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ankara-bhāratī vijagate nirvāņa-saindāginī

victorious is the voice of śankara, leading, as it does, to liberation.

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HOMAGE TO SANKARA

[65]

विचार्यं सर्ववेदान्तैः संचार्यं हृदयाम्बुजे । प्रचार्यं सर्वलोकेषु आचार्यं शङ्करं भजे ॥

vicāryam sarvavedāntaiḥ samcāryam hṛdayāmbuje pracāryam sarvalokeṣu ācāryam śaṅkaram bhaje

I worship Acarya Sankara, who is sought after by all the vedantas, who is to be meditated upon in our lotus-like-heart, and who is to be made known in all the worlds.

Nārāyanīyopanişad bhāşyam.

[66]

यस्योपदेशदीधित्या चिदातमा नः प्रकाशते । नमः सद्गुरवे तस्म स्वाविद्याध्वान्तभानवे ॥

yasyopadešadīdhityā
cidātmā naḥ prakāšate
namaḥ sadgurave tasmai
svāvidyādhvānta bhānave

Salutation to that great Preceptor, who is as the Sun to our darkness of avidyā (ignorance) and by whose rays of teachings, the Consciousness—Self is made manifest.

- Hastamalaka.

VEDA AND DHARMA

3 - 32 E.H.

Jagadguru Śrī Candraśekharendra Sarasvatī

In the Veda there are several matters such as mantras that are used in performing agnihotra, soma-yāga, many istis, various types of rituals, homas etc.

Satra is the name given to a big yāga. A yāga generally is performed by a person. Many brahmins who are knowers of the Veda would come and help in the performance of the yāga. There would be at the yāga those who know the Rg-Veda, those who know the Yajur-veda and those who know the Sāma-veda. The Sāma-vedins would sing; the Rg-vedins would perform the homa and the Yajur-vedins would repeat the mantras. The yaja-māna

(master of sacrifice) i.e. the one who performs the $y\bar{a}ga$ conducts the sacrifice with their help. He performs the $y\bar{a}ga$ either with his own money, or with the money gathered through subscription. The merit that results from that $y\bar{a}ga$, the fruit thereof, entirely goes to him. The rest of the brahmins who had come to the sacrifice are called γt -viks. The master of the sacrifice gives to them gifts $(dak \sin a)$.

To the rt-viks that help in the performance of soma-yāgas, the yaja-mānas offer gifts that are specified in the śāstras-gifts such as cows, gold and other valuables. In the Veda there are mentioned many soma-yagas. Satra is the name of another type of $y\bar{a}ga$. When we say satra many people may not understand what it means. Many among us think that satra is the place where feeding is done. This also may be forgotten by the next generation. The reason is that now-a-days many satras are being closed down. In the Veda just as there are many kinds of soma-yagas, there are several varieties of satra. Satra is what is performed collectively. The performance thereof lasts for a long time. In the performance of satra the fruit thereof goes to all those who recite the Veda as rt-viks and make homa offerings etc. There is merit accruing to all the rt-viks who perform that yaga. They gain what is good as also purification of mind. It is stated that they attain the higher worlds. A NOW YOU ARE NOT A MEDIUM

satre sarve yajamānāh

In the satra-yāga all those who are connected with it are yaja-mānas. All have a share in the fruit. That is why the place when all gather and eat claiming the right to do so as yaja-mānas is called satra. All those who go to a satra and eat are yaja-mānas.

Besides yāga, yajña etc., many modes of meditation or worship are mentioned in the Veda. Meditations severally are explained. There are seen in the Veda such topics as: 'how does the soul enter into this body; at the end what is going to become of the body? 'Again' In what manner is the soul going to enter into a human body?'

Moreover many other topics are explained in the Veda for example the treatment for keeping the body healthy, the rituals for quietening the injury that may come from enemies etc. When we consider all these, a doubt arises in our mind.

What is the aim of the Veda? What for is the Veda Intended? It is known that all the Vedas collectively teach one Reality as is stated in some Upanisads. What is that one Reality? 'All the Vedas declare one supreme Reality which is the meaning of omkāra.' This is an Upaniṣadic passage.

The doubt that assails us is 'does not the Veda declare many things? Does it not tell us about several deities?'

In this city (i.e. Madras) there was a judge by name Sadasiva Aiyar. In Mysore state there was one Paramasiva Aiyar who was his brother. He has written thus: 'The Vedas are the sciences about material objects. They give information about geology.

Many others speak differently about the Veda. In those days the people who lived in India looked with wonder at the sun and the moon. That was a time when science had not progressed. Therefore different people saw phenomena of nature in different ways and have expressed several things about them. Everyone did not have the ability to express these in poetry only some had this ability. The songs which they sang are the mantras. The Veda is a collection of these mantras. this is the view of the Western scholars.

When we consider all these, although the *Upanisads* say 'all the Vedas speak of only one Reality,' it seems as though there are many topics mentioned—not only one Reality.

There is a verse in regard to the Rāmāyana:

vedavedye pare pumsi jäte dasarathātmaje vedah prācetasādāsīt sākṣād·rāmāyanātmanā Veda vedye: the one who is to be known through the Veda. Who is he? pare pumsi: He is the supreme Purusa; he is verily Srīman Nārāyaṇa. The supreme Pursa who is to be known through the Veda and who is verily Nārāyaṇa incarnated Himself as Rāma. When he came as the Son of of Daśaratha, the Veda became the child of Vālmīki because it thought Let me incarnate myself as the Rāmāyaṇa.

The Veda thought 'That which is my purport has become the Son of Dasaratha. Let me also become the child of Valmiki thus the Veda transformed itself into the Rāmāyaṇa. This is the meaning of the verse.

Prācetas is a name of Varuņa. Valmiki was Varuņa's son. In that Valmiki the Veda manifested itself as the Rāmāyaņa.

In the Veda many matters have been taught. Yet all the Vedas together speak only of one purport. This I have already stated.

This verse also says the same thing. In order to teach one purport why should the Veda speak of many matters? This question may arize in our minds. It is through many matters that it is possible to understand that one purport which is Reality; yoga, meditation austerity, sacrifice, performance of karma, when these are accomplished what they

indicate is that one Reality; it is that Reality which is the true purport of the Veda. Other than that true purport the other things are of changing nature. They become woven into a story and then even that story disappears.

If we want to understand the one true Reality which is indicated by the Veda, we must submit our mind to certain disciplines so that we may have the thought about that one Reality. Performance of sacrifices, austerities, doing charitable acts, building temple-towers, digging tanks etc.,—all of them are for the sake of controlling the modes of the mind by purifying it. The aim of the various kinds of karma is only to aid in gaining the Supreme Self.

In the world we weep even if we meet with a little sorrow; we suffer greatly. In order that we may have a mind which will not slacken and be grieved even if great sorrow or dishonour comes, there are needed many disciplines. In order to strengthen the body we excersize it by practising dandāt and baski. It is only when such excersizes are regularly practised that the body becomes strong. Similarly in order to make the soul grow some disciplines are necessary. The Veda details them. What is the fruit of performing the karmas as taught in the Veda? No sorrow will come near us. This is called 'yoga' in the Gītā.

tam vidyādduhkha-samyogaviyogam yoga-samjñitam sa niścayena yoktavyo yogo'nirvinna cetasā

Samyogam means joining; and viyogam means separation. If one says 'he has attained viyogam' it means that that person has separated himself from his body. Is this not the meaning of the statement?

The Lord has stated in the Gītā: tam vidyādduhkha-samyoga-viyogam. 'Yoga is separation from association with sorrow. Thus you should know.' This is the Lord's teaching. sorrows come and join with us. Yoga separates the sorrows which join us in that manner. Whatever sorrow might come is separated from us by yoga. It is not possible to avoid sorrow altogether. Plenty of sorrows will keep on coming. If there is yoga, that will separate whatever be the sorrow from attaching itself to us. Just as vibhūti (sacred ash) will fall off from the seed of the kalar-kay when it is taken out after being immersed in it (because the seed is smooth and shining) and just as if water falls on a lotus-leaf it will drip away drop by drop, the sorrow that may come to us will go away without sticking to us. Even before it comes to us yoga will separate it from us. This is called yoga. Thus has the Lord stated.

What are the characteristic marks thereof?

yam labdhvā cāparam lābham manyate nādhikam tatah

That one after attaining which there will be no other gain, that than which one will not deem greater, it is that one Reality that is fit to be gained. In order to gain that one Reality, the purification of mind is nesessary as also one-pointedness thereof. The nature of mind is to wonder always. Without stopping even for a minute it will be whirling far and wide. Because it whirls thus it will gather a great deal of dirt and impurity. Even if we say 'we do not want, we do not want,' it will stick to us. Even if we think 'we should not have desire, we should not get angry', because the mind wanders, mental impurity is occasioned.

Desire, anger, delusion — all these are impurities of the mind. The *Tiruvācakam* says: citta mala muruvittuc civamākki. If the impurities of the mind are removed we can become Siva. Untill then there will be jīva, if mental impurity goes he becomes Siva. Saint Mānikkavācakar sings attanenak karuļiyavā rarperuvar accove.

In this manner the impurity of the mind should be removed; the mind should stay without moving. This means that it must perform many actions properly. It is for this that big temple-towers are built; many sacrifices are performed, several yajñas some lasting one year others two years etc,

are undertaken and performed according to rule. Those who perform such sacrifices would wear round their neck an iron ring. This would make it impossible for them to lie down even without their knowing. The name for that ring is arikantham.

Now-a-days people who take some vow to be fulfilled at Tirupati tie round their leg a small wire.

Many acts relating to God, like building temples, digging tanks were performed. While executing them there would be many difficulties. There would come also several kinds of dishonour. Not minding any of these they would complete their tasks with mental one-pointedness, removing impurities from their mind and not letting the mind wonder. By straitening the mind they acquire mind-control and at the end they realise the Reality that is to be known. Digging tanks building temple-towers and such other acts are called Pūrttam. The performance of sacrifices etc., is known as iṣṭam. Combining the two we have the word iṣṭapūrttam.

Born in a Vedic family and studying the Veda properly, many perform different $i \neq i \neq j \neq k$ and thus they should gain purity of mind. All could attain mental purity by performing $p \bar{u} r t t a m$.

Performing many sacrifices, observing many vratas, building temple-towers — through such

ista-purttas, the body is subjected to austerity (krechra). These are not the ends; they are only means for removing mental impurity; they serve to stop the wavering of mental modes. After removing impurity from the mind and after gaining concentration if one knows that single Reality which has to be known, there would be nothing else that one would want. If the thought that something else is required is there—even if a little of such an idea rises—it means that such a one has not seen the Lord.

yam labdhvā cāparam lābham manyate nādhikam tataḥ

From this statement of the Lord we get one sign i. e. we can ask for ourselves 'have we attained that Reality which has to be attained?' If we attain that which has to be attained, there will not rise the idea that we require something else. If that idea rises we may infer that we have not yet attained That. There is another sign.

yasmin sthito na duhkhena gurunāpi vicālyate

After the mind stays firm in that Reality then it will not stagger or shake even a little when great misery is encountered. This also is a sign that we have gained that One which has to be gained. If the mind staggers then it means that it has not yet reached that Reality.

We may get many types of sorrow. What seems to be sorrow to all the people of a place may not seem sorrowful to us. If we stay, always happy, without wanting to attain anything, untouched by sorrow like the lotus-leaf and the kalarkodi-seed, that is called yoga.

tam vidyādduķkha-samyoga-viyogam yoga samjāitam

'Know that to be indicated as yoga which is separation from being united with sorrow, the removal of association with sorrow.'

There is a saying 'keţţai mūţţai śevvāykkilamai' They have named this śevvaykkilamai (Tuesday) mangala vāram (auspicious day). Just like that viyoga (separation) is named yoga.

*pointed mental concentration only through right conduct and discipline, by removing all impurities that are in the mind and ridding it of its oscillations. The poet Kālidāsa has stated in a verse in the Raghuvamša that every one should reach the state of yoga before the soul leaves the cage of the body, through proper education and discipline.

The purport of the Veda is Rāghava. It is only for the sake of knowing that one Reality that all these sacred texts, sacrifices, austerities and meditations are designed. With one-pointed mind

we should inquire about that one Reality. In order to do this mental impurities should go. The modes of the mind should be brought under control. How can this be done? It must be achieved step by step.

The one Reality should be known. If that is known, then there would not arise the desire to know anything else. Whatever misery may come there would not arise anger towards anyone; instead there would arise compassion let anything come to us. There would arise in us compassion in the form that we should not be the cause of misery for any living being. We should say that even the cosmic function of God's world-destruction is an act of extreme compassion. The supreme compassion enables us to be detached from whatever great misery may come to us. This state of not being attached to misery-the state of supreme compassion-must come to us little by little. It is for the sake of this that even while one is a child one is taught the recitation of the Veda and all branches of knowledge and all śāstras.

śaiśavé' bhyastavidyānām

During childhood there should be proper learning under the guidance of a good teacher and the necessary knowledge for entry into the path of the good. This is an important duty.

yauvane visayaisinām

When the state of youth comes, in order that the lineage may not become scizzored with one, one must marry a woman in accordance with the rules laid down for the purpose and help the continuation of good familial ties. One should marry in order that one may give one's body (in service) so as to help many a living being wash away their sins and thus gain the fulfilment of their life's purpose.

After some time the house-holders will perform yāgas, homas and yajñas in order to remove impurity from their minds and in order that they will remain unshaken, whatever be the sorrow that may fall to their lot; they will also undertake acts of social service like digging a tank etc. (iṣṭāpūrtta) They will purify their minds preventing the entry thereinto of passions such as desire, anger and lust.

vārdhake munivṛttīnām

At the time of old age one should resort to sages and those who practise austerities, recieve instructions from them, and practise spiritual disciplines. One should undertake to follow the means that are required for knowing that one Reality which is to be known from the Vedas.

yogenānte tanutyajām

At the end when one has to leave the body one should leave it with yoga. In the $Bhagavad Git\bar{a}$ the Lord has said 'yoga means viyoga' i.e. remain-

little of misery. When one leaves the body weeping, one will again get a body which weeps. One should depart from the body only at a time when one is happy without the least sorrow. Even when numerous kinds of sorrow come, the mind should remain without disturbance and follow dharma alone in perfect happiness. If there was one answering to this description he was Rāma alone. The meaning of the word Rāma itself is 'he who remains in happiness.' Rāmam=remaining in happiness.

That is why, vedavedye pare pumsi He is the supreme person knowable through the veda jāte daśarathātmaje. He manifested Himself as Dāśarathi i. e. as the son of Daśaratha. He who is the soul of the veda incarnated Himself as Rāma the son of Daśaratha. Because of this, what did the Vedas do?

vedah prācetasādāsīt sākṣād rāmāyaṇātmanā. The Vedas became Vālmīki's child, in the form directly of the Rāmāyaṇa. This is what has been stated.

In the Rāmāyaṇa of that stature what has been stated? The Veda teaches dharma. It says that Rāma is of the nature of that dharma. How is this known that Rāma is of the nature of dharma? This is clearly evident from what Rāma's mother Kausalyā Devī said when he was starting to go to the forest.

When a child departs leaving his mother, the mother would give him a packet of edibles. The mothers that live in a village prepare some sweets and give them to their children who are leaving for a town. Rāma is going to a forest. If Kausalyā Devī gives him edibles, for how many days would they last? He is going to live in the forests for fourteen years. If the edibles are not of use, one could give money. When we send our children to places like America we give them enough money, but in the forests there would be no shops etc. If Rāma is sent with money what would he do with it in the forest? If one thinks of sending bags of rice, for how many years could they be sent? Is he going to stay in one particular place in the forest? At the end what did Kausalya give her son before he left for the forest? She sent him with her blessing saying "This is what I am going to give you:

yam pālayasi dharmam tvam dhṛtyā ca niyamena ca sa vai rāghavaśārdūla dharmastvāmabhirakṣatu''

'O Rāghava, the dharma which you are following with courage and discipline—may that dharma protect you.' Thus she blessed him.

Dhyti means courage. Without the least slackening of the mind thinking 'So and so is ridiculing me' remaining firm inspite of whatever ridicule may come from others, is stated to be dhrti. Some people will maintain such courge whatever others might say for about four days. Thereafter they themselves will loose courage. There would be no discipline or regulation. Acting thus is also no good.

Rāghava followed dharma with regularity and discipline without neglecting it even for one day or for once. He did his duty without mental slack-'Whoever might ridicule, whoever might ness. attempt to cause hindrance let them do so; because of them we should not leave our dharma.' It was in this spirit that Rāma who was of the nature of dharma protected dharma. When, in order to keep his father's word and thus protect dharma, her son was about to start for the forest she gave him this bundle of edibles: 'There in the forest you might meet with many dangers. Yet the dharma which you are following with courage and discipline-may it protect you.' She gave him the blessing which would remove all dangers.

If a dog is to protect us from thieves, we should take care of it well. That which we protect will protect us. Others may say to Rāghava 'you are protecting dharma, let that dharma protect you.' But his own mother, without weeping that her child is going to the forest, told him this.

His own brother Laksmana said to him several times, 'O brother! you stick to that which you call dharma and wonder about. That is why so many difficulties and strains have come about. Do leave that dharma.' But Rāma's mother Kausalyā Devī gives him leave saying 'O Rāghava! whoever might mock at you, the dharma which you are following with courage and discipline, without the least neglect-may that dharma protect you.' There is a saying to the effect 'dharma will save one's head.' The dharma which Rāghava followed with courage and discipline saved his head in the forest and protected him from numerous dangers that came to him in the forest. Rāvana had ten heads. Because he was indulging in doing adharma, not even a single head of his was saved. All his ten heads were gone.

vedo khilo dharmamulam

The Veda. verily, is the source of dharma. 'It indicates only the supreme Reality as its purport.' Thus declare the Upanisads which are the ends of the Veda. 'The supreme Reality, the great Puruṣa, who is known through the Veda manifested Himself as Rāma, the son of Daśaratha.' Thus states a verse. That Rāma is of the very nature of dharma is discerned from the words of Kausalyā Devī which constitute a śloka occuring in the Rāmāyaṇa itself. At another place in the Epic we come across the following statement.

rāmo vigrahavān dharmah

Dharma is an attitude of the mind. If it takes on a shape, that will be Rāma. Without straying in the least into wrong ways, even at times of danger, following what is right with courage, discipline and firmness—that nature is called dharma. It is that dharma that is born as Rāma. The Reality which is to be understood through the Veda becomes what can be seen by all people with their own eyes. It was at that time that the Veda manifested itself as the Rāmāyaṇa.

It is not possible to speak adequately of the greatness of the Veda. Whatever is the highest, it is usual to refer to that as the Veda. The Alvars sang the prabandha. That work is regarded as Veda. They say of Sathagopa thus: He is Māran who wrote the Veda in Tamil. It is stated 'Do not consider this to be low.' It is the Veda that he sang in Tamil as the prabandha. It is known that the Veda is the highest. In order to indicate something which is the highest it is usual to refer to it as the Veda. There are many such cases. The Bhārata, they say, is the fifth Veda. It is stated that the Veda is endless. Whatever is endless—all that is for the sake of knowing the one supreme Reality.

One who has understood that supreme Reality will protect dharma without the least disturbance in his mind, whatever sorrow may come to him-

Chatrapati Sivaji received the grace of Samartha Rāmadās. Therefore even at the time when he fought fiercely against his enemies, he did not cause any kind of dishonour or misery to those women who were rendered helpless. He saw to it that no harm was done to them and made them go to their rightful places. Eventhough his enemies in war abducted women and dishonoured them, having recourse to lawlessness, Sivaji did not do so. This has been stated by his enemies themselves. He had as his ideal Rāma. For those who repeat the Rāma-mantra there would not come mental impurities such as lust and delusion. At no time would they swerve from dharma.

It is said that wherever the songs about Rāma are sung Ānjaneya is present. Without these two, Ānjaneya and Rāma there is no Rāmāyaṇa. What is called the Rāmāyaṇa is the Veda. When the Veda remains as Veda its teachings relate to the path of jāāna. At the time when it manifests itself as the Rāmāyaṇa its teachings relate to the path of dharma.

vedavedye pare pumsi jäte dašarathātmaje, vedaņ prācetasādāsīt sākṣād rāmāyaṇātmanā

The supreme Person who is to be known through the Veda became directly Rama the son of Dasaratha. Because he manifested himself as

Dasaratha's son, the Veda became manifest from Valmiki. Thus says this verse.

The entire purport of the Veda is in the $R\bar{a}m\bar{a}$ -yana. The essence of this which is the $Rama \cdot n\bar{a}ma$ will remove our mental impurity, bring the modes
of the mind under control and without endangering
in us the desire for attaining anything else, will
enable us to remain in happiness always.

Brahman and the World*

Jagadguru Śrī Jayendra Saraswatī

The basic scriptures of our Hinduism are the Vedas. The important parts of the Vedas which contain their purport are the Upanisads. In the Upanisads there are two versions of how the world appeared. These two modes may be found in the following expressions. The first in "Brahman alone is real; the world is illusory" and the second in "Brahman alone is all this" and "Atman alone is all this. The statement "Brahman alone is real; the world is illusory" says that it is only Brahman that is the destructionless and changeless reality and that all the world is subject to destruction and change. The other mode as expressed in

^{*}Translated by Dr. T. M. P. Mahadevan from Tamil original-

the other statements "Brahman alone is all this", "Atman alone is all this" say that whatever we see before us as constituting the world is only of the nature of the Self. Brahman. There seems to be a contradiction between the two modes. One that the entire world is amenable to change and destruction and that it is the Supreme Self of Brahman itself. If Brahman-Atman is itself the world, how can this be accepted since the world is destructible and changeable. How can the world be the Brahmanself? This question arises. Brahman and Self are one and the same. Did the world come out of this Brahman? Or has Brahman itself become the world? Even if the world has come out of Brahman how can that which has come out of Brahman be noneternal? Moreover Brahman is of the nature of consciousness, knowledge. The effect which is the world is inert and non-eternal. The characteristics of the cause which is Brahman are not found in the effect which is the world. Even if Brahman itself has changed into the world which is its effect, the above mentioned doubts will still be there. Therefore the question is how has this world come from Brahman? In what form has it arisen? In the Bhagavad-gītā too Srī Kṛṣṇa says 'all this is pervaded by me', and again 'The world of Jivas is a part of Me alone. That is, the supreme Self itself fills the entire world. The world is but a part thereof. This is what the $g\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$ -statements mean. Thus both in the Upanisads and in the Bhagavad-gita one and

the same teaching is found. There is a way of clearing these doubts which has been stated.

In this world there are altogether six factors. Of these only one is eternal and that is Brahman. The six factors are the following: Brahman, Jīva, Iśvara, the difference between Jīva and Iśwara, Avidyā (māyā), the connections between Avidyā and māyā. These are the six factors. Of these the Supreme Self (Brahman) is the pure quality-less Being. It is the supreme root-cause of everything. There is no place where that Supreme Self is not. It is like space or air. Māyā or Avidyā is dependent on the Supreme Self which is its support even as the shadow is dependent on our body. What is called avidyā is māyā. The shadow of a body is not something which is real like the dress of a man. What is not real appears as if existing. That is māyā. The body does not suffer in any way by its shadow. It does not bear it as a load nor have any responsibility for it. Even if the shadow is in an impure place the body does not become impure. If someone steps on the shadow the body does not suffer pain. In like manner māyā has the Supreme Self for its support. By this māyā, the Supreme Self does not suffer any bondage. yā mā sā māyā. [या मा सा माया]

Māyā is that which is not.

Thus $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$, which is not, has the Supreme Self for its locus. It is because of this māyā that all sorts of differences appear, starting from the jīva upto the world. The $j\bar{\imath}va$ and the Supreme Self are one and the same. Although the Supreme Self is in all things and all pervasive, it is called jiva when it is in each body. When it is called jīva the pleasurepain etc., which come to the body are taken as coming to the jiva too. Although the Supreme Self is the ground of all things and is the root-cause of world creation, creation is not the work of the Supreme Self. It is Isvara (God) that does it. When the Supreme Self takes on the power of creation it gets the name Iśwara. Therefore Iśvara creates the world through māyā which has as its support the beginning-less Supreme Self. The jīva and Iśvara are different. They will not become one. If they become one, then the jiva will acquire the power to create. But the $j\bar{\imath}va$ is never the creator. It is Iswara alone that is the creator. The Supreme Self is the primal ground of all things. The creator is Iśvara. Therefore this world is created by Iśvara through mäyä whose substitute is the Supreme Self, the primal ground. Because creation takes through māyā and māyā is what is destructible, it is said that the world is non-eternal. Because Brahman is all pervading and is the primal ground of everything, it is stated to be the world itself. Since electricity is the common cause for the functioning

of battery, fan etc., it is the general factor but for each one of its effects there is a separate suitable switch-board. And the function appropriate to each is performed. Similarly, although the Supreme Self is the root-cause of all, Isvara takes on different forms such as Brahmā,. Viṣṇu, Rudra etc, for performing the cosmic functions of origination, sustentation, dissolution etc.

There is a verse (in the $pa\bar{n}cadas\bar{\imath}$) which is as follows:

- asti bhāti priyam nāma rūpam ceti amśa-pañcakam
- ādyatrayam brahma rūpam jagadrūpam tato dvayam

According to this statement, in every object there are these five aspects: 1) Is-ness: every object exists thus we know. 2) manifestation: every object is manifest. We know that it is seen: 3) lovability: we desire every object, thinking that it is required for us; 4) name: There is a name for every object. 5) form: There is a form for every object. The name and form of every object belong to $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$. Existence, manifestation and lovability— these aspects belong to the Supreme Self. Therefore it is that in the world every objects exists and is also destroyed. Thus Brahman alone is real. The others are all destru-

Thus it has been stated. Isvara creates the world through māyā but He does not produce the $j\bar{\imath}va$. The $j\bar{\imath}va$ is beginning-less. It is, in essence (i.e. without the adjuncts) the Supreme Self itself. The $j\bar{\imath}va$ does not perish. It 'becomes' the Supreme Self (when ignorance is destroyed and the adjuncts are removed). Thus the $j\bar{\imath}va$ is not alone. The world set up by māyā will continue to exist. Māuā too is not created by anyone. What is created by Iśvara is the world. There is, however, release for the $j\bar{\imath}va$ from $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$. When the $j\bar{\imath}va$ realises its non-difference from the Supreme Self. there will be no relation for it to māyā. But the effect of māyā which is the world will continue to exist. There is, no defect or loss by such continuity. Even after the jīva has realised its non-difference from the Supreme Self. the world which was its locaation would be there. When the body continues to exist in the world the $j\bar{i}va$, which has realised the Self in that body is called jīvan-mukta (the one who has been released while tenanting a body). Thus the Supreme Self is the primal ground. Through māyā which depends on it Iśvara creates the world. Through an experience of this, when arises the Supreme knowledge, that knowledge is called absolute (pāramārthika jñāna). Untill this know. ledge does not arise, one's knowledge exists in the form of words spoken and written. This is known as empirical knowledge (vyāvahārika jñāna)

Thus the $j\bar{\imath}va$'s relation to the world is only empirical. The absolute knowledge is experience of its non-difference from the Supreme Self. Therefore there is no real connection for the $j\bar{\imath}va$ with $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ which causes the appearence of the world, Remaining in this body which is non-eternal and perishable the $j\bar{\imath}va$ 'gains' the eternal Supreme Self. Although the dream that one sees is false, if while dreaming one falls down from a pial one gets hurt which is (empirically) true. Similar is the release of the $j\bar{\imath}va$ from the non-eternal effect of $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ and the 'gaining' of the eternal Supreme Self.

Atmanusandhana*

15.

Sadāšiva Brahmendra

The Ātmānusandhāna in 36 verses in the anuştubh metre is ascribed to Sadāśiva Brahmendra Sarasvatī. In verses 2 and 3 here he conveys his respects to his preceptor Paramaśivendra Sarasvatī. This is the only clue for us to infer that this work has been composed by him. He belonged to the 17th century and was the 57th pontiff of the Kāmakotipītha. He attained siddhi at Nerur on the banks of the river Kaveri. He has written several works on advaita and has composed songs both vedantic and devotional. The whole text has been printed in the 13th volume of the Descriptive

^{*}Translated by Dr. N. Gangadharan.

Catologue of Sanskrit manuscripts in Tanjore Serfoji Maharaja Manuscripts library. Here is an English translation of the work along with the original text.

[1]

त्रय्यन्ततिसंसिद्धशुद्धविद्यैकगोचरः । अनाद्यन्तः परात्मासौ जयत्यानन्दसुन्दरः ॥

trayyantatatisamsiddhaśuddhavidyaikagocaraķ anādyantaķ parātmāsau jayatyānandasundaraķ

That supreme soul without beginning and end and which can be realised by pure knowledge accomplished by the series of vedantic texts and which is of the blissful form of beauty reigns supreme.

[2]

श्रीमत्परशिवेन्द्रश्रीदेशिकानां वयं मुदा। अद्वैतानन्दमाध्वीकमहिद्रप्रवासुपास्महे॥

śrīmat paraśivendra śrīdeśikānām vayam mudā
advaitānandamādhvīkamanghripadmamupāsmahe w

We merrily worship the lotus-feet of the revered preceptor which is verily the honey of blissful non-dualism.

[3]

श्रीदेशिकवेदान्तनामसाहस्रमव्ययान् । कांश्रिकाममणीन्पद्यदाममिर्प्रथयाम्यहम् ॥

śrīdeśikavedāntanāmasāhasramavyayān । kāmścinnāmamaṇīn padyadāmabhirgrathayāmyaham u

I set a few of the thousands of gems of unmutilated philosophic terms I have got from the revered preceptor in the form of a garland of verses.

[4]

अच्युतोऽहमनन्तोऽहमतक्योंऽहमजोऽस्म्यहम् । अवणोऽहमकामोऽहमसङ्गोऽस्म्यभयोऽस्म्यहम् ॥

acyuto'hamananto'hamatarkyo'hamajo'smyaham I
avraṇo'hamakāmo'hamasango'smyabhayo'smyaham II

I have not fallen. I am endless. I am beyond reason. I am unborn. I am unafflicted. I am without desire. I am without any association. I am without fear.

[5]

अशब्दोऽहमरूपोऽहमस्पर्शोऽस्म्यहमब्ययः । अरसोऽहमगन्धोऽहमनादिरस्तृतोऽस्म्यहम् ॥ aśabdo'hamarūpo'hamasparśosmyahamavyayah i araso'hamagandho'hamanādirasmṛto' smyaham ii

I am not the sound. I am without form. I am not the (the sense of) touch. I am decayless. I am not (the sense of) taste. I am not (the sense of) smell. I am without beginning. I am not one who is remembered.

[6]

अक्षरोऽहमलिङ्गोऽहमजरोऽस्म्यकलोऽस्म्यहम् । अप्राणोऽहममृतोऽहमचिन्त्योऽस्म्यकृतोऽस्म्यहम् ॥

akṣaro'hamalingo'ha
majaro'smyakalo'smyaham |
aprāṇo'hamamūrto'hamacintyo' smyakṛto'smyaham ||

I am without decay. I am not the symbol. I am not the old age. I am not the part. I am not the life-breath. I am not the visible form. I am beyond the reach of thought. I am not the deed.

[7]

अन्तर्याम्यहमग्राह्योऽनिर्देश्योऽहमलक्षणः । अगोत्रोऽहममात्रोऽहमचक्षुस्कोऽस्म्यवागहम् ॥

antaryāmyahamagrāhyo'nirdeśyo'hamalakṣaṇaḥ I agotro'hamamātro'hamacakşusko'smyavāgaham ||

I am one who is present within. I cannot be seized. I cannot be demonstrated. I am without any characteristics. I do not have an origin. I cannot be measured. I am without the eyes. I am not the speech.

[8]

अदृश्योऽहमवर्णोऽहमखण्डोऽस्म्यहमद्भुतः । अश्रुतोऽहमदृष्टोऽहमन्वेष्टन्योऽमरोऽस्म्यहम् ॥

adyśyo'hamavarno'hamakhando'smyahamadbhutah l aśruto'hamadyṣṭo'hamanveṣṭavyo'maro'smyaham u

I cannot be seen. I am colourless. I am the undivided. I am the wonderful. I have not been heard. I have not been seen. I am one ought to be sought after. I am deathless.

[9]

अवायुरस्म्यनाकाकोऽतेजस्कोऽव्यभिचार्यहम् । अमतोऽहमजातोऽहमतिसङ्गोऽविकार्यहम् ॥

avāyurasmyanākāśo'—
tejasko'vyabhicāryaham \
amato'hamajāto'ha—
matisūkṣmo'vikāryaham \|

I am not the wind. I am not the ether. I am not the one with lustre. I am not fickle-minded. I am one who is not thought of. I am unborn. I am extremely subtle. I am without change.

[0]

अरजस्कोऽतमस्कोऽहमसत्त्वोऽस्म्यगुणोऽस्म्यहम् । अमायोऽनुभवात्माहमनन्योऽविषयोऽस्म्यहम् ॥

arajasko'tamasko' hamasattvo'smyaguno'smyaham t
amāyo'nubhavātmāhamananyo'visayo'smyaham u

l am without the qualities of rajas, tamas and sattva. I am not any of the qualities. I am not the super-imposition. I am the soul of experience. I am without the second. I am not the material.

[11]

अद्वैतोऽहमपूर्वोऽहमत्राद्योऽहमनन्तरः । अश्रोत्रोऽहमदीर्घोऽहमन्यक्तोऽहमनामयः ॥

advaito'hamapūrvo'hamabāhyo'hamanantaraḥ aśrotro'hamadīrgho'hamavyakto'hamanāmayah

I am non-dual. I am without precedence. I am not the external. I am without break. I am not the ears. I am not long. I am the unmanifest. I am without any blemish.

[12]

अद्वयानन्दविज्ञानघनोऽस्म्यहमविक्रियः । अनिच्छोऽहमलेपोऽहमकर्तास्म्यहमक्षयः ॥

advayānandavijāānaghano'smyahamavikriyaḥ \\
aniccho'hamalepo'hamakartāsmyahamakṣayaḥ \|

I am saturated with the knowledge of the blissful non-duality. I am without change, I am without desire. I am untainted. I am not the doer. I am decayless.

[13]

अविद्याकार्यहीनोऽहमवाङ्मनसगोचरः । अनल्पोऽहमशोकोऽहमविकल्पोऽस्म्यतिज्वलन् ॥

avidyākāryahīno'hamavānmanasagocaraḥ \
analpo'hamaśoko' hamavikalpo' smyatijvalan \(\)

I am free from the acts of ignorance. I am beyond the reach of speech and mind. I am not the petty thing. I am without grief. I am without change. I am very effulgent.

[14]

आदिमध्यान्तहीनोऽहमाधारोऽस्म्यहमाततः । आत्मचैतन्यरूपोऽहमहमानन्दचिद्धनः ॥

ādimadhyāntahīno'hamādhāro'smyuhamātatah i ātmacaitanyarūpo'hamahamānandacidyhanah n

I am devoid of the beginning, middle and end-I am the extended support. I am of the form of the spirit of the soul. I am the intense luminosity of bliss.

[15]

आनन्दामृतरूपोऽहमात्मसंस्थोऽहमान्तरः । आप्तकामोऽहमाकाशात्पर आत्मेश्वरोऽसम्यहम् ॥

änandām į tarūpo'hamātmasamstho hamāntarah l ā ptakāmo hamākā šātpara ātme śvaro smyaham u

I am the form of nectar of bliss. I am one established in the soul. I am the inner being. I am one whose desires have been fulfilled. I am exalted than the ether. I am the lord of my soul.

[16]

ईशानोऽस्म्यहमीडचोऽहमहग्रुत्तमपूरुषः । उत्कृष्टोऽहग्रुपद्रष्टाहग्रुत्तरतरोऽस्म्यहम् ॥

īśāno'smyahamīdyo'hamahamuttama pūruṣaḥ utkṛṣṭo'hamupadraṣṭähamuttarataro'smyaham

I am the master. I am the one to be praised.

I am the supreme being. I am the most excellent.

I am the supervisor of the sacrifices. I am relatively superior.

[17]

केवलोऽहं कविः कर्नाध्यक्षोऽहं कर्माधियः । गुहाशयोऽहं गुप्तोऽहं चक्षपश्रक्षरसम्यहम् ॥

kevalo'ham kaviḥ
karmādhyakṣo'ham karaṇādhipaḥ I
guhāśayo'ham gupto'ham
cakṣuṣaścakṣurasmyaham II

I am the only poet. I am the one who governs the acts. I am the lord of the means. I lie in the cavity. I remain concealed. I am the eye of the eye.

[18]

चिदानन्दोऽसम्यहं चेता चिद्घनश्चिन्मयोऽसम्यहम् । ज्योतिर्मयोऽसम्यहं ज्यायाञ्ज्योतिषां ज्योतिरसम्यहम् ॥

cidānando'smyaham cetā
cidghanaścinmayo'smyaham i
jyotirmayo'smyaham
jyāyānjyotiṣām jyotirasmyaham i

I am the blissful knowledge. I am the knower. I am the deep conciousness. I am of the form of bliss itself. I am of the form of lustre itself. I am the foremost lustre of the luminous (bodies).

[19]

तमसः साक्ष्यहं तुर्यात्तुर्योऽहं तमसः परः। दिव्यो देवोऽस्मि दुर्दर्शो द्रष्टा ध्येयो ध्रुवोऽस्म्यहम्॥

tamasah sāksyaham

turyātt uryoʻham tamasah parah i divyo devo'smi durdarso drastā dhyeyo dhruvo'smyaham u

I am the witness of darkness. (I am above the fourth state of existence and above the darkness). I am the divine celestial being. I am difficult to be perceived. I am the seer, one who is to be contemplated and one who is firm.

[20]

नित्योऽहं निरवद्योऽहं निष्क्रियोऽस्मि निरञ्जनः । निर्मलो निर्विकल्पोऽहं निराख्यातोऽस्मि निरुचलः ॥

nityo'ham niravadyo'ham nişkriyo'smi nirañjanuḥ nirmalo nirvikalpo'ham nirākhyāto'smi niścalaḥ

I am eternal. I am faultless. I am one who has no work to be done. I am unstained. I am free from impurity. I am without any change. I am one who has not been named. I am without any commotion.

[21]

निर्विकारो नित्यपूर्तो निर्गुणो निःस्पृहोऽस्म्यहम् । निरिन्द्रियो नियन्ताई निरपेक्षोऽस्मि निष्कलः ॥ nirvikāro nityapūto nirguņo niķspyho'smyaham nirindriyo niyantāham nirapek so'smi niskalaķ

I am without any change. I am always pure. I am without any quality. I am without desire. I am without the senses. I am the director. I am without any expectation. I am not the parts.

[22]

पुरुषः परमात्माहं पुराणः परमोऽस्म्यहम् । परावरोऽसम्यहं प्रज्ञाप्रपञ्चोपञ्चोऽसम्यहम् ॥

puruşah paramātmāham

purāṇah paramo'smyaham I

parāvaro'smyaham

prajñāprapañcopaśamo'smyaham II

I am the spirit. I am the supreme soul. I am the ancient (being). I am the supreme. I am remote as well as proximate. I am the cessation of the universe in the form of discernment.

[23]

परामृतोऽस्म्यहं पूर्णः प्रश्वरस्मि पुरातनः । पूर्णानन्दैकवोधोऽहं प्रत्यगेकरसोऽस्म्यहम् ॥

parāmyto'smyaham pūrņah prabhurasmi purātanah pūrņānandaikabodho'ham pratyagekaraso'smyaham

I am the rain. I am full. I am the primeval lord. I am one who had the knowledge of complete bliss. I am the one inward essence.

[24]

प्रज्ञात्माहं प्रज्ञान्तोऽहं प्रकाशः परमेश्वरः। बहुधा चिन्त्यमानोऽहमहं ब्रह्मादिवन्दितः॥

prajñātmāham praśānto ham prakāśaḥ parameśvaraḥ \ bahudhā cintyamāno hamaham brahmādivanditaḥ \(\mathbf{u}\)

I am the soul within the intellect. I am shining. I am the supreme lord. I am one who is contemplating in different ways. I am one who is adored by Brahmā and others.

[25]

बुद्धोऽहं भृतपालोऽहं भारूपो भगवानहम् । महादेवो महानस्मि महाज्ञेयो महेश्वरः ॥

buddho'ham bhūtapālo'ham bhārūpo bhagavānaham mahādevo mahānasmi mahājñeyo maheśvarah

I am the awakened. I am the protector of the beings. I am of the form of lustre. I am the embodiment of fortune. I am the great god. I am great. I should be known as great. I am the great lord.

[26]

विम्रक्तोऽहं विभुरहं वरेण्यो व्यापकोऽसम्यहम् । वैश्वानरो वासुदेवो विश्वतश्रक्षुरसम्यहम् ॥ vimukto'ham vibhuraham vareņyo vyāpako'smyaham vaiśvānaro vāsudevo viśvataścakṣurasmyaham

I am the released (soul). I am the master. I am the most excellent. I am one who pervades. I am the fire-god. I am (lord) Vāsudeva (form of Viṣṇu). I am the eye of the universe.

[27]

विश्वाधिकोऽहं विश्वदो विष्णुर्विश्वकृदस्म्यहम् । शुद्धोऽस्मि शुक्रः शान्तोऽहं शाश्वतोऽस्मि शिवोऽस्म्यहम् ॥

viśvādhiko'ham viśado viṣṇurviśvakṛdasmyaham śuddho'smi śukraḥ śānto'ham śāśvato'smi śivo'smyaham

I am beyond the universe. I am spotless. I am (lord) Viṣṇu. I am the maker of the universe. I am pure. I am white. I am calm. I am eternal and auspicious.

[28]

सर्वभृतान्वरात्माहमहमस्मि सनातनः । सर्वेश्वरोऽहं सर्वज्ञः स्क्ष्मः सर्वगतोऽस्म्यहम् ॥

sarvabhūtānvarātmāhamahamasmi sanātanaḥ I sarveśvaro'ham sarvajāaḥ sūkṣmaḥ sarvagato'smyaham # I am the excellent among all the beings. I am eternal. I am the master of all beings. I know everything. I am the subtle. I move everywhere.

[29]

अहं सक्रुद्धिभातोऽहं स्वे महिम्नि प्रतिष्ठितः । सर्वान्तरः स्वयंज्योतिः सर्वाधिपतिरस्म्यहम् ॥

aham sakydvibhāto'ham
sve mahimni pratisthitah t
sarvāntarah svayamjyotih
sarvādhipatirasmyaham u

I am at once the dawn. I am firmly established in my greatness. I am (present) in all the beings. I am self-luminant. I am the master of all beings.

[30]

सर्वभृताधिवासोऽहं सर्वन्यापी स्वराडहम्। समस्तसाक्षी सर्वीत्मा सर्वभृतगुहाशयः॥

sarvabhūtādhivāso'ham sarvavyāpī svarādaham samastasāksī sarvātmā sarvabhūtaguhāśayah

I reside in all the beings. I am all-pervasive. I am the supreme being. I am the witness of all things. I am the soul of everything. I reside in the heart of all the beings.

[31]

सर्वेन्द्रियगुणाभासः सर्वेन्द्रियविवर्जितः। स्थानत्रयव्यतीतोऽहं सर्वानुग्राहकोऽस्म्यहम् ॥ sarvendriyaguṇābhāsaḥ sarvendriyavivarjitaḥ \ sthānatrayavyatīto'ham sarvānugrāhako'smyaham \

I am the semblance of the qualities of all the senses. I am devoid of all the senses. I am beyond the three places. I am benevolent to all.

[32]

सिचदानन्दपूर्णात्मा सर्वप्रेमास्यदोऽस्म्यहम् । सिचदानन्दमात्रोऽहं स्वप्रकाशोऽस्मि सद्घनः ॥

saccidānandapūrņātmā
sarva premāspado'smyaham
saccidānandamātro'ham
svaprakāśo'smi sadghanaḥ

I am the soul of fullness of existence, knowledge and bliss. I am the object of all affection. I am of the form of existence, knowledge and bliss alone. I am self-luminous. I am highly sensient.

[33]

सत्यस्वरूपः सन्मात्रः सिद्धः सर्वोत्मकोऽस्म्यहम् । सर्वाधिष्ठानसन्मात्रस्यात्मा बन्धहरोऽस्म्यहम् ॥

satyasvarūpaķ sanmātraķ siddhaķ sarvātmako'smyaham sarvādhiṣṭhānasanmātrasyātmā bandhaharo'smyaham I am of the nature of truth. I am only the existence. I am accomplished. I am the soul of everything. I am the soul of existence, the controller of all. I am the remover of bondage.

[34]

सर्वग्रासोऽस्म्यहं सर्वद्रष्टा सर्वातुभूरहम् । स्वतन्त्रोऽस्मि सुविस्पष्टः सुविभातोऽस्म्यहं हरिः ।।

sarvagrāso' smyaham sarvadraṣṭā sarvānubhūraham svatantro'smi suvispaṣṭaḥ suvibhāto'smyaham hariḥ

I am the swallower of all things. I am the seer of all. I am the person experiencing all things. I am independent. I am quite clear. I am clear dawn. I am (lord) Hari (Visnu.)

[35]

अहं हरो हृद्स्थोऽहं हेतु दृष्टान्तवर्जितः । क्षेत्रज्ञः परमात्माहं श्रीमदेशिकस्क्तितः ॥

aham haro h**r**distho'ham hetudrstäntavarjitah kṣetrajñaḥ paramātmāhām śrīmaddeśikasūktitaḥ

I am (lord) Hara (Siva). I am stationed in the heart. I am devoid of reason and illustration. I am the knower of the field. I am the supreme soul according to the words of the holy preceptor.

[36]

इत्थमात्मानुसन्धानपरो यः पुरुषो भवेत् । सोऽविद्याक्लेशनिर्मुक्तो ब्रह्मैय भवति स्वयम् ॥

itthamātmānusandhānaparo yaḥ puruṣo bhavet so'vidyākleśanirmukto brahmaiva bhavati svayam

Whoever is bent on inquiry of the soul in this manner, that person will himself become verily the brahman after getting freed from the anguish of ignorance.

Sri Matrka - Pushpamala-Stutih *

(Flower-Garland of Letters)

Sankara Bhagavatpada

Stava or Stotra is of varied types. The characteristics of Stotra are mentioned in the following—

गुणिनिष्ठगुणाभिधानं स्तोत्रम्।

And

नमस्कारस्तथाशीश्र सिद्धान्तोक्तिः पराक्रमः। विभृतिः प्रार्थना चेति षड्विधं स्तोत्रलक्षणम्॥

Guninistha-gunābhidhānam stotram 1

And

Namaskārastathāšīšca siddhāntoktiķ parākramaķ \ vibhūtiķ prārthanā ceti şaḍvidham stotralakṣaṇam ˈ̯ːႃ

Translation and notes by Dr. S.S. Janaki.

"The stotra describes the superior qualities o the Perfect Being;

and,

"Salutation, blessing, definitive conclusive statement, power, magnificence, and prayer are the six modes of expression in a Stotra".

A particular type of Stotra is that which embodies the above features and also is constructed in such a fashion that the beginning letters of the verses are arranged in the same order of the Sanskrit alphabet (Mātṛkā), the vowels and consonants, totalling fifty, or fifty-one including kṣa (ᢋ). In the Lalitāsahasranāma for example, Devī is called "One of the form of the letters in the alphabet" (Mātṛkā-varṇarūpiṇī) and One occupying the pṛṭha comprising the fifty syllables (Pañcāśat-pṛṭha-rūpiṇī). In the Annapūrṇāṣṭaka Devī is called 'Ādi-kṣānta-samastavarṇanakarī'.

According to the Saivite and Sakta tradition, the alphabet, all knowledge, lores and branches of learning are ultimately traced to Siva and His complimentary Sakti. Saiva Agamas and Sakta Tantras have dealt at great detail with the symbolism, philosophy and significance of the letters constituting the alphabet, their origin from Siva and Sakti, and their relation to the divinities at the three levels, gross (sthula), subtle (sūk-

sma) and supreme (parā). "I am singing this word of praise, in your honour composed with your own words", says Śańkara in the concluding verse of Saundaryalaharī (Tvadīyābhir vāgbhis tava janani vācām stutiriyam)

Sankarācārya who has sung the praise of different deities in varied types of stotras for the benefit of mankind, has composed two Mātṛkā Stotras, 'Mātṛkā' meaning both the goddess and the 'Sanskrit alphabet'. The present 'Mātṛkāpushpamālā Stuti' (Praise of the Flower Garland of Letters) is on Goddess Akhilāṇḍeśvarī at Tiruvānaikkā (Gajāraṇya Kṣetra) at Tiruchinopoly, the consort of Śrī Jambukeśvarar, well known as representing the element of water (ap). All the verses in this stotra end with the refrain 'vande' khilāṇḍeśvari', in the last foot.

The Sākta tradition recognises different forms of the Devi in the various kshetras, although ultimately She is the One Supreme Being (Parabrahmasvarūpiņī) and is of the form of Supreme knowledge (Brahmavidyā-rūpiņī).

Three distinct chief forms of Devi are said to be present in the three well-known Kshetras in the South-Kamakshi at Kanchi of the form of 'Mahā-rājñi' or 'Rājarājeśvarī', Meenakshi at Madura of the form of 'Mantriņī' or 'Syāmalā' and Akhilān-deśvarī at Tiruvānaikkā representing the form

'Daṇḍinī' or 'Daṇḍanāthā'. The ear-ornament (Tāṭaṅkā) of Akhilāṇdeśvarī is of special significance as Adi Sankara is known to have performed the Tāṭaṅka-pratiṣṭhā with the Srī Chakra on it. More recently in 1909 H. H. Sri Chandrasekharendra Sarasvati Swamigal of Kanchi Kamakoti Pitha performed the Tāṭanka-pratishthā again in connection with the Mahākumbhābhisheka of Tiruvānaikkā temple.

As is usual with Mātrkā-stotras, each verse begins with the letter in the order of the alphabet,. and the other descriptive epithets are also begun in the same letter as the initial word in the first epithet. There is therefore a ringing unmatched musical assonance that runs through all the 54 verses of this stotra. Each of these verses is in the long Sardulavikrīditā metre, containing 19 syllables in each foot of the verse. Besides the inherent musical quality and assonance (prāsa) the verses contain beautiful figurative expressions and significant allusions, bringing out the greatness of the goddess at the five levels-sthula or gross (physical form), sūkshma or subtle (mantra-form), sūkshmatara or more subtle (kāmakalā-form). the sūkshmatama or the subtlest (kundalini-form) and Suddhabrahma or absolute (Nirguna form) and also the uniqueness. of the holy Ksetra.

[1]

अध्वातीतपदे अलङ्क्ततिश्चे अर्थान्तरथे परे अत्यर्थे अमलाश्चे अतिदये अर्धेन्दुभूषोज्ज्वले । अध्यक्षे अमराङ्गनापरिवृते अध्यात्मविद्यामये अभ्यक्ते अचलाधिराजतनये बन्देऽखिलाण्डेश्चरि ॥

Adhvātītapade alamkṛtaśive arthāntararthe pare atyarthe amalāśaye atidaye ardhendubhūshojjvale adhyakshe amarāṅganā-parivṛte adhyātmavidyā-

maye

avyakte acalādhirājatanaye vande'khilāndeśvari

I bow down to the goddess Akhilāndeśvarī, who is in a state beyond the six modes of Mantra Upāsanā, a beautifier of Siva, the Supreme Being that is the inner essence of all things and beyond everything, not superceded by any object, possessed of a spotless heart, very compāssionate, resplendent with decorative crescent moon, the pre-eminent (among divinities), surrounded by celestial damsels, the personification of Brahma Vidyā, beyond the ken (of even ascetics) and the daughter of Himavān.

In this first verse there are thirteen epithets which begin with the first letter in the alphabet 'a' amongst vowels and glorify Goddess Akhilandesvari. 'Adhva' means 'a path' and Mantradhva is all knowledge relating to Mantra. The Saiva and Sakta works deal with six (şad) adhvās-three on the Sabda side-Varna (Letter), Pada (Syllable) and Mantra (combination

of syllables), each being dependent on one another. On the Artha side, the three adhvas are Kalā (5), Tativa (36) and Bhuvana (224) each similarly dependent. The goddess is beyond these six states (adhvātītapadā). Cf. Ṣaḍadhvātītatāpiņī in Lalitāsahasranāma. The Sakti's indispensable coordination with Siva is mentioned in 'alamkṛtasive' and 'ardhendubhūṣojjvale'. 'Amarāṅganās' are the associate Saktis who are worshipped as 'āvaraṇa-devatās'. The other epithets refer to the goddess in her supreme and transcendental state as Brahmavidyās varūpiņī. The specific reference of the goddess as 'acalādhirājatanayā' is reminiscent of the Adhyātma Vidyā realised by Indra as Umā-Haimavatī in Kenopaniṣad III. 12

[2]

आद्ये आगमसम्प्रदायनिषुणे आचार्यवर्याचिते आधारादि-सरोजपीठनिलये आलोलनीलालके । आताम्राधर-चारु-मन्दहसिते आपीनवक्षोरुहे आत्रह्माच्युत-शङ्कराचितपदे वनदेऽखिलाण्डेश्वरि ॥

Ādye āgamasampradāya-nipuņe ācāryavaryārcite ādhārādi-sarojapīṭhanilaye ālolanīlālake ātāmrādhara-cāru-mandahasite āpīnavakṣoruhe ābrahmācyuta-śaṅkarārcitapade vande 'khilāṇḍeśvari

I salute the goddess Akhilāndesvarī, the primordial power, well versed in āgamic traditions, adored by the best Jagadgurus, with her seat in the lotuses at the Mūlādhāra and other cakras, possessed of moving tresses of dark hair, a charming smile on her lower lip and stout breasts, and Her holy feet being worshipped by all beings, including Brahmä, Visnu and Šiva.

Attributes 5, 6, 7, describe the physical charms of the goddess. 3 and 8 refer to Her uniqueness in as much as She is adored by great ācāryas and even the Trinity, Brahmā, Viṣṇu and Siva. Cf. Atas tvām ārādhyām harihara-viriācā-dibhirapi (Saundaryalahari 1; also verses 24, 25, and 91 there); Ābrahmācyuta - Śaňkara - prabhrtībhir devaissadā pūjitā (Sarasvatī-Stotra) etc. The Śakti is Ādyā for as the Universal Mother She is the moving power. The formless Infinite (Śiva) becomes finite in diversified creation due to Sakti, the Kinetic Power. She is the personification of all knowledge (Cf. Jūāna - vigrahā and Sāstramayī in Lalitā-sahasranāma; Śāstra-yonitvāt-Brahma Sūtra I. I. 3.)

Cf. also Kumārasambhava I. 30 that all lores sought Pārvatī at the time of instruction. (Sthiropade śām upade śakūle prapedire prāktana janmavidyāḥ). What wonder is there in Her being adept in Āgama - sampradāya? That the goddess has Her abode in the lotuses at the six cakras or centres, mūlādhāra, svādhiṣṭhāna, maṇipūra, anāhata, višuddha and ājñā and at the thousand - petalled lotus - like region (sahasrāra) is mentioned at detail in Devī stotras like Lalitāsahasranāma and Saundarya-laharī, as well as in Sākta texts.

[3]

इच्छाज्ञानसमस्तशक्तिसहिते इन्दीवरश्यामले इन्द्रोपेन्द्रवरप्रदे इभवनाधीशे इनाराधिते। इन्द्रो इन्दुनिभानने इभनुते इष्टार्थसिदिप्रदे इन्द्राणी-निमते इभाननसुते बन्देऽखिलाण्डेश्वरि॥ Icchā-jāāna-samasta-śakti-sahite indīvaraśyamāle indropendra-varaprade ibhavanādhīśe inārādhite ijye indunibhānane ibhanute iṣṭārthasiddhiprade indrāṇī-namite ibhānana-sute vande 'khilāṇḍeśvari

I salute you, goddess Akhilāndeśvari, endowed with the three Saktis Icchā (Wish), Jñāna (Know-ledge) and Kriyā (Action), dark like the blue lotus, conferer of boons to Indra and Upendra (Vāmana), the presiding deity of Gajāranya Kṣetra (Tiruvānaikkā), worshipped by the sun, of the form of Sacrifice, with a face captivating like the moon, worshipped by the Elephant, conferer of desired boons, worshipped by the wife of Indra and having the elephant-faced Gaņeśa as Her Son.

Epithets 2, 7 describe the physical charm of the Goddess. She holds in her hands noose (pāśa), goad (ańkuśa) and a bow (kodanda) with five arrows (sāyakas)-the five arrows standing for the five Tanmātras, śabda, śparśa, rūpa, rasa, and gandha. Of these pāśa represents Icchā. Ańkuśa Jňana and Bow and Arrows Kriyā Šakti. Attributes 3.4,5,8 and 10 refer to anecdotes about the Tiruvānaikkā (Gajāraņya) Kṣetra as mentioned in the Sthalapurāṇa. According to the Sthalapurāṇa the elephant, Indra, Indrāṇī, Upendra and Sun worshipped the Goddess and secured Her grace. Ibha means 'elephant'; and Ibhavana, Gajāraṇya etc. are the Sanskrit equivalents of Tiruvānaikkā 'Ijyā' is 'Sacrifice'; the Devi is Yāgasvarūpini. cf. Lalītā-sahasranāma, 'Yajña-rūpā'.

[4]

ईशे ईशविशिक्षशौरिवरदे ईडचालि ईशात्मिके ईर्ब्यादृषितचित्तदृरचरणे ईशिप्रये ईश्वरि । ईडचे ईश्वरवामभागनिलये ईकारक्लशोदये ईशित्वादिमहाविभृतिनिलये वन्देऽखिलाण्डेश्वरि ॥

Īśe īśa-viriñci-śaurivarade īḍyāli īśātmike īrṣyādūṣita-citta-dūracaraṇe īśapriye īśvari īḍye īśvara vāmabhāganilaye īṁkārakļptodaye īśitvādi-mahāvibhūti-nilaye vande'khilāṇḍeśvari

I bow down to Goddess Akhilāndeśvarī, the controller of everything, the giver of boon to Siva, Brahmā and Viṣṇu, having worshippable attending divinities, of the true form of the Absolute, Whose holy feet are unapproachable to the vicious filled with jealousy, Who is dear to Siva, is the ruler of the universe, glorifiable, the occupant of the left half of Siva, appears before those meditating upon 'm' and is the abode of great powers like absolute command.

The Goddess is 'Iśi' as She possesses the power of creating, preserving and withdrawing. Epithets 4 and 7 show that She is the moving spirit of Iśvara and has the absolute control over all things. In Idyāli, the 'ālis' or friends are the divinities, the 'āvaraṇa-devatās' (see above verse), epithet 10) worshipped at different levels or the Yoginis Sākini, Rākini etc, attending upon the Goddess. In the Mantra-śāstra each syllable is significant. In 'Krīm' for example, K is Kāli, R is Brahmā, I is

Mahāmāyā, Nāda is the Matrix of the universe and Bindu is the dispeller of sorrow. Imkārakļptodaye, means that the Goddess is sure to arise in the mind of the devotee or sādhaka who meditates upon Her with the Bīja mantras like 'Krīm' and 'Hrīm' ending in 'Īm'. The super-human powers or mahāvibhūtis are eight-becoming small (animā), big (mahimā), weighty (garimā) and light (laghimā) and also the power of obtaining everything (prāpti), irresistible will (prākāmya), supremacy (īšitva) and subduing all to his will (vašitva). These vibhūtis or siddhis are inherent in Īšvara and his associate Sakti.

[5]

उद्यक्तानुसहस्रकोटिकिरणे उर्वीधरेन्द्रात्मजे उत्पक्ताम्बजलोचने उभयकावेयेन्तरालाश्रये । उद्यक्चन्द्रनिभानने उरुतरे उच्चासने उज्ज्वले उद्दामद्यति-युद्ध-मञ्जलतरे वनदेऽखिलाण्डेश्वरि ॥

udyadbhānusahasrakoţikiraņe urvīdharendrātmaje utphullāmbujalocane ubhayakāveryantarālāśraye udyaccandranibhānane urutare uccāsane ujjvale uddāmadyuti-puñja-mañjulatare vande 'khiļānḍeś-

vari

I bow down to goddess Akhilāndesvarī, dazzling like the rising multi-rayed Sun, daughter of the mountain Himavān, with lovely eyes, resembling the blossomed lotus, having her abode in between the two Kāverīs (the lower and upper streams), with a charming face like the rising moon, the Supreme, occupying a lofty seat, the resplendent one, and captivating with Her extraordinary brilliance.

The first epithet is the same as the beginning in the Minākṣi-Pañcaratna. For the reference 'Daughter of the Mountain' see above verse i. The other epithets in the verse bring out in a general manner the trans-cosmic splendour of the abode and throne of the Goddess as described in a splendid manner in the Lalitāsahasranāma and the Saundaryalaharī. Worshippers of Devi know that the abode is called Šrī Nagara and it is surrounded by 25 ramparts. In the middle there shines the Cintāmaṇi Palace. The Devī sits in the Bindu Pītha în the Srī Cakra in that palace. This macrocosmic brilliance only symbolises a parallel abode of Devi with identical glory in the microcosm of the human body and Her presence therein.

THE TEACHINGS OF SANKARA

Dr. Sengaku Mayeda

(Extracts from the book "A Thousand Teachings" the Upadeśa Sāhasri of Śańkara, translated with introduction and Notes)*

It was the knowledge of Brahman, the absolute, that Sankara taught to his followers over and over again. The teaching that Atman, one's inner Self (pratyagātman), is wholly identical with Brahman is not only the starting-point of his philosophy but also its goal. Sankara's central doctrine is Atman's identity with Brahman; this truth arrived at by the Upanişadic thinkers was the culmination of the serious quest for universal truth which Rg-vedic

^{*}Courtesy: University of Tokyo Press 1979

poet-thinkers had first begun. In Sankara's view the knowledge of this truth is the means (sādhana) to final release.

When the knowledge (vidyā) (of Brahman) is firmly grasped, it is conducive to one's own beatitude and to the continuity (of the knowledge of Brahman.) And the continuity (of the knowledge of Brahman) is helpful to people as a boat is helpful to one wishing to get across a river. (drdhagrhīta hi vidyātmanah śreyase santatyai ca bhavati

vidyāsantatisca prāņyanugrahāya bhavati nauriva nadīm titīrsoḥ Upad. II, 1, 3).

Philosophy is not his aim but is rather a vital weapon with which to fulfill his aim, which is to rescue people out of transmigratory existence. Logic and theory are subordinate to this end.

The Advaitic tradition started long before Sankara; it has its origin in the Upanisads. The Gaudapādīyakārikā is the earliest extant that advocated illusionistic Advaita. It was, however, Sankara who established the illusionistic Advaita tradition based on the concept of nescience and the Sāmkhyan dualism, and made it the main current of the Vedānta.

Sankara holds, that Brahman is Atman and Atman is Brahman, but this truth may be approached along different lines. When Sankara undertakes

his search for the truth--or, rather, when he explains to his pupils or renders the truth he has already attained-he does it from two different Accordingly, in the Upadeśastarting-points. sāhasrī, two different approaches are recognizable. When in his search for the truth he sets out from Brahman as the ultimate cause of the universe, he comes, through a theological or cosmological approach, to the knowledge that Brahman is Atman. When his investigation sets out from the inner Atman, he arrives, through a psychological or epistemological approach, at the knowledge that Atman is Brahman. The second line of approach is ado. pted and much more frequently than the first in Sankara's works, including the Upadeśasāhasrī. However, neither of them can be complete by itself, and there is a third aspect which is that the knowledge of Brahman and Atman is attainable only through the Srutis, and so the conclusion arrived at by the two approaches is to be confirmed and authenticated by the Srutis. Through an exegesis of the Srutis, Sankara determines that the Srutis state the truth of the identity of Brahman Atman.

Anubhutisvarupacarya

His contribution to Advaita Vedanta

 $Dr \ N. \ Veezhinathan$

Ι

Anubhūtisvarūpācārya- His Works, Identity, and Date

Anubhūtisvarūpācārya who is known in the Advaitic tradition as the Prakaţārtha-kāra or the author of the work Prakaţārthavivaraṇa—an independent commentary on the bhāṣya of Srī Saṅkara on the Brahma-sūtra is one of the most important among the Advaitic writers of the post-Śaṅkara period. He has been well-known in the history of grammar as the author of the Sārasvata grammar. His works in Advaita are of the nature of commentaries. Of these, some were mentioned

in Mr Tripāthi's introduction to the Tarkasamgraha of Anandagiri.1 He wrote mainly commentaries.* All the three prakaranas of Anandabodha received his attention and we have manuscripts of his glosses on the Nyāyamakaranda (Samgraha), the Nyāyadīpāvalī (Candrikā), and the Pramāna. mālā (Nibandha). Among the other standard authors on whose works Anubhūtisvarūpācārya commented upon are Gaudapāda, Sankara, Vimuktātman, and Śrīharsa. On Śańkara's commentary on the Mandukya-karika of Gaudapada, a brief tippana was written by Anubhūtisvarūpācārya and this has been published by the Sanskrit Education Society, Madras. On Sankara's Brahma-sūtrabhāsya. Anubhūtisvarūpācārya wrote the commentary called Prakatarthavivarana which has been published anonymously in the Madras University Sanskrit Series. On the Ista-siddhi of Vimuktatman published in the Gaekwad Oriental Series, Anubhūtisvarūpācārya wrote an extensive commentary known as Istasiddhivivarana. This work has been available in manuscript without its identity being

Tarkasamgraha, Gaekwad Orienta I Series, p. ix.

New Catalogus Catalogorum, Vol. I, pp. 208-209
 (University of Madras, 1968).

^{3.} Government Oriental Manuscripts Library, Madras, Ms. No. 4384.

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shows that this is a work of Anubhūtisvarūpā-cārya. It also shows that the commentary of Jñānottama made known to the scholars in the Gaekwad Oriental Series Edition on the text is really derived from Anubhūtisvarūpācārya's commentary on the Iṣṭa-siddhi. The other standard writer on whose work Anubhūtisvarūpācārya commented is Srīharṣa. The commentary of his called Siṣya-hitaiṣinī on Srīharṣa's Khandana-khanda-khādya is also unprinted and it is available in a single manuscript in the Big Bhandār at Jessalmere.

In the Gitā-prasthāna, Anubhūtisvarūpācārya made his contribution in the form of a brief gloss on Sankara's Gītābhāsya, which is still in manuscript. Naturally, we would expect that our author did not omit to do something in the Upanisad-prasthāna. There are evidences of Anubhūtisvarūpāhaving commented upon Srī Sankara's cārya bhāsya on the Upanisads. There are manuscripts of Upanisad-bhāṣya-tippna-s mentioning Prakatārtha-kāra, that is, Anubhūtisvarūpācārya author. But the same texts are also current as the productions of one Narendrapuri in some cases and Narendrapuri Anandagiri in some other cases. was closely associated with Anubhütisvarupācārya both in grammar and in Vedanta and Anandagiri is well-known as the pupil of Anubhūtisvarūpācārya. These make the textual problem of the Upanişad-bhāṣya-tippaṇā-s referred to above somewhat complicated and this problem requires careful and immediate investigation.

We have thus eight works of Anubhūtisvarūpācārya, namely, the Prakatārthavivaraņa, the Gītā - bhāṣya - tippaṇa, the Gauḍapādīya-bhāṣyatippaṇa, the Iṣṭasiddhivivaraṇa, the Śiṣyahitaiṣiṇī, and the commentaries on the three prakaraṇas of Ānandabedha.

As to the identity of Anubhutisvarūpācārya, it is clear that the Advaitic writer is the same as the author of the Sārasvata grammar; for, between the grammar on one side and the Advaitic commentaries on the other, and also among the Advaitic commentaries themselves, there are agreements which are of a conclusive nature about the identity of the authorship in all these cases. Similar agreements of a very conspicuous nature are to be seen between the Tattvāloka' of Janārdana and the Prakaṭārtha-vivaraṇa and the other works of this cycle. Janārdana has been held by scholars to have been the civil name of the prolific Advaitic commentator Ānandagiri or Ānandajñāna. Prajñanā-

^{4.} See Tarkasamgraha, pp. x-xi.

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nanda who has commented on the Tattvāloka refers to Anubhūtisvarūpācārya as his parama-guru.6

Anandajñāna, a pupil of Anubhūtisvarūpācārya has been assigned by Mr. Tripāthi to the middle of the 13th century, a date which Das Gupta also accepts. Amalānanda the commentator on Vācaspatimiśra's Bhāmatī replies without mentioning the name to Anubhūtisvarūpācārya's criticisms of Vācaspatimiśra. Amalānanda flourished in the first half of the 13th century; and, this is evident from his statement at the end of his Kalpataru that he wrote his work under the Yādava king of Devagiri, Kṛṣṇa (1248-1259 A. D.) and his brother Mahādeva. Anubhūtisvarūpācārya must, therefore, be taken as having flourised in the first half of the 13th century A. D.

П

His Times and The Historical Background

We have so far reconstructed the personality of Anubhūtisvarūpācārya and shown the extent of his contribution on the basis of the evidences supplied by manuscripts. Anubhūtisvarūpācārya no doubt became a forgotten author in the history of Advaita. His commentaries on the Işta-siddhi, Khandana - khanda - khādya, Nyāya - makaranda,

^{6.} See Adyar Descriptive Catalogue, Vol. IX, p. 319a.

Nyāyadīpāvali, Pramānamāla, Srī Sankara's bhāsya on the Gaudapāda-kārikā and the Bhagavadgītā fell into oblivion. But his commentary on the bhāsya of Śrī Sankara on the Brahma-sūtra, namely, the Prakatārthavivarana which may be rightly described as his magnum opus was remembered in the Advaitic tradition. Even in respect of this his real identity was lost as he was remembered only as Prakatārtha-kāra (the author of the commentary Prakatārthavivarana). We have clear reference to him in the writings of Anandagiri. This is, as it should be; for Anandagiri, as has already been mentioned, was a pupil of Anubhūtisvarūpācārya, and his Tattvāloka, as he himself says. was directly based on the Prakatārtha-vivarana. Anubhūtisvarūpācārya vehemently criticises Vācaspatimiśra's distinct views on Advaita that are embodied in his commentary Bhāmatī on Srī Sankara's bhāsya on the Brahma-sūtra. Amalānanda-Vyāsāśrama in his Kalpataru on the Bhāmatī answers Anubūtisvarūpācārya's objections. He, however, does not refer to Anubhūtisvarūpācārya by name. The details of these criticisms can be had in Prof. Hiriyanna's article entitled Gleanings from the Prakatartha. But for the present it is necessary to point out that the references in Amalananda could easily be identified as one to Anubhūtisva-

Ibid.

^{8.} See Journal of Oriental Research, Vol. 15, pp. 1-8.

Ratnaprabhā on the bhāṣya of Srī Saṅkara on the Brahma-sūtra identifies a reply in Amalānanda as directed against the Prakaṭārtha-kāra. Puruṣot-tama—the disciple of Rāmatīrtha Yati who flourished in the middle of the 16th century in his commentary Subodhinī on the Saṁkṣepaśārīraka of Sarvajñātmamuni and Appayya-Dīkṣita in his Siddhāntaleśasaṁgraha make refferences to Prakaṭārtha-kāra. Govindānanda, already reffered to, has had access to the Prakaṭārtha vivaraṇa; for there are several contexts in which he shows the influence of that work. Dhanapatisūri in his commentary Bhāṣyotkarṣadīpikā on Srī Śaṅkara's

prakaţārthakāraistu pāţakaprasiddha-antodatta-svarāḥ pāribhāṣikāḥ iti vyākhyātam, tat kalpatarukārair dūṣitam, Ratnaprabhā, p. 311.

See the Article — The Date of Râmatīrtha Yati, by P. K. Gode, Adyar Library Bulletin, Vol. VI, Pt. II, pages 107-110.

Sainkšepašārīraka, Ānandāšrama Sanskrit Series, Vol. II, p. 628.

¹² Siddhāntaleśasamgraha, Vol. II, pp. 2, 12, 23. (Publications of the Department of Indian Philosophy, Madras University No. 4).

 ⁽i) parākrāntam cātra darpanafikāyām ācāryaih ityuparamyate, Ratnaprabhā (Nirnaya-Sagar Press. 1909), p. 561. See Prakafārthavivaraņa, p. 660. This work wil hereafter be reffered to as 'PV'.

bhāṣya on the Bhagavadgītā makes ' reference to a particular view on avidyā and this view could easily be identified as that of Anubhūtisvarūpācārya. All the above references do clearly point out that some of the criticisms and specific views of Anubhūtisvarūpācārya were remembered in the writings of the later Advaitins.

To appreciate the place occupied by Anubhūtisvarūpācārya in the history of Advaita in the post.
Sankara period, it is necessary to refer to some of
the authors who preceded him in the immediate
past—authors who belonged not only to the
Advaitic school, but also others who were active
in opposing the philosophy of Advaita. The latter
opponents of Advaita were mainly of two groups—
the Naiyāyikas and the Bhedā-bheda-vādins or the
Brahma-parināma-vādins. The two formed the
main targets of the criticisms of the Advaitins in the
centuries immediately following Srī Sankara.

Of the exponents of the bheda-bheda-vāda, Bhaskāra who appeared on the scene immediately

 ⁽ii) etatsūtrabhāşyabhāvānabhijāāļi sannyāsāśramadharmaśravaŋādau vidhirnāstiti vadanti, Ratnaprabhā, p. 818. See PV., p. 989.

^{14.} anādiranirvācyā bhūtaprakṛtiḥ cinmātra-sambandhinī māyā, tasyām citpratibimbāḥ iŝvaraḥ, tasyā eva āvaranavikṣepa saktimadavidyābhidhāneṣu paricchinnaanantapradeṣeṣu cit pratibimbo jīva iti kecit, Bhāṣyotkarṣadīpikā, p. 357. Cf. PV-, page 3,

after Sri Sankara led the opposition against the exposition of Sri Sankara. In the introductory verse to his commentary on the Brahma-sūtra, Bhāskara says that his commentary is to refute the interpretation of the Brahma-sūtra, by those who read their own ideas into it thereby distorting its sense 16. A study of the Brahma-sütra-bhāsya of Bhāskara shows that he has Srī Śankara in his mind. In his wake appeared Keśava and the author referred to as Brahmaprakāsikā-kāra, one Mādhava and a writer named Amrtananda.16 The Advaitic dialectics against this group of critics of Srī Sankara had two of its leading protagonists in our author Anubhūtisvarūpā. cārya and another named Ānandānubhava who also lived almost in the same age. He wrote two works Padārtha tattva nirnaya and Nyāyaratnadī pāvalī. We could also add to this the earlier writer Anandabodha on whom our author Anubhūtisvarūpācārya wrote commentaries. Bhāskara upheld not only the old pre Sankara philosophical positions of bheda-bheda and parinama but also upheld the ancient view on the sadhana plane of combining jñāna and karma and the monastic mode called tridandi sannyasa. Both Anubhuti-

sūtrābhiprāyasamvṛttyā svāhhiprāyaprākāšanāt vyākhyātam yairidam šāṣtram vyākhyā iyam tannivṛttàyē — Introductory Verse.

PV., pp. 1, 10, 24, 29, 55, 84, 118, 128, 370, 378,
 417, 429.

svarūpācārya and Ānandānubhava criticized effectively Bhāskara who symbolised this type of opposition to Srī Sankara. In the field of Nyāya also there was revival of activity which was directed mainly against the philosophy of jagan-mithyātva. In the times before the 10th century-if we may draw a rough demarcation like that-the orthodox darśanas and particularly the Nyāya were concerned with opposing the Buddhist schools. After this period when the influence of Buddhism waned, the attention of the orthodox schools turned in a more pronounced manner against each other. Different schools of Vedanta developed and the controversies in the field of philosphy were concerned with these differing stand-points within the fold of Vedanta. The renewed activity in the field of Nyāya may be said to have received a fresh impetus from the new technique developed by one Kulārka Paņdita in his mahāvidyānumāna. After a time the Nyāya school was rendered more or less ineffective and the Bheda bheda school was superseded by the new developments of the theistic schools of Ramanuja and Madhva. Later Advaitic dialectics concerned itself in the main with the last mentioned schools.

When we view the history of Advaita in relation to the other schools on the lines indicated above, we can see what important role certain able exponents of Advaita played in the field when postSankara Advaita had to contend against the Bhedā-bheda and Nyāya schools. At least three powerful advocates of Advaita could be mentioned as the most active controversialists of this phase—Anubhūtisvarūpācārya, Citsukha, and Ānandānubhava. Just as Bhāskara was roughly handled by both Anubhūtisvarūpācārya and Anandānubhava, in Nyāya the author of the work called Mānamanohara (Vādivāgīśvara)¹⁶ was the common target of attack for Ānandānubhava and Citsukha.

Not only did the two authors Anubhūtisvarūpā-cārya and Ānandānubhava live in about the same age and do the same kind of work, but there seems to have been some kind of connection between them; for we find Ānandagiri who was—as Janārdana—a pupil of the former writing commentaries on the works of the latter. Like the Tattvāloka and the Tarkasamgraha of Janārdana—Ānanda-jñāna—Ānandagiri, the Padārthatattvanirnaya of Ānandānubhava is a critique of the Nyāya-Vaišeṣika categories.

Anubhūtisvarūpācārya's contribution to Advaita lies in his critical examination and the final rejection of the Nyāya-Vaiśeṣika and Bhedābheda schools. Further he has distinct views as regards

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some of the most important concepts of Advaita and they have considerable importance in the historical development of Advaita

Ш

Anubhūtisvarūpācārya and the Nyāya-Vaišesika

The Vedanta-Sutras themselves have reference to the views of the Nyaya-Vaisesika particularly of the Vaisesika school. The Vaisesika it is wellknown hold a theory of the creation of the universe from atoms as the material cause to which the Vedāntic position of Brahman as being the sole material and efficient cause of the universe is directly opposed. In the wake of their basic theory, the Nyāya-Vaiśesika realists hold also several other categories all of which are not acceptable to the Vedāntins. Under all the contexts where the Sūtras have direct or indirect reference to the positions of the Nyaya-Vaisesika, and under the bhasya on these where Srī Sankara briefly refutes the Nyāya-Vaisesika views, Anubhūtisvarūpācārya takes the occasion to enter into furher details and launch upon a systematic examination and refutation of the Nyāya-Vaisesika theories. We may in passing take note of the contexts in which the Nyaya-Vaisesika criticisms occur in the Prakatārthavivarana.

At the outset under the adhyāsa bhāṣya.

Anubhūtisvārūpācārya speaks of the anyathā—

khyāti of the Naiyāyikas more than once.17 While commenting on the Brahma-sūtra, janmādyasya yatah (I. i. 2) Srī Sankara refutes the Naiyāyika stand-point that God is to be inferred on the basis of a syllogism as the creator of the universe. Here Anubhūtisvarūpācārya devotes some attention to the Nyāya-Vaisesika theory of God and creation and criticises the same.18 Srī Sankara's reference to tamas in his commentary on the Brahma-sūtra, jyotiścaranābhidhānāt (I, i, 24) is availed of by Anubhūtisvarūpācārya to criticise the Nyāya-Vaisesika view that tamas is not a positive entity. 19 The section known as the Devatādhikarana provides an occasion for Anubhūtisvarüpācārya to examine the logicians' theory about the non-eternality of sabda.20

In the same context, Anubhūtisvarūpācārya examines the category of śakti which the Naiyāyikas do not accept and criticises the latter mentioning Udayana by name. The Brahma-sūtras revert to the Vaiśeṣika tenet of the atomic origin of of the world. Anubhūtisvarūpācārya makes his

^{17.} PV., P. 6-7.

^{18.} Ibid., pp. 40-43.

^{19.} Ibid., pp. 139.

^{20.} Brahma-sūtra, I, iii, 28-30. PV., pp. 284-30.

²¹ Ibid., p. 286.

^{22.} II, ii, 11-17.

elaborate critism of the Vaisesika theory of atoms together with the critical examination of the six padarthas accepted by the Vaisesikas along with their sub-divisions In the sequel also both in Sankara's bhāsya and the Prakatārthavivarana there are criticisms of the Vaisesika view particularly. In the section known as Patyadhikarana, and the Naiyāyika theory of God as the efficient cause is taken up again for criticism in both the bhāṣya and the Patyadhikarana. This section is very important as herein Anubhūtisvarūpācārya gives a systematic critique of the sixteen padarthas of the Nyaya school; and his criticism runs to over thirteen pages. The discussion about ākāśa in the Brahmasūtra-yāvadvikāram tu vibhāgo lokavat," provides an occassion for Anubhūtisvarūpācāry to examine in detail the Nyāya conception of dik and kalā2.

IV

Anūbhūtisvarū pācārya—His Views on Advaita and His relation to the Bhāskara School

The philosophy of Advaita centres around the doctrine of avidyā or māyā. The distinguishing feature of this school is the doctrine that the mate-

^{23.} Brahma-sütra-s, II, ii, 37-41.

^{24.} PV., pp., 562-574.

^{25.} II. iii. 7.,

^{26.} PV., p. 592.

rial world is an illusion. It is, therefore, referred to as $m\bar{a}y\bar{a} \cdot v\bar{a}da$. The ultimate reality is Brahman which is attributeless (nirguna) and formless (nirā-kāra) and which is of the nature of absolute consciousness. Owing to avidyā or māyā, it appears as jīva, Iśvara, and the world. The universe as such is indeterminable either as real or unreal. Jīva is to realize its identity with Brahman. To remain as Brahman is the ultimate goal, that is, liberation. And this is possible only by overcoming avidyā. Avidyā could be removed only by the direct experience of Brahman. This, in short, is the philosophy of Advaita.

Bhāskara who sppeared on the scene immediately after Srī Śańkara criticized the concept of nirguņa Brahman, the theory of avidyā, the doctrine that the universe is illusory, the contention that direct experience of Brahman is the means of liberation and the concept of jīvanmukti. As against Śańkara, Bhāskara upheld that the ultimate reality is possessed of attributes (saguņa Brahman), the universe is real by being the transformation of Brahman, and liberation results from both jñāna and karma only after death and not here and now.

Brahman

The Upanisadic texts speak of two forms of Brahman. Some texts convey Brahman as attributeless (nirguna) and formless (nirākāra). Other

texts speak of Brahman as having attributes (saguna) and forms (sākāra). The Upanisadic texts such as 'Brahman is not gross, not fine, not short, not long, without sound, without touch, without form, immutable, etc., 27 convey Brahman to be free from quality and form. And the Upanisadic texts such as 'He cherishes all (righteous) desires, contains all (pleasant) odours, and is endowed with all tastes', etc.," convey Brahman as having qualities. In the same way the Upanisadic text 'Verily there are two forms of Brahman, gross and subtle, mortal and immortal, limited and unlimited, definite and indefinite," declares Brahman to have forms. Srī Sankara notices this distinction between two forms of Brahman, one which is without attriutes (nirguna) and the other which is conceivedwith attributes.50 He adds that although Brahman as it is in itself can be but one, it may yet be viewed in such a way that it appears to possess attributes which do not genuinely belong to it, just as a piece of crystal, although really transparent appears red when a red hibiscus flower is placed near it. Hence there is no reason why certain texts should not teach, with a view to meditative worship, that Brahman has such and such attributes and forms at

^{27.} Brhadaranyako'panisad, III, viii, 8.

^{28.} Chāndogyo'paniṣad, III, xiv. 2.

^{29.} Brhadāranyako' panisad, II, îii. 1.

^{30.} Śrī Śankara's commentary on the Brahma-sūtra, I, i, 12.

^{31.} Ibid., on the Brahma-sūtra, III, ii, 15.

The author of the Brahma-sūtra points out 14 that Brahman by itself cannot have these two contradictory characteristics, as it is opposed to experience. It may be said that Brahman by itself is free from all attributes, but by its association with a limiting adjunct it acquires qualities and forms which are real. This contention is not correct; for, the true nature of a thing cannot change because of its association with some limiting adjuncts. Redness in a crystal which is colourless is caused by the redness of a flower placed by its side and it is not real. Similarly the qualities and forms in Brahman which is pure consciousness are caused by avidyā and hence they are not real. Of the two aspects of Brahman set forth in the Upanisads we have to accept that which is free from any adjunct as its true nature. The other aspect of Brahman is only superimposed on it by avidyā, and hence it is not real. This aspect, however, is mentioned for the sake of worship."3

As regards the forms mentioned in the Upanisads with reference to Brahman every such form is denied of Brahman in the Upanisadic texts that are negative in character. The Upanisadic texts

^{32.} Brahma-sūtra, II, ii, 11.

^{33.} Śrī Śańkara's commentary on the Brahmu-sūtra,

III, ii, 11.

^{34.} Ibid., on the Brahma-sutra, III, ii, 17.

"He goes from death to death who perceives anything like variety" teaches that manifoldness in Brahman is not true by condemning those who see difference in it. From these it is clear that forms and qualities in Brahman are not true and Brahman is formless and attributeless.

Avidyā (Ajñāna)

Now the question arises as to how Brahman of this nature could be the cause of the world. The Upanisadic text "That from which these beings arise. That from which they derive existence and manifestation. That into which they lapse back at the time of dissolution-seek to know that; That is Brahman",36 states that Brahman is the cause of the universe. It is in order to account for the rise of the universe from Brahman that the Upanisadic text "The sages absorbed in meditation discovered the creative power (māyā) which is present in Brahman and which consists of the three qualities of sattva. rajas. and tamas" introduces the principle of māyā. The expression 'creative power' in the passage cited above stands for māyā which is identical with avidyā or ajāāna. Šrī Šankara in his commentary on the Brahma-sūtrā, tadadhīnatvādarthavat states about avidyā (māyā) thus:

^{35.} Katho' panisad, IV, 11.

^{36.} Taittiriyo'panisad, III, i, 1.

^{37.} Svetāśvataro'panisad, I, 3.

^{38.} Brahma-sūtra I, iv. 3

"Avidyā is the root-cause of the world; it is designated by the word avyakta; it is indeterminable; it is identical with māyā; it is deep sleep; it is paraméśvarāśraya, that is, it depends on Brahman. And in it the individual souls not aware of their identity with Brahman rest". This passage affirms the identity of māyā and avidyā or ajñāna. We shall now set forth Anubūtisvarūpācārya's view on māyā-avidyā.

The Upanisadic text-"Know māyā to be the primal cause of the universe and mahésvara as possessing māyā," states that māyā is the source of the universe and it is present in Brahman-the pure consciousness. According to Anubhūtisvarūpācārya the word maheśvara in the Upanisadic text cited above signifies pure consciousness, that is, Brahman. He points out that māyā is present only in the pure consciousness(cin-mātra-sambandhinī)" word only clearly shows that māyā is not present in anything else, namely, Isvara or jīva or the insentient objects. Māyā is indeterminable. It is not real; for, in that case it cannot be removed. It is not unreal, like a flower sprung from the sky; for then it cannot serve as the transformative material cause of the world. It cannot be real and unreal at once;

avidyātmikā hī bī jaśaktiḥ avyaktaśabdanirdeśyā parameśvarāśrayā māyāmayī mahāsuptiḥ yasyām svarūpapratibodharahitāḥ śerate samsāriņo jīvāḥ.

^{40.} Śvetāvataśva' panisad, IV, 10.

^{41.} PV., p. 3.

for, that would violate the law of contradiction. Māyā does not have parts; for, if it has parts then it must be admitted to have a beginning. Hence it must be admitted that māyā does not have parts. The conclusion presents another difficulty. If māyā does not have parts, then it cannot be viewed as the transformative material cause of the universe. It is a matter of ordinary experience that only those objects having parts do serve as the cause of the effects. Hence māyā cannot be said to be partless. It cannot be partless and possessed of parts at once, for, that would violate the law of contradiction. These difficulties do suggest that māyā is indeterminable (anirvacanīya).

When it is said that $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ does not have parts, it must be understood that $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ does not have parts that are real in nature. It does have parts that are indeterminable. The parts possess the powers of veiling ($\bar{a}varana$) and projection (viksepa). They are termed $aj\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ or $avidy\bar{a}$. The reflection of pure consciousness in $avidy\bar{a}$ is $j\bar{v}va$. Since there is plurality of $avidy\bar{a}$, the jivas are many. Since the limiting adjunct of $j\bar{v}va$, namely, $avidy\bar{a}$ is limited, $j\bar{v}va$ as such is also limited although in its true nature it is all-pervasive. Srī Sankara in his commentary on the $Brahma-s\bar{u}tra$ states: Brahman—the pure consciousness does exist in the physical body; but it does not exist only there. It is all-pervasive and this is known from the Upanisadic

text "It is eternal and all-pervasive like etheric space." Jīva as such, on the other hand, exists only in the body, as it cannot exist anywhere apart from the body which is the field of its experience." In another place he states that jīva, being limited, cannot be the cause of the universe.

It might be said that the indeterminable part of $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ cannot be held to be the limiting adjunct of $j\bar{v}u$; for, $Sr\bar{i}$ Sankara in his commentary on the Brahmo-sūtra-tadadhīnatvād arthavat states avidya to be the limiting adjunct of $j\bar{v}u$. Anubūtisvarūpā-cārya points out that the indeterminable parts of $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ alone serve as the limiting adjunct of $j\bar{v}u$ -s. But since they are removable by knowledge ($vidy\bar{a}$) of Brahman they are termed $avidy\bar{a}$ by $Sr\bar{i}$ Šankara. The sense of the term $avidy\bar{a}$, therefore, is the indeterminable parts of $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ —the whole. And, since the whole and parts are identical, $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ —the whole is said to be of the nature of $avidy\bar{a}$ —its parts. The distinction of whole and parts as

^{42.} nanu iśvaro'pi śarire bhavati, satyam śārire bhavati, na tu śarire eva bhavati, ākāśavat sarvagataśca nityah iti vyāpitvaśravanāt, jīvastu śarire eva bhavati tasya bhogādhiṣṭhānāt śarīrādunyatra vrttyabhāvāt, Śrī Śańkara's Commentary on the Brahma-sūtra, I, ii. 1.

na ca upādhipariechinnasya avibhoḥ prāṇabhṛtaḥ dyubhvādyāyatanatvampi samyak sambhavati, Ibid., I, iii, 1.

^{44.} See Foot-Note, No. 39.

^{45.} PV., p. 325.

regards $m\tilde{a}y\tilde{a}$ is only illusory and not real. It comes to this. The reflection of pure consciousness in $m\tilde{a}y\tilde{a}$ is Iśvara. And, the reflection of pure consciousness in $avidy\tilde{a}$ —the indeterminable part of $m\tilde{a}y\tilde{a}$ is $j\tilde{v}va$. There is the plurality of $avidy\tilde{a}$ and hence there are many $j\tilde{v}vas$. The consciousness which serves as the original is pure and to remain as it is liberation.

This way of viewing māyā-avidyā solves the problem of accounting for the distinction of the bound and the released souls. In the case of the individual soul who realises his identity with the consciousness that serves as the original, avidua or ajñāna which is his limiting adjunct is annihilated. Thereby mind-the effect of avidua is removed and its removal leads to the removal of the characteristics of finitude, agency, etc., pertaining to the individual soul. Such an individual soul then ceases to be an individual soul and remains as pure consciousness which serves as the original for both the reflections of Isvara and jīvas. He is the released soul. The others are the bound souls. The universe which is the transformation of māyā does exist, but it is not experienced by the released soul. This māyā will be annihilated only when all its parts which serve as the limiting adjuncts of $j\bar{\imath}vas$ are annihilated. The parts, however, will be

^{46.} PV., p. 3.

annihilated only when all the individual souls realize their identity with pure consciousness that serves as the original. To sum up this part of our discussion: The pure consciousness reflected in avidyā—the indeterminable part of māyā is jīva. It acquires the characteristics of finitude, agency, etc. This is bondage. And to be free from all these characteristics and to remain as the pure consciousness that serves as the original is liberation.

Jīva and Isvara

Advaitins seek to explain the nature of jīva and Iśvara in three different ways: and they are pratibimba-vāda, ābhāsa-vāda, and avaccheda-vāda. These three may be explained successively as follows:

Pratibimba-vāda: This view is advocated by Padmapāda in his Pañcapādikā and by his commentator Prakāśātman in his Vivāraņa. According to this view, avidyā which is super-imposed on Brahman—the pure consciousness receives its reflection, like a mirror, the reflection of a face. The pure consciousness which serves as the prototype (bimba) is Īśvara. And the reflection of pure consciousness in avidyā and its product—mind is jīva.

This theory known as pratibimba vāda is explained in a slightly different way by Sarvajnāt-

^{47.} Ibid., p. 4.

mamuni in his Samkṣepaśārīraka. He holds both Iśvara and jīva to be the reflections of pure consciousness in avidyā and mind respectively. The unique feature of pratibimba-vāda is that the reflected image is identical with the prototype and hence it is real. But wrong localisation and transposition of the prototype in the limiting adjunct and the defects of the limiting adjunct presented in the reflection—these are not real, that is, indeterminable either as real or unreal.

Abhāsa-vāda: This view is advocated by Sureśvara. It is almost the same as the previous one. It is different only in the conception and interpretation of the nature of reflection. According to the previous view, in a reflection the reflected image is identical with the prototype and hence it is real. But it is only wrong localisation, transposition, etc., of the original in the limiting adjunct—these that are unreal. According to the ābhāsavāda, the reflected image is not identical with prototype; it is different from it and it is indeterminable either as real or unreal. The pure consciousness that is reflected in avidyā is Iśvara; and, the pure consciousness that is reflected in mind is jīva.

Avaccheda-vāda: This view is advocated by Vācaspatimiśra in his Bhāmatī. Vācaspatimiśra does not favour the theory of reflection of Brahman-

While commenting on the adhyāsa-bhāṣya, Vācas-patimiśra observes that there could not be any reflection of Brahman which is free from any form. An object having a form could receive the reflection of that thing which has form. Brahman being free from any form cannot have any reflection in mind-How could there be any reflection of sound, smell-taste, etc.? On this ground he advocates the theory known as avaccheda-vāda. According to this theory, Brahman delimited by avidyā is jīva which is its locus (āśraya) and Brahman which is not conditioned by it, but which is the content (viṣaya) of avidyā is Iśvara.48

Anubhūtisvarūpācārya advocates the pratibimba·vāda. He holds that māyā is located in Brahman—the pure consciousness. Its parts—indeterminable are they—are termed ajñāna or avidyā. And the reflection of pure consciousness in māyā is Iśvara and the reflection of pure consciousness in avidyā is jīva. Since the indeterminable parts of māyā, namely avidyā are many, there is plurality of the individual souls (jīvas). Anubhūtisvarūpācārya makes his position clear in his commentary on Srī Śaṅkara's bhāṣya on the Brahma-sūtra, ābhāsa eva ca. 49 He points out that the author of the sūtras in

^{48.} See Bhāmatī on the Brahma-sūtra, II, iii, 13 and III, ii, 3.

^{49.} II, iii, 50.

the previous aphorisms " holds the jīva to be the part as it were of Brahman. This however, is from the stand-point of the avaccheda vada. But in the sūtra-abhāsa eva ca, the author of the sūtras uses the word eva with reference to abhasa or reflection and this shows that the theory of reflection or the pratibimba-vāda is his cherished view. 11 In this connection Anubhūtisvarūpācārya examine Bhāskara's interpretation of the sūtra, ābhāsa eva ca. Bhāskara reads the sūtra as ābhāsā eva ca and interprets it to mean that all Advaitic theories are false (ābhāsāh). And he also criticises the pratibimbavāda. Anubhūtisvarūpācārya points out that Bhāskara's criticism of the pratibimbu vāda is unsound. To explain the theory of error (bhrama), Bhāskara upholds the theory known as anyathākhyāti-vāda. So, according to him, reflection of face inside a mirror, means the association of face which exists in a different place with mirror. Here the appearance of the association of face with mirror is erroneous; the appearance of face, however, is real. According to Advaitin's view also there is no negating cognition in the form, 'This is not face' with reference to the reflection of face in

^{50.} II, iii, 43-49.

^{51.} yat ādye sūtre jīvasyāmšitvam āsūtritam tadavacchedā bhiprāyema ityuktvā adhunā ābhāsa eva ca ityevakāram prayunjānah pratibimbapakṣam svarahasyam sūtrayā māsa bhagavān sūtrakāraḥ, PV., p. 659.

mirror. But there is the negating cognition in the form, 'Here is not a different face but only mine' which suggests only the negation of wrong localisation of the original face and affirms the identity of the image and the original one. Anubhūtisvarūpacărya thus points out that Bhāskara's criticism of the pratibimba-vāda would definitely contradict his cherished theory of error, that is, anyathākhyātivāda-He concludes by referring the reader to the section known as darpaṇa-ṭīkā in the Pañcapādikā of Padmapāda. **

There is a criticism that there cannot be any reflection of formless Brahman in avidya on the ground that only objects which have form could be reflected. Advaitins point out that redness of a flower is reflected in a crystal; and, redness does not have any form. Sound which does not have any form has reflection in the form of an echo-Hence it is not correct to say that only objects which have form could have reflection. It might be said that only those objects which can be perceived by the sense organs could have reflection. Redness and sound, although they do not have any form, are reflected because they are respectively perceived by the sense of sight and the sense of hearing. Brahman, on the other hand, does not come within the range of any sense organ. On this

^{52.} PV., pp. 659-660.

ground it cannot have any reflection. This rule, namely, that it is only those objects which can be comprehended by the sense organs could have reflection lacks correspondence. Anubhūtisvarūpācārya points out that etheric space which does not come within the range of any sense organ and which is manifested by the witness self does have reflection in water. In the same way, Brahman which is formless and which transcends all sense organs has reflection in $avidy\bar{a}^{a\bar{a}}$. It comes to this: The reflection of Brahman which is pure consciousness in $avidy\bar{a}$ —the indeterminable part of $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ is $j\bar{v}v\bar{a}$. And the reflection of Brahman which is pure consciousness in $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ is $\bar{l}svara$.

The personified forms of Isvara as Viṣṇu, Brahmā, and Siva are not mentioned in any of the principal Upaniṣads. The Chāndogyo paniṣadic text—'He the Puruṣa that is seen in the sun is golden in colour; His beard is golden, hair is golden, everything upto the tip of the nails is golden, everything upto the tip of the nails is golden, so speaks of Brahman as having a form, but does not speak of the three-fold distinction as Viṣṇu, Brahmā, and Siva. It is only in the Maitrā-yaṇī Upaniṣad we find reference to the three-fold conception of Isvara as mentioned above. Therein it is stated that Brahman associated with avidyā, although one, is designated by such terms as Viṣṇu

^{53.} PV., p. 4.

^{54.} I, vi, 6.

Brahmä, and Siva, according to the preponderance of the three strands of avidya-sattva, rajas, and tamas. ** Srī Sankara in his commentary on the Brahma-sūtra " which discusses the Chāndoyyo' panisad passage cited above states that Isvara, out of His own will, takes an illusory form in order to bestow grace upon His worshippers. This view is based upon the statement of Brahmanandin-an Advaitin of the pre-Sankara period in his aphoristic commentary on the Chandogyo' panisad which is not available now.** His commentator Drāvidacārya in his bhāsya states that the forms spoken of with reference to saguna Brahman do exist as the scripture would teach only what actually exists (yathābhūta). ** The word yatāhbhūta means only empirical reality (vyāvahārika-satyatva) and not absolute reality (pāramārthika-satyatva). The forms of Brahman could exist only till the rise of the direct experience of Brahman. It is with this in view that Srī Sankara has used the word māyāmaya. Bhāskara while interpreting the Brahmasūtra refer.

^{55.} IV. 5.

^{56.} I, i, 20.

syādīśvarasyāpi iccāvašāi māyāmayam rūpam sādhakānugrahārtham.

^{58.} syādrūpom kṛtakam anugrahārtham tacchetasām aiśvaryāt, rūpam cātīndriyam antakaraņa pratyakṣam tannirdeśāt, See Dravidātreyadarśanam, Srī Kāmakoti Kosasthanam, Francis Joseph Street, Madaas-1.

na hi arūpāyāh devatāyāh rūpam upadiśyate, yathābhūtavādi hi śāstram, Ibid.

red to above points out that the forms of Brahman spoken of in the Chandogya text are absolutely real; for, scripture would teach only what is real (yatha bhūta). Srī Rāmānuja also in his commentary on the Brahma-sütra referred to above follows Bhasinterpretation. Anubhūtisvarūpācārya makes reference to Bhāskara's view and points out that if the forms of Brahman spoken of in the Chandogya text are considered to be real in the strict sense of the term on the ground that scripture would teach only what is real, then one should treat the creation of dream objects as real, for there are scriptural passages which deal with them. Dream objects, however, are not real and this has been explained by Gaudapada, and the author of the Brahma-sūtra. Hence the forms spoken of with reference to Brahman in the Chāndogya text are real only exempirically and not absolutely.

The Phenomenal World

Bhaskara considers the phenomenal world to be the transformation of Brahman which according to him, is characterized by attributes. The one serious criticism that one would make on this view is this: It is not possible to maintain that Brahman transforms itself into the universe. Only those objects which have parts could transform themselves into other objects. Brahman, being partless, cannot have any transformation. If it is pressed that

Brahman somehow undergoes transformation, then it amounts to admitting that it has parts. This admission would definitely lead to the unwelcome position of treating Brahman as non-eternal; for, whichever has parts is non-eternal. Hence it must be held that Brahman appears as the universe through $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$. The universe, therefore, is neither real like Brahman; nor unreal, like a flower sprung from the sky; nor real and unreal at once. It is $mithy\bar{a}$ or anirvacaniya, that is, indeterminable either as real or unreal. Brahman alone is real.

Several objections are raised against the conclusion that the phenomenal world is indeterminable and Brahman alone is real. It is said: if absolute Brahman alone is the truth, then ordinary means of right knowledge-perception, etc., become invalid, since the absence of their manifoldness deprives them of their objects. Again, the Vedic texts embodying injunctions and prohibitions, and the Upanisadic texts referring to moksa lose their meaning if the world does not exist. Further, if Brahman alone is real, there is no room for the distinction of a God who rules and the world and the souls ruled by him. Devotion to personal God would therefore be an impossibility. Moreover, the passages of the Vedanta also are not real, as they belong to the phenomenal world which is not real. Hence they cannot convey the truth of the identity of the individual soul with Brahman. 6.018

Śrī Sankara in his commentary on the Brahma-sūtra⁶⁰ answers these objections. He points out that the entire phenomenal world does not exist for him who has realized his identity with Brahman; and, for him there is no distinction of God, the ruler, and the individual souls and the world, the ruled. The author of the Brahma-sūtra⁶¹ advocates the vivarta-vāda, that is, the theory that the world is an appearance of Brahman and therefore not real, from the stand-point of the liberated souls. But so long as the knowledge of Brahman has not arisen, the entire complex of phenomenal existence is taken to be real, even as the phantoms of a dream are taken as real until the sleeper awakes.

The Upanisadic texts although ultimately not real, yet could convey the identity of the individual soul with Brahman, which is real. Death which is real occurs sometimes as a result of the mere suspicion that a venomous snake has bitten. The Aitareya Āranyaka texts declares that the perception of aperture in the sun which is not real indicates death which is real. The author of the Brahma-sātras declares that dream is an illusion

^{60.} II, i, 14.

^{61.} Ibid.

^{62.} Śrī Śańkara's Commentary on the Brahma-sūtra, II, i, 14.

^{63.} III, ii, 4, 7.

^{64.} III, ii, 4.

and yet it is indicative of future good or evil, that is real. From this it is clear that an event in dream though not real indicates an actual future event. In the same way the Upanisadic texts, though not real, can convey the identity of the individual soul with Brahman.

It has been said by the Bhāskarites that the direct experience of Brahman also must be considered to be not real, as it is only knowledge like the knowledge of the phenomenal world. Anubhūtisvarūpācārya points out that the direct experience of Brahman as such is no doubt indeterminable either as real or unreal. But Brahman which is pure consciousness and which is the content of the direct experience is absolutely real.

Liberation

Avidyā is the source of all evil and its removal would necessarily bring about the removal of the relation of mind and its qualities like finitude, agency, etc. $J\bar{\imath}va$, then ceases to be a $j\bar{\imath}va$ as it is manifest as Bhahman in its true nature of absolute bliss and consciousness. And this is liberation. The matter that is of profound importance here is that Brahman associated with mind is $j\bar{\imath}va$ —the transmigratory soul. And when the association is

^{65.} PV., pp. 428-9.

removed there is liberation. Liberation is thus the removal of avidyā.

Avidyā could be removed only by the direct knowledge of the substratum (āśraya). And substratum is defined as the content (viṣaya) of avidyā which is the source of all superimpositions. Brahman is the content of avidyā and hence it is its substratum. Its knowledge, therefore, necessarily removes avidyā.

The mental state which arises from the Upanisadic texts in the form of Brahman and which is inspired by the reflection of Brahman in it is termed direct experience of Brahman. Brahman as such cannot dispel avidyā: for being associated with avidyā it is its witness. But when reflected in the mental state arising from the Upanisads, it removes avidyā, just as the rays of the sun normally illuminating the grass when reflected through a lens."

The direct experience of Brahman annihilates $avidy\bar{a}$ unaided by any auxiliary cause. The Bhāskarites hold that $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ associated with karma or rituals leads to liberation. It is very doubtful whether by the word $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na$ they mean the direct experience of Brahman. But as far as the Advaitic position is concerned the direct experience of Brah-

^{66.} Siddhantaleśasamgraha, Vol. II. p. 105.

man in the form 'I am Brahman' cannot have any relation with rituals which require for their performance the sense of agency. The experience in the form 'I am Brahman' is free from any sense of agency. On this ground there cannot be any combination of jñāna and karma.

The direct experience of Brahman is thus directly opposed to avidyā and hence it dispels avidyā by its mere rise. The individual soul is then freed from the bonds of samsāra. The Upanisadic text is explicit that the direct experience of Brahman enables one to attain freedom from the bonds of samsāra here and now. Such an individual soul remains here for sometimes as a jīvanmukta; and the concept of jīvanmukti is cardinal to the Advaita Vedānta.

We shall now deal with this in some detail.

In the case of one who has attained the direct experience of Brahman, the merits (punya) and demerits (pāpa) accumulated in the innumerable previous births and also in this life before the rise of the direct experience of Brahman are annihilated. The Upanişadic text 'Just as the upper part of a reed thrown into fire is completely burnt, so also all his sins are burnt away's and the Upanişadic

^{67.} Katho'panisad, II, iii, 14.

^{68.} Chāndogyo'panişad, V, kxiv, 3.

text "He transcends both merits and demerits" " states that merits and demerits accumulated in the past life and also prior to the rise of the knowledge of Brahman are annihilated by the knowledge of Brahman. Further there is no possibility of the rise of any merit or demerit in future to the knower of Brahman; for, merit and demerit would arise by performing prescribed and interdicted actions respectively with attachment in the form 'I am the agent of this action'. But the one who has the direct experience of Brahman has no idea of any agency whatsoever with regard to any action that may occur in future. Hence there is no possibility of rise of any merit or demerit in future in his case. It is with this in view that the Chandogyo'panisad passage 'As water does not stick to a lotus leaf, even so sin does not cling to one who has realised Brahman " states that a future sin that might be expected to arise by performance of activities does not arise in the case of one who has realized Brahman. The word 'sin' in the Upanisadic text must be taken to convey the sense of merit also; for the result of merit like that of sin, is inferior to the fruit of the direct experience of Brahman. n

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^{69.} Brhadāranyako'panisad, IV, iv, 2.

^{70.} IV, xiv, 3.

yatrāpi kevala eva pāpmā śabdo dršyate tatrāpi tenaiva puņyamapi ākalitamiti drasļavyam jāānaphalāpekṣayā nikṛṣṭaphalatvāt, Śrī Śaṅkara's commentary on the Brahma-sūtra, IV, i, 14.

It follows from the above that the knowledge of Brahman destroys past merits and demerits, and since it removes the sense of agency no future merit or demerit clings to the one who has realized Brahman. 12

There is one important point to be noted in this connection. When it is said that the past merits and demerits of a person are destroyed, we have to make a distinction between two kinds of past merits and demerits, namely, sancita-the merits and demerits which have not fructified, and prārabdhathe merits and demerits which have begun to yield their results and have produced the body through which a person has attained knowledge. The Brahma-sūtra 13 states that the merits and demerits which have not fructified are annihilated by the direct experience of Brahman. But the merits and demerits which have started giving their results and which have produced the body through which a person has attained the direct experience of Brahman are not annihilated by the latter. Knowledge could arise to an individual soul only when it is embodied. And body is produced by merits and demerits which have evidently started yielding their results. When it is thus clear that the rise of knowledge is based upon the body produced by

^{72.} Brahma-sutra, IV, i, 13-14.

merits and demerits that have started yielding their results, it is but natural that knowledge cannot annihilate the latter. Such an individual who is free from the accumulated merits and demerits that have not fructified and who is living out only his fructified merits and demerits is called a jivan-mukta—one who is liberated while embodied. His body continues to exist by the merits and demerits that are fructified.

Now it is necessary to deal with the factor that sustains the fructified deeds. Madhusūdana Saras. vatī in his Advaita-siddhi sets forth two views. The first view is that it is samskara or a residuum of avidyā after the latter has been removed by the direct experience of Bhahman that sustains the fructified deeds. This he explains by means of a simile. Just as the fragrance of flowers persists in the vessel even after the flowers have been taken away, so also a residuum of avidyā (samskāra) persists even after it has been removed. This samskāra is present in the pure consciousness, that is, the released soul.75 The other wiew is: Of the two powers of avidyā, namely, āvarana-śakti and viksepa-śakti, it is only the avarana-śakti that is removed by the direct experience of Brahman. The

^{74.} brahmajñānam na pravṛttaphalakarmabijadāhakam pravṛttaphalakarmakāryatvāt; bhōgavat, PV., p. 1031.

^{75.} Advaita-siddhi, (Nirnaya Sagar Press), p. 890.

viksepa-sakti, however, persists even after the rise of the direct experience of Brahman and this residual portion of avidyā is termed avidyāleśa. sustains the fructified deeds that account for the continuance of the body in the case of a jivanmukta. This explanation Madhusūdana Sarasvatī gives in his commentary Sārasamgraha on Samksepaśārīraka. This viksepa-šakti has three aspects. Of these, one gives rise to the notion that the universe is absolutely real. The second one gives rise to the notion that the universe, though not absolutely real, is empirically real. That is, the objects of the universe, can be adapted to practical. needs of life. These two powers are removed by the direct experience of Brahman. The third one gives rise to the apparent presentation of the universe; and it is not annihilated by the direct experience of Brahman. It is avidyā associated with this power and divested of the other two powers that is termed avidyāleśa. " Another definition of avidyāleśa is: The subtle form of avidyā after the latter is annihilated by the direct experience of Brahman is avidualesa. 70

It is not clear from the Prakţārthavivarana as to the view which Anubhūtisvarūpācārya accepts in order to account for the persistence of the fructi-

^{76.} Samkşepaśärīraka, IV, 40.

^{77.} Advaita-siddhi, p. 891.

^{78.} Ibid., p. 892.

fied deeds. But this much is certain that any one of the above views must be admitted in order to explain the concept of jīvanmukti. The jīvanmukta's life has two phases: It is either samādhi when he turns inwards and loses himself in Brahman; or the condition known as vyutthana or revision to empirical life when he wakes back to variety. The world does appear to him then; but it does not delude him, since he has once for all realized its falsity. Śrī Sankara in his commentary on the Brahma-sūtra says: 'One who has realised his identity with Brahman does not have the worldly experience just as before, whereas one who considers the world to be real and is deluded by it has not realized his identity with Brahman. " Such a one known as jīvanmukta, in order to be Brahman waits for nothing else but the extinction of the merits and demerits that have already begun to fructify and have produced the body through which he has attained the knowledge of Brahman. The Chandogyo' panisad text 'He waits so long only as he is not freed from the body; then he becomes free, affirms this view. The Brahma-sūtrasi states that the merits and demerits which have begun to

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na avagatabrahmātmabhāvasya yathāpūrvam samsāritvam, yasya tu yathāpūrvam samsāritvam nāsau avagatabrahmātmabhāvaḥ, Srī Śankara's commentary on the Brahma-sūtra, I, i, 4.

^{80.} VI, xiv, 2.

^{81.} See 1V, i, 19, and also IV, i, 14.

bear fruit are exhausted only by experiencing their fruits. And then avidyāleśa or avidyā-samskāra—the sustaining factor of the fructified merits and demerits is annihilated by the continuing knowledge of Brahman. The body of the jīvanmukta falls off and he becomes Brahman itself. This is videhamukti And Brahman which is pure consciousness and absolute bliss is free from avidyā and bodily organisms then. This is liberation.

Bhaskara, however, criticises the concept of jīvanmukti He says that the expression-one who is liberated and yet living is a contradiction in terms. He thinks that liberation means absence of embodiment, and this could be attained only in a hereafter and not here and now. Anubhūtisvarūpā. carya points out that an individual soul is said to be released because in his case there is the annihilation of merits and demerits that would give rise to a future birth. He is considered to be living; for, his physical body experiences the results of the fructified merits and demerits. He is said to have become Brahman because in his case there is the removal of erroneous notion that he is not Brah. man. Bhāskara's criticism of the concepts of jīvanmukti, therefore, is based upon his ignorance of the Advaitic view-points. 82

^{82.} PV. p. 1031.

v

Conclusion

Anubhūtisvarūpācārya flourished in an age when Advaita had to contend against the Nyāya-Vaiśeṣika and the Bhedā-bheda schools. By criticising the Nyāya-Vaiśeṣika school and by refuting the objections of the Bhedā-bheda school against Advaita and by setting forth his distinct views on the concept of māyā-avidyā Anubhūtisvarūpācārya rendered a solid service to the cause of Advaita. But it is a misfortune that for all that he wrote he became a forgotten author in the history of Advaita.

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सप्ताराध्वित तापभानुकि (णप्रोद्भृतदाहब्यथाः

खिन्नानां जलकांक्षया मरुग्रुवि आन्त्या परिश्राम्यताम् । अन्यापन्नमुधामबुधि सुखकरं ब्रह्माद्वयं दर्शय-त्येषा शङ्करभारती विजयते निर्वाणसंदायिनी ॥

samsārādhvani tāpabhānukiraņaprodbhūtadāhavyathā
khinnānām jalakānkṣayā marubhuvi bhrāntyā
paribhrāmyatām,
atyāsannasudhāmbudhim sukhakaram brahmād
vayam daršayatyesā šankarabhāratī vijayate nirvānasamdāyinī.

To those who are afflicted, in the way of the world, by the burning pain given rise to by the scorching sun-shafts of misery, and who through delusion wander about in the desert (of worldliness) seeking water—showing the felicitous—ocean of nectar, which is very near, the non-dual Brahman, this the Voice of Sinkara—is victorious, leading, as it does, to liberation,