we have described above. There are, however, two other groups of aphorisms, which come to our aid here. The first group is Br. Sū. III. 2. 11–21 (App. IV. 2. a). It records a hostile view which admitted a d if f e r e n c e of p l a c e in the Highest Being, and went further by saying that the negative texts belong to one "place" and the positive ones to another

The "sthāna-"place" in the Supreme Being. This bheda" (?) View. seems to mean that akṣara and puruṣa are two places in the Supreme One and

the negative and the positive texts respectively describe these two places (sthāna—Br. Sū. III. 2. 11). The other School is implied in "api" in Br. Sū. III. 2. 11 and is refuted in Br. Sū. III. 2. 32-37 (App. IV. 2. b). It believed that there was a goal be yond (or other than)

The "svarūpa- the Unmanifest or akṣara (Br. Sū III. 2. bheda" (?) View. 23 and 32), because the Unmanifest was described as connected with the Supreme

One (or purușa) beyond it and because the Srutis asserted the difference (bheda) between the two (Br. Sū. III. 2. 32). According to this School akşara and purușa are numerically two.

Although neither the commentators nor the modern interpretors like Dr. Thibaut and Prof. Deussen have even exhibited any curiosity as to who these opponents of the Sūtrakāra could have been, it is not difficult to identify them

Identification of these two Aupanisada Schools with those of the L.MBh. with some predecessors of the author of the Sūtras. The view which believes in a difference of place (sthāna) in the Supreme Being which is numerically on e seems to be that of the L. MBh. "saints" (tatsthānāc c ānupasyanti eka cv eti

sādhavaḥ-MBh. XII. 318. 78; see Ch. III p. 41 above),

who held that akṣara is the "place" of the Best One and therefore in that sense the two are one. The other doctrine according to which akṣara and puruṣa are different from each other (and therefore two in number) was the view of the L. MBh. Aupaniṣadas who enumerated akṣara as the Twentyfifth and puruṣa as the Twentysixth (MBh. XII. 318. 47-83). According to the Sūtrakāra both these Schools

The Sūtrakāra's Criticism of these Views.

are dualistic. The latter asserted the difference between akṣara and puruṣa and was therefore undoubtedly dualistic. The unity of goal propounded by the former was superficial, because though

they stated that the Supreme Being was on e, yet not only did they say that in that one Being akṣara was spatially lower than puruṣa, but they also said that the negative sentences described only the lower place (akṣara) and the positive only the upper one (puruṣa) in the Supreme Being; so that all the attributes of the Highest Being did not belong to it wherever it was present (Br. Sū. III. 2. 11—note the word "sarvatra" in this Sūtra; App. IV. 2. a): The Sūtrakāra regarded such a distinction between the twofold attributes as an admission of duality, and therefore he opposed it, as will be clear from his view of the nature of the Supreme Being.

The most striking feature in the Sūtrakāra's view of the Highest Being (para), is the systematic Problem of coinand rational interpretation which he gives cidentia opposito- for the first time in the history of Indian Philosophy, to the twofold contradictory statements regarding the attributes of the

Supreme One, the coincidentia oppositorum.

The historical position of the problem before the Sutrakara may be summed up in the following
History of its Beginning. words: the Oldest Prose Upanisads which
had thought of the impersonal (akṣara)
and the personal (punisa) independently
of each other, had regarded each of them as the Highest Being in
itself. Therefore, the attributes of akṣara contained not only

the negative ones, but also some positive:ones, such as the act of ruling (prasāsana-Br. Up. III. 8. 9). Similarly there was the custom of describing the personal principle negatively as was done in the case of the impersonal. The personal is described negatively in Br. Up. III. 9. 26 and III. 7. 23 (cf. the impersonal in Br Up. III. 8. 11), Br Up. IV. 4. 25 and Cha. Up. VIII. 7. 1 (cf. Pra. Up. V. 7); and the Gita remembers this fact in II. 24. But a second stage was reached when the impersonal was placed below the personal (as the latter's Nature). Then the akşara was no longer associated with such attributes as properly belong to the purusa. This is the case in Ka. Up. III. 15; Mu. Up. I. 1. 6; Pra. Up. V. 7; and Bh. Gî. XII. 3. In the third stage which is evident in the later Mahābhārata (and in Br. Sū. III. 2. 32-37), the distinction between aksara and purusa and between the attributes of the two became very sharp, and, as we have seen, they have developed into numerically two metaphysical principles. In the fourth case, we find that the distinction between the attributes of these two is allowed to remain as it was, but the two were to be regarded as numerically one (MBh. XII. 318. 78; Br. Sū. III. 2. 11-21). On the fifth occasion, the tendency already visible in Sve. Up. III. 19-20, Ka. Up. II. 10, Isa. Up. 5, Ka. Up. II. 20 and Bh. Gi. XII. 13-14 assumes a definite shape and the Pañcaratra conception of one mystic principle springs up by the fusion of akṣara and puruṣa. This (principle) had both the negative and the positive attributes without any reference to the lower or the higher "place" in it. But at this stage no explanation for this mystic combination of the two hitherto distinct principles with distinct qualities is offered, nor it is realised that this conception is inconsistent with those already in vogue (see p. 91 above).

The author of the Sūtras who comes after all these stages definitely rejects the earlier views (2-4) except the first one, which he emphasises as an argument for his own view, and the last one which he adopts and systematises. According to him akş ıra is not spatially lower than puruşa; and again they are not two, but one. Whatever attributes, negative or positive, the one is said to have, also belong to the

other, because the Sruti itself makes such an interchange; their distinction is useful only for meditation (see p. 94 above). The Highest Being in its entirity is called aksara or purusa and the negative and the positive statements are applicable to every part of it, to every place in it (sarvatra). The Sruti says that akṣara is the goal. It also says that puruṣa is the Each of the two are also individually said to be

omnipresent. It is irrational to hold The Sūtrakāra's that there are two goals and that each of Rational Explana- them is omnipresent. The Sūtrakāra tion of the Problem. makes use of this argument twice ( Br. Sū. III. 2. 38; III. 3. 9). Wherever akşara

is mentioned, it is said that there is none else than it; wherever ātman or purusa is mentioned, it is also said that there exists none else but him (Br. Sū. III. 2. 37). The Sūtras refer to Br. Up. IV. 5. 13, "It is—as is a mass of salt, without inside, without outside, entirely a mass of taste (kṛtsno rasaghana eva), even so, verily, is this Atman, without inside, without outside, entirely a mass of knowledge ( kṛṭṣṇaḥ pṛajñānaghana eva )", and especially to Bh. Gî. XIII. 12-16. "This has everywhere its hands and feet, everywhere its eyes, heads, and everywhere it is possessed of ears in the world, and remains having enveloped every [existing] thing" (Bh. Gî. XIII. 13 ). "Sarvatah" in the Gîtā corresponds to "sarvatra" in Br. Su. III. 2-11. and therefore the Sūtrakāra refers to it. According to the Sutrakara, when any text says that the Supreme Being (akṣara or puruṣa) is devoid of hand and feet, it denies them of it in its entirity. This will be the sense of Sve. Up. III. 19 and Mu. Up. I. 1. 6. This is how he solves the problem of the coincidentia oppositorum. The same is perhaps meant also in Br. Su. II. 1. 30 and 37 (sarvopeta ca taddarsanāt and sarvadharmopapattesca respectively). The Supreme Being as a whole ("sarvalra") is possessed of all, and therefore contradictory, attributes. The great teachers of Vedanta, that followed the Sutrakara busied themselves with interpreting this verdict of the author of the aphorisms ( see p. 89 above ).

The standpoint which the Sūtrakāra has taken up is guided by a historical insight into the development of the akşara-puruşa doctrine in those days. The Chandogya and Brhadaranyaka Upanisads never taught that the akṣara was spatially lower than the purusa, nor did they think that the personal aspect was in conflict with the impersonal. The Earlier Metrical Upanisads did not mean that akşara was a principle

The Sūtrakāra, Restorer

with so much share of individuality as to be counted as a second principle by of the side of the purusa. What they Advaitism in the implied by putting the akşara below Aupanișada School. the purușa in the discussion of the evolution of the world (as in Ka. Up.

III. 10-11) was perhaps that in the entire Brahman the personal aspect governs the impersonal during the act of creating the world, and we find that the Sutrakara does accept this meaning of the paratva of the purusa (Br. Sū. I. 4. 3; see p. 104 above ). When the EMU and the Gîtā said that the meditator on purusa when liberated "went beyond akşara (Mu. Up. IIÎ. 2. İ; Pra. Up. V. 5, 7; Bh. Gî. VIII. 21-22, XV. 16-18, XVIII. 53-55), they did not mean that the meditators on akşara reached the Twentyfifth and those on purusa the Twentysixth (see Bh. Gî. XII. 4). The Sūtrakāra feels himself bound to understand those statements as referring to different places in the entire Brahman which is like an omnipresent mass of light wherein one may differentiate between its parts as occupying different places, though each part has the same attributes. In brief, let not the historian of the Indian Philosophy forget that the Aupanisada or rather the Vedanta School owes its "monistic monotheism" ( how else shall we name the union of the personal and the impersonal with the control of the former over the latter as regards the latter's creative activity!) and therewith all the later monistic or monotheistic phases of the various Vedanta Schools, to the author of the Brahmasūtras. Henceforth the dualism and the pluralism to which the EMU, the Gita and, more than either of these, the later Mahabharata Aupanisadas had fallen a victim, is driven out of the Vedanta School once for all.

Most of the other notable features of the "akṣara or puruṣa"

Distinction between the Sūtrakāra and the L. MBh. Pāncarātras.

doctrine of the Sūtrakāra have been noticed in the beginning of this Chapter; but one point in which the author has checked and corrected the turn of thought, into which the Pāñcarātras had already let themselves enter, requires

to be mentioned here, so that the Sutrakara may not be mistaken for being more of the Pañcaratras than he really is. The latter (as we find them in the L. MBh.) did not at all distinguish between aksara and purusa and could think that the personal is at the same time the impersonal (see p. 84 above). But, for the Sūtrakāra these two are two for the practical purpose of meditation. They are two distinct names of the one object of meditation and indicate two distinct methods of meditation, though leading to one and the same goal. This difference between the Pañcaratras and the Sūtrakāra, and the way in which the latter succeeded in purging the Aupanisada speculation of its dualistic character, and thereby establishing an option of choice as regards the object of meditation, lead us to consider what we may call the compromising nature of the aphorisms.

Although the Gîta never aimed at reconciling the various Schools of Indian Philosophy, the Brahmasūtras

Compromising
Character of the
Sūtras.

bear clear marks of the great sacrifices that the various Sakhās of the Sruti have made in the cause of maintaining the original monism or monotheism of their ancestors. First of all, each of the Vedic

Schools agreed to honour the Revealed Texts of all others (Br. Sū. III 3. 44, 49). Secondly, if any one of the four requirements, codanā, ākhyā, etc. was the same in these texts, the same Brahman was to be understood as the topic in all of them (Br. Sū. III 3. 1, 6). But this did not mean that every School was henceforth to study all the texts; the rule of svādhyāya was taught in all the Sākhās and was not to be disturbed in the least by this union of the Schools. Thirdly,

since all the texts did not mention both akṣara and puruṣa, henceforth akṣara or puruṣa was the goal. We have already noticed the nature of this new teaching. The followers of the Chāndogya and the Bṛhadāraṇyaka could join the union

The Oldest Upanisadic Schools.

only on this condition; while those whose texts taught both as the goals (i. e. the EMU and the Gita) were in practice pursuing only one of the two because

they were both of them not meant for one and the same man. Moreover, great appeal for unity was effected by such other arguments as the fact that every Revealed Text whether teaching the personal or the impersonal principle had taught it as omnipresent and there can be no two omnipresent principles. The followers of the EMU and the Gita found that the idea of aksara as the Nature of the purusa was inconsistent with their conception of it as an eternal goal; so, aksara was allowed to remain as Prakrti (Br. Sū. I. 4. 23) but not as a brakrti belonging to purusa. The fact that the Chandogya and the Brhadaranyaka Schools had already at various times taught the personal and the inpersonal principles without reference to their mutual relations led them to accept the new standpoint. Henceforth those who believed in akşara were to note that purusa was also a name of the same principle; and those who meditated on purusa were to accept that the purusa could also be designated akṣara (Br. Sū. III. 3. 8). "Akṣara" was only "a different thought" (prthag dhi-Br. Sū III 3 42; prajñantara-Br. Sū III 3. 50; upadesantara-Br. Sū III. 3. 37). Akṣara is "more powerful" (baliyas) than puruṣa because a majority of the combining parties believed in it; but, then, purusa is also sanctioned by the Sruti (Br. Su. III. 3. 44-45) and both are equally good as the Vidya (Br. Sū III. 3-47) The followers of the oldest Schools were not to think that the attainment of purusa was that of a world (loka-Br. Sū. III. 3. 51). The fourth important condition to which all had to agree was that about "upasamhara" or "the Rule of Collection of Thoughts" (Br.Su. III. 3. 5). This was the most important and practical feature of this Syncretism. Till now, each School had meditated on God as He was described in its own individual text. But now a list of the thoughts on God was to be

prepared from the Revealed Texts of all the Schools. Each School was to accept what was common to all and to give to others what was peculiar to itself and consistent with the new doctrine of "aksara or purusa." This syncretic "Rule of Collection" was obligatory for the meditation on the personal aspect, but not for that on the impersonal, because in this latter case the meditator was to deny all attributes of akşara and the existing lists were found to contain a sufficiently exhaustive enumeration of these (Br. Sū. III. 3. 33). But if they found some attributes of burusa in the list of those of aksara, they were not to reject them out of respect for the Sruti which (respect) was the background of their union (III. 3. 40), and if they wished to collect the attributes of aksara from the various texts, there was no objection (III. 3. 39). Even in the case of the meditation on purusa, it was not possible that meditator could meditate on Him as possessed the attributes in all the Revealed Texts: therefore the number of such attributes to be used in practical contemplation was not to be fixed (III. 3. 31). The younger Schools were to make a greater sacrifice and we find that they did it without any opposition. They were asked to give up such attributes of purusa as would show that purusa was different from akṣara (Br. Sū. III. 3. 12).

nisadic Schools.

The Younger Upa- The Sūtrakāra says that privasirastva, brahmapucchalva etc. are not to be accepted as attributes of puruşa, even

though they are mentioned as such in the Sruti; and the wonder is that he finds none to oppose him. There is no bulvapaksa on this significant step he takes. The followers of the EMU and the Gîtă also agreed to give up the lower Nature. the Intellect and the Mind as the created principles in the evolutional series (1. 4. 23-28; II. 3. 15). This was done perhaps because all of them vigorously opposed the purely rational Samkhyas or perhaps because it was necessary to appease the Vajasaneyins and the Bahvrcs who were yet highly honoured by the philosophical thinkers. (Even the L. MBh. contains some descriptions of creation beginning with the Ether as in the Cha. and Br. Upanisads. )

Thus, we find that all the Upanisadic Schools agreed in

Formation of the Vedanta School: Its First Text Book and its First Acarya.

giving up minor though important differences for the purpose of forming a union of all the followers of the Revealed Texts. A new book was to be prepared. The general points of agreement were to be recorded in a document for the future

guidance of all the Sākhās who were to keep on studying their own svādhyāya but in the light of this agreement. The most important requirement was a list of the thoughts on the highest Being and a systematic account of the exact nature of the "sādhana" and "phala" agreeable to all the combining Schools. The task seems to have been handed over to Bādarāyana and to some other renowned teachers who represented all these Schools. They composed a book and therein noted their views on the points where they differed (Br. Sū. I. 4. 21-23; IV. 3. 7-16; IV. 4. 5-7; IV. 4. 10-12; III. 2. 41-42). Henceforth this new work (on the teaching of Brahman as distinguished from Karman) became the chief text for this united body of the Vedic Sākhās, to be known now as the Veda ant a School.

The great sacrifices, described above, which the uniting

Practical purpose of the Union: The Desire to oppose jointly the Samkhya and other hostile Schools. parties have done, sets one to think whether the purpose that made them sink their differences was only a theoretical one or whether this syncretism had a practical goal. Would anybody have advised the followers of the EMU and the Gita, under normal circumstances, to give up the subordination of akṣara to

purusa by abandoning some of the attributes of each of these about the meaning of which they had not the least doubt? And would such an advice have been accepted by them if it had been actually given? Do the Oldest Prose Upanisads and the Earlier Metrical Upanisads show any signs of this union? Is not the theory of the two Natures a formidable hinderance in the way of such a proposal? It is not at all difficult to imagine the motive force of this union. We have

seen how the Gîtā distinguished between the two Natures and how the L. MBh. Aupanisadas differed from the L. MBh. Sāmkhyas and Yogas, though all of them (as they are found in the later Mahabharata ) agreed, in a way, as regards the nature of the final goal. But the seed of their disunion and enmity is also present in the Mahabharata. Sāmkhyas and the Yogas refused to accept akşara either as the higher Nature or as a goal by the side of the purusa (i. e. optionally to be accepted in place of purusa). When later on these two Schools became more and more rationalistic and introduced philosophical changes of grave significance, which caused them to be ranked with atheists, the orthodox Aupanisadas of all Sakhas found it necessary to offer a combined opposition to these now entirely hostile Schools. Perhaps some more adversaries had freshly entered the field. It was under these circumstances that the descendants of the L. MBh. Aupanisadas who never before found it necessary to form themselves into a combined School, who speculated in a variety of ways on all points except the akşara-puruşa doctrine, and who understood by the word Vedanta any text or passage of the Upanisads, formed themselves into a School of their own distinguished from the hostile Schools, Samkhya, Yoga and others. No wonder that from the beginning of the very first chapter, the Brahmasūtras criticise the Samkhya and lose no opportunity of doing the same whenever possible.

But this achievement itself would have been extremely difficult, if not impossible, and the considerations, by which we find it to have been guided, would have been entirely defferent from what they really are, if the teaching of the Bhagavadgîtā

Invaluable Contribution of the Gîtă Doctrine in the Formation of the First Vedanta School.

had been already forgotten at the time of the composition of the work which is intended to record it. It is impossible to think that the third point described above (p. 94) regarding the admission of the option of choice of one out of akṣara and puruṣa would have suggested itself or would have been accepted by

the parties involved if they had not before them the correct

interpretation of the EMU, the Gîta and the L. MBh. Aupanisada doctrines, the last of which are criticised and rejected by the Sūtrakāra. On the contrary, the fact, as I have found it, is that the remembrance of the aksaraand-purusa doctrine of the Gîtă (Bh Gî. XII. 1-5) had exceedingly facilitated the task of the author of the Sutras who only transformed it into into an a k s a r a - o r - p u r u s adoctrine. The boldness which the Sutrakara shows in rejecting those attributes of *burusa* which conveyed its distinction from akşara (see p. 113 above) is unparalleled in the works of any of the Acaryas whose only recourse was an hair-splitting method of interpretation\* whenever they had to meet a passage contrary to what they taught. The Sūtrakāra could do what he has done, because he was sure of the support of those for whom he did it. (In this respect the Sutrakara is more reliable than the Acaryas in the matter of the interpretation of the texts with which we are concerned.) In brief, the interpretation of the Sutras offered in this Thesis will, it is hoped, show that the unique success which they achieved in their aim of combining all Aupanisadas against the purely rational Schools and giving the Vedanta texts a System called Vedanta Darsana, was greatly due to the teaching of the Bhagavadgitā. I Therefore, the inclusion of the Brahmasūtras in the present Dissertation as an evidence for the meaning of the term aksara will not be considered out of place.

- \* Sankara actually said that priyasirastva, brahmapucchatva, etc. refer to the "ānandah ātmā" who is the ānandamaya kosa (Sā. Bhā. Br. Sū. I. 1. 19).
- † Does not Bh. Gî. XIII. 4 which may be a later interpolation in the Gîtā, refer to the diversity ( bahudhā ) of the akṣara-puruṣa doctrine in the EMU, in the Gîtā and, in the Brahmasūtras? This Thesis has also produced ample evidence to show that kṣetra (Bh. Gî. XIII) was a term for akṣara and therefore kṣetrajāa a term for puruṣa.

#### RETROSPECT.

In the Rg ved a, the oldest literary monument of Aryan culture, we read already in those sew hymns which herald the dawn of philosophy, that it is in reality but one being (ekam sat) named differently which is addressed in the hymns to the various deities (I. 164. 46); and that, before the world was created, "without air that one breathed by its own power; for there was not beyond it anything whatever" (X. 129. 2).

Later, the Oldest Prose Upanisads taught as their highest metaphysical principle either akṣara only, i. e., the (impersonal) Immutable or only puruṣa the "Person": it, or he, respectively, was declared to be "one only without a second" (ekam eva a-dvitiyam-Chā. Up. VI. 2. 1).

After that, we find in Chapter I of Mundaka Upanisad a first attempt at reconciling the impersonal and the personal (yen āksaram purusam veda satyam I. 2. 13); but the prevailing view in the Age of these Earlier Metrical Upaniis the one expressed in Mu. Up. II and III, placing purusa above aksara (Mu. Up. II. 1. 2; Pra. Up. V. 5, 7; Ka. Up. III. 11). In the Svetasvatara Upanisad this is summarized as follows: Brahma (not Brahman) is the one threefold being (trividham brahmam), viz., a triad (not three!) consisting of the individual soul, the Immutable, and the Person, called here (I. 12), respectively, the Enjoyer, the Enjoyable, and the Inciter (or Lord in I. 8); the Immutable (i.e., the "Highest Immutable"; Sve. Up. IV. 8) being again twofold (V. 1) in so far as it has the unconscious Matter (the Manifest, Mutable, pradhāna, avidyā) as its periodical manifestation and is yet persisting as the Unmanifest, Immortal, Immutable, Light, Self, Knowledge (avyakta, amṛta, akṣara, haras, ātman, vidyā) (I. 8, 10; V. 1). The Svetāsvatara Upaniṣad, then, taught a triad foreshadowing a future tetrad.\*

The Bhagavadgîtā taught the very same doctrine, only with some new names, speaking of two Unmanifest ones or Natures (VIII. 20; VII. 5), viz., a higher one (akṣara, mahad brahman) and a lower one (kṣara, brahman) (XV. 16; XIV. 3; VIII. 3-4; III. 15; V 10) of which the latter periodically emerges from the former (IX.7; III. 15); and we may suppose that its teaching the lower Unmanifest to produce the manifest universe (VIII. 18-19) is also in agreement with Sve. Up., as is undoubtedly its regarding the personal (punsa) as higher than the impersonal (akṣara) and yet not a distinct entity from it: they are not two, though they are not one either; i. e., they are so to speak, an internal difference only (svagata bheda) of one and the same being.

This doctrine we find again practically unchanged with the Mahabharata Aupanisadas: they called the lower Nature (1), akṣara (2), and puruṣa (3), the Twentyfourth, the Twentyfifth and the Twentysixth respectively and said(MBh. XII. 217. 1): "He who does not know the tetra d does not know the Supreme Brahman" (na sa veda param brahma yo na veda caluştayam; XII. 217. 1), where the four are: (1) vyakta; (2) avyakta or amrta pada XII. 217. 2), (3) purușa (XII. 217. 6), and (4) dehin, the embodied soul (XII. 217. 12). But we see also another and, evidently, later School of the Mahabharata Aupanisadas preparing already the ground for future developments by finding it necessary to explain—which was not really different, apart from its being expressly stated, from the view of both Sve. Up. and Bh. Gî.—that the two Natures are one and aksara and purusa are one in that in either case the one is the "place" of the other (tatsthatvāt; XII. 318. 56. 78).

<sup>\*</sup> This becomes quite clear, if we restore, as Prof. Schrader suggests, the strange reading supratisthāksaram ca in Sv. Up. I. 7 to supratistham ksaram ca.

The Sāmkhyas and the Yogas of the Mahābhārata then actually did away with the theory of the two Natures, but in a different manner.

- (1) The Sāmkhyas abolished the akṣara or the higher Nature by simply distributing its attributes among the lower, i. e., their only Nature, and the Twentysixth of the Aupaniṣadas whom they accepted as their Twentyfifth. [This was the origin of the dualism of Spirit and Matter which we find as an accomplished fact in the Classical Sāmkhya.]
- (2) The Rudrite Yogas, while accepting the Samkhya Twentyfourth (and rejecting the higher Nature). could not admit the Samkhya purusa who was both Jiva and Isvara, for they (i. e. these Yogas) wanted a highest principle which was absolutely beyond bondage and liberation, i. e., had not even the semblance of being somehow (temporarily), viz., by creation etc., contaminated by the Prakrti. Thus, they believed in two principles instead of the one purusa of the Samkhyas, viz., the T wentyfifth, who was for them only a kind of world-soul, and the Twentysixth. the Parmatman, who was placed above the Twentyfifth and the Twentyfourth (Prakrti) and who was the absolutely transcendent, yet personal, highest being. [Thus, and not on the basis of an atheistic Samkhya, has evolved the idea of a personal highest God in the Yoga System.] This School, then, may be looked upon as having evolved from the (likewise Rudrite) Svetasvatara Upanisad. For, its two Atmans are the two "friends" in Sve. Up. IV. 6-7. But in Sve. Up, the boundary between the two is still constantly obliterated; it has still a conscious prakțti and its "Lord" is still, though not bhoktr, yet kartr as regards creation etc., (V. 3; VI. 3-4).
- (3) The Hiranyagarbha Yogas were at one with the Rudrite Yogas as regards their Twentyfourth and Twentyfifth, but went beyond them by positing an impersonal Twentysixth which they called aksara. This akṣara, then, was like that of the Oldest Prose Upaniṣads deprived of both its personality (cf. Br. Up. III. 8.9) and materiality, the former being reserved for their Twentyfifth,

and the latter for their Twentyfourth. This is the acme of metaphysical abstraction reached in the Mahābhārata.

In all of these three Schools the Twentyfifth engaged (either really or apparently) in creation, etc., and transmigration etc., had so far been only one, who either had (as in the case of the Yogas) or had not (as with the Samkhyas) a higher principle above him, and the empirical plurality of individuals must have been for them but a phenomenon of Nature, if they cared at all to explain it. We can understand this attitude if we realise that it was a Herculean task for Indian thinkers to free themselves from the grip of the ancient Aupanișada tradition with its one and only Atman. It is a great pity, therefore, that the Mahabharata has not preserved for us one or two documents showing the rise of the theory of plurality of souls. We are merely confronted, in one of the latest chapters of the Santiparvan (350. 1 fll.) with the fact that both the Sāmkhyas and the Yogas had meanwhile taken to it, i. e., to the doctrine of one real highest soul and many empirical individual ones. [For the Samkhyas now only one more step remained to be taken, viz., that of abolishing the purusa, just as formerly they had abolished the higher Nature, and establishing a real plurality of souls, but that is not heard of yet in the Mahabharata; it came later, when Buddhism spread and atheism became fashionable.]

Some time after the origin of these three Schools, came the Mahābhārata Pāñcarātras who rather developed the religion (dharma) of the Bhagavadgîtā, their most venerable authority: they emphasised the oneness of akṣara and puruṣa and did not allow either Matter or soul to be a distinct entity from it, but looked upon the former as periodically created and withdrawn and upon the latter also as emerging from and returning into their "source" the Puruṣa. In spite of this they did not renounce the svagatabheda standpoint of the Gîtā, but spoke of an innate power of the Puruṣa which they called his Vidyā (and which was later identified with Viṣṇu's wife Lakṣmì) and also of the souls as somehow

being parts of God and continuing as such even during the period of cosmic rest. This, then, is the strictest monism taught in the Mahābhārata.

And, finally, Bādarāyaṇa, the author (or reviser?) of the Brahmasūtras, substituted the Mahābhārata Pāñcarātra view of the oneness of akṣara and puruṣa by his teaching that the same Supreme Being called para "the Highest" is to be meditated upon as akṣara or puruṣa.

But, while in Bādrāyaṇa's Sūtras (and also in the systems of the Vaiṣṇavite Ācāryas) the abandoned ancient position (of puruṣa being higher than akṣara) is still to some extent recognizable, even the traces of the latter will be found to have disappeared when we turn to the works of his most renowned successor, Sankarācārya.

Thus it has happened that the history of akṣara has become what it has been called by us: a forgotten chapter. It undoubtedly covers a very long period when again and over again those very questions were asked which are echoed in the motto of this Thesis. The history of Indian Philosophy must, indeed, have essentially been for many centuries the history of akṣara.

#### APPENDIX I.

### INTERPRETATION OF THE UPANISADS.

Scholars may want a more detailed demonstration of the right claimed by the author of this Thesis to use the U p ani s a d s in the way he has done. He, therefore, submits to them the following translation of, and notes on, those passages of the Upanisads which testify most unambiguously to the correctness of his view of akṣara and at the same time can be shown to be in full agreement, in this respect, with his second source on akṣara, the Bhagavadgita.

## A.—Mundaka Upanişad.

# 1. Mu. Up. II. 1. 1-2.

- (1) The following is the truth: Just as from a well-kindled fire sparks rise in thousands all alike, so, O gentle one, are the various things born of the Immutable and return into the same.
- (2) That divine, formless puruṣa is both outside and inside, unborn, without breath, without a mind, shining, higher than the highest Immutable (akṣarāt parataḥ paraḥ).

#### Notes:-

- 1. These verses make it quite clear that the Mundaka Upanisad distinguishes between akṣara and puruṣa and places the latter above the former, as does the Gita (e. g. in XV. 16-18).
- 2 It should, however, be noticed that this passage of the Upanisad (II. l. l)describes all things as originating from the Immutable. We know that in the Gîta also, the higher Nature is said to be either the origin of all beings (e. g. Bh. Gî. VII. 6, XIV. 4), or the origin of the lower Nature which is the direct origin of all begins (Bh. Gî. VIII 20-21, III. 14-15),

# 2. Mu. Up. III. 2. 8.

Just as the flowing rivers disappear into the ocean, having abandoned name and form, so the knower totally freed from name and form reaches the divine purusa higher than the Highest (parāt param puruṣam).

#### .Notes :--

1. Purușa in this verse can be no other than purușa above the highest Immutable in Mu. Up. II. 1. 2.

# 3. Mu. Up. I. 1. 7-9.

- (7) Just as the spider creates and takes [back], just as herbs rise up on the earth, just as the hairs on the head and the hairs on the body (appear) from the living man, so does every thing here rise from 'the Immutable' (akṣara).
- (8) The [lower] brahman develops on account of tapas; from that is the food born; from food, breath, mind, truth (satya), words, and, in the rites, 'the Immortal' (amṛtam.)
- (9) From that [ātman] who is omniscient, who knows all, whose tapas consists of knowledge, is born this [lower] brahman, name, form, and food.

#### Notes:

1. The use of the masculine forms in I. 1. 9 should not lead us to suppose that the last verse is a later interpolation, because akṣara ātmā (Pr. Up. IV. 9) or akṣaraḥ puruṣaḥ (Mu. Up. I. 2. 13), or rather simply ātmā (see ātmā in Mu. Up. II. 2. 5, and notes on Sve. Up. I. 7-12) could have been understood by the author of the Upaniṣad as the subject posseṣsed of omniscience and other attributes mentioned in this Sruti. The occurrence of these masculine expressions in the sense of the impersonal Immutable shows nothing else than that though the idea in the mind of these writers was an impersonal one, they believed themselves to be entitled to make use of words that were of the masculine gender. Even in the oldest Upaniṣads like the Bṛ. Up. ātmā is the word used for what is described only negatively, e.g. Bṛ. Up. III. 9. 26. In the present instance, brahman is said to be the effect of the Immutable according to the interpretation we have proposed,

and this conclusion is justified by Bh. Gî. III. 15 (brahm ākṣa-nısamudbhavam). So brahman in Mu. Up. I. 1. 9 means the lower Nature. Moreover the expression 'yaḥ sarvı jñaḥ sarvavid' (in I. 1. 9) is the same as in II. 2. 7 where undoubtedly it refers to akṣara (see notes on ālman under Sve. Up. 1. 7-12). The author of the Brahmsūtras clearly says that ālman, Brahman, etc. are words used both for akṣara and puruṣa (Br. Sū. III. 3. 52; see App. IV).

- 2. As already said, brahman in I. 1. 9 is the lower Nature, because it is the effect of the Immutable. This follows also from the fact that it is said to be 'growing' 'gathering' or 'developing' (cīyate) through tapas (I. 1. 8).
- 3. That akṣara in this passage is of the same nature as that of the Bhagavadgîtā is proved by the similarity of the attributes mentioned in Mu. Up. I. 1. 6 and those in Gîtā XII. 2-3.
- 4. That the Immutable is said to be the goal in Mu. Up. II. 2. 3, while elsewhere in the same Upanişad, e. g. in III. 2. 8 puruşa is said to be the goal, is no obstacle to our interpretation, because in the days of the Mundaka Upanişad both akşara and puruşa were regarded as goals, as we find in the case of the Bhagavadgîtā.

# 4. Mu. Up. I. 2. 13.

To him who had properly approached [him], whose mind was tranquil and who possessed control (of the senses), that knower (of Brahman) proclaimed in truth that Lore of Brahman so that he could know the real 'Immutable-purusa' (akṣara purusa).

### Note:-

'Akṣara puruṣa', mentioned here, seems to be a crude attempt to explain the relation of akṣara and puruṣa. The oldest Upaniṣads use both these terms separately, e. g. akṣara in Br. Up. III. 8. 8-11, and puruṣa in Chā. Up. III. 12. 6, and Br. Up. III. 9. 26. Each word denotes the highest reality known to the Upaniṣad. Both these words are placed together in the present passage; this seems to have been done consciously in order to reconcile the impersonal and the personal conceptions about the highest truth referred to above. The authors of the Earlier Metrical Upaniṣadas found that in the Oldest Prose Upaniṣads, sometimes, akṣara was taught, and at other

times puruşa was taught, as is the case in the passages just They were not confronted with an Aupanisada mentioned. School teaching aksara and purusa as two philosophical principles, as was actually the case with the author of the Brahmasūtras who had before him the Mahābhārata Aupanisada So, the EMU try to reconcile the conception of the impersonal with that of the personal in Br. Up. and Cha. Up., but were not concerned with that spiritual dualism which was itself the result of the EMU and the Gîtā. Thus, the first section of the Mundaka Upanisad seems to be earlier than the other two sections, because this effort to reconcile aksara and purusa (in Mu. Up. I) is less successful than the same in II and III where the impersonal aksara (e.g. in II. 1. 2, III. 1. 3 and III. 2. 1, 8) is clearly placed below the personal purusa. expression 'akṣara puruṣa' betrays the author's intention to convey the idea of the impersonal Immutable only, because he uses the simple term aksara in Mu. Up. I. 1. and refers to tabas and sraddhā in I. 2. 11 which is evidently based upon Chā. Up. V. 10. 1-2. Both these Upanisadic passages describe the paths of gods and Pitrs. Cha. Up. V. 10. 1–2 mentions the impersonal Brahman as the goal of devayana, so it is quite probable that the Mu. Up. passage which draws upon that older text has the same goal in view. The words like brahmaloka (Mu. Up. I. 2. 6) and amrta puruşa in Mu. Up. I. 2. 11 also point to the same. The expression akṣara puruṣa is like the expression akşara ātman in Pr. Up. IV. 9, which though masculine refers to the impersonal reality described in Pr. Up. IV. 10. The Immutable is designated as akşara puruşa also in Bh. Gî. XV. 16: "There are these two purusas in the world, viz., the Mutable and the Immutable"; but the Gîta does so, because it calls the purusa (of Mu. Up.) "purusottama" ( Bh. Gî. XV. 18 ).

### CONCLUSION: -

- 1. The Immutable in the Mu. Up. is the Impersonal One (I. 1. 6) as in Bh. Gi. XII. 3-4.
- 2. It is below puruşa, e. g. in II. 1. 2, III. 1. 2, III. 2. 8, as in Bh. Gî. XV. 16-18.
- 3. It is an independent goal just like the puruşa (1. 1. 5), as in Bh. Gî. XII. 1, VIII. 10.
- 4. It can be called akşara (I. 1. 5, 7; II. 1. 2; II. 2. 2), ātman (possibly in I. 1. 9, II. 2. 5), akşara puruşa (I. 2. 13),

- amṛta puruṣa (I. 2. 11), Brahman (III. 1. 3), yoni (with reference to puruṣa) (III. 1. 3), yoni of all beings (I. 1. 6), sukra (III. 2. 1), brahmadhāma (III. 2. 2, 4).
- 5. From it, brahman or the lower Nature is "born" (I. 1. 8-9).
- 6. Specially noteworthy is the fact that in Mu. Up. 1. 2. we have an earlier effort to reconcile the impersonal and personal principles of Br. Up. and Chā. Up. than the one in Mu. Up. II. 1. 1-2.

# B.—Prasna Upanișad.

Sections IV and V of the Prasna Upanisad mention the Immutable (akṣara) and puruṣa respectively, and, as we shall see presently, distinguish between the two, placing puruṣa above akṣara.

# 1. Pr. Up. IV. 9-11.

- (9) For he, who sees, touches, hears, smells, tastes, fancies, knows, and acts, he is the person of the nature of knowledge (vijñānātmā puruṣaḥ), [and] he has his stand in the highest Immutable Self (pare Skṣare ātmani).
- (10) He, indeed, who knows the Immutable (akṣara) which is without shadow, without a body, without blood, and radiant, O gentle one, he, who knows this Immutable, reaches none else than the highest Immutable. He becomes omniscient and all-[embracing]. For that the following verse [is the authority].
- (11) He who knows that Immutable in which the know-ledge-self (vijāānātmā), along with all the gods (i. e. senses), and all the vital airs and elements find rest—such a one having become omniscient, O gentle one, has certainly entered everything.

### NOTES:-

1. The person of the nature of knowledge (vijāanātmā puruṣah) is the Jîva (individual soul) in whom all senses and all objects of sense rest during the dreamless sleep (Pr. Up. IV. 6-7).

- 2. The expression para akṣara ātman (in verse IV. 9) for the highest Immutable, which is more complex than the usual word akṣara (e.g. in Mu. Up. I. 1. 5) m was be compared with the similar expression akṣara puruṣa, 'the Immutable puruṣa', for the same, used in Mu. Up. I. 2. 13. see pp. 125-126).
- 3. The description of the Immutable in verse 10 makes it quite clear that para akṣara ātman in the previous verse is to be identified with the akṣara of the Bhagavadgita (see e. g. XII. 2-5).
- 4. Verse 11 makes the sense of vijñānātmā puruṣaḥ in verse 9 quite clear. He is accompanied by the senses, the vital airs and the elements. He can be none else but the Jîva.

## 2. Pr. Up. V. 2, 5, 7.

(2) Indeed, O Satyakāma, that which is the Syllable 'Om' is the Higher and the Lower Brahman ( param c āparam ca brahma). Therefore the knower obtains either of the two ( ekataram ) by this same resort ( viz., the Syllable Om ).

 $\mathbf{x}$   $\mathbf{x}$   $\mathbf{x}$ 

(5) But he who meditates on the Supreme puruṣa (parama puruṣa) by means of this very Syllable, viz., 'Om' consisting of three parts, joins the Light, viz., the Sun. He being free from sin, just as the serpent is freed from slough, is carried by the Sāma-hymns to the world of Brahman (i. e. to the Immutable). From this [world] replete with Life (or from this solid Mass of Life-Jīvaghana), he sees puruṣa, higher than the Highest, residing in the City (parāt puram puriṣayam puruṣam). Regarding this, the following two verses are [the authority].

X X X

(7) He obtains this [human] world by means of the Rg-verses, the world of the atmosphere through the Yajus-verses, and through Samans he obtains that [Immutable] which the Wise proclaim. He, who knows what is quiet, without o'd age, immortal, without fear, and the Highest (para) obtains Him even by the same resort viz., the Syllable 'Om' [meditated upon as an entire Syllable].

### Notes:-

- The conception of the Higher and Lower Brahman of this Upanisad is very important. Sentences 3 and 4 of this section describe how the meditator on one and two parts (ekamātra and dvimātra) of the Syllable 'Om', obtains the human world and the world of the moon. (Apparently these worlds are not to be counted as Brahman.) The world of the moon is the world from which the soul returns, according to V. 4. sentence (V. 5), therefore, describes the world from which there This world is said to be the Brahman-world (brahmaloka). And the man who meditates on all the three parts of the Syllable (i. e. who meditates on the Syllable 'Om' as consisting of three parts, but not as a single Syllable, see note 9 below), goes to it after having joined [the rays of] the Light viz., the Sun. The description (vinirmuktam etc. in V. 5) shows that this man is the liberated soul. Therefore, this must be the Lower Brahman (aparam brahma) mentioned in verse V. 2. This is "one of the two (goals)" stated in this Sruti (V. 2). The phrase parat param (V. 5) is an epithet of the burusa" who is higher than this Mass of Life which is the Highest ( etasmāj jīvaghanāt parāl param)." This interpretation is supported by the description of the puruşa in the Mundaka Upanişad. There we read: the Brahman-knower being freed from 'name and form' reaches the divine burusa higher than the Highest (Mu. Up. III. 2. 8).
- Brahmaloka in this passage is 'the Immutable aksara'. because (a) as pointed out in the note to the previous verse, according to this Upanisad there is no return from this Brahman-world, return being possible only if the meditator goes to the world of the moon as said in sentence 3 of this section; (b) it is said here that the liberated soul "sees" the purusa from this Brahman-world; no text tells us that one can "see" the burusa from the world of Brahma otherwise called Prajapati; (c) even some of the Upanisads distinguish between the Brahman-world, i. e. the Immutable, and the world of Prajapati, e. g. Kau. Up. I. 3, in which brahmaloka can only mean the Immutable; as the question of return and non-return is here (in Pra. Up. V) discussed according as the soul reaches the Moon or the Sun, we can associate this passage with Kau. Up. I. 3 where the same topic is met with; and (d) lastly this Brahman-world is said to be jivaghana, a solid Mass of Life; the soul that is "bound" including even Brahma could not have been so called. The idea of 'jivasamasti' as the inter-

pretation of jivaghana is not acceptable because that idea is not known to the EMU and because "jivaghana" is not difficult to be explained, if we look to the literature of the Age of the EMU. This term "jivaghana" means the same as is called prajñānaghana "Mass of Consciousness' in Br. Up. IV. 5. 13 and in Māndukya Up. 5, and "jivabhūtā prakrti" the Life-element in Bh. Gî. VII. 5, and "jiva ātman" in Chā. Up. VI. 3. 2. (see Ch. IV. p. 102). In Chā. Up. VIII. 3. 2. (brahmaloka means akṣara the "Immutable"; so also in Chā. Up. VIII. 4. 1-3, VIII. 5. 3-4 and in Bṛ Up. IV. 3. 32.

- 3. It should also be emphasised that the liberated soul is here said to see *furușa* from the world of the Immutable, so that it is not meant here that the soul reaches the *purușa* by meditation on Him through the syllable 'Om' conceived of as consisting of three parts.
- 4. The world described as 'what the Wise (kavayah cf. Ka. Up. III. 14) proclaim,' is the Brahman-world of V. 5 or "the Lower Brahman" of V. 2, because both of these are said to be reached through the Saman-hymns. And this description of the Brahman-world also justifies my interpretation of the term brahmaloka in V. 5. So, the expression "the Lower Brahman" has got quite a different meaning from what Sankara would explain it to be.
- 5. Now, there should be no doubt regarding the explanation of "Him" (V. 7c), because this word stands for purusa who is mentioned in V. 5. Verse 7 is a quotation intended to explain sentence 5 (see note 8 below).
- 6. As it is said that even by the syllable 'Om' the Brahman-knower reaches purusa; it follows that 'Om' in this case is net conceived of as a syllable consisting of three parts, but as a self-complete single mystic symbol. This idea seems to be similar to that in the Bh. Gî. VIII. 13. 'Even' (eva in V.7c-d) is significant in this connection.
- 7. 'The quiet one' and the other epithets refer undoubtedly to akṣara. It is not unusual to describe the Immutable in these terms (see santātman in Ka. Up. III. 13). Moreover, param 'the Highest' mentioned here is to be distinguished from parāt param 'the higher than the Highest', the attribute of puruṣa in one of the sentences here (V. 5).

- 8. 'Him' (in V. 7c) must refer to puruṣa as distinguished from the impersonal akṣara conveyed here by the neuter pronouns 'yat' and 'tat'. This puruṣa is the one whom the liberated soul "sees" from the Brahman-world (V. 5).
- 9. The exact literal sense of this last verse must be noted. It states that one who knows aksara attains to purusa by means of the syllable "Om". This idea follows also from two verses in Bh. Gî. viz., VIII. 12, where it is said that 'he, who, repeating the Brahman consisting of the one syllable viz., 'Om' and remembering me, departs leaving off his body reaches the highest goal', and XII. 4 which says: 'Those who meditate on aksara being attached to the good of all creatures, reach none but me'. This also agrees with Tai. Up. II. 1, which says 'The knower of Brahman obtains what is beyond [it]' (see also Bh. Gî. XVIII. 53-55 and XII. 4-5).

### CONCLUSION: --

- 1. So, according to Prasna Upanisad IV and V, the Immutable (akṣara) is impersonal and can be described negatively (Pr. Up. IV. 10, V. 7d), as is also the case in Bh. Gî. XII. 3-4.
- 2. It is also called (a) para akşara ātman 'the Highest Immutable Atman' (Pr. Up. IV. 9-11, the term ātman being used here without a reference to the self), (b) 'apara brahman' the Lower Brahman, in contrast with the puruşa who is called 'para brahman' the Higher Brahman (Pr. Up. V. 2), (c) 'brahmaloka' the Brahman-world, (d) 'jîvaghana' a solid Mass of Life (Pr. Up. V. 5), meaning the same as jīvabhūtā parā prakṛti in Bh. Gî. VII. 5, and (e) 'that which the Wise proclaim" (yat tat kuvayo vedayante-Pr. Up. V. 7).
- 3: The puruşa is higher than it ( parāt param purisayam puruşam īkṣate-V. 5).

# C.—Svetāsvatara Upanişad.

From the standpoint of terminology, this Upanisad is later than the two already examined. Two passages in it are specially important for our inquiry and will, therefore, be discussed here in extenso, viz., I. 7-9 and V. 1.

# 1. Sve. Up. I. 7-12.

- (7) This is the Supreme Brahman (paramam brahma) celebrated in song. The three therein are well established and imperishable (akṣara). The Brahman-knowers having known the distinction between these are merged into Brahman, being devoted to it and freed from [all] forms of existence.
- (8) The Lord (18a) maintains (bharate) this all, the combined Mutable (kṣara) and Immutable (akṣara), the Manifest and the Unmanifest (vyaktāvyaktam). And the Atman, the not-Lord (anīsa), is "bound" because of his being the enjoyer (bhoktr), and is released from all bonds after having known the divine One.
- (9) The knower  $(j\bar{n}a)$  and the not-knower  $(aj\bar{n}a)$ , the Lord and the not-Lord, are both "unborn". The one "female unborn" is associated with the enjoyer and the objects of enjoyment. And the infinite Atman is "of the form of the all" (visvarapa) and, indeed, no Agent. It is [the attainment of] Brahma, when one attains these three.
- (10) The Mutable (kṣara) is the First Evolver (pradhāna); and the Immortal, the Immutable (amṛtākṣaraṃ) is the Light (haras). Over the Mutable and the [Immutable] ātman, the One God rules. Through meditation on him, through applying oneself to him and [thus] becoming completely of his nature (tattvabhāvāt, bhūyaḥ) at the end [there results] the cessation of all deceit (visvamāyā).
- (11) For him who has known God [there follows] the relinquishment of all fetters, the cessation of birth and death because of the troubles being removed. Through meditation on him, [he gains] the third [of the triad] on the loss of the body [and thus] all-Lordliness (visvaisvarya). He is then absolute (kevala) and has achieved all desires.
- (12) This [triad] should be known as contained eternally in the Atman, since nothing higher remains to be known for him who has known the Enjoyer (bhoktr), the Enjoyable (bhogya) and the Prompter (presitr); this is the entire Three-fold Brahma which has been proclaimed.

### Notes:-

- 1. The technical use of 'akṣara' in the sense of the Immutable should be distinguished from the ordinary sense of the word, viz., imperishable.
- 2. Verse 8 gives the explanation of the 'three' mentioned in the previous verse. They are (1) the Mutable and the Immutable combined together (samyukta) and thus forming on e of the three, (2) the Lord (tsa) and (3) the not-Lord (antsa) i.e. the Jiva.
- 3. If Sve. Up. I. 7b be interpreted to mean "The three are well established and are imperishable therein", then the three should be necessarily understood as (1) the Mutable, (2) the Immutable and (3) the not-Lord, the Supreme Brahman being the Lord (13a) himself. In that case, verse 7 would regard also the Mutable (13a) as an imperishable (13a) principle, along with the Immutable and the Jîva An explanation of this is found in Sve. Up. V. I (see note 2 on Sve. Up. V. I).
- 4. It should be noted here that the Mutable is called the Manifest and the Immutable the Unmanifest (avyakta). These terms are also used in the Gita e.g. in VIII. 18-21 (see App. II). This use of the term avyakta for akṣara is a later one. The older Upaniṣads, e.g. the Munḍaka and the Praṣna, do not use it. They use the word 'akṣara' which is met with in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, e.g. in III. 8.8 (see note 13 below). The explanation of the Immutable as the Unmanifest in contrast with that of kṣara as the Manifest shows that akṣara cannot be here interpreted as the Jiva. This, also, follows from the fact that the not-Lord is one of the imperishable three, along with the Immutable also (see notes 2-3 above).
- 5. The distinction between the Immutable and the Lord is here definitely stated as that between the ruled and the ruler or the sustained and the sustainer (bharate in verse 8).
- 6. The first half of verse 8 finds an exact parallel in Bh. Gt. XV.16-18. The Upanisadic words bharate and isa should be compared with bibharti and isvara in the Gîtă. The author of the Brahmasūtras makes 'sustenance' sambhṛti a distinct attribute of puruṣa (Br. Sū. III. 3. 23; App. IV).
- 7. As distinct from 'the ruled' i.e. the Immutable and the Mutable, and 'the ruler' the Lord, the Jiya is called 'the

- not-ruler'. It should be noticed that he is here not counted as one of the ruled. The statement that the not-ruler Atman is "bound" through his characteristic as an enjoyer may be compared with Bh. Gî. XIII. 20-22 (see also Sve. U. IV. 5-7).
- 8. The one "unborn female" is the higher Nature or the Immutable because only the Immutable can be said to be united, on the one hand, with 'the enjoyer' the Jîva and, on the other, with 'the objects of enjoyment' which would constitute the Mutable, and because the Mutable is here 'the First Evolver' pradhāna and 'the Immutable' (akṣara) is said to be 'the Immortal' amṛla which ultimately means the same as ajā 'unborn' (see verse 10).
- 9. Thus, the three in verse 9 are the three unborn, viz., the Jîva, the higher Nature and the infinite Atman or the Lord. Verse 8 includes the Mutable along with the Immutable, but the triad/is essentially the same in both the verses.
- 10. Verse 9 describing the infinite Atman or the Lord as 'of the form of the all' (visvarapa) means that the Mutable and the Immutable which constitute 'the all', are contained in the Lord (see verse 8).
- 11. The word amṛta in verse I. 10 a is the one which is used as a synonym of akṣara, the Immutable. It is so used in the oldest Upaniṣads as well as in those which can be historically assigned to the same period as the Svetāsvatara Upaniṣad, e. g. "This is the Immutable, this is the Immortal, the Fearless (Chā. Up. I. 4. 4); "It alone is the Bright (sukram), it is Brahman, it alone is designated the Immortal" (Kaṭha Up. V. 8., VI. 1); see also Muṇḍaka Up. II. 2. 2, 11 and Kaṭha Up. VI. 17 (see note 1 on Sve. Up. V. 1).
- 12. The word haras (as Prof. Schrader points out to me) has been identified with Greek theros "heat [of the summer]" and traced back, together with ghṛṇa, gharma, etc., to the root ghṛ. Besides in the Rgveda it also occurs in Yajurveda (Taitt. Samh. and Brāhm.) to which the Sve. Up. is said to belong. It is used especially for "energy" as of the eye or of a horse (cf. harasvin "fiery", "energetic"), and thus may be looked upon as a synonym of tejas and a precursor of the later term sahti. For tejas in the sense of a higher prakrti compare e. g. Chā. Up. VI. 2. 3, 8. 4-6, 15. 2; Pra. Up. IV. 6.

- 13. The explanation of the Mutable as pradhana 'the First Evolver' is very important. Pradhana is here said to be kşara (the Mutable) because in the days of the Earlier Metrical Upanisads (e. g. Mu. Up. I. 1. 9) and even later in Bh. Gî. (III. 15) and MBh. (see Ch 1. Section 1) the Aupanisada School thought the Nature (i. e. their lower Nature) to be an effect of the higher Nature viz., aksara. The Mutable is not the Intellect and the other elements produced from the Intellect, but prakṛli 'the lower Nature' itself including all its effects (and capable of becoming manifest and therefore) called the Manifest (vyakta) in contrast with the Unmanifest (avyakta), the designation of the Immutable (Sve I. 8). The Svetāsvatara Upanisad seems to be the earliest to use the term" avyakta". It is absent in the Cha., Br., Mu., Pr. Upanisads. It occurs only once in Sve. Up. while thrice in Katha Up., though both of these are of equal length. As we shall see later on, the history of avyakta is the history of some centuries of Indian philosophy. Here it should be noted that, the Sve. Up. which explains both pradhana and vyakta as ksara, has got a more primitive conception of avyakta than the Gita which speaks of all manifestations (vyaktayah) as born of avyakta (which stands there for pradhana) and of the latter as 'lower than' another avyakta (which is 'akṣara avyakta' of the Sve. Up.) (Bh. Gî. VIII. 18-21). The Sve. Up. understands vyakta to be bradhana. Thus, the Sve. Up. uses these terms (vyakta and avyakta) in a very primitive way, and the Katha Up. avoids vyakta but shows a special fondness for avyakta while the Gîtă goes still further and puts forth the doctrine of vyaktis and two ayaktas, the lower and the higher, the first of which is bradhāna (Sve. Up.) or mahat (Katha Up.) "the lower Nature" and the second of which is the aksara of Sve. Up. and the avyakta of Sve. and Katha Upanisads.
- 14. The term ātman in verse 10b evidently stands here for the Immutable mentioned along with the Mutable in 10a and 8a-b. In both these verses the Lord is the ruler over the Mutable and the Immutable, as is said also in this verse. As remarked already, the Jiva is here conceived as the not-ruler but not as one who is ruled over. The Sve. Up. uses the term ātman in the sense of the Immutable. Thus, in I. 3d ātman in kālātmayuktāni stands for the term "yoni" in 2. b, the term kāla being the first in the list of the causes mentioned in 2 a-b just as puruṣa, to be here identified with deva in 3b, is the

last. Atman (in 3d) cannot be the Jiva because he (i. e. the Jiva) is positively denied to be a cause in 2 c-d. In Sve. Up. VI. 16, puruṣa is actually said to be ātmayoni, having ātman (the Immutable) as the womb (at his disposal for fructification). 'Atmayoni' is to be compared with brahmayoni in Sve. Up. V. 6. He who 'presides' (adhitiṣṭhati-I. 3) is the same as he who 'rules' (I. 10). It is highly probable that the word ālman in Sve. Up. I. 6 c-d means the Immutable. "The Jiva having known ātman (the Immutable) and the Prompter as distinct [from each other and also from himself] and then having become gratified with that [knowledge or with that Immutable, compare juṣamāna and juṣṭa in Sve. Up. IV. 5 and 7] attains to immortality" (Sve. Up. I. 6). Thus, this verse gives us the same idea of the 'Triad' as is given also in the verses that follow it.

The Sve. Up. is not the only one which uses the term atman for the Immutable. Mundaka Upanisad II. 1 gives us the description of purusa, who is above the Immutable (II. 1. 2). In contrast with Mu. Up. II. 1, Mu. Up. II. 2 aims at teaching the Lore of the Immutable (II. 2. 2-3). The term Brahman in II. 2. 4b and the term atman in II.2. 5c are used for the Immutable, akṣara, of II. 2. 2-3. 'That atman in which the sky, the earth, the atmosphere, the mind are sewn crosswise and lengthwise, along with all the vital airs' is the Immutable (akṣara) according to Br. Up. III. 8. 7-8, 11. The words amṛta (7) and Brahman (9, 11) make it quite clear that atman (in 5, 6, 7) is used for akṣara.

So also Mu. Up. III. 1 is intended to explain the Lore of the Immutable and uses the term ātman (e. g. in verses 5, 10) for the Immutable, while III. 2 is intended to teach the doctrine of the puruṣa. The first verse of III. 2 is very important. 'He [the knower of ātman-III. 1. 10] knows this Highest Abode in the form of Brahman (paramam brahmadhāma). Those wise men who without a desire [for the fruit] worship puruṣa (described in III. 3) go beyond this bright one (sukram etat) (III. 2. 1). Here the terms brahmadhāma and sukra make it clear that ātman in III. 1 is used for Explanan which is the womb for puruṣa (III. 1. 3). The term sukra 'the bright one' is so used in Katha Up. V. 8, VI. 1, VI. 17, also in Sve. Up. IV. 2. 'This' (ctad) in 'this bright one' (sukram etat) in verse 1 refers to bruhmadhāma which is an explanation of ātman in III. 1. 10. But the term ātman in

III. 2. 3-4 is used for purusa mentioned in III. 2. 1. In III. 2. 3-4 it is said that purusa or ātman can be obtained by no other means than 'selection' (varaṇa), and the latter half of verse 4 says that "But this self of that knower who tries to obtain him by these means (Vedic study etc. mentioned in III. 3) enters the Brahman-abode (brahmadhāma) [but not puruṣa]". That III. 2 is intended to teach puruṣa-vidyā is proved by the mention of puruṣa higher than the Highest in III. 2. 8.

So, in the history of the term ātman we have to admit a period when it meant in some texts the Immutable and in others the puruṣa, especially, at the time when these two were actually distinguished from each other as in the Mu., Pr., and Sve. Upaniṣads. This is quite natural because even when the term ātman was used with reference to the "self", as in the Chā. and Bṛ. Upaniṣads, it was thought of as possessing those attributes and functions which are later on divided between akṣara and puruṣa.

In Cha. Up. IV. 15. 1. purusa, ātman, amṛta and Brahman are all identified, and ātman is not different from the impersonal Immortal. So also in Bṛ. Up. IV. 4. 25 where purusa is absent.

In the Katha Up. which seems to be later than the Svetasvatara in as much as the latter does not know the evolutional series which the former mentions twice, an effort is made to distinguish the various meanings of ātman by qualifying the term by such words as jñāna, mahān, sānta (II. 13) and madhvada, jīva (IV. 5). So also akṣara ātman in Pr. Up. IV. 9.

Thus ālman in Sve. Up. I. 10b means the Immutable (akṣara.)

- 15. The word māyā "deceit" in verse 10 is explained in verse 11 as the fetters. It does not seem to mean the Illusion of the existence of the world, but it means the cause of the bondage and the bondage itself. In absolution the 'all' (viśva) does not cease to exist but the liberated gets the lordship over the all (I. 10-11).
- 16. The three mentioned in verse 12 are the same as those in verse 9. In 12 the names of these three are given from the standpoint of 'enjoyment'. So, the Enjoyable is the Immutable from which the Mutable or the First Evolver and the whole creation proceed,

# 2. Sve. Up. V. 1.\*

There are, with Brahman above them (brahmapare) two infinite Imperishables, wherein Knowledge (vidyā) and not-Knowledge (avidyā) are placed concealed. Not-Knowledge is the Mutable (kṣara), Knowledge is the Immortal. He who rules over the Knowledge and the not-Knowledge is other than these two.

### Notes:-

- 1. In this verse the Supreme Brahman is said to be above 'two Imperishables'. One of these is the hiding place of 'Knowledge', vidyā, which is identified with 'the Immortal'. As said in note 11 on Sve. Up. I. 7-12 the Immortal means the Immutable. This conclusion will follow also from the fact that 'the not-Knowledge', the opposite of Knowledge, is identified with the Mutable (kṣara). These terms (vidyā and avidyā) with these meanings have played a great part in the Mahābhārata philosophical Schools.
  - 2. The identification of 'Knowledge' with amṛta i. e. the Immutable, seems to be the identification of the means and the aim. In Kena Up. 12 we are told that 'one attains the Immortal through Knowledge'. So also in Isa Up. 11. In the Pāñcarātra system, vidyā 'Knowledge' is a synonym for the higher Nature (i. e. the Immutable). See Prof. Schrader's Introduction to the Pāñcarātra and the Ahirbudhnya Saṃhitā, P. 62).
- 3. The idea of 'two Imperishables' (akṣaras) one of which is (the place of) the Immutable and the other (that of) the Mutable is like that of two Unmanifests (avyaklas) in Bh. Gi. VIII. 20. According to the Gita, all beings (called the Mutable in Bh Gi. VIII. 4, XV. 16) rise from the lower Unmanifest, just as the Mutable in the form of "not-Knowledge" is to be traced to the Imperishable according to this verse of the Sve. Up.

The higher Unmanifest of the Gita (VIII. 20-21) is, according to the terminology of the Gita, akṣara "the Immutable" properly so called. Thus, the two Imperishables are also the same as the two prakṛtis in the Bh. Gi. VII. 4-6.

<sup>\*</sup>See Additional Note.

The Mutable in the form of pradhāna is the second Imperishable (I. 10). The kind of vagueness in the sense of kṣara 'the Mutable' (used for pradhāna or the second Imperishable in I. 8, 10 and for "not-Knowledge" the effect of that Imperishable in V. 1.) is due to the fact that the Sve. Up. is the first Up. to use the term kṣara in contrast to akṣara. The Ruler of Knowledge and not-Knowledge or the two Imperishables is the same as the Ruler mentioned in Sve. Up. I. 8, and 10 and also in Bh. Gî. XV. 18.

#### CONCLUSION: -

This Upanisad is important from various standpoints, especially from that of the idea of Trinity. But here we are concerned only with its terminology the fixation of which will be facilitated by the following considerations:—

- 1. The Immutable is according to this Upanisad lower than Brahma (V. 1).
- 2. The higherness or superiority of puruşa to the Immutable is here interpreted as the Immutable's being ruled by puruşa the Ruler (I. 8, 10; V. 1).
- It is impersonal (I. 10.), but again it is described as a femle (I. 9, IV. 5 - a female unborn). This idea seems to have arisen out of the conception of aksara as the "matrix" (yoni) for purușa (e. g. in Mu. Up. J. 3, Sve Up. V. 6). In this connection it may be noted that the Sve. Up. is the first Upanisad to use the terms brakrti, māyā (IV. 10), and sakti (I. 3.) for the Immutable. When purusa was placed above the Immutable, the idea suggested itself naturally that the Immutable was the power of, or the "matrix" for, purusa, and this idea further developed into a number of words of the feminine gender invented for the Immutable (e.g. vidyā, māyā, prakṛti). The term māyin (Sve. Up. IV. 9-10) also shows that māyā was supposed to be a power belonging to purusa. The term ajā "the female unborn" was suggested by the term aja "unborn" for purusa and the Jiva and by the fact that the Immutable called either akşara or Brahman or atman was considered to be the female generative organ (yoni) for burusa (VI. 16, I. 2, V. 6). This term ajā was also responsible for the invention of the term prakrti.

- 4. This Immutable is unborn, just as in the Gîtā (VIII. 20, XIII. 10).
- 5. The Immutable and the Mutable are joined together, i. e. as the cause and the effect; so *pradhāna* is the effect of the Immutable.

The terminology of Sve. Up. may, then, be summarised as follows:—

- 1. The Reality is threefold or a Triad and it is called paramam brahma (I. 7), brahmam, (I. 9) or trividham brahmam (I. 12).
- 2. Purușa is called purușa (I. 2), iśa (I. 8, 9, 10; V. 1), deva (I. 8, 11), jña (I. 9), ātman (I. 9), preritr (I. 12, 16), Brahman (V. I).
- 3. The Immutable is called akṣara (I. 1, 10; V. 1), Brahman (I. 7, V. 6), avyakta (I. 8), ajā (I. 9), ātman (I. 3, 6, 10; VI. 16), bhogya (I. 12), haras (I. 10), amṛta (I. 10; V. 1), (the abode of) vidyā (V. 1), (and also māyā and prakṛti in IV. 10).
- 4. The lower Nature is meant by the Imperishable (V. 1), (the abode of) avidyā (V. 1), kṣara (I. 8, 10), vyakla 'the Manifest' (I. 8).
- 5. The effects also of the lower Nature are called kşara (V. 1) or avidyā (V. 1).
- 6. The individual soul is designated as anīsa (I. 8, 9), hhoktr (I. 8, 9, 12), ajña (I-9).

Let us, finally, see how the Trinity of the Sve. Up. is found in the Gita:—

We should here compare the various forms of the Lord in Bh. Gî. VII. 29-30 and VIII. 1-4 with the members of the triad in Sve Up. I. 6-12. In the Gîtā we are told that one should know the Lord with his Adhibhūta, Adhidaiva, Adhiyajña and Adhyātma forms, while in Sve. Up. we read: "It is [the attainment of] Brahma, when one attains the three" (I. 9). *Puruṣa* or the Adhidaiva of Bh. Gî. VIII. 4 is called

purusa in Sve. Up. I. 2, Isa and deva in Sve. Up. I. 8. Immutable is called aksara in both the texts (Bh. Gî. VIII. 3, and Sve. Up. I. 8, 10). The second Imperishable or bradhana ( Sve. Up. I. 10 ) which is the same as kşara and vyakta is to be identified with svabhāva or Adhyātma in Bh. Gî. VIII. 3. Kşara 'the effect of the Imperishable' (Sve. Up. V. 1) is the Adhibhūta (Bh. Gî. VIII. 4a). The bhokir (Sve. Up. I. 9) is the Adhiyajña in Bh. Gi. VIII. 4. Besides these identifications, the Bh. Gi. speaks of the Immutable, the Jiva and puruşa as 'eternal', sanātana, in IV, 31, VIII. 20, in II. 24, XV. 7 and in XI. 18, VII. 10 respectively. The higher Nature or the Immutable and purusa are called 'beginningless' anadi in XIII. 19 and X 3; and the attribute aja, 'unborn', is applied to the Jiva in Bh. Gi. II. 21 and to the Lord in IV. 6, VII. 25, X. 3, 12. Thus, the Bhagavadgita is also inclined to regard the three members of the Trinity of the Sve. Up. as eternal (see App. II).

#### APPENDIX II.

### INTERPRETATION OF THE BHAGAVADGITA.

It is intended here to explain from my standpoint the akṣara-passages of the Gitā. The meanings assigned by various ancient and modern authorities to the term akṣara in the verses concerned have been stated in a tabular form in the Introduction.

### 1. Bh. Gî. III. 14d-15.

Sacrifice is born of Activity (karman). Know Activity to be born of brahman [the lower Nature] and brahman as born of 'the Immutable' (akṣara); therefore [this akṣara which may be called] the omnipresent [and] eternal Brahman is to be found in Sacrifice (i. e., it is the final source to which Sacrifice can be traced).

#### NOTES:-

- 1. The term 'Brahman' when used for 'the Immutable' (akṣara) is qualified by the two epithets 'omnipresent' and 'eternal' in order to distinguish it from brahman which is born of 'the Immutable' and is not therefore eternal.
- 2. The lower Nature is here said to be "born" of the Immutable. This passage of the Gita is very important on account of this clear and doubtless statement regarding the lower Nature. See notes, below, on Gita XIII. 19. 'Brahman', the lower Nature, is said to be 'born' also in Mu. Up. I. 1. 9. "Brahman" seems to have been used for the lower Nature in contrast with the higher Nature which is called mahad brahman in Bh. Gi. XIV. 3-4.

### 2. Bh. Gî. VII. 29-30, VIII. 1-5, 8.

(VII. 29) Those who, having resorted to me, endeavour for freedom from old age and death, know that Brahman, the whole spiritual form (adhyātma) and the whole Activity (karman).

(30) Those who know me with my material and divine forms (adhibhala and adhidaiva), and with my form as the sacrificial agent ( $adhiyaj\bar{n}a$ ), will also, with their mind disciplined through Yoga, know me at the time of [their] departure [from this world].

#### ARJUNA SAID:-

(VIII. 1-2) What is that Brahman? What is the spiritual form? What, Oh Purusottama, is Activity? What is said to be the material torm? How is the divine form [ to be understood ]? And who in this body here is the sacrificial agent, O slayer of Madhu? And how are you known [even ] at the time of departure [from this world] by those who are self-disciplined?

### THE LORD SAID: -.

- (3) The Immutable ( akṣara ) is the Supreme Brahman ( prama brahman ); the [lower] Nature ( svabhāva ) is the spiritual form ( adhyātma ). The act of creating ( visarga ) causing the b.rth and existence of beings is [technically] named Activity ( karman ).
- (4) The material form (adhibhūta) is the mutable existence (kṣara bhāva), and the divine form (adhidaiva) is puruṣa. O best of the embodied beings, I myself am the sacrificial agent (adhiyajūā) in this body.
- (5) And he who, while leaving the physical frame at the time of death, departs remembering me alone, attains to my state; there is no doubt as to this.

 $\mathbf{x}$   $\mathbf{x}$   $\mathbf{x}$ 

(6) He reaches the divine supreme purusa, meditating [on him] with a concentrated mind disciplined by the path of constant application (abhyāsa-yoga).

### Notes:-

1. This passage must be considered in connection with III. 14 c-d, 15. "The whole Activity" (VII. 29) shows that the topic of karman is here further discussed. Brahman,

karman, yajña (in adhiyajña) and akṣara are dealt with in both the places. VIII. 5 also reminds one of II. 72.

- 2. Brahman in VII. 29 and VIII. 1 is the omn present and eternal Brahman mentioned in III. 15.
- 3. As the term adhyātma seems to have been used in the Gîtā always in the sense of 'spiritual' (vide Bh. Gî. XI. 1), we can distinguish between adhibhūta and adhyātma by translating them as 'material' and 'spiritual' forms. Adhidaiva may therefore be fitly translated as the 'divine form', so that it may be distinguished from adhyātma. As verse VII. 30 states that adhibūta, adhidaiva and adhiyajūa are the forms belonging to Kṛṣṇa, we should not hesitate in taking adhyātma (VII. 29) also as one of his forms. These three forms may also be called Kṛṣṇa's supernatural (adhidaiva), super-sensual (adhyātma), and sensual (adhibūta) forms, thus implying the 'higher-ness', paratva, of each, which, as we shall see later on, is distinctly mentioned in the Gitā.
- 4. They may be regarded as the purely transcendent, the transcendent-and-immanent and the purely immanent forms. Purusa is only transcendent; therefore he is called 'divine', adhidaiva or divya (VIII. 8, 10), or 'the highest', para (VIII. 10) or parama (VIII. 8). For the same reason he is also called purusottama (VIII. 1), because he 'is beyond the Mutable and higher than the Immutable' (XV. 18). The purely immanent or material form of Krsna is 'the mutable existence' (VIII. 4). When the Gita explains the immanence of the Lord e. g. in VII. 7-12, X. 20-42, XI, XV. 12-15, it is always with reference to this form of the Lord. Whatever is neither purely immanent nor purely transcendent, may be classified as constituting the transcendent-and-immanent or adhyatma form. Now, let us see what existences (bhāvāh) constitute 'adhyālma in its entirety', krisnam adhyālmam (VII. 29). The Gîtă clearly states that svabhava 'the lower Nature', is adhyātma (VIII. 3). The Gita also says that karman is born of svabhava (e. g. in V. 14); and in III, 14 karman is said to be born of brahman. So svabhava being identical with brahman, the immediate cause of karman, is born of the Immutable (III. 15b).

The fact that the Gîta understands the lower Nature (svabhāva, brahman, prakrti, etc) to be adhyātma and explains the adhibhāta form as 'all beings' is noteworthy. The Gita distinguishes between the two Natures, but does not make the

lower Nature adhibhūta. The Mahābhārata always understands adhyātma with reference only to akṣara and puruṣa, while the author of the Brahmasūtras identifies both the Natures (Br. Sū. I. 4. 23–28, see Chap. IV. p. 101) and according to him the Nature will be adhyātma.

'The Immutable' by its very nature stands above 'the Mutable' or adhibhūla. 'The Immutable' is quite distinct from, and lower than, puruṣa who is the highest; so akṣara seems to be one of the constituents of the 'entire adhyātma' mentioned in VII. 29. The Activity or karman (VIII. 3) as the effect of brahman, svabhāva or the lower prakṛti (III. 15, V. 14, III. 27) is also a constituent of the same, because 'the material form' consists only cf 'the beings'.

So, on the data of III. 14-15 and VII. 29-30 and VIII. 1-8 we arrive at the following table:—

parama divya purușa (VIII. 8)

- = the supreme divine puruşa
- = adhidaiva
- = the supernatural or the transcendent form.

akṣara "the Immutable" + brahman (III. 15a) or svabhāva (VIII. 3, V. 14) or the lower prakṛti (e. g. III. 27), + karman the "Activity" (III. 14, VIII 3 c-d, III. 27)

- = adhyātma
- = the supersensual or the transcendent-and-immanent form.

kṣara = the Mutable ( VIII. 4 ), = " all beings ", bhūtāni, mentioned in III. 14 and VIII. 4

= the sensual or purely immanent form.

We find that this sequence of gradation arrived at from these two passages, is confirmed by XV. 16-18, which may therefore be next taken up for consideration.

### 3. Bh. Gî. XV. 16-18.

- (16) There are these two purusas in the world: 'the Mutable' (kṣara) and 'the Immutable' (akṣara). 'The Mutable' consists of all beings; the Unchanging is called 'the Immutable'.
- (17) The Highest puruṣa, however, is (yet) another; he is called 'the Highest Spirit' (paramātman), the imperishable Lord who sustains the three worlds, having penitrated them.
- (18) As I am beyond the Mutable and as I am higher even than the Immutable; hence am I well-known in the world and in the Veda as 'the Highest puruşa' (puruşottama).

#### Notes:-

- 1. We have seen in the passages already examined that puruṣa, the Immutable and the Mutable are the three forms of Kṛṣṇa. The same is the idea of this passage. In VIII. 1 Kṛṣṇa was addressed by Arjuna as puruṣotlama; here he calls himself "puruṣotlama well-known in the world and in the Veda". The reason why the puruṣa of the other passages in the Gitā (e. g. VIII 4, 8, 10,22; XI. 38; X. 12) is called here puruṣotlama seems to be that his own other two forms have been here described as puruṣas which term is here used in a secondary sense ("principle"), the purpose being that of pointing out the inferiority of kṣara and akṣara to puruṣa mentioned also in VIII 3-4. Puruṣotlama is a special term of the MBh. Pāñcarātras.
- 2. 'The Mutable' is lower than 'the Immutable'; this is the force of api 'even' in akṣarād api c oltamaḥ-XV. 18. It consists of all beings (XV. 16 c-d); so it is the same Mutable as is explained in VIII. 4a.
- 3. 'The Immutable' is naturally not different from the same mentioned in VIII. 1. It is above 'the Mutable' and is said to be in the world (XV. 16) because puruṣa or puruṣottama is higher even than 'the Immutable'. 'The Immutable' is described to be the Unchanging, kūṭastha, both here and in XII 3, where undoubtedly akṣara means the impersonal form of the Lord.
- 4. Akṣara cannot mean the individual soul (as the term is often understood) in the Gitā because in the Gitā the Jîva is never said to be lower than the Lord but is always regarded

as identical with him (being his own 'part'). Again, there is no passage in the Gîtā, where the Jîva is given the designation 'akṣara'. Moreover, 'the Immutable' is according to the Gîtā an object of meditation (XII. 3-4) and the goal of ascetics (VIII.11); while the Jîva is never such an object nor such a goal. The term akṣara, is here used in contrast with the term kṣara, as in VIII 3-4, and therefore must have the same meaning here as in that verse (see notes 6-7 on Sve. Up. I. 7-12).

### 4. Bh. Gî. XII. 1-4.

#### ARJUN SAID:-

(1) Which of those devotees who thus worship you with constant devotion and those, on the other hand, who [worship] 'the Immutable' (akṣara), 'the Unmanifest' (avyakia), are the better learned in the [science of the various] paths?

#### THE LORD SAID :-

- (2) Those who having fixed their mind on me, being always devoted [to me], and possessed of the highest belief [in me], worship me, are considered by me to be the best possessed of the [right] path.
- (3-4) Those, however, who worship 'the Immutable' (akṣara) the ineffable, the unmanifest, the omnipresent, the unthinkable, the unchanging, the unmoving, and the firm, having controlled the group of the organs (of sense and action), having the same feeling towards everything, and rejoicing in the welfare of all beings, obtain none but me.

### Notes:-

- 1. The Gîtã here, mentions the 'Immutable' and puruşa as the goals reached by the released; so there are two kinds of worship or meditation and two independent paths. 'Yoga' in XIII. 1 means a path for salvation.
- 2. The worshippers of the Immutable are here contrasted with those of purusa. This contrast was already a burning question in the days of the Mundaka, Prasna, and Svetasvatara Upanisads (Vide App. I). Though the Immutable is not here

stated to be lower than puruṣa, it is 'lower' according to XV. 16-18 (and VIII. 21-22, as we shall just see). The worshippers of puruṣa are said to be better possessed of the right path than those of the Immutable because these latter choose a path more troublesome than that of the former (XII. 5).

- 3. The worshippers of 'the Immutable' are not generally said in the Gîtă to reach purușa. As a rule they 'enter the Immutable' (VIII. 11). So also in VIII. 21; II. 72; V. 6, 24; VI. 28. Similarly the worshippers of purușa usually attain purușa (VIII. 10; VIII. 22: VI. 31; VII. 18, 19; VIII. 5,16). In XVIII. 53-55, we are told that one who is devoid of the idea of 'mine' mama 'becomes Brahman' and then, having secured devotion to Kṛṣṇa, enters Kṛṣṇa. So, on the strength of these passages (XII. 4, VIII. 11, XV. 53-55), we may, without assigning a secondary or metaphorical sense, to any word or sentence in these verses, conclude that generally the meditators on 'the Immutable' reach 'the Immutable' and that some of them reach also Kṛṣṇa after having obtained devotion to him.
- 4. The verse under consideration (XII. 4) is important from the standpoint of the relation of the Immutable to puruṣa. As (some at least of) the akṣara-meditators are said to reach puruṣa just like the puruṣa-worshippers; the Immutable is not to be understood as a second independent entity by the side of puruṣa, though undoubtedly according to the Gitā the Immutable is to be distinguished from puruṣa and is in a way lower than puruṣa, as said above in note 2. The next passage which we have to examine throws further light on the present question.

### 5. Bh. Gî. VIII. 18-22.

- (18) All manifestations arise at the advent of the Day of Brahmā from the [lower] Unmanifest (avyakta); they are absorbed at the advent of the Night into that same called [technically] the Unmanifest.
- (19)—This same group of beings having repeatedly become [manifest] is dissolved [into its original source] at the advent of the Night, without a will of their own; O son of Pṛthā, it arises [also similarly] at the advent of the Day—
- (20) However, beyond that Unmanifest [technically so called], there is another 'eternal Unmanifest Existence' (sanātana avyakta bhāva) which does not perish when all beings perish.

- (21) This [latter] Unmanifest Existence is [technically] called the Immutable (akṣara); [the sages] call it the Highest Goal. That [Existence] [from which the liberated], after having reached it, do not return, is my Supreme Abode (parama dhāman).
- (22) Higher (than the Immutable) is that *puruṣa* obtainable through undivided devotion, in the interior of whom [all] beings rest and by whom all this [visible world] is permeated.

### Notes:-

- 1. Verse 19 is a parenthetical one. The lower Unmanifest in 18 is the source of all beings mentioned in verse 10. Verse 20 mentions two Unmanifest Existences. One of them is withdrawn when all beings perish. The other, the higher one, is eternal. This is called 'the Immutable' (akṣara) in verse 21. It is the highest goal [of the worshippers of the Immutable].
- 2. I have followed the reading according to Sankara's commentary. If we had to read vyaktāt in place of a-vyaktāt in 20 b, we lose the force of the contrast intended in the verse. Moreover, there is no difficulty in understanding the doctrine of the two Unmanifest Existences, as we have seen above. The lower Unmanifest is again mentioned in Bh.Gî. XIII. 5 where avyakta is the source of buddhi and therefore is the same as the lower prakrti (Bh. Gî. VII. 4). This doctrine of two avyaktas became most important in the days of the LMBh., as will be seen from Ch. III.
- 3. That the word dhāman in verse 21 d means 'abode' can be shown on the strength of the passages in the Gîtā in which the same or a similar word like pada or sthāna or a verb showing motion from one place to another (with reference to the movement of the released) is used. In this verse also the expressions, 'having reached' and 'do not return,' point to the correctness of the interpretation. So, akṣara is the 'abode' wherein Kṛṣṇa (or puruṣa) dwells, and perhaps we are to understand the puruṣa "being higher" than the Immutable in this sense also.
- 4. Verse 22 should be studied along with IX. 4. In the former that purusa in the interior of whom the beings rest and by whom "all this" is penetrated is mentioned, in the latter the same is said of Kṛṣṇa. So purusa of verse 22 is the purusottama of XV. 18, and paraḥ in the first quarter of verse 22 distinctly

means that purusa is higher (para) than the Immutable. Purusa is never identified with akṣara in the Gitā. In Bh. Gi. VIII. 3-4 both of them are clearly distinguished from each other.

### 6. Bh. Gì. XI. 18, 37 c-d.

- (18) You are the Immutable (akaṣra) the highest worth knowing, you are the highest resting place of all this [world]. You are the imperishable eternal protector of Dharma. I believe you to be the eternal puruṣa.
- (37 c-d) O Infinite One, Lord of the gods, abode of the world, you are 'the Immutable' (akṣara), the Being (i. e. the Manifest), the not-Being (i. e. the Unmanifest), and whatever is beyond that.

#### Notes:—

1. First, it should be noted that these are the words of Arjuna who out of his homage to Kṛṣṇa identifies him by turn with all the various gods and yet places him above all of them. Secondly, in verse 18, Kṛṣṇa is identified with the Immutable and also with puruṣa. The same is also the sense of verse 37, where Kṛṣṇa is said to be the Immutable and what is beyond it. This last expression 'what is beyond the Immutable', refers to puruṣa. So, according to these verses also puruṣa is above akṣara.

#### CONCLUSION: --

On the strength of the above passages in which akṣara is mentioned expressly the conception of the Immutable in the Gîtā may be summarised as follows:-

- (1) The Immutable in the Gitā is described (e. g. in XII. 3) in the same negative terms in which the Upaniṣads' describe akṣara (e. g. Bṛ. Up. III. 8. 8; Mu. Up. I. 1. 6) or avyakta (e. g. Kaṭha Up. III. 15). The Gitā says that it describes the same akṣara as is described by the knowers of the Veda (VIII. 11).
- 2. It is distinct from purușa or purușottama (VIII. 3-4, 10-11, 21-22; XII 1-4; XV. 16-18).
- 3. It is lower than purușa or purușottama (VIII. 21-22, XV. 18).

- 4. It is other than the lower Nature called svabhāva (VIII. 3), or the lower avyakta (VIII. 18-20), or brahman "the immediate cause of Activity" (III. 15).
- 5. It is above this lower Nature (VIII. 20-21), or in other words the lower Nature is "born" of the Immutable (III. 15).
- 6. It is above the Mutable (XV. 18.) or all beings (VIII. 18-19; VIII. 4; III. 14-15).
- 7. In relation to puruşa, the Immutable may be described as 'the supreme abode' of the puruşa (dhāma paramam mama-VIII. 21-22; and pada-VIII. 11).
- 8. It is the ultimate source of all 'Activity' (karman) (III. 14-15) and all beings (III. 14-15, VIII. 18-19).
- 9. It is like *puruṣa* an independent object of meditation and a goal (XII. 1-4, VIII. 21). Particularly it is the goal of ascetics (VIII. 11).
- 10. Some meditators of the Immutable reach puruşa (XII. 4, XVIII. 53-55).
- 11. It may be called parama akṣara (VIII. 3), paramā gati (VIII. 21), parama dhāman (VIII. 21), avyakta (VIII. 2C-21, XII 1, 3), kūṭastha (XII 3, XV. 17).
- 12. Though both the Immutable and the *puruṣa* are independently objects and goals of meditation, the author of the Gitā thinks the latter to be the better of the two because it can be understood and reached with less trouble (XII. 5).
- 13. The Immutable is one of the three eternal (sanātana) principles in the Gitā (VIII. 20) and it does not perish even when all beings including the lower Unmanifest perish. So, akṣara is unborn, unlike the lower avyakta, its effect (VIII. 18, III. 15). It is also kūṭastha 'unchanging'.

#### APPENDIX III.

### NO PLURALITY OF SOULS IN THE MAHABHARATA.

Most of the passages in the Mahābhārata which Prof. Hopkins, Prof. Deussen and Prof. Edgerton have explained as referring to the doctrine of the plurality of souls have been already discussed in Chapter III of the Thesis and it has been shown that they have not the least knowledge of this doctrine (see Ch. III. Sec. 2). Only two passages where Prof. Hopkins believes that we have the mention of the plurality of souls remain to be considered here, viz., MBh. XII. 315. 10e-f, 11ff, and MBh. XII. 350. 1-3, 7.

### 1. MBh. XII. 315. 10e-f, 11ff.

These verses can be easily translated as follows:-

- (10e-f) The Unmanifest is eternal; the Manifest, non-eternal. This we have learnt.
- (11) Men, who have compassion for all beings and who have resorted to  $kevala j \tilde{n} \tilde{a} na$  ('the knowledge of the Absolute'), say that the Unmanifest is one and also many.
- (12) Different [from the Unmanifest] is the Purusa; but the Unmanifest called the Unchangeable \* is [in reality] not unchangeable. Just as stalks [issue] in the rush, so is this [Unmanifest] born [as the Manifest].

<sup>\*</sup> Cf. Cūlikā Upaniṣad: "aṣṭarūpām ajām dhruvām" and Bh. Gi. "kūṭasthoskṣara ucyate" (Bh. Gi. XV. 16). This verse of the MBh. (XII. 315. 12. a-b) also proves my point that the L. MBh. Sāṃkhyas have identified the two Natures of the Aupaniṣadas. (I am thankful to Prof. Schrader for the above interpretation of MBh. XII. 315. 12 and for drawing my attention to the passages from Cū. Up. and Bh. Gi.).

It should be noted that these verses use the terms vyakta and avyakia for the two metaphysical principles of the Samkhya of those names. This is apparent from the context. Prof. Hopkins' translation of 10 a-b must appear queer to any reader: "Purusa is eternal and non-eternal, manifest and unmanifest". (GEI. p. 123). Such an interpretation requires no refutation. Then, in the case of verse II, Prof. Hopkins removes purușah from its grammatical connection as subject of ahuh in " avyaktaikatvam ity āhur nānātvam purusās tathā" (11 a-b). He wants to show that this sentence teaches the doctrine of the plurality of souls and therefore makes an independent sentence of "nānātvam puruṣās tathā" (GEI. p. 123). In fact ekatva and nanatva in li refer to the eternal Unmanifest and to the noneternal Manifest in 10 e-f. In this sense they have been used very often in L. MBh, e. g. in XII. 305. 36 (see pp. 45, 74, 76). Avvakta means the Sāmkhya Nature, and therefore Prof. Edgerton is also wrong when he explains avyakta-ekatva as 'the esoteric unity of souls' and 'nanatva' as 'the empirical plurality' and quotes examples where 'avyakta' is used of Brahman or the Lord, but does not trouble himself about what it could have meant throughout in these Samkhya chapters of the L. MBh. (AJP. Vol XLV, 1924, p. 26). Prof. Deussen is quite right here when he explains purușah in 11 b as human beings and as the subject to ahuh in lla (VPTM p. 653).

# 2. MBh. XII. 350. 1-3, 7.

The second and last passage which remains to be examined in this connection is found in chapter 350 of MBh. XII, which teaches indeed a plurality of souls, but without reference to the Classical Samkhya and in a different sense. The first fact to be borne in mind in interpreting the verses in question is that they are, like the whole of the Narayaniya, much later than the chapters describing the Samkhya and the Yoga Schools of the Mahabharata (XII. 302-317), and that the two chapters (350-351) dealing with the problem, never before raised, of purusa-bahutva form the very last section of

<sup>\*</sup> This is evident from its general character, but also e. g. from the statement (343, ll fll.) that "the nectar of the story about Nārāyaṇa" has been won by churning the ocean of the "Bhārata of one hundred thousand (verses)".

the Nārāyaniya. Secondly, the verses state that the philosophers of the Samkhya and Yoga Schools believed in many souls "in the world" (bahavah purusā loke\*-MBh. XII. 350. 2). Thus the passage mentions an empirical plurality of souls, and not a real one which came to be believed in perhaps only when the Samkhya became atheistic. Moreover, in verse 350. 7, the interpolator of these chapters (350-351) himself admits that "Vyāsa" did not teach plurality of souls, but only "unity of puruşa" (puruşaikatva). This is a frank admission that in the Mahābhārata we have always "unity of soul", since "Vyāsa" can refer only to the "author" of the Mahabharata. lastly, as regards the explanation of the problem given here, it is not the desire of the interpolator to misrepresent the (Classical) Samkhya view, as Prof. Hopkins charges him with having done, but the interpolator admitting that the Samkhyas teach an empirical plurality of souls, tries to explain it from his own standpoint (350, 7) which is that of a Pancaratra, as Prof. Schrader rightly points out to me. The doctrine of one Purușa as the "Source" (yoni) of many souls (bahūnām burusanam yath aika yonih-XII. 350. 3) represents the position of the Pancaratras who admitted a real internal difference (svagatabheda) in one sole Being.

Thus, even this last passage goes directly against Prof. Hopkins' conclusions, and on the contrary, admits positively that in the Mahābhārata "Vyāsa" has taught 'unity of puruṣa" (350. 7).

I would not repeat here the other passages discussed already in the text (see Ch. III. pp. 42, 45, 74, 78) where I have shown that Professors Hopkins, Deussen and Edgerton were wrong in referring them to plurality of souls. Thus, in the Mahābhārata we have no plurality of souls and the only passage where an empirical plurality of souls is mentioned without expressly excluding a real world-soul and a Supreme Lord is also a witness for the "unity of puruṣa" in the Mahābhārata.

<sup>&</sup>quot;"loke" means "in the world", as opposed to 'Vede" "in the Scripture;" compare "loke Vede ca prathital Purusottamal" (Bh. Gi. XV. 18), and also "lokavat" in Br. Sū II. 1. 13, 33, etc. and "loke" in Br Sū. II. 1. 25, where also "loke" is contrasted with what is stated "in the Sruti".

### APPENDIX IV.

### INTERPRETATION OF THE BRAHMASUTRAS.

This appendix has been prompted by two considerations: firstly, I felt it to be my duty to the reader of Chapter IV to justify in a more extensive way the unusual method applied there in the interpretation of the Sūtras; and, secondly, I wish to invite criticism of my method with a view to undertaking if encouraged to do so, an independent interpretation of the whole of the Brahmasūtras. The contrast between my interpretation and those of the Ācāryas is the necessary result of my conviction that these, including even Sankara, were not in possession of an unbroken tradition. How the latter got lost, I am at present unable to explain; but the fact of its having been broken long before Sankara will, I believe, become evident from the consistency of my interpretation in the following pages as against the farfetchedness and often palpable impossibility of those of the Ācāryas.

### 1. Br. Sū. III.3.1-53.

### SECTION\* 1.

### Oneness of Goal.

- (1) [Brahman] is such that the [very same] idea thereof is [to be had] from all the Vedanta texts, because of the absence of any difference in the scriptural injunction, etc.
- (2) If it be argued: "No. [All the Vedanta texts do not teach the same Brahman] because of the difference [in scriptural injunction, etc]", we reply: "No. [If the Vedanta texts are similar] even in one [out of the scriptural injunction, name, etc.] [we would say that all of them teach the same Brahman].

<sup>\*</sup> The division of the Sections ( adhikaranas ) followed here is my own.

- (3) [Although the same Brahman is taught in all the Vedanta texts, one learns only one of these and not all] because [the rule of studying] the text of one's own Vedic Branch is indeed such, and one is religiously qualified for [the study of] the customary text (only). And that rule is like that of [taking] the water [from one particular well, although one can take it from any other watering place as well]<sup>1</sup>
  - (4) And [there is a text which ] also shows it<sup>2</sup>.

### Notes:-

- 1. The reading "savavacca" in place of salilavacca will give the following interpretation: "And that rule is like that of the sava-sacrifices [where complete option is given]."
- 2. e. g. Bh. Gî. VIII. 11, as Sankara rightly says. Note that the problem in this Section is whether all the Vedanta texts teach one and the same Brahman, or two, or many.

### SECTION 2.

# Collection of Thoughts\*

- (5) A Collection [of all the attributes of the object of meditation, mentioned in all the Vedanta texts] [should be made], because of the non-difference (i.e. identity) of the goal, as [is done] in the case of [the rites] which are subordinate to vidhi (the Vedic precept), and [the collection should be made only] in so far as the context is similar [in the Vedantas concerned].
- (6) If it be said: "The difference [of goals] does exist because [of the authority] of the Word," we reply: "No, because of non-distinction [in the Word]".
- (7) "Nor [can the view of the difference of goals be maintained] on the strength of a difference of 'the context' (prakaraṇa) as in the case of parovariyastva" etc.
- (8) If it be said: "[There is a difference of goals] because of 'the designations' ( $samj\tilde{n}a$ ) [like aksara and purusa]," we reply: "It has been already explained, and that is even admitted here (by us)."

<sup>•</sup> this, as in Br. Su. III.3.33

(9) And [the difference of goals] is inconsistent<sup>3</sup> because of the omnipresence (of both the so-called goals).

#### Notes:-

- 1. i. e., the Sūtrakāra allows the "collection" of the attributes of puruṣa only from the puruṣa-texts and not from the akṣara-texts also, when one meditates on puruṣa.
- 2. Note that the opponent seems to have in his mind the two goals: akṣara and puruṣa.
- 3. Sankara reads 'samañjasam,' but I follow the reading accepted by most of the other Ācāryas.

#### SECTION 3.

### Two Names of the Goal.

(10) Because there is no difference in all (other points), these two (designations) are (to be understood) otherwise<sup>1</sup>.

### Note:—

The Sūtrakāra agrees to a difference of two samjāās, not to that of goals, the goal being in all Upaniṣads (and the Gîtā) the same because all other points, codanā etc. are the same everywhere.

#### Section 4.

# Atlributes of purușa.

- (11) The attributes, beginning with "bliss" (ānanda) belong to pradhāna<sup>2</sup> [ and should be collected for the meditation on the same, as said in Sūtra 5 above ].
- (12) The attributes, such as' having priya for the head' (priyasirastva) do not come up for consideration because [these attributes show] an accumulation and a diminution which are [possible only] in case of there being a difference [in the "goals" to be achieved]<sup>3</sup>.
- (13) But the other [attributes] [should be collected] because of the sameness of the object [ of meditation ].
- (14) [The attributes such as 'having priya for the head' are not to be collected] because of their non-utility in meditation.

(15) And because of the word ātman<sup>4</sup> [used as predicate of ānanda in the Sruti].

### Notes:--

- 1. This is probably a reference to Br. Sū. I. 1. 12, because no Sruti gives a list beginning with bliss, as is required by the Sūtra, not even Tai. Up. II I which is referred to in Br. Sū I. 1. 12 and indirectly in the present Sūtra.
- 2. 'Pradhāna' is a word used for puruṣa even according to Sankara (Sā. Bhā. Br. Sū. III. 3. 33). In the days of the Sūtrakāra pradhāna was used for the personal puruṣa e. g. in MBh. XIV. 19. 47-48, XIV. 18. 32 (see Chapter IV).
- 3. Note that the Sūtrakāra rejects such attributes of puruṣa (in Tai. Up. II. 5) as do not agree with his standpoint that akṣara and puruṣa are only two names for the same goal (Br. Sū. III. 3.8). He would reject also brahma-pucchatva of puruṣa in "brahma puccham pratiṣṭhā" (Tai. Up. II. 5).
- 4. "Ananda ālmā" (Tai. Up. II. 5) may have meant: "Ananda is the Atman of the puruṣa [just as jīva is the Atman of akṣara or Brahman, Chā. Up. VI. 3. 3)"; but the Sūtra-kāra understands it to mean "Ananda is the Atman" i. e. "Ananda is the Paramātman or pradhāna".

### SECTION 5.

# Melhod of purușa-meditation.

- (16) *Pradhāna* should be grasped [in the meditation] as [identical with] the Self (ātman) [of the meditator], as is the case in [the meditation of] the other [i. e. akṣara], because of what follows.
- (17) If it be said; "[Pradhāna should be so comprehended] because of the 'invariable Concomitance' (anvaya)" we reply: "[Still] it may be because of the 'affirmation' avadhāraṇa)<sup>2</sup>". NOTES:—
- 1. Anvaya is 'the invariable co-existence' (opp. of vyatireka); here, that of the Jiva and purușa in the human heart (?)
- 2. Avadhāraņa is "eva" in "alm ety ev opasīta" Br. Up. I. 4. 7.

### SECTION 6.

# The Functions of akṣara and puruṣa.

- (18) [The topic (prakarana) in Tai. Up. II. 8] is not the same as that which has preceded, because of the description of the function [of akṣara in this passage].
- (19-20) "(The functions of 'delighting' and 'awing') are the same; and this is so because of the non-difference (of the topic in these sections of the Vedanta). Even in other places it is so because of the connection (between the two functions) 1".
- (21) Not, indeed, because of the difference [between the two functions of 'delighting' and 'awing'].
  - (22) And [the Sruti] shows it.
- (23) Moreover on this ground [we distinguish between] 'maintenance' (or sustenance) (sambhṛti)' and 'heaven-pervasion' dyuvyāpti' [as the functions of puruṣa and akṣara respectively].
- (24) And [the topic in Tai. Up. II. 8. is not the same as in the preceding sections i.e. Tai. Up. II. 1-7] because the other attributes are not herein mentioned as they are in the sections of purusa-lore.
- (25) "['No, aksara is not mentioned in Tai. Up. II. 8', or 'No, the topic of Tai. Up. II. 8 is not different from that in the preceding sections'] because the objects, viz., penetration and others [mentioned here] are different [from those usually mentioned with respect to akṣara, e. g. those in Mu. Up. II. 2. 3-4]6".
- (26) [No], but in case of any one of these objects missing (hāni) one should take it over (upāyanam) [from any other text where it is not missing], because of the subordination [of such objects] to the [express] Word, as is done in the case [of the non-mention of one or more] of kusa grass, a piece of cloth (ācchandas a seat?), a hymn and a by-song; this has been already explained.

27. (One must take in the objects not mentioned in his text from other texts where they are mentioned,) because there remains nothing to be accomplished hereafter (by the liberated), for so say the followers of a certain Branch.

#### Notes:-

- 1. As 'vā' in Sūtra 21 shows, these two Sūtras (19-20) are pūrvapakṣa Sūtras.
- 2. According to the Sūtrakāra, "delighting," anandana (in Tai. Up. II. 7) and "awing" (in bhūṣā asmāt vātaḥ pavate Tai. Up. II. 8) are respectively the functions of puruṣa and akṣara.
  - 3. Cf. bibharti in Bh. Gî.XV.17, bharate in Sve. Up. I. 8.
- 4. Cf. dıvi in tripād asy āmṛtaṃ divi—Chā. Up. III. 12.6 also Chā. Up. III. 13.7.
- 5. This shows that *pradhāna* is, according to the Sūtrakāra, *puruṣa*, and that the Sūtrakāra makes a distinction between *puruṣa-vidyā* and *akṣara-vidyā*.
- 6. Note that the Ācāryas do not know the Sruti to which this Sūtra must refer.
- 7. Instead of upāyanasabdasesatvāt I propose to read upāvanam sabdasesatvāt. I believe this was the original reading as is suggested by the context, by the presence of the word 'hānau', and by the fact that the Acāryas could not give any satisfactory meaning to the Sutra as they found it.

#### SECTION 7.

## Option of the Name for Meditation.

- (28) [One may meditate on either of the two, purusa and akṣara] in accordance with his own wish, because both of them are not in disagreement [with the Scriptures].
- (29) The goal (gati) is fulfilled in either way, because otherwise [there would be] an inconsistency [in the Scriptures].
- (30) [Such a statement that one may meditate on either of the two according to his own wish] is quite proper because we find an object of such a nature [in the Scripture] as we find such a one in the world.

#### SECTION 8.

# Number of Thoughts to be collected for Meditation on purusa.

(31) There is no obligation ( *niyama* ) that all the thoughts on *pradhāna* should be collected for meditation on it; [but] there is no opposition [to such a collection] because of the Word and of Inference.

#### Note:-

The collection of the thoughts was taught for the first time by the Sūtrakāra; the Srutis, whenever they described the meditation on puruṣa, enumerated a few of these attributes and said that the meditator on puruṣa so far described would thereby reach his goal.

#### SECTION 9.

## No Collection of the Thoughts during adhikāra.

(32) [The thoughts<sup>1</sup>] which belong to the religious qualification (adhikāra) should [be allowed to] remain [in the meditation] only so long as the qualification lasts.

[Or, the collection of ādhikārika thoughts should be restricted to as many of them as are in accordance with the meditator's qualification ].

#### Note:-

"Adhikārikāṇām" in the Sūtra suggests that dhiyām is understood; and this is further confirmed by dhiyām in the next Sūtra.

#### SECTION 10.

## Meditation on 'akşara'.

- (33) But [to collect] the thoughts on akṣara for the purpose of meditation on it is discountenanced (avarodhaḥ) because of [their] common [negative] character¹ and because of [the meditator's] becoming that (i. e.akṣara); the case is similar to that of the aupasada rite; this has been already said².
- (34) Because of the Scripture stating (that) "so many" are the attributes of aksara.

#### Notes:-

- 1. The word "sāmānya", which is variously interpreted by the commentators seems to have in fact only the simple sense of "common character" and this common character of the akṣarap-assages is their negative nature, which renders the collection of the thoughts on akṣara unnecessary.
- 2. A reference to Br. Sū, III, 3, 8 and 10, or to Br. Sū, III, 3, 11.
- 3. The Sūtrakāra seems to refer to the fact that the akṣara texts mention the attributes of akṣara in such a way as if they intended to exhaust all the attributes in that single list. See e. g. Br. Up. III. 8. 3-11.

#### SECTION 11.

## Method of Meditation on aksara (see Sec. 13).

- (35) The meditator on akṣara is to think of akṣara as [present] within his own self, as in the case of [meditation on] the group of bhatas.
- (36) If it be said: "[Akṣara is to be thought of as within the meditator's self because] otherwise the difference [between akṣara and pradhāna] will remain unexplained", we reply: "No. The case is like that of a second precept<sup>2</sup>.

#### Notes:-

- 1. The five elements of the body and their deities.
- 2. According to the Sūtrakāra, puruṣa and akṣara form the basis of two precepts for the same goal.

#### SECTION 12.

## Interchange of Thoughts on purusa and aksara.

- (37) [In the texts about akṣara and puruṣa we find] an interchange [ of (some of) the attributes or thoughts of akṣara and puruṣa], because [the Srutis] distinguish (akṣara) as they do the other (puruṣa).
- (38) [ For example, we may point out that ] that same [Sruti which describes purusa as ānanda¹ etc. distinguishes akṣara with such distinctions as properly belong to purusa]<sup>2</sup>.

- (39) The attributes satya<sup>8</sup> and others<sup>4</sup> may be, at the wish of the meditator, taken in the meditation on the other [than that with reference to which they are mentioned in Tai. Up. II. 1] (i. e. in the meditation on puruṣa), and in that [ with reference to which satya and others are mentioned ] (i. e. in the meditation on akṣara) [ the meditator, may, at his will, collect attributes ] from "āyatana" and those that follow.
- (40) [ The attributes of *puruṣa* when mentioned by the Sruti with reference to *akṣara*<sup>6</sup> should, out of respect [for the Sruti] not be dropped [ in the meditation on *akṣara* ].
- (41) [This rule of non-dropping or "interchange" applies to an attribute of puruşa] when it is present [in an akṣara-text]. [This is done] out of this [respect for the Sruti] because it is the word of the Sruti.
- (42) There is no rule for deciding [which are] those [interchangeable attributes]; the fruit of such a standpoint is that there is no objection [from the side of the Scripture] to (akṣara and puruṣa) being thought of separately (pṛthag dhū).

#### Notes:-

- 1. Tai. Up. II. describes puruşa in II. 7 and akşara or Brahman in II. 1.
- 2. The Sūtrakāra has in his mind "Satyam jāānam anantam brahma"—Tai. Up. II. 1, as is evident from the word satyādayah in the next Sūtra (according to my suggestion). He thinks that satya, jāāna, ananta are properly speaking the attributes of puruṣa, but by way of "interchange of attributes", the Sruti assigns them to akṣara.
- 3. I have divided the words in Sūtras 38-39 in a different way from that in which they are found in all existing pāṭhas; and in place of 'kāmādītaratra' (in 41) I have substituted 'kāmād itaratra' which is the reading according to Madhva; thus, Sūtra 38 is 'saiva hi' and Sūtra 39 reads "satyādayaḥ kāmād itaratra tatra cāyatanādibhyaḥ."
- 4. No commentator has been able to quote as visaya-vākya a Sruti which gives a list of attributes beginning with satya, as is required by the Sūtra. All the conjectures of Sankara and others seem to me unnecessary; they are a proof of the loss of tradition.

- 5. Ayatanādibhyaḥ is explained by no interpretor in a satisfactory way. I believe, the Sūtrakāra refers to the attributes that he has enumerated in Br. Sū. I. 3-4 which begins with dyubhvādyāyatanam svasabdāt (Br. Sū. I. 3 1). This also shows that in Br. Sū. I. 3-4 the Sūtrakāra has discussed such texts as primarily refer to akṣara.
- 6. "Prasāsana" in Br. Up. III. 8. 9 (Br. Sū. I. 3. 11) is an example.
- 7. This sounds rather tautological and tautology was strictly avoided in the Sūtra literature. A better explanation if suggested by any scholar will be welcomed.
- 8. Sankara reads "pṛthag hi", but others have the reading which I have followed. Sūtra 50 (prajñāntara) confirms the correctness of the latter.

#### SECTION 13.

## Method of Meditation on akşara (contd.).

(43) [ During meditation, akşara is to be conceived of ] in that very way in which pradhāna<sup>1</sup> is comprehended for the same purpose; this has been already said.<sup>2</sup>

#### Notes:--

- 1. Here, again, all the available recensions read pradānavat the meaning of which none has been able to explain satisfactorily; I have taken "pradhānavat" to have been the original reading. (See the notes below.)
- 2. This refers to 'itaravad' in Br. Sū. III. 3. 16, and it also proves the correctness of the change in reading I have proposed above.

## SECTION 14.

## Superiority of akşara to puruşa.

- (44) Because of the majority of the texts [describing akṣara], that (i.e. akṣara) is more important [as an object of meditation] (than pradhāna).
- (45) Even then, the option already stated [holds good] because of the context of the texts [describing it]; so it may be as is the case with (optional) rites and with the mind of man.

- (46) And [the former option holds good also] because of the transference [of the attributes of the one to the other in case of akṣara and puruṣa].
- (47) But, [the meditation on purușa is] nothing else but  $vidy\bar{a}$  (the doctrine of liberation), because of the affirmation [in the Sruti]<sup>2</sup>.
  - (48) And because we see a text [ to the effect ].
- (49) And there is no objection [to puruṣa-upāsanā] because of the superiority of the evidence of the Sruti text and other proofs [to that of pure reason].
- (50) And this ('option' pūrvavikalpaḥ) is seen from [the evidence of] the theme (or 'introductory remarks') etc. to have the difference (pṛthaktvavat) of another (way of) understanding; this has been already said<sup>3</sup>.
- (51) Though there is an analogy [between the puruṣa-attainment and a world like the worlds of Indra, Āditya, etc. mentioned e. g. in Br. Sū. IV. 3], there arises no "fault of puruṣa being regarded as a world" (lokāpatti), because [the idea of puruṣa as the goal in absolution in the form in which we have to understand it] is found [in the Scripture, and the Scripture is the highest authority], nor indeed [is there any possibility of puruṣa being looked upon as 'a world' loka] just as there is no possibility of Death [in the Kaṭha Upaniṣad being looked upon as the death known in the human world].
- (52) And [ the former option holds good because both akṣara and puruṣa have ] a similarity of words with para (the Highest), but the application [ of a term particularly to either of the two] is based upon the frequency (of usage).

#### Notes:-

- 1. "Tad api" should be transferred to this Sutra from the preceding one where it stands according to all the commentators.
  - 2. This is a reference to Mu. Up. I. 2. 13.
  - 3. This is a reference to Br. Su. III. 3. 42 (pṛthag dhì).

- 4. Tai. Up. II. 1 says that the liberated soul enjoys all objects of desire in company of the intelligent Brahman; this sounds as if the liberated soul were to reside in a world (loka) like the worlds of Indra, Prajāpati, etc., where also similar enjoyment of desires is described as taking place.
- 5. The Sūtrakāra seems to mean that words like ātman, jyotiḥ, Brahman, etc. which are used for the Highest Being (para) can be used for either of akṣara and puruṣa; he means also that even the words akṣara, puruṣa etc. may have been used interchangeably, but the frequency of usage helps us in deciding the sense of any particular passage.

#### SECTION 15.

## Choice of One only out of the Two.

(53) One [of the two options should be accepted for meditation, because that one which is accepted is to be meditated upon as identical with the self of the meditator, and] because the self [of the meditator] exists [already] in the body [and the meditation involves the identity of two only, not that of three].

#### SECTION 16.

## No Invariable Co-existence of the Object of Meditation and the Meditator.

(54) There is a logical non-co-existence [of akṣara or puruṣa and the Jiva], because [the first two] do not [necessarily] exist where the [last] one exists; but the case is different from what we find [in Sruti and Smrti]<sup>2</sup>.

#### NOTES:--

- 1. Upalabahi, in the Sūtras, means "the finding of a statement in the Sruti" e. g. in Br. Sū. II. 1. 36. Bh. Gî. XVIII 61 says that Isvara (not "Jîva" who does, of necessity, reside in the human body) resides in the heart of all beings. The Sūtrakāra says that it is not so in meditation. He seems to think that akṣara or puruṣa does not reside in the heart by nature, but one of the two may manifest itself therein after the meditation is carried out.
- 2. The Sūtras (54 ff) refer to angopāsanā and therefore are not discussed here.

## 2. Br. Sū. III. 2 (partly).

Two Aupanișada views are here criticised by the Sū trakāra.

## (a) Br. Su. III. 2. 11-21.

These Sutras embody a refutation of the view that in the Highest there is a "distinction of place" (sthānabheda):

- (11) [It can] not [be said that] [the two sets of characteristics mentioned in] the two-fold taxts are those of the Highest One<sup>2</sup> even<sup>3</sup> with regard to [different] places (sthānataḥ) [within the Highest One], for, [they belong to it] everywhere.
- (12) If it be said: "No [i. e. the two-fold attributes do not belong to para 'in every part of it' sarvatra], because there is a difference [in para itself, viz., the difference of space or place-sthāna<sup>4</sup>]"; we reply: "Not so, because a statement about that (i. e. about the difference of space) is not found in each text<sup>5</sup>" or "In each text there is a reverse statement<sup>6</sup>".
- (13) Moreover, the followers of one Branch of the Vedas [really say] so<sup>7</sup>.
- (14) For, it (the Highest) is certainly, formless, that [formlessness] being its chief [aspect]<sup>8</sup>.
- (15) And it is like the Light, because [its description] cannot be futile.
- (16) And the Sruti does describe it (i. e. para) as "only that" (tanmātra)<sup>10</sup>.
- (17) And the Sruti<sup>11</sup> shows [that the "whole" of para has all the attributes that belong to it], and the Smrti does the same.
- (18) And for this very reason, [we have in the Sruti<sup>12</sup> para brahman's] comparison like that of the Sun and water (kum)<sup>13</sup> and others.
- (19) But, in so far as (para brahman) cannot be reflected as [the Sun] in the water, (Brahman) is not like that (i. e. the Sun) [in becoming "many"]<sup>14</sup>.

- (20) [Para brahman's] participating in increase and decrease is explicable on the ground of that characteristic being included [in the coincidentia oppositorum]; it is so because both the [mutually contrary] attributes are reconciliable [in para brahman].
  - (21) And because the Scriptures show it15.

#### NOTES:-

- 1. The texts giving separately the coincidentia oppositorum.
- 2. Note that para is used by the Sūtrakāra when he speaks of the Supreme Being, without any particular reference to it as pradhāna or akṣara. Para was so used in III. 3. 52.
- 3. 'Even' api implies the Sūtrakāra's rejection of the view that the two-fold texts can be explained as describing two forms (rūpas) of the Highest or as describing akṣara and puruṣa as two separate entities instead of two places (sthāna) in the Highest.
- 4. This pūrvapakṣa seems to state that akṣara and puruṣa are numerically one, but akṣara is the lower place and puruṣa is the higher place in the Highest One which has got this spatial distinction within itself; so that the negative sentences (anaṇu, ahrasva etc.) and the positive ones (satyakāma, satyasaynkalpa) should respectively be applied to these two. The opponent seems to have referred to such texts as Mu. Up. II. 1, 2 which says that puruṣa is above akṣara.
- 5. The Sūtrakāra means two texts which describe only puruṣa or only akṣara.
- 6. Here the Sūtrakāra may refer to the attributes of puruṣa (prasāsana etc.) mentioned with reference to akṣara (e. g. in Bṛ. Up. III. 8. 9) or vice versa.
- 7. Probably the Sūtrakāra refers to Mu. Up. I. 2. 13 where "akṣara puruṣa" is mentioned so that there is no difference of place in the two as is mentioned in Mu. Up. II. 1. 3 where puruṣa is said to be above akṣara.
- 8. According to the Sūtrakāra, puruṣa and akṣara are, as it were, two aspects for meditation. The former has a form (Br. Sū. I. 2. 23); the latter has none. Akṣara is more important than puruṣa (Br: Sū. III. 3. 44).

- 9. The pūvapakşin seems to have pointed to such texts as Mu. Up. II. 1. 4. The Sūtrakāra says that the description in II. 1. 4 is not futile because the para is itself like the Light.
- 10. "He is like a solid mass of salt, which is without an inward and without an outward, a mass of juice, the whole of it (kṛtsna rasaghana eva) ......" Bṛ. Up. III. 2. 16.
- 11. The Sūtrakāra refers to such texts as describe para brahman to be possessed of contrary attributes e. g. Sve. Up. III. 19, 20; Kaṭha Up. II. 10, 20; Isa Up. 5; and Bn. Gî. XIII. 12-13.
- 12. The reference is to the Brahmabindu Upanişad as quoted by Sankara and other commentators.
- 13. Kam, is used in the sense of water in the Maitrāyaniya Samhitā, Satapatha Brāhmana and even in the Yājñavlkya Smṛti. The word ambu in the next Sūtra also shows that kam in this Sūtra stands for 'water'.
- 14. i. e. the manner in which para becomes many is not that in which the Sun, the Moon etc. become many. This restricts the comparison of para with the Sun etc.
  - (15) See e. g. Sve. Up. III. 20., Bh. Gî. XIII. 16.

## (b) Br. Sū. III. 2. 32-38.

These Sūtras embody a refutation of the view that there are two goals:—

- (31) "[The Supreme One<sup>1</sup> is] higher than this [avyakta, as described in Br. Sū. III. 2. 23], because of the designations of a bridge<sup>2</sup>, measure<sup>3</sup>, connection<sup>4</sup>, and difference<sup>5</sup> [which are applied to avyakta]".
- (32) But [it is not so] because [the designation "bridge" is] due to the common characteristic.
- (33) [Because the designation of measure is] for the ease of understanding, like [the designation of] its [four] feet [which cannot mean that the para is a quadruped].
- (34) [The designation of the connection of the Unmanifest with purusa] is due to the mention of a particular place in the Supreme One; [otherwise everything is para and those with

which avyakta is connected are different places in para]; it is similar to the case of the Light<sup>8</sup> etc.

- (35) And because [in the case of the difference of akşara and puruşa] there is the possibility of an explanation.
- (36) And, because the Sruti negatives the existence of any other principle [besides akşara<sup>10</sup>.]
- (37) Hence the omnipresence<sup>11</sup> [of avyakla] which is established in the texts which mention the extent (of Brahman) and in others.

#### Notes:-

- 1. As tu in the next Sūtra shows, this is a pūrvapakṣa Sūtra.
  - 2. Chā. Up. VIII. 4. 1-avyakta or ātman is a bridge.
- 3. Chā. Up. III. 18. 2-Brahman has four feet; therefore it is limited; the unlimited must be beyond it.
- 4. Avyakta is connected with purusa on the one side and mahad or the lower Nature on the other e.g. in Katha Up. III. 11.
- 5. Akşara is different from puruşa e. g. in Mu. Up. II. 2, Bh. Gî. XV. 18, Sve. Up. 1. 6.
- 6. The Sūtrakāra does not admit that *puruṣa* is higher or other than *akṣara*, and that therefore there are two goals. *Atman* is called a bridge because like a bridge which helps in crossing a river, *ātman* helps in crossing the sea of worldly existence.
- 7. The Sūtrakāra does not believe that the twofold contradictory attributes belong to different parts or places in the para; they belong to every place in the Supreme Being; but he admits the distinction of place as such in para without reference to its attributes. So there is no inconsistency in the Sūtrakāra's position in III. 2. 11 and in this Sūtra.
- 8. The Light is called star, Moon, Sun, fire, flame, with reference to its presence in different places, so the para is called puruşa, akş ıra etc. with reference to its presence in various places.

- 9. In Br. Sū. I. 4. 3. avyakla (in Kaṭha Up. III. 11) is explained to be lower than puruṣa, because as the Nature it is dependent on the latter. This seems to be the upapatti in the Sūtra.
- 10. The Sūtrakāra, naturally, refers to such texts as deny the existence of any principle other than akṣara e. g. Bṛ. Up. III. 8. 11.
- 11. There cannot be two omnipresent goals like akṣara and puruṣa both of which are omnipresent according to the texts; so they are the names of one and the same goal. Cf. Br. Sū. III. 3. 9.

#### ADDITIONAL NOTES.

Other and perhaps better explanations of Sve. Up. I. 7a-b and V. 1 (than those given in App. I. C) can be given as follows:—

- (I.7a-b) This is the Supreme Brahman (paramam vrahma) celebrated in song. The three and the Mutable are well established in it.
- (V.1) There are, with Brahma above them (brahmapare) two infinite Immutable Ones, wherein Knowledge  $(vidy\bar{a})$  and not-Knowledge  $(avidy\bar{a})$  are placed concealed. Not-Knowledge is the Mutable  $(k\bar{s}ara)$ , Knowledge is the Immortal. He who rules over the Knowledge and not-Knowledge is other than these two.

#### Note:-

I accept Prof. Schrader's suggestion to read supratisthakşaram ca as supratistham kşaram ca instead of dividing the compound as supratistham aksaram ca as I have done in App. The advantages of accepting this suggestion are Firstly, trayam (the three) in I.7b are, in this case, the same as the three in I. 9 and 12, viz., the Lord, the Immutable, and the Iîva, since kṣara is, according to this suggested reading, to be counted separately (see note 3 in App. I.C. 1). Secondly, subratistham aksaram ca, the division of the compound, that I had proposed, required "aksaram" to be applied to kşarum and in a secondary sense, viz., "imperishable" instead of the usual sense, viz., "the Immutable". Thirdly, the construction of "ca" (and) at the end of I. 7b had to be left out of account in my rendering of the verse, since, the compound supratisthakşaram could itself be explained as supratistham akşaram ca, according to the rules of samasa. As a matter of fact, the ca at the end of I. 7b requires the splitting up of supratisthāksaram into "supratistham ksaram" and this confirms Prof. Schrader's suggestion. And lastly, etat in Sve. Up. I. 8a requires ksara and aksara to have been mentioned in I. 7

and this requirement can be best fulfilled according to the suggested correction of the text.

- 2. Paramam brahma (Sve. Up. I. 7a) is, in this case, the Triad as a whole as distinguished from the traya or the three taken singly. Thus, paramam brahma is equivalent to brahmam in I. 9 and 12.
- 3. Brahma in brahmapare (in Sve. Up. V. 1a) seems to be brahmam mentioned in Sve. Up. I. 9 and 12 (see 1. on p. 140). Brahmam is the Triad (Sve. Up. I. 9, 12) which is certainly higher than, or above, the two Immutable Ones, to be explained in the next note.
- 4. The two Immutable Ones ( dve akşare ) seem to be the two ajas, viz., Isa and the Immutable ( akṣara ) mentioned in Sve. Up. I. 8a-b, the jña and the ajā in Sve. Up. I. 9a-b, the deva and the akṣara or ātman in Sve. Up. I. 10a-b, and the prenitr and bhogya in Sve. Up. I. 12c-d. Only these two can be properly said to be akṣaras or the Immutable Ones among the principles mentioned in the Svetāsvatara Upaniṣad. Moreover, V. 1b can be consistently explained only with this interpretation of dve akṣare ( see note 5 below ). And again if brahma in brahmapare is brahmam or the Triad, dve akṣare must mean the Lord and the akṣara or the Immutable. So, Sve. Up. V. 1. is to be noted because it calls the Isa ( or puruṣa ) akṣara, besides designating the usual akṣara as such.
- 5. Sve. Up. V. lb states that in the two akṣaras vidyā and avidyā are placed concealed. Thus, the two akṣaras are the hiding places of vidyā and avidyā and as such cannot be identical with vidyā and avidyā. Vidyā is explained as amṛta or akṣara (see note 11 on Sve. Up. I. 7-12 in App. I) in Sve. Up. V. 1c, and vidyā is said to be placed concealed in one of the two akṣaras in V. 1. a-b. This can only mean that the akṣara called both amṛta and vidyā is lower than, or to be traced to, another akṣara, which akṣara, again, can be none else but the puruṣa or isa as the Sve. Up. likes to call him (Sve. Up. I. 8-9). This meaning of V. 1 justifies the explanation of dve akṣare in V. 1a as the Lord and the Immutable.
- 6. Avidyā is placed in one of the two akṣaras (V. lb); it is also explained as kṣara (V. lc); so the akṣara in which avidyā is concealed is the Immutable or akṣara properly so called.

- 7. Thus, the order of the principles mentioned in V. 1 is as follows: (1) brahmam or the Triad, (2) akṣarz, the hiding place of vidyā otherwise called akṣara also, i. e. puruṣa or Isa, (3) akṣara the hiding place of avidyā, (4) avidyā or kṣara. So, this is a preparatory stage towards the evolutional series of the Kaṭha Upaniṣad (Ka. Up. III. 11).
- 8. Dve in dve akṣara (V. la) should be noticed. It is the first definite departure from the "ekam eva advitiyam" of the Oldest Prose Upaniṣads (e. g. Chā. Up. VI. 2. 1); as is also the expression trividham brahmam. Such a statement about the dualism (in this case, the spiritual dualism) of puruṣa and akṣara is quite consistent with the sharp distinction between these two principles met with in the Gitā, and the yet sharper one found in the later Mahābhārata.
- 9. As the Knowledge (along with the not-Knowledge) is said to be ruled over by the Isa (Sve. Up. V. 1. c-d), it cannot be the Jîva who is declared to be the not-ruler (anisa) in Sve. Up. I. 9.

#### Conclusion:—

It must be admitted that the explanation of Sve: Up. V.1 proposed above is more in harmony with that of Sve. Up. I. 7-12, than the one given in App. I; because thereby the same principles as are mentioned in Sve. Up. I, are to be found in Sve. Up. V. Moreover, to understand the two akṣaras in V. 1 as referring to puruṣa or isa and akṣara is besides being consistent with the teaching of the verse (V. 1) itself, far better than taking the term akṣara to mean "imperishable" and referring one akṣara to what is called kṣara.

The above interpretation further supports the reconstruction of the meaning of the term akṣara proposed in this Thesis as a whole.

#### BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH.

I, Prataprai M. Modi, was born on the 9th February 1898 in Bhavnagar (Br. India). I am a Hindu by religion and a Bania by caste. My first lessons I had for two years from a private teacher in Bhavnagar. Then I visited the Sanatana Dharma High School at Bhavnagar for seven years and passed the Matriculation Examination of the Bombay University in 1916. After having studied for four years in the Samaldas College (Bhavnagar), the Bahauddin College (Junagadh), and the Gujarat College (Ahmedabad) I passed the B.A. Examination of the Bombay University from the last mentioned College, with Honours in Sanskrit in 1920. During 1920-21 I worked as the Daksina Fellow in Sanskrit in the Gujarat Then for further two years I studied at the Central College. Hindu College and at the College of Oriental Learning of the Benares Hindu University and passed the M.A. Examination in the Second Division with Sanskrit as my subject and Vedanta as my Special Group in July 1923. In September of the same year I was appointed Assistant Professor of Sanskrit at the Samaldas College, Bhavnagar and was made the Senior Professor after two years. In 1926 I won the Zala Vedanta Prize of the Bombay University in an All-India Madhusūdana Sarasvati's competition for a work on Siddhantabindu ( a philosophical Sanskrit work ) which has been published in 1929. Being enabled by the Council of Administration, Bhavnagar State, Bhavnagar to prosecute my studies in Oriental Research in Germany, I led India in June 1929 and artificour months' study of the German language in Goettingen I joined the Kiel University, where since 23

then I have studied Sanskrit, English, and History of Religion. I have attended the lectures of Prof. Dr. F. O. Schrader, Prof. Dr. K. Wildhagen, and Prof. Dr. H. Mandel. I heartily thank all my teachers of this place. I am particularly indebted to Prof. Dr. F. O. Schrader whose never failing help and invaluable advice in the important questions of technical and philosophical nature I urgently needed and readily secured for the interpretation of the various texts I had to deal with during the preparation of this Work. Above all, what I shall always value most is the great joy and inspiration which I derived when I had the privilege of discussing with him various crucial points of Indian Philosophy. It often reminded me of the cordial relations which existed between the disciple and the teacher in the happy days of Ancient India. My bow to him.

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