THE

SĀMKHYA--KĀRIKĀ

Is'vara Kṛṣṇa's Memorable Verses on Sāmkhya Philosophy with the Commentary of Gaudapādācārya

श्रीमदीश्वरकृष्णप्रणीताः सगौडपाद्भाष्याः

सांख्यकारिकाः

Critically edited with Introduction, Translation and Notes
BY

Vidyāsudhākara Dr Har Dutt Sharma, M.A., Ph.D.,



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विस्तृतोपोद्घातपाठान्तरटिपण्यादिभिः समलङ्कृताः

BY

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INTRODUCTION

I. The Origin of Philosophical Enquiry

In this world, the end of all activity is happiness. Nobody even in his imagination likes to suffer pain even for a moment. Even those who commit suicide do so only when they are sorely disgusted with the pains inherent in Samsāra. Truly has it been said by our elders, "Every one desists from pain; every one desires happiness." But what happiness is cannot be very well explained by those who lack philosophical insight. The enjoyment of sense-objects which people resort to as 'pleasure' day and night and for which they put forth their utmost effort is considered by philosophers as entirely undesirable. mixed as it is always with pain. So the wise leave all worldly enjoyments even as one does honey mixed with poison and seek the highest end of human existence which alone leads to final and absolute happiness; and after they have attained it for themselves, they are moved with pity for the creatures quivering in the well of miseries and for their good they apply themselves to the propagation of the truth attained. Thus do the wise explain the Origin of Philosophical Enquiry.

II. The Significance of Sāmkhya Philosophy

Of all the philosophical systems, Sāmkhya has been considered by all to be the most ancient. Nobody can gain-say the fact that this occupies a prominent place in all the S'āstras, since this is either supported or controverted by every philosophical system. Therefore, the importance of this S'āstra is recognised by all the systems. S'aṅkarācārya says—"The doctrine, moreover, stands somewhat near to the Vedānta doctrine since, like the latter, it admits the non-

difference of cause and effect, and it, moreover, has been accepted by some of the authors of the Dharma-sūtras, such as Devala, and so on. For all these reasons we have taken special trouble to refute the pradhāna doctrine." (S. B. E., XXXIV, p. 289). So also in the Mahābhārata we read—"There is no knowledge like that of Sāmkhya, no power like that of Yoga. You should have no doubt as to Sāmkhya being the highest knowledge." (S'ānti. 316, 2).

Though the use of the word Sāmkhya is found first of all in the S'vet. Up.—तत्कारणं सांख्ययोगाधिगम्यं etc., (VI, 13), yet Sāmkhya reflections are found even in the Rgveda and the other Upaniṣads. This proves the antiquity of this S'āstra. This will be made clear in detail further on.

Sāmkhyā is derived from the word samkhyā. The word samkhyā is used in the sense of thinking and counting. Cf. "चर्चा संख्या विचारणा" (Amara I. V. 3). Thinking may be with reference to basic principles or knowledge of Self. Counting refers to the twenty-four principles and as akti, atuṣṭi, etc. The double implication of the word has been set forth by Vijñānabhikṣu in his preface to Sāmkhya pravacanabhāṣya, by a quotation from the Mbh.—

" संख्यां प्रक्ववंते चैव प्रकृतिं च प्रचक्षते । तत्त्वानि च चतुर्विंशत्तेन सांख्यं प्रकीर्तितम् ॥ "

So, $S\bar{a}mkhya$ means knowledge of Self through right discrimination. Garbe is of opinion that the word $S\bar{a}mkhya$ was originally used in the sense of counting, and it was then applied to the system of Kapila which enumerates the 25 principles. (For details and the opinion of Jacobi, see S. P., p. 189, 2n. and pp. 190–191). Jayacandra S'armā says with regard to $S\bar{a}mkhya$ in $S\bar{a}mskrta$ -Candrikā, a magazine which became defunct long ago, that the $S\bar{a}mkhya$ is tawny, with deep-brown face, and has a big belly. He has a rosary in his hand and a staff, and keeps long nails and hair. (Ādipurāṇa quoted. VII of 1821 S'aka, Vol. 1 and 2, p. 8). Really

colour and for the founder of Sāmkhya Philosophy, therefore, owing to the similarity of word the writer of the Purāṇa has indulged in conjectures of his own. It appears that the writer of the Purāṇa at the time of writing happened to see some sage with tawny face and corpulent body and was led to describe his form and colour.

Some scholars, seeing the rejection of Iśvara in the Sāmkhya-system, have maintained that it is vedaviruddha or opposed to S'ruti (S. S., p. 21 f.; S. P., 13 ff.). S'ankarācārya also, seeing that Sāmkhya is opposed to advaita, avers that Sāmkhya is not rooted in the S'rutis.

"Although there are many Smrtis treating of the soul, we have singled out for refutation the Sāmkhya and Yoga because they are widely known as offering the means for accomplishing the highest end of man and have found favour with many competent persons. Moreover, their position is strengthened by a Vedic passage referring to them, 'He who has known that cause which is to be apprehended by Sāmkhya and Yoga he is freed from all fetters' (S've. Up. VI, 13)., we refute by the remark that the highest beatitude is not to be attained by the knowledge of Sāmkhya Smrti irrespective of the Veda, nor by the road of Yoga-practice." (S. B. E., XXXIV, pp. 297-8). In deciding also the vaidika or the non-vaidika character of Sāmkhya, the great S'ankara says—"The scriptural passage which the purvapaksin has quoted as proving the eminence of Kapila's knowledge would not justify us in believing in such doctrines of Kapila (i. e., of some Kapila) as are contrary to scriptures, for that passage mentions the bare name of Kapila (without specifying which Kapila is meant), and we meet in tradition with another Kapila, viz., the one who burned the sons of Sagara and had the surname of Vāsudeva." (S. B. E., XXXXV. D. 294).

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Similarly others have also maintained the opposition of Sāmkhya to S'ruti. Truly speaking, Sāmkhya could be divided into two—one ses'vara, the other nirīs'vara. Let the theists not take the nirīs'vara-Sāmkhya, propounded in the Kārikā, etc., as rooted in S'ruti, but who can take exception to the vaidika character of the ses'vara-Sāmkhya as propounded in the Upaniṣads, the Mahābhārata and the Purāṇas? For instance, we come accross 'yathā-s'rutinidars'ana as a synonym of Sāmkhya in —

एतानि नव सर्गाणि तत्त्वानि च नराधिप। चतुर्विशतिरुक्तानि यथाश्रुतिनिदर्शनात्॥

(Mbh., S'ānti., 310, 25)

In the 313th chapter of S'antiparvan, in the section describing the intrinsic, extrinsic and super-natural aspects of the vibhūtis of Prakrti many synonyms of the upholders of Sāmkhya are met with; e. g., ब्राह्मणास्तत्त्वदर्शिन: (v. 1) तत्त्वार्थ-दर्शिन:. (2) योगप्रदर्शिन:. (3) संख्यानदर्शिन:. (4) योगनिदर्शिन:. (5) यथा-श्रुतिनिद्दर्शिनः, (6,7,8 and 9) तत्त्वबद्धिविशारदाः, (10) यथाशस्त्रिविशारदाः, (11) तत्त्वनिद्दर्शिनः, (12) यथावद्दभिद्दर्शिनः, (13). Here the word Yathās'rutinidars'inah' being repeated four times establishes the vaidika character of theistic Sāmkhva. Moreover. even the atheistic Sāmkhya is vaidika in character, inasmuch as the traditional categories have been borrowed from Upanisads, etc. [Jacobi takes the atheistic Sāmkhya as older, and believes that there has been an attempt for the synthesis of the theistic and the atheistic Sāmkhyas in the later Upanisads, the Bhagavadgītā and portions of the Mahābhārata. vide-Ent. Gott. p. 32]. Therefore, from the presence of the names of the acarvas of Samkhva in the offering to Rsis. it may be fairly guessed that in olden times, even the most staunch theists undertook the study of Sāmkhya. (S. S., p. 22). This could not have been possible if Sāmkhya was not founded on S'rutis.

III. Germs of Sāmkhya in the Vedas, etc.

The presence of Sāmkhya categories in the S'rutis in a germinal form corroborates the former guess. We do not mean to say that the principles of Sāmkhya in their detail are to be sought in the Vedas and Upaniṣads as propounded by Sāmkhya-Kārikā. That would be as ridiculous as trying to find out the great banyan tree in its minute seed. Tamas described in the Rgveda (X. 129, 3) "तम आसीत्तमसा गृळहमग्रेऽ-प्रकृतं" etc., assumed later on the form of the Unmanifest. This very S'ruti, showing the dissolution of the elements and the elemental world in its cause, the darkness, points to satkāryavāda. Sāyana also favours this interpretation in his bhāṣya on this verse. Giving this very interpretation elsewhere, the Veda even explains Aja (the unborn) as the name of Pradhāna—

तिमद्गर्भं प्रथमं देध आपो यत्रं देवाः समग्च्छन्त विश्वं । अजस्य नामावध्येकमपितं यस्मिन् विश्वानि भवनानि तस्युः ॥ (Rgveda, x. 82, 6)

Chronologically, Jacobi has divided the Upanisads into four divisions on account of their variety, their origin in different times, and their subject-matter (Ent. Gott. p. 6 and 19; H. I. P. I, p. 28 ff; I. P. I., p. 141 ff.).

- 1. The most ancient: as, Bṛhadāraṇyaka, Chāndogya, Taittirīya, Aitareya and Kausītaki.
- 2, Ancient: as, Kāṭhaka, Iśa, S'vetās'vatara, Munḍaka and Mahānārāyaṇa.
 - 3. Modern: as, Praśna, Maitrāyaṇī and Māṇdūkya.
 - 4. Most modern: the many Atharvana Upanisads.

Among the most ancient ones, in the Br. Up., the Purusa is declared to be only a seer, not a doer, devoid of activity in as much as he is without any association with anything (in

reality) as in "स वा एष एतिस्मिन् संप्रसादे रत्वा चिरत्वा दृष्ट्वैव........... असङ्गो ह्ययं पुरुष इत्येवमेवैतवाज्ञवल्क्य" (IV. 3, 15 ff). The word mahat is indicative of the Sāmkhya word Buddhi in "स यथा सन्यव.....यतो यतस्त्वाददीत लवणमेवैवं वा अर इदं महदूतमनन्तमपार्र विज्ञानचन एवैतेभ्यो भूतेभ्यः समृत्थाय etc." (Bṛ Up. II. 4, 12). The term Vijñānaghana expounds the intelligent nature of Buddhi. [Jacobi says that it is very surprising how Sāmkhya attributes unconsciousness to Buddhi which is by nature intelligence. vide, Ent. Gott. p. 32. In this connection, consult also the Vātsyāyana Bhāṣya on the Gautama-Sūtra "इदि-रुपल्डियज्ञीनमित्यनथान्तरम्" (1.15).]

In the Ch. Up. (VI. 2. 1) having first introduced the theory of satkāryavāda in " सदेव सोम्येदमय आसीदेकमेवाद्वितीयम the S'ruti in the same mantra mentions the pūrva-paksa of asat-kārvavāda in " तद्वैक आहरसदेवेदमय आसीदेकमेवाद्वितीयं तस्मादसतः मजायत". It then advances in the next mantra satkār yavāda that is, (सतः सजायते), as a contradiction of the previous statement, e. g., " कुतस्तु खलु सोम्यैवं स्यादिति होवाच कथमसतः सजायेतेति, सत्त्वेव सोम्येदमय आसीदेकमेवाद्वितीयम् " (VI. 2, 2). Here the difference from S'ānkara-Vedānta is that it accepts the aggregate of effects as real and not unreal like maya. It maintains that this aggregate of effects exists as a reality in the cause. Thus it clearly expounds satkāryavāda. The cause has been signified as real. This has also been indicated in the mantra यथा सोम्पैकेन मृत्पिण्डेन सर्वे मृत्मयं विज्ञातं स्याद्वाचारम्भणं विकारो नामधेयं मृतिकेत्येव सत्यम् ' (Ch. Up. VI. 1, 4). Thus arose the Parināmavāda of the Sāmkhyas (Ent. Gott., p. 14). From this reality or existence were produced fire. earth. etc. The expounding of three forms of these objects in " यदग्रे रोहितं रूपंः तेजसस्तद्र्षं, यच्छुक्कं तद्दपां, यत्कृष्णं तद्दत्रस्यापागाद्यग्रेरप्रित्वं वाचारम्भणं विकारो नामचेयं त्रीणि रूपाणीत्येव सत्यम् '' (Ch. Up., VI 4, 1) is only an earlier form of the Sattva, Rajas and Tamas of the Sāmkhya philosophy. The redness of fire indicates Rajas. Just as-

red colour colours cloth, etc., so Rajas colours citta, because of its property of activity. Even so, the whiteness of water indicates Sattva, because white water has the property of purifying things. Sattva also purifies the mind with knowledge. The dark colour of anna = Earth is an indication of Tamas. The dark colour covers everything. Even so, the insentient Tamas covers the knowledge born of Sattva. [See, Bāla, p. 3. What has been propounded by Sūryanārāyaṇa Sastri in contradiction of this will be found in the Introduction, S. N. S.]. This very thing is propounded in the mantra "अजामेकां लोहितग्रुक्तकृष्णाम्" (S'v. Up. IV 5; Mahānārāyaṇa Up., p. 141, Īśādi). The trivṛtkaraṇa (trebling) S'ruti found in the (Ch. Up. VI. 4 and 5) also corroborates this opinion. We also see that the word trivita has been used in the sense of the three Attributes in "तमेकनोमें त्रिवृतम् etc." (S'v. Up. I, 4) also. There the three-foldness of grain, etc., has been indicated by the gross, the medium and the small sizes. It appears that the three-foldness of the Attributes has also been used similarly. Jacobi has also accepted this (Ent. Gott., p. 32).

The Sāmkhya categories are clearly stated in the later Upaniṣads, e. g., in Katha "मनसन्तु परा बुद्धिवृद्धेरात्मा महान् परः (III, 10). Mahat is the synonym of Ahankāra. Similarly we find Avyakta and Puruṣa in "महतः परमव्यक्तमव्यक्तात्पुरुषः परः। पुरुषात्र परं किञ्चित्सा काष्टा सा परा गतिः॥" (Ibid, III, 11), Prof. Radhakrishnan believes that the indifference and inactivity of Puruṣa have been indicated in "द्वा मुपणां सयुजा सखाया समानं वृक्षं परिषस्वजाते। तथोरन्यः पिष्पछं स्वाद्वति अनअत्रन्यो अभिचाकजीति॥" in the Mundaka Up. (III, 1) [I. P. I, 259, In].

It is a well-known fact that S'vetās'vatara is essentially a Sāmkhya Upaniṣad. It abounds in the Sāmkhya categories. For instance in this alone, the words Sāmkhya and Kapila have been used for the first time. "तत्कारणं सांह्य-

योगाधिगम्यम् " (VI. 13). "ऋषिं प्रमृतं कपिलं यस्तमग्रे " (V. 2). In this connection, we shall show later that there is a good deal of controversy about the word Kapila. It is again in this Upanisad that the words vyakta, avyakta and jña are found, e. g., "संयुक्तमेतत्क्षरमक्षरं च व्यक्ताव्यक्तं भरते विश्वमीशः etc." (1.8); also " ज्ञाशो द्वावजावीशानीशावजा खेशा etc." (1.9). vide also the Mbh. "अज्ञो जन्तुरनीशोऽयमात्मनः सुखदु:खयोः" (III. 30. 88. This whole verse is quoted in the Gauda. on the 61st Kārikā). Similarly, the use of the words Pradhana, Prakrti and guna is also found here, e. g. "क्षरं प्रधानम " (1, 10), "मायां त प्रकृति विचात् ' (IV, 10). ' देवारमशाक्तिं स्वगुणैनिग्रदाम् ' (I, 13), etc. Also. the mantra "तमेकनेमिं त्रिवृतं षोडशान्तं शतार्थारं विंशतिप्रत्यराभि:। अष्टकै: षड्मिर्विश्वरूपैकपाशं त्रिमार्गभेदं द्विनिमित्तैकमोहम्॥" (S'v, Up. 1, 4) propounds the categories of Sāmkhva. The word trivrta refers to the three gunas, the word sodas' anta refers to sixteen vikāras, the word s'atārdhāra points to the fifty varieties o pratyaya sarga. Keith's doubt about the Samkhya character of this verse will not bear examination (S. S. p. 11). He has given up the reasonable interpretation and says. "The worth of such identifications must be regarded as uncertain and no conclusive evidence is afforded by them. as plays on numbers are much affected by the Brahmanical schools." But he has not given any different interpretation himself and is, therefore, open to the charge of leaving the present and the relevant in favour of the absent and the irrelevant.

But simply on the basis of the presence of a few technical terms of Sāmkhya, we should not conclude that a particular Upaniṣad propounds Sāmkhya doctrines. For instance, in places like "मायां त प्रकृतिं विचान्मायिनं तु महेश्वरम" (S'v. Up. Iv. 10) though there is a technical term of Sāmkhya, yet it appears that it is only supporting the Vedānta doctrine. Therefore, seeing that Sāmkhya comes closely after Vedānta in these Upaniṣadas, Jacobi declares that there cannot be

any two opinions among scholars with regard to the fact that the rise of the Sāmkhya and Yoga systems lies between the most ancient and the ancient Upanisads. (Ent. Gott. p. 21).

Among the modern Upanisads, the mention of Sativa, Rajas and Tamas by name, the exposition of the five subtle elements, the enunciation of the five gross elements and reference to the Sāmkhya categories of kṣetrajña, samkalpa, adhyavasāya, abhimāna and linga clearly show that these Upanisads come after the formulation of the Sāmkhya system. As—"तमो वा इद्दमेकमास, तत्पश्चात्तत्परेणोरितं विषमत्वं प्रयात्येतद्वे रजसो रूपं......सोंडशोऽयं यश्चेतनमात्रः प्रतिपुर्षं क्षेत्रज्ञः संकल्पाध्यवसायाभिमानिकाः प्रजापितः etc." (Maitrāyanī, Up. IV, 5), "पञ्चतन्मात्राणि भूतशब्देनोच्यन्ते पंचमहाभृतािन भूतशब्देनोच्यन्ते etc. (Ibid III,2), "पृथिवी च पृथिवीमात्रा चापश्चापोमात्राः etc. (Pr. up IV. 8) and so on.

In the Mbh, and the Purāṇas, we find Sāmkhya philosophy fully reflected. At one place we find the mention of the five gross elements, the twenty-four categories in their manifested or unmanifested character and the three gunas (Mbh. III, 209, 16-21; 211, 4). The distinction between $Prak_{r}ti$, and Purusa has been extensively expounded in S'antiparvan (285, 33-40). Here the word sattva stands for Prakṛti and not Brahman. But Keith, seeing that sattva was used as the subject of comparison of a spider, erroneously maintains that sattva is referring to Brahman (S. S., p. 17). It will be clear from the two verses quoted below that his explanation is erroneous, since it is opposed to the context :—" मूजते हि गुणान् मस्वं क्षेत्रज्ञः परिपञ्चति । सम्प्रयोगस्तयोरेष सत्त्वक्षेत्रज्ञयोध्वेवः॥ ३७ ॥ स्वभावामिद्धमेवै-तयिदमान् मृजते गुणान् । ऊर्णनाभिर्यथा सूत्रं विज्ञेयास्तन्तुवद् गुणाः ॥ ३८॥ ". We find a reference in the Mbh. of Sāmkhya knowledge being called Vais'esika which was imparted to Janaka by Pañcasikha of Parāsara gotra, e. g., "यस्माच्चैतन्मया प्राप्नं ज्ञानं वंशेषिकं पुरा " (S'ānti. 330, 23a). There again, three paths of emancipation have been described. We find there from the

context that leaving aside the paths of mere knowledge or action, Sāmkhya lays down a third kind of path, viz., a combination of knowledge and action. S'ānti, 320, 38—40. In this connection, vide my article, P. O. C., Lahore, II, 1027f).

In the dialogue between Janaka and Sulabhā, the latter uses the word $S\bar{a}mkhya$ in the sense of a particular kind of a sentence .—" सौक्ष्म्यं सांख्यकमौ चोभौ निर्णय: सप्रयोजनः। पञ्चेतान्यर्थ-जातानि वाक्यमित्युच्यते नृप ॥ दोषाणां च ग्रणानां च प्रमाणं प्रविभागतः। कंचिद्रर्थमभिप्रेत्य सा संख्येत्यप्रधार्यताम् ॥" (S'ānti. 320, 79 and 82). But at one place in the Mbh., thirty qualities of a body have been metioned. This classification of qualities is not met with in the Sāmkhya philosophy e. g., (1) S'abda, (2) Spars'a. (3) Rasa, (4) $R\overline{u}pa$, (5) Gandha, (6-10) the five senses, (11) Manas, (12) Buddhi, (13) Sattva, (14) Aham-kartā, (15) Sāmagrya, (16) Sanghāta, (17) Prakrti, (18) Vyakti. (19) Dvandvayoga, (20) $K\bar{a}la$, (21-25) the five gross elements, (26) $Sadbh\bar{a}$. vayoga, (27) Asadbhāvayoga, (28) Vidhi, (29) S'ukra and (30) Bala (S'ānti. 320, 97-112). So it has been said:—"विंशति-र्दशचैवं हि गुणा: संख्यानत: स्मृता:। समग्रा यत्र वर्तन्ते तच्छरीरमिति स्मृतम्॥" (ibid, 112). There, the eight-fold varieties of Prakrti and sixteen varities of modifications have been described in the 310th chapter of the same parvan. Again, the nine kinds of creation mentioned there are not found in Sāmkhva books. They are as given below:

(1) The creation of mahat from avyakta, (2) from mahat there is the creation of ahamkāra, (3) from the latter of manas, (4) from it, that of the five gross elements, (5) from these, that of five attributes, (6) from these, that of five senses, (7) from these, that of "connected with the senses (aindriyaka)," (8) from this, that of the upper and oblique varieties and (9) from the oblique, there is the creation of the lower variety. Thus, there is mutual discrepancy in the doctrines expounded in the Mbh. The categories taught by Pañcas'ikha in S'ānti. 219, are nowhere obtained in the

Sāmkhya. A teaching of this very teacher, quite different from that mentioned above, is found in 321, 96-112 of the S'ānti. In the 274th chapter, the doctrines expounded by Devala are different from every other. But even in the midst of divergent expositions of Sāmkhya doctrines, all agree with regard to the exposition of Brahman or Īs'vara. Even though the plurality of puruṣas has been accepted, Brahman has been described as the basis of all. (vide— "बहुनां पुरुषाणां स यथेका योनिरुच्यते," S'ānti 350. 26). Āsuri, having taught Sāmkhya to Pañcas'ikha, got merged in Brahman— "यत्तदेकाक्षरं ब्रह्म नानारूपं प्रहरयते । आसुरिमंण्डहे तस्मिन् प्रतिपेदे तद्व्ययम् ॥" (S'ānti, 218, 13).

In the Bhagavadgītā also, we do not find atheism among the Sāmkhyas. Rather we find the antiquity and dualism of Sāmkhya propounded in it (Tilak's Gītārahasya, Hindi translation by Sapre, p. 514, 1917 edn.). Kapila, the pioneer of Sāmkhya philosophy has been described by Lord Kṛṣṇa as an example of his own glory; e. g. "सिद्धानां किपटो छनि:" (Bh. G. X, 26). Here the Sāmkhya path without karman is only a synomym of Jñāna. Therefore S'ankarācārya explains the word kṛṭānṭa as " कृतिमिति कर्मोच्यते। तस्यान्तः परिस्माप्तियंत्र स कृतान्तः कर्मान्त इत्येतन्॥" (Bh. G. XVIII, 13). S'ankarācārya explains the word guṇasamkhyāna (Bh. G. XVIII, 19) as the system of Kapila the subject-matter of which is the exposition of the three guṇas, viz. Sattva, Rajas and Tamas.

Again in the 3rd chapter of Bhāgavata Purāṇa, the Sāmkhya doctrines in detail tend to propound devotion to Viṣṇu. Among the Purāṇas also, the various traditional schools interpret Sāmkhya doctrines in their own way (see V. P. VI. 5, 2–8; VI. 4, 35 Sk. P. Prabhāsa-khaṇḍa, 18, 13–15; Brah. P. ch. 213 ff).

In the Manu-smrti also which is contemporary with the Mbh. (S. S, p. 52) there is a detailed description of Sattva, Rajas and Tamas (XII. 24-52) and reference to the three pramānas (ibid, 105). But the word Sāmkhya is not found

in it. Medhātithi, commenting on "आकाशातु विक्रवांणात् सर्वगन्य-वहः ग्राचेः। (1.76), says—विक्रवांणादहङ्कारादाकाशस्तरमाद्वायः—, and thus indicates the presence of Sāmkhya doctrine. In Viṣṇusmṛti, the distinction of Puruṣa from the twenty-four categories, preceded by discrimination, has been clearly described. One of the stanzas (XX, 25) of this Smṛti very closely corresponds with the comment on the second Kārikā by Gauḍapāda (S. S. p. 52). In the S'ankha-samhitā we find twenty-five categories, but Puruṣa is identified with Viṣṇu (VII 21-25). Yājñavalkya Smṛti has also been influenced by Sāmkhya, e. g. चढेरूपित्तरव्यकात्रतोऽहङ्कारसम्भवः। तन्मात्रादीन्यहङ्कारादकोत्तरगुणानि च॥ (III, 179 ff.). We have already said that the Sāmkhya categories expounded in these books give prominence to İs'vara (See also Bh. Com. pp. 183-4, where Belvalkar points out five stages of the evolution of Sāmkhya doctrines.)

IV. Sāmkhya Teachers

Names of twenty-six Sāmkhya teachers are met with in the Smrtis, the Mbh., the Kārikās, etc. They are as follows:-

(1) Kapila, (2) Āsuri, (3) Pañcas'ikha, (4) Vindhyavāsa, or Vindhyavāsaka or Vindhyavāsin, (5) Vārṣagaṇya, (6) Jaigṣavya, (7) Voḍhu, (8) Asitadevala or Devala, (9) Sanaka, (10) Sanandana, (11) Sanātana, (12) Sanatkumāra, (13) Bhṛgu, (14) S'ukra, (15) Kās'yapa, (16) Parās'ara, (17) Garga or Gārgya, (18) Gautama, (19) Nārada, (20) Ārṣtiṣeṇa (21) Agastya, (22) Pulastya, (23) Hārīta, (24) Ulūka, (25) Vālmīki and (26) S'uka.

1. Kapila

Mentioned in the S'v. Up. (5,2) for the first time, Kapila is known everywhere as the founder of the Sārikhya philosophy. Many people think that he was not a historical personage. But Garbe, criticising the views of Max-Müller and Colebrooke, believes that the traditionally handed down name of Kapila cannot be regarded as fictitious; there is

another support in the name of the town Kapilavastu of the Budhists (S. Y., 2, § 3). Keith, on the other hand, opines that Kapila was not a historical person as he is found identified with Agni or Viṣṇu or S'iva, and is, therefore, another name for Hiraṇyagarbha (S. S. 9, In; Mbh. 8'ānti. 339, 66-67: 342. 92-93). Kaviraja Gopinatha also agrees with this opinion as expressed by him in the introduction to Jayamangalā published by me (p. 3). Bālarāma Udāsīna, in his footnotes to Yogabhāṣya 1. 25; "आदिविद्वान् निर्माणचित्तमधिष्ठाय कारूण्याद्भगवान् परमर्षिरासुरये जिज्ञासमानाय तन्त्रं प्रोवाच ।" says:—

"(1) आदिविद्वान् सर्गादावाविर्भूतो हिरण्यगर्भः स्वयंभूः, निर्माणिचत्तं = योगबलेन स्वनिर्मितं चित्तमधिष्ठाय = स्वांशेन प्रविश्चय किपलाख्यपरमिष्भूत्वा कारुण्याजिज्ञासवे आसुरये तन्त्रं प्रोवाचेत्यर्थः ॥ (2) 'ऋषिं प्रसूतं किपलं यस्तमये ज्ञानैर्बिभिर्ति जायमानं च पश्चेत् ' इति श्रुत्या किपलस्य जायमानस्य ज्ञानप्राप्तिः श्रूयते ॥ (3) पञ्चमे किपलो नाम सिद्धेशः कालविष्कुतम् । प्रोवाचासुरये सांख्यं तत्त्वयामिविर्निणयम् । (Bhāgavata Purāṇa, I. 3. 11). इति स्मृतौ पञ्चमावतार् त्वोक्तेविर्णोरवतारः किपल इति भावः । 'अग्निः स किपलो नाम सांख्यशास्त्र प्रवर्तकः ' इति महाभारतं तु कल्पभेदेन नेयम् । कल्पभेदेनैव च किपलो ब्रह्मपुत्र इति स्मर्यते ॥ (4) भास्कराचार्यप्रभृतयस्तु ' ऋषिं प्रसूतं किपलें ' इति किपलपदेन्नािपि हिरण्यगर्भ एव गृद्यते ॥ 'यो ब्रह्माणं' इत्यादिबहुपूर्वोत्तरमन्त्रसंवादादित्याहुः॥'' (Ch. S. S. p. 62).

From a quotation in the Baudhāyana (2, 6, 30), we learn that an asura Kapila divided the four āśramas. There is another Kapila also who wrote a Kapilasmṛti dealing with the s'rāddha', vivāha, prāyas'citta ceremonies (H. Dh. I, pp. 25, 525). S'aṅkarācārya also thinks that the Kapila of Sāmkhya is different from the Vedic Kapila (Br. S. Bhāsya II, 1, 1). Ānandagiri, commenting on this says that the Vedic Kapila is that one who reduced the sixty-thousand sons of Sagara to ashes. He is quite different from the Sāmkhya teacher. But we find in the Padmapurāṇa that one Kapila alias Vāsudeva taught the Sāmkhya doctrines to Brahman, Bhṛgu, etc., supported by the Vedas; another Kapila taught (the Sāmkhya) as opposed to all the Vedic tenets (quoted in N. B. S., II 1, 1,

p. 4). But according to the Bhagavata Puraṇa (3.25.1) Vasudeva himself was born as Kapila from the womb of Devahūti कपिलस्तत्वसंख्याता भगवानात्ममायया। जातः स्वयमजः साक्षा-पात्मप्रक्षप्रये नृणाम्॥"

Thus, we find no strong proof for believing Kapila a historical person.

2. Āsuri

There is a difference of opinion also with regard to the reality of Āsuri, the first disciple of Kapila. Kaviraja Gopinatha thinks him to be a historical person (Jay., Int., p. 3). But Garbe and Keith are opposed to this view (S. S. pp. 47-48; S. Y. pp. 2-3: Garbe adds that if Āsuri is really historical then he is different from his namesake mentioned in the S'atapatha-Brāhmaṇa). The two interesting accounts as to how Kapila taught Āsuri are found in the Jayamangalā and the Māṭharavṛtti. In the Mbh., Āsuri is made the teacher of Pañcas'ikha "तत्र पञ्चशिखो नाम कापिलेयो महामुनि: I... आसुर: प्रथमं शिष्यं etc." (S'ānti, 218. 6. 10). We find only one quotation ascribed to Āsuri, viz. "विविक्ते हक्पिएणतो बुद्धा भोगोऽस्य कथ्यते। प्रतिबिम्बोदय: स्वच्छो यथा चन्द्रमसोऽम्भिसी।" in the commentary of Haribhadra on the Saddars'anasamuccaya (p. 36).

3. Pancas'ikha

Pañcas'ikha, the disciple of Āsuri is found quoted in the following works:

A. Y. Bh.—

(अ) '' एकमेव द्शनं ख्यातिरेव दर्शनम् " [१. ४]। (आ) '' आदि-विद्वान् निर्माणचित्तमधिष्ठाय कारूण्याद्भगवान् परमिषरासुरये जिज्ञासमानाय तन्त्रं प्रोवाच "। [१. २५] (इ) '' तमणुमात्रमात्मानमनुविद्याऽस्मीत्येवं तावत्संप्रजानीते " [१. ३६]। (उ) '' व्यक्तमव्यक्तं वा सस्वमात्मत्वेना-भिप्रतीत्य तस्य सम्पद्मनुनन्द्त्यात्मसम्पदं मन्वानस्तस्य व्यापदमनुशोचत्यात्म-व्यापदं मन्वानः स सर्वोऽप्रतिबुद्धः " [२. ५]। (अ) '' बुद्धितः परं पुरुषमाकारशीलविद्यादिभिर्विभक्तमपद्म्यन् कुर्यात्तत्रात्मबुद्धिं मोहेन " [२.६] (ऋ)''स्यात् स्वल्पः सङ्करः सपिरहारः सप्रत्यवमर्षः। कुशलस्य नापकर्षायालम् कस्मात्, कुशलं हि मे बह्वन्यदिस्त यत्रायमावापं गतः स्वर्गेऽप्यपकर्षमल्पं करिष्यति " [२,१३]। (ऋ) '' रूपःतिशया वृश्यतिशयाश्च परस्परेण विरुध्यन्ते, सामान्यानि त्वतिशयैः सह प्रवर्तन्ते " [३,१३]। (ल) '' तुल्यदेशश्चवणानामेकदेशश्चितित्वं भवति " [३,४१.]॥

Vyāsa does not give the name of Pañcas'ikha, but it is Vācaspati who says so.

B. S. Sū.—

(ए) " आधेयशक्तियोगः पञ्चशिखः" [५. ३२]। (ऐ) '' अविवेक-विमित्तो वा पञ्चशिखः [६. ६८]''

C. S. S. B.—

(ओ) "सस्वं नाम प्रसादलाघवाभिष्वङ्गप्रीतितितिक्षासन्तोषादिरूपान-न्तभेदं समासतः सुखात्मकम्, एवं रजोऽपि शोकादिनानाभेदं समासतो दुःखात्मकम्, एवं तमोऽपि निदादिनानाभेदं समासतो मोहात्मकम् "। [१.१२७]।

D. Bhāmatī.—

(ओ) ''तत्संयोगहेतुविवर्जनात्स्यादयमात्यन्तिको दुःखप्रतीकारः" [ब्रह्म-सूत्र, २. २. १०].

E. Gauda. (Kār. 1) and Māth. (Kār. 22)-

(क) " पञ्जविंशतितस्वज्ञो यत्र कुत्राश्रमे रतः । जटी मुण्डी शिखी वापि मुच्यते नात्र संशयः ॥ "

This verse is ascribed to Pañcas'ikha by Bhāvāganes'a in his Tattvayāthārthyadīpana and by Haribhadrasūri in S'āstravārtasamuccaya (see Int. to Māṭharavṛtti). Bhāvāganes'a was the disciple of Vijnānabhikṣu and flourished in the 17th century A.D. The time of Haribhadrasūri is about 725 A.D.

F. Bāla.-

(स्त) ''उभयथा चास्य प्रवृत्तिः प्रधानव्यवहारं लभते ।'' (p. 153).

We find no account of this Pancas'ikha born in the family of Paras'ara (Mbh. S'anti. 320, 23). All the quotations ascribed to him are in prose except the "E". It is just possible that he wrote a prose treatise. According to Garbe Pañcas'ikha flourished in the first century A.D. (S. Y. p. 3). Vyāsa, the author of the Yogabhāṣya, flourished in the 4th century A.D. (I. P. II, 342). It is possible that the writings of Pancas ikha were very common in the 4th century A.D., and, therefore, Vyāsa did not give his name while quoting. As Vācaspati frequently mentions his name, we can safely inferthat the writings of Pancas'ikha were known to him. Was it the Commentary on the Samāsasūtras which fell into the hands of Vācaspati? Vijnanabhiksu refers to Pancas ikha as the author of a commentary on the Samāsasūtras or the Tattvasamāsa; Bhāvāganeśa also says the same thing: '' समाससूत्राण्यालम्ब्य व्याख्यां पञ्चशिलस्य च । " (Int. to Māṭh. p. 2). According to Chinese tradition, Pancas'ikha is the author of Sastitantra (S. S. 48). But this account is not to be believed, as is proved by many writers. Vacaspati, on the other hand, thinks that Sastitantra is a book on Yogaśāstra and its author was Vārsaganya (see Tattv. V. on Y. S. IV. 13; and Bhāmatī on Brahmasūtra II. 1, 3). Kaviraja Gopinatha is of opinion that Vacaspati never saw the Sastitantra (Jay. Int. pp. 4-7). But, according to the late M. M. P. Rāmāvatāra S'armā, Vācaspati knew Ṣaṣṭitantra (Bāla. p. 226). That this Pañcaśikha is different from his namesake in the Mahābhārata is evident from their views; he is different from Gandhabba Pañcas'ikha also (S. S., pp. 48, 51).

4. Vindhyavāsa

The view that Vindyavāsa is to be identified with Isvara-kṛṣṇa is not sound (Jay. Int. pp. 6-7). We find one quotation

from him in the Rājamārtanda of Bhoja: "सत्वतप्यत्वमेव पुरुषतप्यत्वम् (Y. S. IV 23). Medhātithi also quotes his opinion in his Bhāṣya on Manu I. 55: "सांख्या हि केचिन्नान्तराभवमिच्छान्ति विन्ध्यवास-प्रभृतयः। ". This seems to be derived from the S'lokavārtika: '' अन्तराभवदेहस्तु निषिद्धो विन्ध्यवासिना।'' (p. 704). Also in the Saddarśanasamuccaya we find a quotation from him: "पुरुषो-. ऽविकृतात्मेव स्वनिर्भासमचेतनम् । मनः करोति सांनिध्यादुपार्थः स्फटिको यथा॥ '' (p. 36). Vallālasena, king of Bengal (12th century A.D.), has given a list of works which he consulted while compiling his Adbhutasāgara. There we find a work of a certain Sāmkhya teacher named Vindhyavāsin (H. Dh. I, 341, 793n). This proves that the work of Vindhyavāsin was available as late as the 12th century A.D. Tanusukharāma, in his introduction to the Matharavetti (Ch. S. S.), has established an identity between Vindhyavāsin and Vyādi on the basis of quotations from the Trikāṇḍaśeṣa, the Haimakośa and the Samyamināmamālā. He says: स च भगवतो वर्षस्य शिष्यो नन्दसम-कालीन: (Kathasaritsagara, I. 2) पाणिनिसूत्राणां संग्रहाख्यदीकायाः कस्यचित् कोशस्य कर्ता, दाक्षायणे: पतव्जलेरपि पुरोगामी सांख्ययोगाचार्यश्र ॥ '' (p. 3). This leads us to suppose that Vindhyavāsin alias Vyādi, flourished in the 4th century B.C. According to a Chinese tradition Vindhyavāsin wrote a Sāmkhya work called Hiranyasaptati (Bh. Com. p. 175). According to Dr Belvalkar, Hiranyasaptati is a commentary on the Sāmkhyakārikā (ibid 177). But Kaviraja Gopinatha says: "The Anuyogadvārasūtra of the Jainas preserves a list of Brahmanical works, which contains the name of Kanagasattari (Kanaksaptati), which I take to be equivalent to the Suvarnasaptati or Hiranyasaptati, the name of Sāmkhya-saptati familiar in China." (Jay. Int. p. 7, 12n). But it must be noted here that along with the Kanagasattari, we find Mādhara also in the list of the Anuyogadvārasūtra. If Māḍhara stands for the Māṭharavṛtti then it is impossible to conclude that Anuyogadvārasūtra was written in the 1st सां. का. i. 2

century A.D. (F. O. Schrader in a letter to me from Kiel, March 1, 1927). In the Māṭharavṛṭṭi we find: "य्या द्पंणाभाव आभासहानों" a quotation from the Hastāmalakastotra which is of the age of S'ankarācārya (i. e. 780-812 A.D., See Int., Māṭh., p. 5). Therefore, it is wrong to decide the age of Vindhyavāsa or İs'varakṛṣṇa on the basis of the Kanagasattari. And, if Vyāḍi alias Vindhyavāsin, is the author of the Hiraṇyasaptati, then the latter is certainly different from the Sāmkhykārikā, and Vindhyavāsin is different from İs'varakṛṣṇa. Otherwise the date of İs'varkṛṣṇa will have to be pushed back to the 4th century B. C. Therefore, it is safe to conclude, as Keith also says, that there are more than one Vindhyavāsins and that their dates are uncertain (S. S., 79 in; also, Karma., p. 59).

5. Varşaganya

We are as uncertain about Varsaganya as about the former teachers of Sāmkhva. We find two quotations from him in the Vyāsabhāṣya: (1) " मूर्तिव्यवधिजातिभेदाभावात्रास्ति मूछ-पथकत्वं इति वार्षगण्य:। '' (III 53, (2) " गुणानां परमं रूपं न दृष्टिपथमुच्छति । यतु दृष्टिपथं प्राप्तं तन्मायेव सुतुच्छकम् ॥ " (Ibid. IV, 13) Vācaspati thinks that the latter quotation is taken from the Sastitantra. This very verse is quoted by Vācaspati in his Bhāmatī with the remarks : " अत एव योगशास्त्रं व्युत्पादयिता आह स्म भगवान् वार्ष-गण्य: 1" (on the Brahmasūtrabhāsya, II 1, 3). Another quotation from Vārṣaganya, "'पञ्चपर्वा अविद्या' इत्याह स्म भगवान् वार्षगण्य: I " is found in the Tatt. K. (on Kārikā 47). The quotation—" पुरुषाधिष्ठितं प्रधानं प्रवर्तते।" found in the Gaud., and the Māth. (Kārikā 17), is ascribed to Vārsaganya by Keith (S. S. 73, 3n). All these lead us to the conclusion that the Chinese tradition ascribing the authorship of the Sastitantra to Pancasikha is not trustworthy. There is also considerable doubt as to Varsaganya being the author of the Sastitantra (Jay. Int. pp. 4-6; Hiriyanna: "Sastitantra and Varsaganya", Journal of Oriental Research, Madras, April-June, 1929, pp. 107-112). This has been discussed in detail below.

6. Jaigīsavya

According to the Kūrmapurāṇa, Jaigīṣavya was a classfellow of Pañcas ikha (S, S. 51). This Jaigīṣavya is quoted as an authority on Yoga (Y. Bh., II. 55 and III. 18). Vācaspati also refers to him in his Nyāyavārtikatātparyatīkā as the author of Dhāraṇās āstra (on Nyāyasūtra III. 2. 43). But, according to the Buddhacarita (12. 67), Arāḍakalāma refers to Jaigīṣavya, Janaka and Parās ara as persons who obtained salvation through Sāmkhya (Jay., Int. p. 2, 2n.) In the present state of our knowledge, we can say nothing more about Jaigīṣavya.

7. Vodhu

Vodhu is also familiar by name alone. We have not come across any of his writings or quotations. In the list of the names of the sages pronounced in the Rsitarpana, we find the name of Vodhu after that of Āsuri, and before that of Pancas'ikha. The opinion of Weber that it is the Brahmanised form of Buddha's name, is quite untenable (see S. Y. p. 6). Keith has, however, discovered Vodhu's name before that of Āsuri in one of the paris'istas of the Atharvaveda (S. S. 51).

8. Devala

We find a dialogue between Asitadevala and Nārada in the Mahābhārata (S'ānti., Ch., 274). There we find eight kinds of bhūtas (bhāva, abhāva, kāla, pṛthhvī, āpas, vāyu, ākās'a and tejas); and kāla impelled by bhāva creating all the five elements, viz., earth, air, water, wind and glow. The senses themselves are not the knowers but produce knowledge for the kṣetrajña. Higher than the senses is citta, higher than the latter is manas, higher than it is buddhi and the highest of all is puruṣa. The ear, the skin, the eye

the nose, the tongue, the citta, the manas and the buddhi are the eight instruments of knowledge, etc. It is said: there: पण्यपापक्षयार्थं हि सांख्यज्ञानं विधीयते । तत्क्षये ह्यस्य पश्यन्ति ब्रह्म-भावे परां गतिम्।।" (Verse 39). Thus we see that this dialogue deals with theistic Sāmkhya. The quotations from Devala. as found in the Aparārka, a commentary on the Yāinavalkyasmrti, resemble the Tattvasamāsa very much (See Yājñavalkvasmrti, Ānandāśrama, Edn. II, pp. 986-7). Kane, in his H. Dh. Vol. I, p. 121, says that Devala was a contemporary of the Smrtikaras, viz., Brhaspati and Katvavana. And the age of Kātvāvana according to him is between the 4th and 6th centuries A.D. (see p. 218). But Udayavīraśāstri saysthat as Devala is frequently alluded to in the Mahābhārata, his age must be determined by the age of the epic in its present form. The Mahābhārata according to western scholars (says Mr. S'astri), assumed its present form by the 2nd century B.C. (P. O. C. Lahore, II p. 865). But according to Prof. Winternitz, the epic assumed its present form by the 4th century A.D. (See H. I. L. I. pp. 465-475). Devala does not seem to be much older than Isvarakrsna. The theory to the contrary does not seem to be convincing. It is based on the following quotation from the Matharvitti: "कापिलादासारिणाः प्राप्तिमिदं ज्ञानं ततः पव्चिशिखेन तस्माद् भागेव-उल्क-वाल्मीकि-हारीत-देवल प्रभृतीनागतम् ". (p. 84), where the word prabhrti is taken to indicate a wide gap between Devala and Isvarakrsna. But the traditional list found in the Matharavrtti does not tally with any other such list. Therefore, Mathara's quotation can only establish Devala's priority to Isvarakrsna and nothing else.

9-26. Sanaka, etc.

Gauḍapāda (on Kār. I), quotes a verse and a half in which he enumerates the names of the seven sons of Brahman. They are: Sanaka, Sananda, Sanātana, Āsuri, Kapila, Voḍhu and Pañcaśikha. But in the Mahābhārata, the list is different (S'ānti. 340, 67-69), viz., Sana, Sanatsujāta, Sanaka,

Sanandana, Sanatkumāra, Kapila and Sanātana. Unfortunately we find no information about Sanaka, Sanandana, Sanātana, Sana, Sanatsujāta and Sanatkumāra, except a reference to Sanandanācārya in लिङ्गश्रीरनिमित्तक इति सनन्दनाचार्यः। (S. Su. VI, 69). There is a reference to a Sanatkumāra, author of some Smrti, in the Nirnayasindhu and the Tristhalīsetu (H., Dh., I, 656). Similarly we find Bhṛgu, S'ukra, Kāśyapa, Parās'ara, Garga, Gautama, Nārada, Ārṣṭiṣeṇa, Agastya, Pulastya and Hārīta mentioned as writers of Smṛtis (Ibid, index). The dialogue between Parās'ara and Janaka named the Parās'ara gītā, and found in the Mahābhārata (S'anti., Chs., 290-299), deals with the duties of the varnas and ās'ramas and has no vestige of Sāmkhya teaching in it. It is just possible that Parās'ara came to be regarded as a teacher of Sāmkhya because he happened to be born in the same family as Pañcas'ikha (Mbh., S'ānti., 320–23). Ulūka is a synonym for Kaus'ika. In the Chinese translation of the Sāmkhya Kārikā, Is'varakṛṣṇa is referred to as born in the Kaus'ika family (Jay. Int. p. 2. 2n). We know absolutely nothing of Vālmīki and S'uka as teachers of Sāmkhya.

V. Standard Works on Sāmkhya

A. Available :-

Of the standard works on Sāmkhya, only three are available. They are "Sāmkhya-Sūtras", "Tattva-samāsa" and "Sāmkhya-Kārikā".

Some scholars are of opinion that S. Sū. are not written by Kapila. The reason is that we find many passages from other works in them. For example, "आवृतिरसङ्ख्यदेशात्" (Br. S., IV. 1, 1)=S. Sū., IV. 3; "वृत्तयः पञ्चतयः क्रिष्टाक्रिष्टाः" (Y. S., II. 46)=S. Sū., III 34 and VI. 24. Again, in the sūtras establishing the authority of the Vedas (S. Sū., V. 40-51), the influence of the Vedānta is clearly visible. Again, we find amany passages from Sāmkhya-Kārikā, quoted in the

Sūtras. Mādhavācārya of the 14th century A.D., quotes from the Kārikās and not Sūtras in his S.D.S. The oldest commentator on the Sūtras is Aniruddha who flourished in about 1500 A.D. Therefore, the Sūtras must have come into existence between 1380 and 1450 A.D. (See S. Y., pp. 8-9). Moreover, the commentator on the Sarvopakārinī, a commentory on the Samāsa-Sūtra, opines that Kapila, the author of "Sāmkhya-Sūtras" is different from Kapila, the author of Samāsa-Sūtra (Ch., S.S., No. 246, pp. 93-94). But as the author of the S.D.S. does not quote from the Tattva-samāsa even, so the antiquity of the latter also is doubtful. And if the author of the S.Sū., is Kapila, then how did he quote Pañcas'ika, etc., who were his grand-disciples and who, therefore, must have flourished much later (See S.Sū., VI. 68-69)?

But Udayavīra S'āstri has tried to prove that Kapilahimself is the author of the S. Sū., in his article "Antiquity of the Sāmkhya Sūtras" (P. C. C., Lahore, II, pp. 855-882). He is of opinion that several sūtras have been interpolated in the original of Kapila. For example, in the I chapter, the sūtras 20-54 are interpolated, because the 19th sūtra is literally the same as the 55th sūtra, and because the 53rd and 54th sūtras are identical with the 15th and 16th sūtras. And as we find the names of Srughna and Pāṭaliputra in these interpolated sūtras, the interpolation must have been made when these towns were famous (from 4th century B. C., to the 5th century A.D.). The sūtras 79, 80 and 84-115 of the V chapter are also interpolations; the interpolation of these (84-115) is obvious as they discuss the principles opposed to Sāmkhya Philosophy.

Thus Mr. S'astri thinks that 68 sūtras are interpolated. I, on the other hand, think that the entire book was written by some later writer and therein some interpolations might have been made. Mr. S'astri does not give any weighty or conclusive argument in support of his thesis. On the other

hand, when S'ankarācārya and others quote from Sāmkhya-Kārikā only, there is no doubt that the Sūtras did not exist in their time. Had the S. Sū., been existent, then S'ankarā-cārya and others would not have deliberately left aside the composition of a rṣi and quoted from the work of an ordinary mortal like ls'varkṛṣṇa

Mr. S'āstri further tries to prove that V. Bh., and others have borrowed from the S. $S\overline{u}$. His contention is :—

(1) "प्राङ्निष्पत्तोर्निष्पत्तिधर्मकं नाऽसत् उपाद्दाननियमात् = कस्यचिद्धत्पत्तये किंचिद्धपादेयम् " (V. Bh., on N. S., IV. I, 48)—here उपाद्दाननियमात् is borrowed from "उपाद्दाननियमात्" (S. Sū., I, 115). This very sūtra has been quoted again by Vātsyāyana in his gloss on the next N. S., viz., "यत्पुनरुक्तं—प्रागुत्पत्ते: कार्यं नाऽसत् उपाद्दाननियमात् इति". Here the insertion of the word इति shows that it is a quotation from some other work. That other work is S. Sū.

To this we reply—If the word इति is a sure sign of quotation from another work then why did not Vātsyāyana put it after "उपादाननियमात्" in the first passage (V. Bh., on N. S., IV. I, 48) quoted above? And as regards the presence of इति in the second passage, it should be noted that this word is not connected with only "उपादाननियमात्" but the whole passage, viz.,—"प्रागुत्पते: कार्यं नासत् उपादाननियमात्." Here Vātsyāyana merely repeats his own words with slight change. Therefore, it does not show that V. Bh. has borrowed from the S. Sū., rather, it may be just the reverse.

(2) In the Aparārka, a commentary on the Yājñavalkya-Smrti (Prāyas cittādhyāya, v. 109), we find quotations from Devala which resemble the sūtras in S. Sū. very much. Therefore, Devala must have borrowed them from the S. Sū.

Mr. S'astri starts here on the presumption of the priority of the S. Sū., to Devala, a fact which he has to prove.

(3) Patañjali, in his Mahābhāsya, lays down the six causes of non-perception thus—" पद्भिः प्रकारैः सतां भावानामन-

पछाडियभंवति — अतिसनिकषांदितिविप्रकषांन्मूर्यन्तर्ञ्यवधानात्तमसावृत्तत्वादिन्द्रियद्देष्वेल्याद्दतिप्रमाणादिति ॥" On this, Kaiyyaṭa says in his gloss Pradīpa—इतरो विद्यमानस्यापि छिङ्गस्य सौक्ष्म्यमनुपछिथकारणं दर्शयितुमाद्द-पद्भिरिति।"—According to Kaiyyaṭa, Patañjali here quotes from some other work. It seems that he took this view from "सौक्ष्म्यात्तदनुपछिथः" (S. Sū., I. 109) and "कार्यदर्शनात्तदुपछिथः" (S. Sū., I. 109) and "कार्यदर्शनात्तदुपछिथः" (S. Sū., I. 110). Moreover, we find only five causes of non-perception in the S. Sū., but in the Mahābhāṣya, there are six causes of non-perception and in the Sāmkhya-Kārika, there are eight. Therefore, the S. Sū. are the oldest of these three. Moreover, the passage of Kaiyyaṭa viz., "सद्दिष छिङ्गं सूक्ष्मत्वान् प्रत्यक्षेणाशक्यं प्रहीतुं, तत्कृतकार्यदर्शनादनुमीयते।" seems to be based on the two sūtras quoted above.

In reply to Mr. S'astri's arguments, the following may be stated. In the first place, the word इति is not a necessary and sure sign of quotation from some other work or author. Here, the word इति denotes conclusion of his remarks. How can one deny the possibility of these remarks being Patañiali's own? In the second place if, depending upon the word इतर used by Kaiyyata, it is even admitted that Patañjali quotes the actual words of another, what is there to prove that it is the S. Sū., wherefrom, he borrowed? It is most probable that he borrowed the view from some other work. (See H. I. P., I, 218-219). Again, there is nothing to oblige Kaiyyata, who flourished in the 13th century A.D. (H. S. L., p. 431), to borrow from the S. Sū. He might have borrowed from the Sāmkhya-Kārikā. Moreover, the causes of non-perception as given by Patañjali tally more with those in the Sāmkhya-Kārikā than in the S. Sū.

(4) The following sūtras agree verbatim with the Kārikās (a) " हेतुमदिनत्यमन्यापि सिक्तियमनेकमाश्रितं लिङ्गम्" (S. Sū., I. 124 = Kār., 10). (b) "सान्तिकमेकादशकं प्रवर्तते वेकृतादहङ्कारात्" (S. Sū., II. 18 = Kār., 25). (c) "सामान्यकरणवृत्तिः प्राणाचा वायवः पञ्च" (S. Sū., II. 31 = Kār. 29). In (a) and (b) we find different readings.

Avyāpi in (a) has not been commented upon by Aniruddha. The word pravartate in (b) is not found in the Ms. in Mr. S'āstri's possession.

The arguments of Mr. S'astri do not stand a close exami-If Aniruddha did not comment upon the word avyāpi, then it alone does not mean that the word did not exist formerly. Moreover, Vijnanabhikşu has commented upon this word. Again, what is there to prove that the Ms. in Mr. S'āstri's possession is the oldest and the only correct Ms., whose one reading should decide so important a question as the authorship of Kapila. In his zeal to disprove the theory that "the $S\overline{u}$ tras were composed on the basis of the Kārikās," Mr. S'āstri says that if we change the order of words in ' सामान्यकरणबृत्ति: प्राणाया वायव: पञ्च '' and read it as "सामान्य-करणवृत्ति: प्राणाया: पञ्च वायव: " we attain anustubh metre in place of arya. But this flight of imagination, viz., changing the reading itself, is too much to be swallowed even by ordinary people. Therefore, Mr. S'āstri has failed to disprove that the S. Sū. are based upon the Kārikās.

There is a tradition that Paramārtha translated the Kārikās into Chinese in 557-569 A.D., (Bh., Com., pp. 175-178). According to Paramārtha, Buddhamitra the teacher of Vasubandhu, was vanquished in debate by Vindhyavāsa, the Sāmkhya-teacher; Vindhyavāsa died before Vasubandhu. Thus, Vindhyavāsa and Vasubandhu were contemporaries. There is another tradition, according to which Vindhyavāsa was a contemporary of king Bālāditya and pupil of Vārṣa-gaṇya. A third tradition tells us that the pupil of Vārṣa-gaṇya composed Hiraṇyasaptati. But all these traditions should be taken as having no historical value. Otherwise, if Vindhyavāsa, the author of Hiraṇyasaptati and Iśvarkṛṣṇa, the author of Sāmkhya-Kārikā are both identified then it would lead to a historical confusion, as stated above. [Das Gupta also thinks Is'varkṛṣṇa and Vindhyavāsa as two

different persons, see H. I. P., I, 218, 3n]. The only definite conclusion that we can arrive at is that Is'varakṛṣṇa is older than Vasubandhu [in 300 A.D., see V. A. Smith: Early History of India, 3rd edn., pp. 328-334; also Kalipada Bhattacharya: "Some Problems of Sāmkhya Philosophy and Sāmkhya Literature", J. H. Q., Sept., 1932, pp. 519-520. According to Bhattacharya Is'varkṛṣṇa flourished in the 1st century A.D.] and flourished in the second or the third century A.D. The remark of Svapnes'vara, identifying Is'varakṛṣṇa with Kālidāsa, should be rejected as mistaken' (See I. P., II, 255, In.).

The work of Is'varakrsna had 70 verses in it. But now, finding the bhāsya of Gaudapada running upto the 69th verse only and finding that the verses following the 69th have nothing of Samkhva in them, it is believed that one of these verses is missing. The question has been discussed in detail in the foot note to 61st Kārikā. Mr. S. S. Pathak has also attacked this problem (see. "The Problem of the Sāmkhya-Kārikās", I. A., Vol. LII, 1923, pp. 177-181). He says-(1) In the 72nd Kārikā we read the phrase "परवादविवर्जिताश्चापि" which means "free from the opinions of others". This goes against the Kārikā found by the late B. G. Tilak, as the latter expounds the opinions of others in the shape of God, Soul, Time, or Nature being the causes of Creation.—To this we reply: In the Kārikā of Mr. Tilak, the opinion of others has been merely referred to and not expounded. The phrase परवादविवर्जिता: means the exclusion of the expounding of others' opinions and not the exclusion of mere reference even. Otherwise, "दृष्टवदानुश्रविक: स द्यविशुद्धिक्षयातिशययुक्त:" would also be open to fault, for, here there is no exclusion of the opinion of the Mīmāmsakas. (2) Is'varakrsna has summarised the work of Pancas'ikha in his own 'aryās'. Now in the Sastitantra, there is a mention of five alternative opinions (viz., making one of Brahman, Purusa S'akti, Niyati. and Kāla, the cause of creation) which are to be rejected. But in this, Kārikā of Tilak, we find only four. There is nothing to represent S'akti—To this we reply: Is'varakṛṣṇa has summarised the work of Pañcas'ikha. But in the first place, it is not as yet definite that Saṣṭitantra is the work of Pañcas'ikha. Secondly, even if it were so, yet it is not binding upon Is'varkṛṣṇa to give every detail in his summary. The other points raised by Mr. Pathak are covered by the footnote alluded to above.

B. Unavailable.

- (1) Sastitantra. Something has already been said with regard to the controversy of regarding Pañcas'ikha or Vārsaganya as the author of Sastitantra. Here, the question is examined further. Following are the references to Sastitantra in Jay.
- (a) "तेषु च षष्टितन्त्रादिख्यातेष्विति । विस्तरत्वात् पष्टितन्त्रस्य संक्षिप्त- स्चिसत्त्वानुग्रहार्थं सप्तितिकारम्भः।" (p.1). (b) "'त्रिविधमनुमानमाख्यातम् इति षष्टितन्त्रे व्याख्यातम् । पूर्ववत् , शेषवत् , सामान्यतोद्दष्टमिति।" (p.7). (c) "एते षष्टि [:] पदार्थाः। तद्दर्थं शास्त्रं षष्टितन्त्रमुच्यते।" (p.56). (d) "'तेन' इति । पञ्चिशिखेन मुनिना बहुधा कृतं तन्त्रम् । षष्टितन्त्राख्यं षष्टिखण्डं कृतमिति । तत्रैव हि षष्टिर्धा व्याख्याताः।" (p.68). (e) "ननु च षष्टितन्त्रमेवास्तु किं सप्तत्येति।" (p.69). (f) "अत्र षष्टितन्त्रे बहवोऽर्धाः तेऽत्र नोक्ता इत्याह्।" (p.69).

From the above passages, Prof. Hiriyanna infers the following facts (See—"Sastitantra and Vārṣagaṇya", J. O. R., April-June, 1929, pp. 107-112).—(a) Sastitantra has 60 parts, (b) its author is Pañcas'ikha and (c) it deals with 60 topics, and is, therefore, called "Sastitantra". Vārṣagaṇya is not its author, as others think. As regard the verse—

गुणानां परमं रूपं न दृष्टिपथमृच्छति । यत्तु दृष्टिपथं यातं तन्मायेव सुतुच्छकम् ॥

which is quoted in Y. Bh., and Bhāmatī, Vācaspati alludes it to Ṣaṣṭitantra in Tatt. V., and to Vārṣagaṇya in Bhāmatī. On the basis of these two references, people have come to

the conclusion that Vārṣagaṇya is the author of Ṣaṣṭitantra. But the reading in the Y. Bh. is मायेव सुतुच्छकम्, while as the reading in the Bhāmatī is मायेव सुतुच्छकम्. The reading cannot have been deliberately altered by Vācaspati, for a scholar of his reputation would not commit such a crime. On the other hand, from the opinions of Vārṣagaṇya as found quoted in Buddhistic works, it seems that he altered the reading. Moreover, from Bhāskara's remark, viz., "किएडमहर्षिप्रणीतपश्चितन्त्राख्यस्मते:" (on Br. S., II, 1, 1). we can infer that Kapila was the author of a Ṣaṣṭitantra. (See also P. O. C., Lahore, II, p. 882, where Mr. S'āstri states Ṣaṣṭitantra is the real Sāmkhya-dars'ana written by Kapila. Mr. Bhattacharya also holds this view. See I. H. Q., Sept., 1932, p. 518). This old Ṣaṣṭitantra of Kapila has been enlarged by Pañcas'ikha in his Ṣaṣṭitantra.

To this we reply—One should not put implicit faith in ecommentators when they refer to the names of writers. For example we see that Bhatta-Utpala, in his commentary on Brhat-Samhita, quotes the verses (22-30) from Samkhya-Kārikā, preceded by the remark "तथाह कपिलाचार्य:". As regards the alteration of मायेव into मायेव. if it is considered impossible in the case of Vacaspati, it should be still more impossible in the case of Varsaganya whom Vacaspati . refers to with great reverence as भगवान वार्षगण्य:. The opinion of Varsaganya, as quoted in the Buddhist work Abhidharmakos'a (viz., nothing new comes into existence, nor anything born is ever destroyed; that what is existent, is ever existent: that what is non-existent can never become existent) is simply a statement of the sat- $k\bar{a}rya$ theory. It is futile to read from it the difference between the theories of modification according to Sāmkhya and Yoga, as Mr. Hiriyanna does. His arguments can be valid only when it is admitted that Varsaganya altered मायेव into मायेव. But that requires proof. Therefore, the question of authorship of Sastitantra is still undecided.

(2) Rājavārtika. In the Tatt. K., we find the following three verses from Rājavārtika—

" प्रधानास्तित्वमेकत्वमर्थवन्त्वमथान्यता ।
पारार्थ्यं च तथाऽनैक्यं वियोगो योग एव च ॥
शेषवृत्तिरकर्तृत्वं मोलिकार्थाः स्मृता दश ।
विपर्ययः पञ्जविधस्तथोक्ता नव तुष्टयः ॥
करणानामसामर्थ्यमष्टाविंशतिधा मतम् ।
इति पष्टिः पदार्थानामष्टभिः सह सिद्धिभिः " ॥

The first verse is quoted also in the Sarvopakāṛiṇī (Ch. S. S., No. 246, p. 100). These sixty categories resemble the sixty categories treated of in the Ahirbudhnya Saṁhitā (Jay., int., p. 5; S. S., pp. 70-73). It is impossible to determine the authorship of Rājavārtika. Garbe thinks Bhoja is the author (S. Y. p. 7). These maulikārthas are enumerated with slight variations in Jay., Māṭh., Sāṁkhya-tattva-vive-cana (Ch., S. S., No. 245, p. 22), Tattva-yāthārthya-dīpana (ibid, p. 80) and Tattva-samāsa-sūtra-vṛtti (ibid, p. 135).

VI. The Teachings of Samkhya

It has already been pointed out that the activity of all rational beings is directed towards acquiring happiness and avoiding misery. Thoughtful people, on the other hand, avoid happiness even as it is mixed up with misery. Now the nature of this misery, although known generally, is still outside the purview of ordinary people. Iśvarkṛṣṇa has broadly divided that misery into three classes; viz. (1) intrinsic, (2) extrinsic, and (3) superhuman. (1) The intrinsic misery is due to the disorder of wind, bile and phlegm, and is also caused by passion, anger and so on. (2) The extrinsic misery is caused by men, beasts, reptiles and the rest. (3) The superhuman is the outcome of evil influences of spirits, stars and so on.

It may be asked—Why should we engage in philosophical remedy, when we see that ordinary and obvious remedies can very well remove all the miseries? We see that intrinsic miseries in the shape of various diseases are removed by physicians by means of medicines; as regards miseries due to passion, anger and the rest, they are removable by the acquisition of desires for objects in the shape of flowers, scent, women and so on. The extrinsic miseries can also be removed by the knowledge of Politics, residence in safe places and the rest. Similarly superhuman miseries can also be avoided by charms, incantations and the rest. Thus, when obvious means can uproot all the kinds of miseries, it is useless to engage in inquiring into the philosophical remedies.

We reply, yes; but these remedies are not absolute or final. Nobody can take the guarantee that the obvious remedies suggested above will remove the miseries certainly and absolutely.

Thus, as we see, the obvious remedies are not helpful to us, and we should, therefore, enquire into extraordinary remedies for removing the miseries.

If it be said,—' Well, granted that the obvious remedies are not of any help to us; but there are means revealed by the Vedas. By performing the various sacrifices prescribed by the Vedas, we can get over the miseries and acquire heaven and other higher regions,—then our reply is the same as above. We know that stay in the higher regions even is of temporary character. After enjoying the fruits of good actions performed on this earth the dwellers in heaven have to revert back to this earth and undergo all the miseries again. Moreover, there is impurity in the Vedic rites. One has to kill animals in performing some of them. Again, the heaven-dwellers are not free from jealousy. If one particular sacrifice leads to bare residence in heaven, the

to jealousy in the minds of the people over there. Thus, we see even the Vedic rites are not absolute or final means for releasing one from misery. Therefore, we should enquire after some other means.

That means is the discriminative knowledge of the Manifest, the Unmanifest and the Knower. The Sāmkhya Philosophy divides the objects into four kinds viz., (1) Rootmatter, (2) Evolvent and Evolute, (3) Evolute and (4) the Spirit.

(1) The Root-matter or Nature is not a modification. It is the root-cause of all matter. Intellect and the rest are the evolutes of this Nature. Intellect, which is the product of Nature, produces Ego. Ego, born out of Intellect, produces the five subtle elements and the organs of sense and action. The five subtle elements, which are produced from Ego, produce the five gross-elements. The five gross-elements and the eleven organs produce nothing, and they are, therefore, Evolutes only. The Spirit is neither produced from anything nor itself produces anything; so it is neither an Evolute nor an Evolvent. Among these, the Nature has been termed as Unmanifest, the Spirit as the Knower and the rest as Manifest. So, by the discriminative knowledge of these three, one attains salvation.

The means of Right cognition (or $Pram\bar{a}nas$) recognised in this Philosophy are Perception, Inference and Valid Testimony. The other $Pram\bar{a}nas$ recognised by the rival schools are included under these three. The process of Perception may be stated thus:—

Suppose there is water in a tank. On account of the absence of any outlet, this water, the very nature of which is to flow, is tranquil. But now a small channel is dug. Then water flows through this channel and assumes the form of the object into which it flows. It will be rectangular if it

enters a rectangular field and so on. Similarly, intellect, the very nature of which is to apprehend all the objects, is at a stand-still being enveloped by the Attribute of Tamas or Darkness. But after the contact of an organ of sense with any object, this darkness is removed. Then this intellect flows through the channel of an organ of sense and assumes the form of the object with which the organ of sense is in contact. This assuming of a particular form of an object by the intellect is called Perception or determination orknowledge. Of course, the result of this perception is experienced by the Spirit. For, intellect being a modification of matter and non-intelligent can produce only a nonintelligent determination. And the phrases like "I am happy" refer to the Conscious Spirit. So what really happens is this:—A part of intellect runs out through at organ of sense to assume the form of an object. part reflects the image of the Conscious Spirit. Now, the out-going part of intellect, having assumed the shape of an object presents itself to the part remaining behind and reflecting the Conscious Spirit. So the Spirit, which in reality is free from activity, contact, agency and such other qualities, becomes active or agent through its image reflected in the The real enjoyer or agent is the reflected image of the Spirit.

Inference is based upon Perception. The materialists like Carvaka deny the authenticity of Inference. But, they may be asked—suppose you talk to a man. After his departure if you are asked about that man, you will very readily say about him that he is intelligent or ignorant. Now, how can you perceive ignorance or knowledge of another man? You will have to infer them. Therefore, inference will have to be recognised as a means of Right Cognition. Inference leads to conclude the presence of Major term in the Minor term on the basis of the concomitance of Middle and Major.

terms and the cognition of the presence of Middle term in the Minor term. For example,—we see smoke (Middle term) on the Hill (Minor term). Now we remember the concomitance of smoke (Middle term) and fire (Major term). Thus we conclude that there is fire (Major term) on the Hill (Middle term).

The Inference is of three kinds viz., Pūrvavat, (A priori), S'esa'vat (A posteriori) and $S\bar{a}m\bar{a}nyatodrsta$ (commonly seen). These are defined and explained in the notes on the 5th Kārikā.

Valid testimony is the assertion of a reliable person. A reliable person is that, who ascertains facts on the basis of strong proofs; and when he states a fact exactly as he has seen it, then his assertion is Valid Testimony. The other means of Right Cognition are included under these three. This has been exhaustively explained in the notes on the 4th and 5th Kārikās.

Thus, Nature, Spirit and the rest are cognised by Inference or Valid Testimony. It may be asked-why should not the non-perception of these lead us to conclude their total non-existence? We reply-Mere non-perception of an object cannot lead to its total non-existence in every case. We see that even existent objects are not perceived for various reasons. For example, a man in Conjeevram cannot perceive the Himalayas; one cannot see a piece of straw fallen in one's own eye; a deaf person does not apprehend the sound of music; a person absorbed in something does not perceive anybody seated near him; one who is not a yogin cannot perceive an atom which is existent; people cannot see the moon or stars during the day-time because their light is overcome by the sun; drops of water, falling in water cannot be differentiated afterwards. Therefore, the non-perception of Nature and the rest is due to their minuteness and not total non-existence. For, when we see the effects of Nature,

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in the shape of intellect, ego and so forth, we infer Nature as the cause of these effects.

Now, we state the theory of cause and effect according to the Sāmkhyas. They state that an existent effect is produced from an existent cause. The Buddhists proclaim that the existent Effect is produced from the cause which is non-existent. The Vedāntins assert that there is no existence of Effects, but they are illusory forms of one existent. The followers of Nyāya and Vais'eṣika say that the non-existent Effect is produced from the existent cause.

The Theory of the Buddhists is:—"The existence comes into being from non-existence, for without destruction nothing can be produced." (N. S. IV. I. 14) We observe that a sprout is produced out of the destruction of seed, curds are produced from the destruction of milk. Thus, we see that destruction (= non-existence) produces an object.

But, really speaking, the Buddhists have missed the point. It is not the destroyed seed that produces sprout. It is simply the modification of the structure of particles of a seed that we see in a sprout. That is, when particular kinds of particles are in a particular form, they constitute a seed. When that particular form is changed, then those particles constitute the sprout. If non-existence in shape of destruction were to produce existence, then it will lead to great confusion. The point has been clarified by S'ankarācārya (Br. S. Bh. II. 2. 26) as follows:—

"If entity did spring from non-entity, the assumption of special causes would be purportless, since non-entity is in all cases one and the same. For, the non-existence of seeds and the like after they have been destroyed is of the same kind as the non-existence of the horns of hares and the like, i.e., non-existence is in all cases nothing else but the absence of all character of reality, and hence there would be no

sense (on the doctrine of origination from non-existence) in assuming that sprouts are produced from seeds only. curds from milk only and so on. And if non-distinguished non-existence were admitted to have causal efficiency, we should also have to assume that sprouts, etc., originate from the horns of hares, etc.,—a thing certainly not observed." (S. B. E. XXXIV, p. 416).

The view of the Vedantins, viz., the cause alone is existent, the effect being only an apparent change, is also untenable. They say that as the cognition of silver in pearloysters is false, for it is contradicted by the subsequent cognition of the real pearl-oyster, so the superimposition of this inanimate world on the intelligent Brahman is also false. To this we reply:—The cognition of silver in pearl-oyster is contradicted by perception; we subsequently cognise pearloyster and thus our first cognition of silver is contradicted by the second cognition. But we do not find any such thing in the case of this world. There is no subsequent cognition which could render our first cognition of this world false. Therefore, this world cannot be regarded to be mere illusion. Moreover, we find a similarity between silver and pearloyster. Both are white. But what similarity is there between the non-intelligent world and the intelligent Brahman, both being poles asunder? How can the world now be superimposed on Brahman?

[The Vedantin replies—For the sake of illusion it is not necessary that only similarity between two objects can lead to superimposing of one on the other. We see that people whose minds are highly excited by passion, experience the illusion of embracing their wives in dream. The same can be said of waking state also. Moreover, when ignorant people superimpose dark colour on the sky which is beyond perception, then the question of similarity does not arise at all.]

The Naiyāyikas assert that the effect is non-existent before the causal operation. Non-existence is produced out of existence. From the existent lump of clay is produced a jar which is non-existent in that lump of clay.

Their view is not correct. For non-existence cannot be produced. Nobody can bring non-existence into existence. Who can produce yellow colour out of the blue wherein the yellow colour does not exist? It may be argued:—People use phrases like 'The jar is non-existent,' with regard to the lump of clay from which jar has not vet been produced, and The jar is existent, after it is produced from that clav. Therefore, the jar has the quality of existence at times and non-existence at other times: otherwise, these phrases cannot be used—To this we reply:—All agree to the view that a quality exists in the qualified. According to the objector's view-point, the jar was non-existent before it was produced. That is, the qualified (jar) did not exist then. Then, where did the quality of non-existence reside in the absence of the qualified? Therefore, the objector will have to admit the existence of jar even against his will in the lump of clay. Moreover, the objector had stated, non-existence is a quality which resided in the jar before its production; for, otherwise one cannot use such phrases as 'The non-existent jar.' Tothis we reply:—How can you use such a phrase.—'The jar is non-existent before its production? Before its production. the qualified (jar) being non-existent, how can the quality of non-existence be appended to it? For example, we say 'A blue lotus.' Here lotus is the substratum of the quality of blueness. Similarly, 'A non-existent jar' means that the iar is the substratum of the quality of non-existence. Now, when the jar is not existing before its production, then how can it become the substratum of any quality as the lotus is of blueness: therefore, an effect does exist even before the operation of cause.

It may be asked:—If the effect does exist even before the operation of cause, then, wherein lies the utility of the causal operation? To this we reply:—In the stage of cause an object remains latent and minute. The causal operation simply makes that object gross and patent. Thus the causal operation brings about the manifestation of an effect which is already existing in the cause. For example, the pressing of sesamum seeds manifests the oil which is already existent in those seeds.

Again, the effect is existent in its material cause, because the former is related to the latter. A lump of clay is related to a jar even before its production. If the jar were nonexistent, then it could not have any relation with the lump of clay. A lump of clay cannot produce anything which is not related to it. If unrelated things could be produced out of anything, then why not produce cloth out of a lump of clay? Or for that matter, why not produce everything from everything. But this is not so. On the other hand, wherever cause is patent enough to produce a particular effect, that cause will produce only that effect. The sesamum seeds have the potency to produce oil and not jar or cloth. yarns have the potency to produce only cloth. This potency is always related to a potent effect. Had there been no existence of jar before its production, then who can instil the potency to produce it in a lump of clay.

Again, it is observed that an effect is of the same nature as its cause. An effect is not different from its cause. A jar is not different from a lump of clay, but is of the nature of clay. If the jar were different from clay, then the jar could not be of the nature of clay. Only those things differ from each other which are produced out of different materials, as a jar and the yarns. The objects which are different can have conjunction or separation. A jar and a piece of cloth can be brought together. The Himalayas

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are always separated from the Vindhyas. But in clay and jar there can be neither separation nor conjunction. Moreover, the weight of clay from which a jar is made is the same as the weight of the jar.—For example, a seer of clay will produce a jar weighing neither more nor less than a seer. Therefore, jar is not different from clay.

An objector says:—Well, jar is different from clay, because (1) We find that with regard to jar, we say it is born, and not with regard to clay; (2) It is the jar which is destroyed and not the clay: (3) The notions about the jar and clay are also different; (4) One is named jar, the other clay; (5) The jar serves the purpose of bringing water which clay does not; (6) We say that the jar exists in clay and not the reverse.

To this we reply that these arguments for proving a difference between a cause and its effect, do not prove the real difference. For, these apparent differences can be explained away by "attributing the notions to be appearance and disappearance of certain factors." For instance, the limbs of a tortoise appear from its body and again disappear into it. Nobody on this basis can call these phenomena to be the birth and death of its limbs; similar is the case of a jar etc., which are said to be produced when they emanate from clay, etc., and destroyed when they merge into clay, etc. The difference of notions also can be similarly explained; we call clay as clay as long as jar has not emanated from it. As regards the usage of such expressions as, jar exists in clay, it is like the usage of such phrases as, "Tilaka trees exist in forest." Really speaking the whole forest is made up of Tilaka trees only, still we use a phrase like that. With reference to the difference of purposes served by a cause and an effect (e.g., by clay and jar), we reply that the same things serve different purposes collectively or singly. atoms of clay collected in the form of a jar, can bring water; they cannot do so when they are single. "Each individual bearer performs the function of indicating the path, but not that of carrying the palanquin, while collectively they carry the palanquin." If the Naiyāyika were to say again:—

You say that an effect already existing in its cause is manifested by the operation of the cause. Now, tell us, does this manifestation exist before the causal operation or not? If it does, i. e., if manifestation exists before causal operation then what is the use of the latter? If, on the other hand, you say that manifestion does not exist before causal operation, then it would mean that causal operation produces a non-existent thing. This goes against your sat-kārya theory.

We reply.—

The Naiyāyika has overlooked his own fault. For the same fallacy can be shown to exist in his theory also. He says that a non-existent effect is produced from its cause. Now, we ask—does this production exist before the cause or not? If it does then what purpose does your cause serve? If it does not, then that production must have another production and the latter another and so or ad infinitum.

If, on the other hand, it is said that this production of jar is nothing else but jar itself, then "jar is produced" would be tantamount to production is produced, which is absurd. It will be still more absurd when we say. "jar is destroyed," for, it would then mean production is destroyed.

Thus it is proved that the effect is always existent.

Pradhāna, Prakṛti and Avyakta are the synonyms of Nature. It is uncaused as it is not produced out of any other thing, eternal, one, of the nature of three Attributes and pervades all its products. The three Attributes are Sattva, Rajas and Tamas. Sattva is of the nature of pleasure and illumination, and is light. Rajas is of the nature of pain

and activity, and is mobile. Tamas is of the nature of delusion and enveloping, and is heavy. These Attributes are able to bring this world into being, and carry on its business by their nature of being mutually subjective, and supporting and productive, and co-operative. Sometimes, Sattva subjugates the Rajas and Tamas; sometimes, Rajas subjugates Sattva and Tamas; sometimes, Tamas subjugates Rajas and Sattva. These Attributes have no power of creation singly; they become productive by taking the support of each other. They are always found in union, all three together. And for the purpose of serving the end of the Spirit, they are seen to co-operate, although they are mutually opposed. The end of the Spirit is the worldly enjoyment or emancipation.

It may be argued that under these circumstances, every existing entity should have all the three qualities of pleasure, pain and delusion, as it is composed of the three Attributes. Vācaspati argues—If these external objects themselves are of the nature of pleasure, pain and delusion, then sandle should impart pleasure in winter even. Sandal never ceases to be sandal. Similarly, paste of saffron should be pleasant even in summer. Saffron paste never ceases to be what it is. In the same way, thorns which are pleasant to a camel should be pleasant to men also. They do not change their nature in the case of any particular individual. Therefore, sandal, saffron, etc., are not of the nature of pleasure, pain and delusion. They give rise to these different feelings on account of the difference of individuals, times, and condition, etc. (Bhāmatī on Br. S. II 2·1),

To this Bala replies (p. 141)—Although pleasure, pain and delusion are common to all objects, still they do not spring up accidentally, so as to affect everbody uniformly. They require certain conditions for their generation. Pleasure for its generation, depends upon virtue, and stands in need of Sattva. Pain, for its generation, depends upon vice

and stands in need of Rajas. Delusion, for its generation, depends upon vice and stands in need of Tamas. Vācāspatihas also explained it well (Tatt. K., Kār, 13)—"A single girl, young, beautiful, gentle and virtuous, is a source of delight to her husband,—why?—because for him she appears in the form of Pleasure; she pains her co-wives—why?—because for them, she appears in the form of Pain; and lastly the same girl deludes or stupefies another man who is unable to get her—why?—because for him she appears in the form of Delusion. The case of this woman illustrates the nature of all things." (Dr. Jha's translation, pp. 49-50)

Thus, the Nature also is made up of the three Attributes, because it is the cause of all the manifest objects which are made up of the three Attributes. The Attributes in the Nature are in equilibrium. Of course, the Attributes are not free from modification even at this stage, for modification is their very nature; but the modification of each Attribute is similar. Sattva is modified into Sattva, Rajas into Rajas and Tamas into Tamas, till the Nature does not come into contact with the Spirit. The moment Nature comes into contact with the Spirit, the equilibrium of the Attributes is disturbed. On account of this disturbance, diverse forms in this world are created from the Attributes. For example, one and the same water produces different kinds of juices in cocoanut, lemon, grape, etc.

It has already been pointed out that all this creation by Nature is for the enjoyment of the Spirit. Now, the existence of the Spirit is proved. We observe that all composite objects are for another's use. Bed, seat, etc., do not serve any end of their own, but are meant for a man. Similarly, the composite $Pradh\bar{a}na$, Mahat, etc., being composed of Pleasure, Pain and Delusion, much exist for another's use. This another cannot be a composite object. For, the latter would then require to serve another composite, and

this another and so on ad infinitum. Therefore, this another, viz., the Spirit, whose purpose is served by Pradhana, etc., must be recognised to exist. Again, all what is of the nature of Pleasure, Pain and Delusion is seen to require a controller, as a chariot does. Therefore, Buddhi, etc., also require a controller. And that controller is the Spirit. Moreover, Pleasure, Pain and Delusion presuppose the existence of an enjoyer who enjoys them. This enjoyer is the Spirit. Pleasure, etc., cannot be enjoyed by anything of the nature of Pleasure, etc. For, nothing can operate upon itself. Therefore, we must admit an entity devoid of Pleasure etc. And There is also another argument, that entity is the Spirit. which proves the existence of the Spirit. The scriptures tend to bring about Isolation, which is the final cessation of the three kinds of pain. Buddhi, etc., cannot be isolated, because, they are of the nature of Pleasure, Pain and Delusion. Pain is one of their ingredients from which they cannot be separated. Therefore, we have to admit the existence of something distinct from Buddhi, etc. And that is the Spirit.

There are as many Spirits as the bodies, and not one Spirit. Isvarakṛṣṇa establishes the plurality of Spirits in the following verse (18)—"(1) Because there is definite adjustment of birth, death and the organs, (2) because there is non-simultaneity of activity and (3) because there is diversity due to the three Attributes—the plurality of the Spirits is established." (Dr. Jha's translation, p. 64).

We see in this world that one man dies, the other is born, one is blind, the other sees well,—one is deaf, the other listens well. All this can be explained only when we admit different Spirits in different bodies. If there is only one Spirit in all the bodies, then, when the Spirit renounces one body, all beings should die; or when the Spirit takes up a new body, all beings should be born. Similarly, when one

becomes blind, all should be blind. Therefore, there is a plurality of Spirits.

If it be argued that just one Ākāśa appears many on account of coming into contact with jar, house, etc., similarly, one Spirit appears many on account of coming into contact with different bodies, then it would not be correct. For, as body is the upādhi (condition) of the Spirit, so the limbs are the upādhis of a body. And when we see the appearance and disappearance of the limbs in a body, would such phenomena be called the births and deaths of the same body?

Moreover, if there is only one Spirit in all the bodies, then when that Spirit moves one body all the bodies should move simultaneously. Again, we see that beings are divided into gods, men, beasts etc. on the basis of the three Attributes. Those abounding in Sattva are gods, those in Rajas are men and those in Tamas are demons. If there were only one Spirit, then these differences would never arise, but the whole creation would be uniform. Thus, the plurality of the Spirits is established.

The Spirit, being devoid of the three Attributes, is the seer or witness of this creation, which is of the nature of the three Attributes. The Spirit is isolated, inactive and indifferent, again because it is free from the three Attributes. This different Spirit appears to be active, although the activity really belongs to the three Attributes. This illusion arises out of the union of the insentient Nature with the Sentient Spirit. As a result thereof, the activity belonging to the insentient Nature is transferred to the Sentient Spirit.

A question arises—why should there be a union between the Nature and the Spirit? The reply is:—The Nature is an object of experience; it stands in need of the Spirit, the experiencer. Therefore, one cause of union is that the Spirit may experience the Nature. But, when the Spirit imagines itself as suffering on account of its union with the Nature, then it desires isolation. This isolation is the discrimination between the Spirit and the Nature. And as this discrimination is impossible without the Nature, the second cause of union between the Nature and the Spirit is the purpose of bringing about the Spirit's isolation.

The Nature, having exhibited itself to the Spirit, desists like an actress who has shown her skill on the stage. The Spirit then attains isolation. And as a delicate and newly-wedded girl when seen by a stranger does not appear again before that stranger, so the Nature also, when seen by a Spirit does not come into union with that particular Spirit.

Thus, bondage and isolation which really belong to the Nature are ascribed to the Spirit by mistake. By practising such discriminative wisdom, a person never errs about bondage or emancipation. That is, he attains isolation or salvation.

Har Dutt Sharma

अथ कारिकाणां सूची.

अकारादिक्रमेण.)

कारिकाङ्काः पृष्ठा	ङ्गाः	कारिकाङ्काः	पृष्ठा	क्राः
७ अतिदूरात् सामीप्यात्	6	५५ तत्र जरामरणकृतम्	•••	५०
२३ अध्यवसायो बुद्धेर्धर्मी ज्ञानम्	२५	३८ तन्मात्राण्यविशेषाः		३६
३३ अंतःकरणं त्रिविधम्	३३	१९ तस्माच विपर्यासात्		२२
२४ अभिमानोऽहंकारः		२० तस्मात् तत्संयोगात्	•••	२ २
१४ अविवेक्यादेः सिद्धिः		६२ तस्मान्न बध्यतेऽद्धा	•••	५७
५३ अष्टविकल्पो दैवः	४९	६५ तेन निवृत्तप्रसवाम्	•••	५८
९ असदकरणात् उपादान-		११ त्रिगुणमविवेकि विषयः	• • •	9
ग्रहणात्	30	१ दुःखत्रयाभिघातात्	•••	9
५० आध्यात्मिकाश्चतस्तः	४६	२ दृष्टवदानुश्रविकः	•••	3
५६ इत्येष प्रकृतिकृतौ प	43	४ दृष्टमनुमानमाप्तवचनम्	•••	ч
२७ उभयात्मकमत्र मनः	२८	६६ रङ्गस्थ इत्युपेक्षक एको	•••	५९
५४ ऊर्घ्वं सत्वविशालः 🛚 १	४९	४४ धर्मेण गमनमूर्ध्वम्	•••	83
५१ ऊहः शब्दोऽध्ययनम्	८७	५२ न विना भावैर्लिङ्गम्	•••	४८
४९ एकादशेन्द्रियवधाः १	814	६० नानाविधैरुपायैः	•••	५३
अ एतत् पवित्रमप्र्यम् ध	६१	४७ पञ्च विपर्ययभेदाः	•••	88
३६ एते प्रदीपकल्पाः : :	રૂ ષ્	२१ पुरुषस्य दर्शनार्थम्	• • •	२३
६४ एवं तस्वाभ्यासात् ५	36	६९ पुरुषार्थज्ञानमिदम्	•••	६९
४६ एष प्रत्ययसर्गो ६	3३ ।	४२ पुरुषार्थहेतुकमिदम्	•••	80
५८ औत्सुक्यनिवृत्त्यर्थम् 🛚 ५	36	४० पूर्वोत्पन्नमसक्तम्		३८
३२ करणं त्रयोदशविधं ३	३ ।	२२ प्रकृतेर्महांस्ततोऽहङ्कारः ,	:	२४
१६ कारणमस्यव्यक्तम् १	9	६१ प्रकृतेः सुकुमारतरम्	'	4३
४१ चित्रं यथाऽऽश्रयमृते ३	९	५ प्रतिविषयाध्यवसायो दृष्ट	म्	9
१८ जननमननकरणानाम्प्रति-		६८ प्राप्ते शरीरभेदे	•••	६०
नियमात् २	9	१२ प्रीत्यप्रीतिविषादात्मकाः ,	9	8

Karika A

Handed down by tradition of disciples, this was summarised in Arya verses by Is'varakṛṣṇa of noble mind, having fully understood the demonstrated truth.

Karika I

The topics of these seventy verses are those of the entire Sastitantra; they are devoid of anecdotes and also omit discussions of rival views.

SĀMKHYA KĀKIKĀ NOTES

I

About the sons of ब्रह्मा, कपिल, आसुरि, पञ्चशिस and ईभरकृष्ण see Introduction. The quotation 'पञ्चविंशतितस्वज्ञः, ' etc., is taken from पञ्चशिस; see Introduction.

आधिभौतिक. The word भूत stands for living beings, according to चन्द्रिका.

आधिदेविक, according to गोंड॰, includes miseries due to cold, heat, wind etc., because these are due to supernatural powers. On देवानामिदं देवं. Davies remarks—"But in old time, gods of higher class, and not demons merely, were supposed to afflict men with disease and pain. In the Rig-Veda (ii. 33, 7), Gritsamada prays to Rudra that he may be freed from his bodily pains, which he affirms to have been sent by the Devas or gods (daivya)." (p. 15).

The reading adopted by गोंड॰, viz., तद्दभिवातके is more expressive of the सांख्य idea of complete cessation of pain, than तद्दपवातके of वाच॰ (See, S. N. S., 1, 1n.). cf. तत्र त्रिविध-दुःखात्यन्तिवृत्तिरत्यन्तपुरुषार्थः (सां. स. १.१). The reading of जय ॰ viz., तद्दववातके does not materially differ from तद्दपवातके. Compare also Wilson, pp. 6–7; Davies, pp. 13–14, note on this reading.

विष्णुप्राण describes the three दु:खs in the following verses:
अध्यात्मिकोऽपि द्विविधः शारीरो मानसस्तथा।
शारोरो बहुभिभेंदेभिद्यते श्रूयतां च सः ॥ २ ॥
शिरोरोगप्रतिश्यायज्वरश्रूलभगन्दरैः।
गुल्मार्शःश्वयथुश्वासद्यद्यादिभिरनेकधा ॥ ३ ॥
तथाक्षिरोगातीसारकुष्टांगामयसंज्ञितैः।
भिद्यते देहजस्तापो मानसं श्रोतुमर्हसि ॥ ४ ॥

11-

कामक्रोधभयद्वेषलोभमोहिबिषादजः । शोकासूयावमानेर्ष्यामात्सर्यादिमयस्तथा ॥ ५ ॥ मानसोऽपि द्विजश्रेष्ठ तापो भवति नैकधा । इत्येवमादिभिभेदैस्तापो द्याध्यात्मिको मतः ॥ ६ ॥ मृगपक्षिमनुष्याद्यैः पिशाचोरगराक्षसैः । सरीसृपाद्येश्व नृणां जायते चाधिमौतिकः ॥ ७ ॥ शीतवातोष्णवर्षाम्बुवैद्युतादिसमुद्भवः । तापो द्विजवरश्रेष्ठैः कथ्यते चाधिदैविकः ॥ ८ ॥ (६. ५)

II

अपाम सोममस्ता अभूम etc., is from ऋग्वेद VIII. 48. 3., and is fully quoted and explained by गाँड॰, माठर and जय॰ माठर reads तृणवत् (perhaps a mistake) in place of कृणवत्. Following are the principal points of difference:—

कृणवत् = कर्ता according to गाँड॰. (तृणवत्) = """, "" माठर. कृणवत् = मृत्युः "" "" जय॰. अराति = शत्रुः "" "" गाँड॰. "" = शत्रुः = मृत्युः "" "" माठर. "" = व्याधिः "" "" जय॰.

According to Principal V. Bhattacharya of Santiniketan (in a letter to me), the reading अमृतमर्गस्य, which is common to all the commentators, cannot be accepted; for the accent on the word अमृत shows that it is a vocative case and should, therefore, be written separately from मर्गस्य. Moreover, जय's interpretation of कृणवत = मृत्य cannot be accepted, as this word never means मृत्य.

According to the editor of माउरव्यक्ति (Chow. S. S., No. 296, p. 2), ' षद् शतानि नियुज्यन्ते ' etc., is quoted in the भाष्य of महीपर on the last verse of the 24th chapter of यज्ञेंदसंदिता, the second line of the verse there being—'अअमेपस्य यज्ञस्य नवभिशाधिकानि च।'

With the sense of this कारिका, cf. श्रीमद्भागवत—
श्रुतं च दृष्टवदुष्टं स्पर्धासूयात्ययच्ययैः ।
बह्न-तरायकामत्वात् कृषिवचापि निष्फलम् ॥ (११.१०.२१)
एवं लोकं परं विद्यान्नश्वरं कर्मनिर्मितम् ।
सतुल्यातिशयध्वंसं यथा मण्डलवर्तिनाम् ॥ (११.३.२०)

The reconciliation of वैदिकी हिंसा with the श्रांत text—मा हिंस्यात् सर्वा भूतानि—, is an interesting topic which has taxed the ingenuity of all the orthodox systems of philosophy (See, S. N. S., p. 5, In.; Sovani, p. 400). बाल्याम has discussed this question at length, quoting extensively from the standard authors (See pages 24-36).

The order of व्यक्ताव्यक्तज्ञविज्ञान is based on the procedure of cognition. The same order is observed in the following सां. सू. —स्थूलात् पञ्चतन्मात्रस्य (१. ६२); बाह्याभ्यन्तराभ्यां तैश्राहङ्कारस्य (१. ६३); तेनाहङ्कारस्य (१. ६४); ततः प्रकृतेः (१. ६५); and संहतपरार्थत्वात् पुरुषस्य (१. ६६).

Sovani is quite pertinent in pointing out the confusion with regard to the meaning of the word व्यक्त. Some call the महाभूत as व्यक्त, whileas, the author of कारिकाs seems to regard everything व्यक्त (and, therefore, प्रत्यक्षयोग्य), except the प्रयाम and पुरुष. वाच० agrees with the latter explanation, in his commentary on this कारिका, but, changes his opinion in the comment on the 6th कारिका. At the latter place he says—सामान्यतो दृष्टादृष्टुमानात् अतोन्द्रियाणां प्रधानपुरुषादीनाम् प्रतीतिः. He would seem to include महत्तत्व etc., by the word आदि (See बाल्राम p. 16 1n.). In order to avoid the contradiction, we should interpret the word आदि, according to वंशीधर, to mean the union between प्रकृति and पुरुष. cf. आदिना तत्संयोगग्रहः। प्रकृतिपुरुषतत्संयोगा नित्याद्यमेया इत्युक्तेः (वंशीधर, p. 183) 1 See Sovani, pp. 401 and 405, and notes 36 and 37.

-IV]

Ш

In connection with Jacobi's remark that it is very strange that intellect should be regarded as a form of matter by the Sāmkhyas (See Ent. Gott. Ind. p. 32), it is interesting to compare Davies (p. 17, 3n)—Modern Science, like the system of Kapila, makes intellect, a mere form of matter. "Mind, used in the sense of substance or essence, and brain, used in the sense of organ of mental function are at bottom names for the same substance." (Maudsley's Physiology of Mind, 3rd Ed., p. 38).

The nature of पुरुष is explained by चन्द्रिका as अजनकत्वे सत्यजन्य इत्यर्थ: । आद्यविशेषणेन प्रकृतिनिरासः, द्वितीयेनेन्द्रियसामान्यादिनिरासः। Unlike the नैयायिकs, the सांख्यs maintain that सामान्य is a product.

On great as pure inward light, Davies quotes (p. 18, 1n.) Hegel on Thought (Das Denken), in connection with the Absolute:—"It is that light which lights; but it has no other content except that light." (Phil. der Rel., i. 117) [Translated from German by H. Sharma].

From अहङ्कार (Ego) proceed not only the इन्द्रियंs, but everything material cognised by them. That is, the Ego (which is the I-principle) is the 'base of the reality of all our sense-perceptions' (Davies, p. 21, note 1), and consequently of all the existence. Davies quotes Schelling (System des Transcen. Idealismus, p. 60) in support of this idea—"If at all there exists Something Real as opposed to ideal, then that Something Real must be I, because it is the principle of all reality." (Translated from German by H. Sharma). This position, of course, differs from that of the बेदान्ति, who does not regard the reality of the I-principle (अहङ्कार) even, but that of the Pure Consciousness (ग्रह्महा),—the I-principle itself being imaginary and due to माया. Distinction should be drawn from the विज्ञानवादी—बोद also, who denies the existence of everything external, except consciousness. The सांख्यवादिन

does not deny the external existence, but considers it to be a modified product of consciousness, in which it lies latent. cf. न विज्ञानमात्रं बाह्यप्रतीते: (सं सु. १. ४२.).

IV

Apart from the three Means of Right Cognition, viz. प्रत्यक्ष, अनुमान and शब्द, recognised by the सांख्यकारिका, the commentators discuss the other Means of Right Cognition, recognised by other schools. The चार्वाक materialist recognises only प्रत्यक्ष, the जैन and वैशेषिक schools recognise प्रत्यक्ष and अनुमान, the माध्वs also recognise only two प्रमाणs, but they are प्रत्यक्ष and शब्द according to them. The followers of रामाद्वज, the जरनेयायिकs, and the सांख्य and the योग systems recognise प्रत्यक्ष. अनुमान and शब्द. The oldest and the most modern नैयायिकs and the followers of the महेश्वर school recognise उपमान in addition to the three named above. The मीमांसकs of प्रभाकर school add अर्थापति as the fifth. The मीमांसकs of कुमारिलभट्ट school and the अहैतवेदान्तिन recognise one more. viz., अनुपरुच्यि or अभाव. The number of प्रमाणs reaches eight in the case of the पौराणिकs who add संभव and ऐतिह्य to the list. Some तान्त्रिकs recognise चेष्टा also in addition to the above: others add प्रतिभा to the list, and thus the total reaches ten. The commentators have tried to show that all the seven surrows, apart from the three recognised by the कारिका, fall under the latter.

1. उपमान---

वाच॰ splits it up into प्रत्यक्ष, अतुमान and शब्द; माठर regards it to be अतुमान; जय॰ includes it under अतुमान and शब्द; गौड॰ includes it under शब्द; and चन्द्रिका under अतुमान.

2. अर्थापत्ति—

All the commentators include it under अद्यगन.

-V1

6

3. अभाव--

वाच॰ and जय॰ regard it as प्रत्यक्ष:

माठर includes it under अन्तमान. Although गाँड॰ s
remark—सम्भवाभावप्रतिभातित्योपमाश्राप्तवचने, suggests its
inclusion under शब्द, yet another remark of his,
viz., शुष्कधान्यदर्शनाद्वृष्टरभावो गम्यते, would lead us
to infer that he will have it under अन्तमान;
चिन्द्रका regards it as a help-mate of प्रत्यक्ष, and,
therefore, no independent प्रमाण.

4. संभव-

वाच॰, जय॰ and माठर include it under अनुमान ; गौड॰ and चन्द्रिका include it under शब्द.

5. ऐतिख-

वाच॰ opines that if it is pronounced by a reliable person, then it is शब्द, otherwise it is no प्रमाण; गौड॰ and चन्द्रिका also include it under शब्द: माउर includes it under अनुमान.

6. प्रतिभा-

वाच॰ and चिन्द्रका do not mention it; जय॰ includes it under प्रत्यक्ष and अनुमान, when it is correct, otherwise it is no प्रमाण; माठर includes it under अनुमान; and गौड॰ includes it under शब्द.

7. चेष्टा—

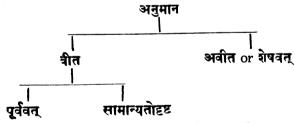
Noticed only by चन्द्रिका and माउर, and included under अनुमान.

Wilson is right in remarking that although the मीमांसकs do recognise six प्रमाणs, yet गौड॰'s remark that they are अर्थापति, संभव, अभाव, प्रतिभा, ऐतिह्य and उपमान, is not correct; for संभव, ऐतिह्य and प्रतिभा are nowhere recognised as प्रमाणs by the मीमांसकs; rather, "the author of शास्त्रदीपिका excludes expressly संभव, प्रतिभा and ऐतिह्य from the character of proofs." (p. 28). जैमिनि nowhere mentions the प्रमाणs, but the six प्रमाणs (viz., प्रत्यक्ष, अञ्चमान, शब्द, उपमान, अर्थापति and अभाव) are discussed by शबरस्वामिन in his भाष्य on मीमांसास्त्र 1. 1. 5. प्रभाकर does not recognise अभाव, but कुमारिल does.

प्रमाण has been defined as the instrument of प्रमा. प्रमा is that state of mind which is free from doubt, mistake, indecision and memory—, and which arises from the contact of the sense-organs with their objects. The result is the cognition by mind. But वाच॰ says—बोधश्र पोरुपेशः फलं प्रमा. This might mean that the result of the mental state is cognition in the Spirit. Does it mean that the cognition arises in the spirit? No, we reply—what happens is that when the Spirit is reflected in the mind, which has assumed the shape of the object with which the sense-organs come into contact, it (the Spirit) also appears to be cognising. This is a kind of misapprehension arising from the mistaken identity between the Spirit and the mind. This is what is expressed in the योगसूत्रऽ—'दृष्टा दृशिमात्रः ग्रहोऽपि प्रत्ययानुपश्यः' (II. 20) and 'चितरप्रतिसं-क्रमायास्तदाकारापत्रों स्वब्रिसंवेदनम' (IV. 22).

V

Following the न्यायसूत्र—तत्पूर्वकं त्रिवियमनुमानं पूर्वतत् शेषवत् सामान्यतोदृष्टं च। (1,1,5), वाच॰ first divides अनुमान into three kinds. Again he gives another classification:



The commentators differ in the explanation of these terms. वात्स्यायन himself proposes two alternative explanations.

- (1) (a) पূৰ্ববন্—A priori or inference of effect from cause,—as of rain from the clouds in the sky.
- (b) মাঘৰন্—A posteriori, or an inference of cause from effect,—as of rain from the flood in a river.

logy,— e. g., we observe that a particular man in one town now, is seen in another next day, because he has moved. Similarly, the Sun must also move, as he is seen at different places in the sky at different times.

Or

- (2) (a) ঘূৰ্ববন্—If we have seen two things together in the past, then when we see one of them now, we infer the existence of the other also. For example, from smoke on the hill, we infer fire.
- (b) शेषवत्—Inference by exclusion (प्रसक्तप्रतिषेधेऽन्यत्रा-प्रसङ्गात् शिष्यमाणे संप्रत्ययः परिशेषः). The question is—, under which of the seven categories (इन्य, गुण etc.) should we include शब्द (sound)? Now, शब्द cannot come under सामान्य, विशेष and the rest, and its inclusion under इन्य has been denied. Therefore, by the law of the residue, शब्द falls under गुण.
- (c) सामान्यतोद्दश—Where the relation of the न्याप्ति is not within ordinary perception, there we take another object within ordinary perception and similar to the हेत in question; and on this similarity or Commonness, we transfer the न्याप्ति from the perceived to the unperceived instance. For instance, we have got to infer the existence of the Spirit. We do so on the basis of the qualities like the desire, etc. The desire, etc., are qualities. Qualities always reside in objects (as we perceive in the case of form, taste and the rest). Therefore, the desire etc., must also reside in some object; and that object is the Spirit.

The two alternative explanations given by बारस्यायन show that the meaning of these terms had become doubtful at his time. Cf. Principal A. B. Dhruva's paper—'Trividham anumānam', POC., Poona, pp. 251-280.

वाच॰ agrees with the second explanation of वात्स्यायन. But अवीत or शेषवत् according to वाच॰, is a negative reasoning. वात्स्यायन's instance of शेषवत्, viz. शब्द is a गुण, is rejected by

वाच॰ in his तात्पर्यर्शका (p. 183, काशीसंस्कृतसीरीज). According to him शेषवत् or परिशेष stands for व्यतिरेक्यनुमान. The inference of शब्द being a गुण is not a व्यतिरेक्यनुमान but अन्वयव्यतिरेकि. The correct example of शेषवत्, therefore, is that the qualities desire etc., reside in the आत्मन्. These qualities cannot reside in प्रथित्री, जल, तेजस् and वायु; nor can they reside in आकाश, because the qualities of the latter are perceived by the external sense—organ (ear). Similarly the desire etc. being विशेषगुण cannot be the qualities of दिशा, काल and मनस्—for the qualities of the latter three दृष्य are साधारण. Thus ultimately the desire etc., reside in the nineth दृष्य, viz., आत्मन्. So there being no सपक्ष of आत्मन् it is an instance of व्यतिरेक्यनुमान. जय॰ and गौड॰ agree with the first explanation of वात्स्यायन. गौड॰ and माउर explain शेषवत् differently—सम्रदादेकं जलपलं लवणमासाय शेषस्याप्यस्ति लवणभाव इति (गौड॰)।।

लिङ्गलिङ्गिपूर्वकम्—वाच॰ would read one more लिङ्गि i. e. लिङ्गिलिङ्गिपूर्वकम्. गाँड॰ has a curious explanation to offer—तदरुमानं लिङ्गपूर्वकं यत्र लिङ्गि अनुमीयते, यथा दण्डेन यति:। लिङ्गिपूर्वकं च यत्र लिङ्गिमरुमीयते, यथा दृष्ट्वा यतिं, अस्येदं त्रिदण्डमिति। जय॰ agrees with it. It enumerates seven kinds of सम्बन्ध which ought to exist between the लिङ्ग and the लिङ्गिन्. They are—

. (1) स्वस्वामिभाव	as	between	राजा	and	पुरुष.
(2) प्रकृतिविकार	,,	,,,	यव	,,	सक्तु.
(3) कार्यकारणभाव	,,	,,	धेनु	,,	वत्स.
(4) पात्रपात्रिक	,,	,,	पारिवृद्	,,	त्रिविष्टब्ध.
(5) साहचर्य	,,	,,	चक्रवाक	,,	चक्रवाकी.
(6) प्रतिद्वन्द्वि	,,	,,	शीत	,,	उच्चा.
(7) निमित्तनैमित्तिक	5		भोज्य	_	भोजक

As pointed above, the Buddhists and the followers of the वैशेषिक school do not recognise शब्द as a separate प्रमाण, but include it under अनुमान. वाच says that the relation between a वाक्य and its अर्थ is not that of लिङ्ग and लिङ्गिन, as between धूम and विद्गि. वाक्यार्थ, being only an object of cognition cognised by the वाक्य, cannot be known by inference.

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Trivill be interesting to know how बाच॰ has tried to bring the other प्रमाणs under the three recognised by the सांख्यs.

्राः अपमान. According to the नैयायिकः (प्रसिद्धसाधर्म्यात् साध्यसाधन-म्रपमानम्—न्या॰ स॰ 1 1. 6), उपमान is that sentence which establishes a relation between a word and its sense. But, according to the सांख्यs, a वाक्य is not a प्रमाण, but the knowledge (ज्ञान) derived from the वाक्य. It is the चित्तवृत्ति alone which is अमाण. So, उपमान cannot be a separate प्रमाण, but is included under अनुमान. According to the मीमांसकs, उपमान is the सादुःश्य-जान (or the cognition of similarity, as of गो residing in the directly perceived गवय). A man who saw a cow in the town, now observes a गवर in the forest. At this moment he is reminded of the cow which is qualified by the similarity of गवय directly perceived. This is the फल of उपमान. वाच॰ replies that this उपमान and its फल are both included under प्रत्यक्ष. For, साहस्य is like the सामान्य. Just as we have गोत्व in गो, so we have गोसाहस्य in गो. And as we directly perceive गोत्व along with गो, so we perceive गोसाहस्य and गवयसाहस्य along with गवय. Therefore, गोसाहस्यज्ञान (स्पमान) and गवयसाहस्यज्ञान (स्पमानफर) both are प्रत्यक्ष. साहस्य is not a relation (like संयोग) which should reside on two objects; it is only भ्रयोऽवयवसामान्ययोग. that is, the existence of a large number of qualities of one object in another. This साहस्य is, thus, one like गोत्व; and if it is perceived in गो, then it is perceived in गत्र्य also.

अर्थापति is Presumption. We presume the existence of living चैत्र outside the house, if he is not visible inside the house. But, the मीमांसक objects— देशसामान्येन गृहविशेषाक्षेपोऽपि पाश्चिक: etc. He says that when we hear जीवन चैत्रः क्रचिदस्ति, then the substratum of the existence of चैत्र is देशसामान्य (or space in general), which includes the particular space of गृह also. Thus, चैत्र's non-existence in the गृह is opposed to his existence in देशसामान्य. And, in order to remove this opposition, we have to resort to अर्थापति. वाच० replies that गृह (in

which the non-existence of चैत्र has been established by means of Right Cognition) cannot be included in देशसामान्य. Similarly चैत्र's non-existence in गृह (which is opposed to his existence in गृह) cannot be a case of opposition to his existence everywhere.

अभाव is no प्रमाण, but is included under प्रत्यक्ष. For, घटाभाव-वद्भुतल is merely a modification of भूतल. But, says an objector, how can अभाव (a negation) be a परिणाम (something positive)? Answer. Under एतेन भूतेन्द्रियेषु धर्मलक्षणावस्थापरिणामा ज्याख्याता: यो॰ स॰ III. 13), ज्यास has defined परिणाम as अवस्थितस्य द्रज्यस्य पूर्वधर्मनिवृत्तौ धर्मान्तरोत्पत्ति: परिणाम इति—i. e. modification is the manifestation of another characteristic on the removal of the previous characteristic of an object, which (object) always remains constant. So, when घट was on the भूतल, then it was सद्धितीयपरिणाम of भूतल; and when there is no घट, then it is the केवल or अद्वितीयपरिणाम of भूतल.

VI

Things directly perceived by the senses need not betaught by the शास्त्र, as they can be easily cognised by even an ordinary person. Now "things beyond the senses are not only those which are too subtle for organs of the sense, but those which are imperceptible by accident, as the fire in a mountain that smokes "(Davies, p. 27). The latter is an instance of पूर्ववत् अन्तमान, which बाच॰ regards to be as unimportant for our inquiry as the प्रत्यक्ष. The most important kind of अनुमान, from our point of view, is सामान्यतोद्दछ (and शेषवत्, which is not mentioned by the कारिका, but added by बाच॰), which leads us to infer things which are too subtle for the organs of sense. But जय॰ rejects पूर्ववत् and शेषवत् both (p. 9).

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VII

पतञ्जलि lays down six causes of अनुपलन्धि (महाभाष्य IV. I. 3). See Introduction. The eight causes of अनुपलन्धि mentioned in the कारिका are reduced to four by जय॰—

- (1) देशदोष includes अतिदूर and अतिसामीच्य.
- (2) इन्द्रियदोष ,, इन्द्रियघात and मनोऽनवस्थान.
- (3) विषयदोष = सौक्ष्म्य, and
- (4) अर्थान्तरदोष includes व्यवधान, अभिभव and समानाभिद्वार. Sovani is right in remarking that all these can be reduced to two— इन्द्रियदोष and विषयदोष (See p. 405). माटर lays down the causes of अनुपलन्धि of असन् (non-existent) things even— इदानीमसत्तां चतुर्धा भवति। तत्रोच्यते-प्राक्प्रध्वंसेतरेतरात्यन्ताभावभेदान्..... एवमियं द्वादशधानुपलन्धिः। सतामष्ट्रधा द्यसतां चतुर्धा॥

VIII

On the reading प्रकृतिसरूपं, Davies remarks—'Lassen has in the text स्वरूपं (having its own form), from the सांख्यकोमुदी, which must be referred to intellect (महत्). All the Mss. but one have सरूपं (like), which the sense requires. In his translation he has "dissimile et simile". (p. 27, 1n).

IX

वाच॰ here lays down the opinions of (1) the बाँद्रs, (2) the नैयायिकs and the वैशेषिकs, and (3) the वेदान्तिन्s as पूर्वपक्ष.

- (1) The बोद्धs maintain that existence comes into being from non-existence (असत: सजायते).
- (2) The नैयायिकs and the वैशेषिकs maintain that an existent cause produces a non-existent effect (सतोऽसञ्जायते).
- (3) The वेदान्तिन्s maintain that the cause alone is existent, the effect being only an apparent change (एकस्य सतो विवर्तः न कार्यजातं वस्तु सत्). All these views are fully discussed in the Introduction.

उपादानग्रहणात्—वाच॰ interprets ग्रहणात् as सम्बन्धात्. But जय॰, गौड॰, माठर and चन्द्रिका explain it as taking or seeking. S. N. S. observes that although गौड॰'s explanation is simpler, yet apparently, the same idea is repeated in शक्तस्य शक्यकरणात्. वाच॰'s explanation is also included in सर्वसम्भवाभावात्. "It is also to be noted that while उपादानग्रहणात् emphasises the adequacy of the cause to the effect, शक्तस्य शक्यकरणात् looks at the adequacy of the effect to the cause; hence, the latter does not merely repeat the idea of the former." (S. N. S. p. 28, 1n).

कारणभावाच — जय॰ gives two explanations of this phrase— कारणस्य सत्त्वादित्यर्थः। ययसत्कार्यमुत्पयते किमिति कारणभावेन कार्यस्य भावो भवति। भवति च। तस्माच्छक्तिरूपेणावस्थितमिति गम्यते। अथवा-कारणभा-वादिति कारणस्वभावात्। यत्स्वभावं कारणं तत्स्वभावं कार्यम्। यथा स्निग्धस्वभा-वभ्यास्तिलेभ्यः क्षिण्धमेव तेल्म्, मृदो मृत्स्वभावो घटः॥ (p. 12). माउर and गौड॰ agree with the latter explanation. वाच॰, on the other hand, explains it as कार्यस्य कारणात्मकत्वात् —on account of the identity of cause and effect.

X

हेतुमत्—, i.e., caused. व्यक्त or the evolved is caused. Cause, according to माउर, is of two kinds: कारक (producer) and ज्ञापक (illuminator or indicator). प्रधान, बुद्धि, अहङ्कार and पञ्च-तन्मात्रा's are the कारकहेतुंs, as they produce effects. That is, बुद्धि, अहङ्कार and पञ्चतन्मात्रांs are हेतुंs and हेतुमत् both, whileas, अव्यक्त (i.e. प्रधान) is only a हेतु. The ज्ञापक हेतुंs are five-fold, viz., विपर्यय, अञ्चक्ति, तुष्टि, सिद्धि and अन्तग्रह. Now, विपर्यय, अञ्चक्ति तुष्टि, सिद्धि and अन्तग्रह. Now, विपर्यय, अञ्चक्ति तुष्टि कार्य सिद्धि are the प्रत्ययसर्गेंड (i.e. creations of Intellect), and thus they pervade all the twenty-three तत्त्वs. (But what is this अनुग्रह?) Thus अव्यक्त is only a कारक हेतु.

आनित्यम—non-eternal, destructible. Destruction is the return of a product to its cause. cf.—नाशः कारणलयः (सां० स०१. १२१). For, according to the theory of सत्कार्य, there can be no real destruction or annihilation. प्रधान is नित्य, because it has no कारण to which it could return.

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like प्रधान and पुरुष: "each of these principles (tattwa) is not found in every form." (Davies, p. 34). But, is not the महत्तव all-pervading? To this वंशीयर replies—महदादेः स्वस्वकारणान्यापक-स्वाद्वपचित्वयापकत्वभित्यर्थः (p. 201),—the pervading-ness of महत्त, etc., is secondary, as they do not pervade their causes. And as प्रथान has no cause to pervade, it is न्यापि.

सिकयम् वाचि explains the word किया as परिस्पन्द which means the action of leaving one body and entering another. विज्ञानक, on the other hand, says—सिक्यत्वमध्यवसायादिरूपिनयतकार्य-कारित्वम्। प्रधानस्य तु सर्विकियासाधारण्येन कारणत्वाच कार्यैकदेशमात्रकारित्वम्। न च किया कर्मैव वक्तुं वाक्यते। प्रकृतिक्षोभात् मृष्टिश्रवणे नप्रकृतेरपिकर्मवत्त्याव सिक्यत्वापतेरिति (१. १२४). On this बाखराम remarks—क्षोभादि-परिणामलक्षणाकियायाः प्रधाने सत्त्वेऽपि गमनागमनलक्षणपरिस्वन्दात्मकियायाः असत्त्वाचित्व्याप्तिरिति व्यथीऽयं भिक्षोःप्रयास इति बोध्यम् (р. 121).

अनेकम—i. e, सजातीयभेदवत्, having a variety of similar objects; as a mango-tree has सजातीयभेद, several other mango trees of the similar type. So, बुद्धि, etc., although alike, are different in different individuals. But विज्ञान explains it otherwise—अनेकत्वं सर्गभेदेन भिन्नत्वम—सर्गद्वयसाधारण्यमिति यावत्। न पुनः सजातीयानेकव्यक्तिकत्वम्, प्रकृतावितव्याप्तेः। प्रकृतेरि सत्त्वायनेकरूपत्वात्. The fallacy of विज्ञान is pointed out by बाळराम—प्रकृतेरनेकरूपत्वेऽ व्यनेकव्यक्तिकत्वाभावेन प्रकृतिप्रतियोगिकान्योन्याभावस्य प्रकृतावसम्भवात्, किञ्च — अजामेकाम इति श्रवणादप्रामाणिकं प्रकृतेरनेकव्यक्तिकत्वाभिधानमित्यस्थान एव व्यामोहो भिक्षोरिति। (pp. 121–122).

छिङ्गम—According to गोड॰ and माठर, it means, that which merges into its primary cause. In addition to the above explanation, जम् and विज्ञान॰ give another alternative explanation. viz., that which indicates, or which is the characteristic of प्रधान. This is the sense taken by वाच॰ also. But प्रधान itself is a characteristic (छिङ्ग) of पुरुष. It is for this reason that वाच॰ remarks—प्रधान तु न प्रधानस्य छिङ्गं पुरुषस्य छिङ्गं भवदपीति भावः. On this, S. N. S. remarks that it "seems hardly adequate to the

contrast intended between the evolved and the unevolved."
(p. 32, 1n.)

सावयवम् — वाच॰ explains it as अवयवावयविसंयोगसंयोगि Why can there be no अवयवावयाविसंयोग between प्रधान and ब्राइ. etc. ? Because, between these, the relation is समवाय (=identity or तादात्म्य), and not संयोग. There can be no संयोग between the तन्त्रs and the पट produced out of them. But. will there be any संयोग between बढि and अहङ्कार, etc.? No commentator answers this, although, here also we can show that अहहार, being a product of बुद्धि, stands in समवाय relation to बढि. It is for this reason that गोंड॰, माठर and जय॰ explain the word अवयव as शब्द, रूप, स्पर्श etc., But they land themselves in another difficulty; for, the entire व्यक्त (viz., ब्रह्मि etc.) cannot be called as शब्दस्पर्शादिसम्पन्न. If it be urged that these शब्द and the rest do reside in a latent form in बाहि and the rest. then it may be pointed out that शब्द and the rest do reside in a latent form in प्रधान also. Even वाच॰, who tries to avoid this difficulty, has illustrated this संयोग as—तथा हि पृथिव्यादयः परस्परं संयुज्यन्ते एवमन्येऽपि ।

परतन्त्रम—Although, each of the twenty-three तरवं is subordinate to the other in the ascending order, yet, ultimately, all are subordinate to प्रकृति. Again, although ब्रह्म is independent in producing अहङ्कार, and the latter in producing the इन्द्रियं and the तन्मात्रां, yet each one is ultimately dependent upon प्रकृति, the fountain-head of all energy.

XI

রিয়ুणম্—The three যুজs or Attributes are the essence of মকুনি; মকুনি is nothing but these three যুজs in equilibrium. The kinds of temperaments observed in living beings may broadly be divided into three—spiritual, passionate and dull. Therefore, the सांख्य theory of three যুজs, although a mere hypothesis, is yet a very useful and appropriate hypothesis. Davies remarks—"In the system of Valentinus the

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Gnostic, all men and all substances are divided into three classes: (1) spiritual, (2) the vital and (3) the material (Hylic). This corresponds to the गुण of कपिड and is probably an importation from India. "(p. 37, 2n.)

विषय:—The view-point of the विज्ञानवादिन् बौद्ध is that there is no existence of the external objects, except in mind. That is, concept and the object denoted by the concept are identical, because both are comprehended simultaneously. Things, which are not identical, are not necessarily comprehended simultaneously; cf. 'सहोपल्म्भनियमादभेदो नील्तदियोः । भेदश्च श्रान्तिविज्ञानेर्द्दश्येतेन्दाविवाद्धये॥' (सर्वदर्शन०, p. 32), वाचस्पति's refutation of this view has been thus illucidated by बालराम—यत्र किलेकस्मित्रेव योषिदूपे वस्तुनि रक्तद्विद्धविमुदानां जनानां विभिन्नानि मुखादिज्ञानानि जायमानान्युपल्भ्यन्ते तत्र प्रमानृणां परस्परप्रतिसन्धानाद् वस्त्वेक्येऽपि ज्ञाननानात्वं दृश्यते। यदि दि वस्तु विज्ञानात्मकं भवेत् तिर्दि विज्ञानस्यासाधारण्यादनेकविज्ञानालम्बनमेकं साधारणं वस्तु न सम्भवेत्। अतः वस्तुसाधारण्योपपत्तये विज्ञानातिरिक्तं तद्मपुपेयमिति। (p. 128).

अचेतनम—बुद्धि (intellect) is merely an instrument of Pure Intelligence or चैतन्य, and not identical with it, because बुद्धि is a material product of प्रकृति.

The phrase तद्विपरीतस्तथा च पुमान् means that in some respects the Spirit is similar to व्यक्त and अव्यक्त, and in other respect it is different from व्यक्त and अव्यक्त.

Difference of पुरुष from व्यक्त and अव्यक्त-

व्यक्त and अव्यक्त	पुरुष
त्रिगुण	अगुण
अविवेकि	विवेकी
विषय	अविषय
सामान्य	असामान्य
अचेतन	चेतन
प्रसवधर्मि	अप्रसवधर्मी

Similarity of पुरूप to व्यक्त and अव्यक्त and difference of व्यक्त from अव्यक्त—

व्यक्त	अव्यक्त	पुरुष
हेतुमत्	अहेतुमत्	उ अहेतुमान्
अनित्य	नित्य	नित्य
अव्यापि	व्यापि	व्यापी
सकिय	निष्क्रिय	निष्किय
अनेक	एक	अनेक
आश्रित	अनाश्रित	अनाश्रित
िङ्ग	अलिङ्ग	अलिङ्ग
सावयव	निरवयव	निरवयव
परतन्त्र	स्वतन्त्र	स्वतन्त्र

It should be noted that गौड॰ and माठर say पुरुष एक:, which is opposed to the doctrine of पुरुषबहुत्व. जय॰ and वाच॰, therefore. rightly point out that पुरुष is similar to व्यक्त with regard to अनेकत्व. After discussing this point, Wilson concludes— "Either, therefore, Gaurapāda has made a mistake, or by his eka is to be understood, not that soul in general is one only, but that it is single, or several, in its different migrations; or, as Mr. Colebrooke renders it (R. A. S. Trans. Vol. I., p. 31), 'individual'. So in the Sutras it is said, 'that there may be various unions of one soul, according to difference of receptacle, as the etherial element may be confined in a variety of vessels' (I, 150). This singleness of soul applies, therefore, to that particular soul which is subjected to its own varied course of birth, death, bondage and liberation; for, as the commentator observes 'one soul is born, not another (in a regenerated body)'. The singleness of soul, therefore, as asserted by Gaurapada. is no doubt to be understood in this sense." (p. 65)

XII

गुणs do not mean qualities residing in a substance, as understood in the न्याय and वैशेषिक systems. They are of the

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nature of substance; they are the constituent elements of সকূনি. Hence, বাৰত says—যুগা হুনি বংগে:. That is, they are called যুগাs (secondary), because they exist for the Spirit and not for themselves.

गौड॰, माठर and जय॰ mention अन्योऽन्यवृत्तयः also, whileas वाच॰ and चिन्द्रका add अन्योऽन्य before and वृत्ति after अभिभव, आश्रम, जनन and मिथुन each. वृत्ति according to वाच॰, means किया (operation). जय॰ explains वृत्ति as मुखादिरूपेण परिणतिः. According to गौड॰, अन्योऽन्यवृत्तयः means परस्परं वर्तन्ते, i.e. are reciprocally present. माठर, however, seems to take वृत्ति in the sense of function. In a note on this word, Davies remarks—" वृत्ति means state, condition, or manner of being, and the meaning is that each गुण may, in some circumstances, assume the nature of the others or be the same in effect." (p. 36, 1n.)

गोड॰, माठर and जय॰ quote one verse, viz., रजसो मिथुनं सत्त्वं, etc.; जय॰ ascribes this verse to विष्णुगीता, which it is difficult to identify, unless it stands for हरिगीता = भगवद्गीता. But there is no such verse in the भगवद्गीता. The verse found there is—रजस्तमश्राभिभूय सत्त्वं भवति भारत। रजः सत्त्वं तमश्चेव तमः सत्त्वं रजस्तथा॥ (XIV. 10). We find a similar verse in the अश्वमेय-पर्वन् of the महाभारत—तमसो मिथुनं सत्त्वं सत्त्वस्य मिथुनं रजः। रजसश्चापि सत्त्वं स्यात् सत्त्वस्य मिथुनं तमः॥ (३६.६).

XIII

अर्थत:—जय॰ and वाच॰ explain it as पुरुषार्थतः, but गौड॰ takes it in the sense of सायना, and माठर explains it as कार्यवशात.

Now, these गुणs, on account of their having the characteristics of अन्योऽन्याभिभव, etc., assume different shapes. But, how do these गुणs perform functions of so different a nature? In reply to this वाच॰ gives an example of a woman, who, according to him, illustrates all the different functions of the गुणs. गोड॰, माटर and जय॰, on the other hand, illustrate सत्त्व by a lady, रजस् by warriors and तमस् by clouds. A virtuous

woman (and therefore, a सान्विक type) pleases her husband, pains her rivals and deludes the passionate people. The brave soldiers (and therefore, representing रजस्) of a king please their master, pain their opponents and delude the fugitives. The dark clouds covering the sky (and therefore, a तामस type) please the people suffering from heat, rouse activity among the peasants and delude the lovers in separation. But, there is one difficulty. The 3 गुणंs (=प्रकृति or मूटकारण) assume various shapes by permutation and combination. This amounts to saying that the मूटकारण is not one but many. Now, how does this position differ from that of the विशेषिक who also assume the plurality of causes? Cf.—नन्वेवं मूटकारणस्य परिच्छित्रासंख्यव्यक्तिकत्वे वैशेषिकमतादत्र को विशेष इति चेत्—The reply is कारणद्व्यस्य स्पर्शादिरादित्यमेव। 'शब्दस्पर्शविद्दीनं तु रूपादिभिरसंयुतम्। त्रिगुणं तज्जगयोनिरनादिप्रभवाप्यम् ॥ 'इति विष्णुपराणादिभ्यः ॥ विज्ञान॰ (I. 128).

But are not these your opposed to one another? The reply is—yes. Still they unite for प्रस्पार्थ, as wick, oil and lamp. The illustration is not a happy one, as we do not find any apparent opposition between तैल, वार्त and दीप in spite of the attempt of चिन्द्रका; cf. - दीपोपरि तैलपतनेन दीपनाशात् तैलमपि दीप-विरोधि, एवं वर्तिरिप स्वल्पकेन दीपनाशिकेति ॥ For this reason वाच॰ gives another example of this विरोध, -viz., यथा वा वातिपत्तक्ष्याण: परस्परविरोधिन: शरीरचारणठक्षणकार्यकारिण:. बालराम quotes a parallel passage from the देवीभागवत (3.9)— " 'प्रदीपश्च यथा कार्यं प्रकरोत्यर्थदर्शनम् । वर्तिस्तैलं यथार्चिश्र विरुद्धाश्र परस्परम् ॥ २९ ॥ विरुद्धं हि तथा तैलमग्रिना सह सङ्गतम्। तैलं वर्तिविरोध्येव पावकोऽपि परस्परम् ॥ ३०॥ एकत्रस्थाः पदार्थानां प्रक्विन्ति प्रदर्शनम्।।" (pp. 139-140). Really speaking, there can be no विरोध of these ग्रणs in any evolved thing (say, a human body). If at all there could be any विरोध, then it would be in the साम्यावस्था i. e. प्रकृति. In no परिणाम of प्रकृति are the गुणs in equal quantity. On the other hand, there is predominance of one over the others. So, there is no तुल्यबळत्व in the विकारs. Cf. रूपातिशया वृत्यतिशयाक्ष परस्परेण विरुध्यन्ते सामान्यानि त्वतिशयैः सह प्रवर्तन्ते —(व्यासभाष्य on यो. सू. II. 15).

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XIV

The difficulty lies in the expression तिह्नपर्ययाभावात्. गोंड० and माठर explain it as—'on account of the absence of the contraries of त्रेगुण्य in the प्रधान, अविवेक्यादि resides in the प्रधान.' वाच० offers an alternative explanation—'on account of the absence of अविवेक्यादि in the contrary of व्यक्त, i.e., पुरुष, अविवेक्यादि resides in the प्रधान and its constituents.' चिन्द्रका adopts the second explanation. जय० also agrees with it. cf. त्रेगुण्यस्याभावेऽविवेक्यादयोरभावात् (?)। न हि निर्गुणस्य पुरुषस्याविवेक्यादिः संभवति। तस्मात् त्रेगुण्यादेवाविवेक्यादिः सिद्धः ॥ (p. 20). The explanation of गोंड०, as rightly pointed out by S. N. S. (See p. 41, 1n.), renders the other half of the कारिका redundant, because, it simply repeats the same argument.

XV and XVI

The term भेद stands for the diverse forms of the evolved which differ from one another. As compared with its effects, a cause is unlimited and thus unmanifest. जय o uses a curious expression, (संवर्गिन्) for cause. It seems that the word संवर्ग stands for the union or contact of different effects in their cause; cf.—तस्मादेतेषामेकेन संवर्गणा भिवतव्यम । यहेतेषां संवर्गस्तदव्यक्तं कारणमस्ति (p. 21).

समन्वय = एकरूपता, similarity, or एकजात्यन्जगम (i. e. belonging to one genus), according to जय॰. गोड॰ understands समन्वय in the sense of 'inference—'यथा वतयारिणं बढुं दृष्ट्वा समन्वयति, नूनमस्य पितरी ब्राह्मणाविति। The explanation of समन्वयात् (सां. सू. I. 131) as offered by विज्ञान॰, viz., उपवासादिना क्षणि हि बुद्धचादितत्त्वमनादिभिः समन्वयेन समनुगतेन पुनस्पचीयते (i. e. intellect and the rest, emaciated by fast, are again strengthened by food, etc.), 'does not directly fit in this Kārikā,' as rightly pointed out by Sovani (p. 411).

कारणकार्यविभागात्—वाच॰ understands the word विभाग as, emergence ',—just as the jar, etc., emerge from the clay,

etc. जय॰, माउर and गाँड॰ explain it as 'separation' or 'distinction' between the functions of the cause and the effect; — just as you can bring water in a jar but not in clay. Thus, there is a distinction between a cause and its effect, because both serve different purposes (पृथगर्थक्रियाकरणात्). But, it is difficult to understand how one can conclude from this argument that तस्माइस्य कारणेन भित्रत्वयम. जय॰ here quotes the explanation of some other commentary (which is not traceable):—अस्मिन् व्याख्याने, 'कार्यतस्तदुपख्व्येमेहदादि तच कार्यम्' इत्यनेनैवसिद्धत्वाद्व्येस्न्यथा व्याख्यायते—यदुपकरोति तन् कारणम्, यदुपक्रियते तत्कार्यम्, तयोर्विभागान्, उपकार्योपकारकभावादित्यथः। यथाध्यात्मिकानां बाह्यानां चोपकार्योपकारकभावो खिक्कत इव दृश्यते तदस्य कश्चिद् व्यवस्थापिता [पियता] स्यात्, क्रतोऽयं विभाग इत्यन्यथानुपपत्ते:॥ (pp. 21-22).

अविभागात् वैश्वरूपस्य—According to वाच॰, गोड॰ and माठर, the term अविभाग means 'merging';—because this diverse evolved merges into the unevolved. जय॰ also quotes the opinion of some unknown commentator who adopts the reading आविभागे, where आविभाग means लय. जय॰ sown explanation is different. It takes आविभाग in the sense of आविभक्त, and explains the phrase as—'because this diversity is produced out of unity.' cf. इह लोकेऽविभक्तादेकस्मादिश्वद्रव्याद्रसफाणितगुडखण्डशर्करादि-वेश्वरूपं नानात्वं हश्यते.....एवमाध्यात्मिकानां बाह्यानां च वेश्वरूप्यम्। तस्मा-देपामविभक्तेनेकेन भवितव्यम्। (p. 22).

प्रवर्तते त्रिगुगतः समुद्याच—According to वाच॰ and जय॰, these two expressions indicate the two kinds of प्रवृत्तिः of गुणः, because गुणः are in constant modification—cf. परिणामिनित्यता गुणानाम (व्यासभाष्य on यो. सू. IV. 33). The first kind of modification is that सत्त्व, रजम् and तमम् modify themselves as सत्त्व, रजम् and तमम्. Here, the साम्यावस्था is intact; there is no creation. But, when there is a विषमपरिणाम (or समुद्दय), we have creation. Here सत्त्व and the rest combine with one another in different proportions, one predominating over the others. The other commentators take त्रिगुणतः and समुद्दयान् both, as referring only to the creative activity of प्रकृति.

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XVII

The reading संहतपरार्थत्वात्, adopted by Wilson, is not supported by गाँड॰. who reads संघातपरार्थत्वात्. Wilson's reading of the text is an obvious mistake (based upon, perhaps, the सां. सू.—संहतपरार्थत्वात्, I. 140), as it is not supported by any commentary.

अधिशानात्—पुरुष is the अधिशता of प्रकृति, as a charioteer is that of a chariot. Question:—But, a charioteer is active, and your पुरुष, being निर्गुण=निष्किय, is not active; how can he become an अधिशता? Reply:—It is not essential that only an active entity can move or urge anything. Sometimes mere proximity or contact brings about activity, as we see in the case of iron and load-stone. Cf. तत्संनियानाद्दिशतृत्वं मणित्रद् (सं. स्. 1. 96). Or, mere presence also can bring about an activity, as in the case of a King. Cf.—

न च सर्वत्र तुल्यत्वं स्यात्त्रयोजककर्मणाम् । चलनेन हासि योद्धा प्रयुंक्ते च्छेदनं प्रति ॥ ८५ ॥ सेनापतिस्तु वाचैव भृत्यानां विनियोजकः । राजा सान्निश्चिमात्रेण विनियुङ्क्ते कदाचन ॥ ८६ ॥ तस्माद्चलतोऽपि स्याचलने कर्तृतात्मनः ।

> (कुमारिल's श्लोकवार्तिक on मी. सू . I. 5, Chowkhamba edn., p. 710).

वालराम thinks that this argument about the आधिशातृत्व of पुरुष answers all the criticisms brought forward by शहराचार्य in his भाष्य on रचनातुपपत्तेश्व and प्रवृत्तेश्व (ब्र. स्. II. 2. 1 and 2).

केवल्यार्थं प्रवृत्तेश्व—माउर assigns this प्रवृत्ति to प्रधान, whileas, वाच॰ and others take this प्रवृत्ति as belonging to the शास्त्र and the sages—आगमानां महाधियां च ॥

XVIII

On जन्म and मरण, विज्ञान॰ says—जन्ममरणे चात्र नोत्पातिविनाशौ पुरुपनिष्ठत्वाभावात् । किन्त्वपूर्वदेहेन्द्रियादिसंघातिवशेषेण संयोगश्च वियोगश्च भोगतद्दभावनियामकाविति (सां. स. 1. 149).

The view of the वेद्दान्तिन् is that one and the same आत्मन् assumes plurality on account of being conditioned by the different bodies. Cf. 'उपाधिभेदेऽप्येकस्य नानायोग आकाशस्येव घटादिभि:।" "उपाधिभेयते न तु तद्वान्।" "एवमेकत्वेन परिवर्तमानस्य न विरुद्धधर्माध्यासः।' (सां० स.० 1 150–152). माठर sets the पूर्वपक्ष in the following words:— इह केचिद्दाचार्या वेद्द्वादिन इति मन्यन्ते—, एकोऽयं पुरुषः सर्वशरीरेष्ट्रपलभ्यते मणि- सृत्रवत्। इह रसनायां यावन्तो मणयस्तेषु सर्वेष्वेकमेव सृत्रं प्रवर्तते। एवं माणिभृतेषु शरीरेषु किमेकः सृत्रभूतः परमात्मा, आहोभित् जलचन्द्रवत् पुरुष इत्येक एव बहुषु नदीकृपतडागादिष्विवोपलभ्यते इति॥ Cf. षिमानन्द (सांख्यतत्त्वविवेचन, p. 13, Chow. S. S. No. 246):—"आकृतिगर्भाशयभावसङ्गतिशरीरविभागाहिङ्गबहुत्वात् सांख्याचार्याः किपलामुरिपञ्चशिखपतक्षालिप्रभृतयः पुरुषबहुत्वं वर्णयन्ति। वेद-वादिन आचार्या, हरिहराहरण्यगर्भव्यासादय एकमात्मानं, तथा च श्रुतिः........ एक एव हि भूतात्मा भूते भृते व्यवस्थितः। एकघा बहुषा चैव दृश्यते जलचन्द्रवत्॥" (This verse from ब्रह्मविन्दूपनिषद्, १. २, is quoted by विज्ञान० also on सां. सू. 1. 153).

But, does not this doctrine of पुरुषबहुत्व contradict the श्रुतिs which lay down the unity of soul (i. e. आत्मेक्य)? The सां. स. says, No.—" नाह्रैतश्रुतिविरोधो जातिपरत्वान्" (I. 154).—These scriptures speak of one आत्मन् in the sense of class notion. वाच॰ also tries to reconcile the अह्रैतश्रुतिविरोध as follows—" एकत्वश्रुतीनां च प्रमाणान्तरिवरोधान् कथंचिद्देशकालिवभागाभावेन भक्त्याप्युप्पते:। प्रकृत्येकपुरुषनानात्वयाश्र श्रुत्येव साक्षान् प्रतिपादनान्। 'अजामेकां लोहितश्रुक्तकृष्णां वहीं: प्रजा: मृजमानां सरूपा:। अजो होको जुपमाणोऽनुशेते जहात्येनां मुक्तभोगामजोऽन्य:॥' (त. आ. ६. १०)॥" तत्त्ववैशार्था, on यो. स. 11. 22.

Further on, says the सांख्य, if you are going to explain away this नानात्व by उपाधिs, then you will land yourself into another absurdity. For, as शरीर is the उपाधि of आत्मन, so the limbs (अवयवs) are the उपाधिs of a body (a संवात). And

when we see the appearance and disappearance of the limbs in a body, will the वेदान्तिन् call these phenomena the births and deaths of the same body?

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माध्यस्थ्य or औदासीन्य is of seven kinds according to जय ः— सप्तिविधं चास्यौदासीन्यम्। तथा चोक्तम्—पश्यित श्रृणोति सर्वे करोति स्थितिं प्रसङ्गं च नापि। स्वतो न परतो...नोभयतश्चाप्यदासीनः॥ जय ०, further raises the question that if पुरुष is मध्यस्थ and अकतां, then how is he a भोक्ता?—ननु च ययकतां तत्कथं भोक्तृभावादास्ति पुरुषः? तथा चाहुः—
बालहुताशनत्वः स्वयमकृतानां यथा हि भोक्तारः। पुरुषोऽपि विषयफलानां स्वयमकृतानां तथापि भोक्ता। इति।

अचेतनं चेतनाविद्य लिङ्गम् etc. Intellect and the rest, although non-intelligent, seem to be intelligent, on account of the proximity of the Spirit. Thus alone can the experience—'I know' be explained. Although the entire activity belongs to the Attributes (transformed into महत्, अहङ्कार and the rest), yet, on account of its reflection in the Intellect, the really indifferent Spirit seems to be active. Cf. उपरागात् कर्तृत्वं चित्सांनिध्यात् (सां. सू. I, 164). The Spirit in its turn transfers its intelligence to matter. This transference is thus illustrated by various commentators—'यथाग्रिसंयोगात् लोहमणिरित्युच्यते।'(जय॰)' अनुष्णाशीतो घटः शीताभिरद्भिः संस्पृष्टः शीतो भवति, आग्रेना संयुक्त उष्णो भवति।'(माठर)॥ 'यथाग्न्ययसोः परस्परं संयोगविशेषात् परस्परधमंज्यवहार औषाधिको यथा वा जलस्ययोः संयोगात् परस्परधमारोपस्तथेव बुद्धिपुरुषयोरिति भावः।' (विज्ञान॰, सां. स. I, 164)॥

अकतृंत्व of पुरुष is further supported by जय॰ by the following quotation—प्रवर्तमानान् प्रकृतिरिमान् गुणांस्तमोऽभिभृतो विपरीतदर्शनः । अहं करोमीत्यबुधोऽभिमन्यते तृणस्य झुटजीकरणेऽप्यनीत्रयः ।। This quotation is found in the तत्त्वसमासस्त्रवृत्ति (Chow. S. S. No. 246, p. 124) and सांस्यतत्त्वविवेचन also (ibid, p, 12) with slight variants.

वाच॰ connects दर्शनार्थ (in पुरुषस्य दर्शनार्थं कैवल्यार्थं तथा प्रयानस्य) with प्रयानस्य, and कैवल्यार्थं with पुरुषस्य. The other commenta-

tors take the line as it stands, i. e. पुरुषस्य दर्शनार्थं and प्रधानस्य केवल्यार्थम्. While explaining 'विम्रुक्तमोक्षार्थं स्वार्थं वा' (सां. मृ. II, 1). विज्ञान also connects केवल्य with प्रधान.

NOTES

XXII

In his भाष्य (on यो. स. 11 19) व्यास describes the तन्मात्रs as the products of महत्तत्व (—एते सत्तामात्रस्यात्मनो महतःपदिवेशेपपरिणामाः). But there the महत् should not be taken as the immediate cause (i. e. producer) of these तन्मात्रs. व्यास has himself said at another place (यो. स., 1. 45) that these तन्मात्रs are the products of अहङ्कार.

माउर and गाँड॰ hold that these तन्मात्रs singly produce the महाभूतs. The other commentators hold that each succeeding महाभूत is produced from the combination of the preceding तन्मात्रs. For example, शब्दतन्मात्र and स्पर्शतन्मात्र produce वाग्र: शब्दतन्मात्र, स्पर्शतन्मात्र and रूपतन्मात्र produce तेजस् and so on. But this theory of वाच॰ violates the orthodox पञ्चीकरण theory of the वेदान्तिन्त. The point is noticed by कल्पतरुकार, who says—

सम्प्रदायाध्वना पञ्चीकरणं यद्यपि स्थितम् । तथापि युक्तिदृष्टत्वाद्वाचस्पतिमतं ग्रुभम् ॥ पृथिन्यनलात्मत्वं गगने पवने ऽपि चेत् । रूपवस्वमहत्त्वाभ्यां चाक्षुपत्वं प्रसञ्यते ॥ अर्द्धभूयस्त्वतः क्षित्याद्यविभावनकत्पने । न्यवहारयथाप्राप्ता मुधा पञ्चीकृतिभैवेत् ॥ अन्पेक्ष्य फलं वेदसिद्धेत्येवेष्यते यदि । वित्रवृत्कृतिः श्रुता पञ्चीकृतिने कचन श्रुता ॥

(quoted by वंशीयर in his comm. on तत्त्वकामुदी, p. 293 Chow. S. S.).

माउर gives a queer and fantastic derivation of the word अहङ्कार—चतुःषष्टिवर्णेः पराद्विवेखरीपर्यन्ताभिययेयंतिकमप्यभिषीयते बुद्ध्या ममर्थ्य तत्सकलमायन्ताकारहकारवणद्वययहणेनोपरिस्थितपिण्डानुकारिणा विन्दुना भ्यितः प्रत्याहारन्यायेनाहङ्कार इत्यभिषीयते ।।

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XXIII

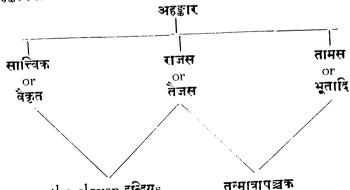
गौंड॰ and माउर curiously divide ज्ञान and वैराग्य into two kinds—internal and external. Sovani is right in criticising this classification (p. 414), as ज्ञान means only प्रधानपुरुषान्यताज्ञान in this कारिका, and not the knowledge of the वेद and the rest. Similarly, the आभ्यन्तर—वैराग्य (viz., प्रधानमप्यत्र स्वप्नेन्द्रजालसङ्गमिति विरक्तस्य मोक्षेप्सोयंदुत्पचते) is the principal वैराग्य which leads to the बाह्यवैराग्य also. For, who will be indifferent towards the worldly objects unless he is मोक्षेप्स ?

बालराम does not read गरिमा in his text of तत्त्वकौम्रदी. Our edition of तत्त्वकौम्रदी, जय॰, माउर and गौड॰ mention nine kinds of ऐश्यंड although each one (except वाच॰) says अष्टविधमैश्यंम. It seems, therefore, that बालराम's text is the correct one. Our edition of तत्त्वकौमुदी and वंशीयर's edition, however, combine ईशित्व and विशित्व and thus make the total eight.

जय॰ reads यत्रकामावशायित्त्रम् in place of यत्रकामावसायित्त्रम्, and derives it as—कामेनेच्छयावशेतुं शीलं यस्य स यत्रकामावशायी । तस्यः भावः यत्रकामावशायित्त्रम् । अनेकार्थत्वात् धातूनां 'शी 'तिष्ठतो वर्तते ।

XXV

अहङ्कार is divided into three kinds -



the eleven इन्द्रियंड तन्मात्रापञ्चक This is the scheme adopted by वाच॰ and others. But विज्ञान॰ (on सां. सू. II. 18) would have—

In support of his classification, विज्ञान॰ quotes from some स्मृति—

वेकारिकस्तैजसश्च तामसश्चेत्यहं त्रिधा । अहंतस्वाद्विकुर्वाणान्मनो वेकारिकादभूत् ॥ वेकारिकाश्च ये देवा अर्थाभिन्यञ्जनं यतः । तेजसादिन्द्रियाण्येव ज्ञानकर्ममयानि च ॥ तामसो भूतसूक्ष्मादिर्यतः खं लिङ्गमात्मनः।

But this explanation is wrong; for सत्त्व and तमस् are inactive by themselves, and cannot produce anything unless helped by the mobile रजस्. वंशीघर's explanation, viz.,—' समधीन्द्रियाणि मनोऽपेक्षयाऽल्पसत्त्वत्वेन राजसकार्यत्वेनेव स्मृतिपु निर्दिष्टान्यत्र तु व्यधीन्द्रियापेक्षयाऽिकसत्त्वत्वेन सात्त्विकाहङ्कारकार्यत्योक्तानीत्यविरोध: I'' is very lame (See सांख्यतत्त्वकौभ्रदीटीका of वंशीघर. Chow. S. S., p. 343; see further बालराम, pp. 177-178 and Sovani, p. 415).

XXVII

The first phrase उभयात्मकं, gives the general characteristic of the mind and the second phrase संकल्पकं मनः gives the proper function of the mind. गोंड॰ interprets संकल्पकं as प्रश्नातं कल्पयति, i. e., which determines the functioning (of the two sets of इन्द्रियं). वाच॰ understands संकल्पकं as विशेषणविशेष्यभावेन कल्पयति i. e. perceives the definite properties as belonging to the thing apprehended. जय॰ and चन्द्रिका agree with वाच॰. What वाच॰ means is that all the senses of perception cognise their respective objects vaguely, and this is निविकल्पकप्रत्यक्ष or simple-perception. But as mere simple-perception of an object is of no use in our every-day life, so the help of mind is

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sought to give a definite and concrete shape to that percept. This is what is called सिवकल्पकप्रत्यक्ष or complex-perception. The first is नामजात्यादियोजनादीनं आलोचनज्ञानं, and, therefore, निर्विकल्पक; the second is नामजात्यादिसंयुक्तं ज्ञानं, and, therefore, सिवकल्पक. In his support, वाच॰ cites आस्त ह्यालोचितज्ञानं etc., from कुमारिल's लोकवार्तिक (on मी. स. I. 4., verses 112 and 120, pp. 168 and 172, Chow. S. S.).

The reading adopted by भट्टोत्पछ is—संकल्पकमत्र मनः, तन् चेन्द्रियम्यथा समाख्यातम् । (See S. N. S., p. 126; but he quotes संकल्प-कमत्र मनः, उभयात्मकमिन्दियं च साथम्यात् in J. R. A. S., July 1931, p. 631). The Chinese version of the Samkhya Karika also reads "Manas is that which discerns" and thus agrees with भट्टोत्पङ s reading. उभयात्मकत्व has been thus illustrated by परमार्थ—"It is in the same manner that a man can pass for an artisan or an orator at the same time." (Tak. S. K., p. 35).

इन्द्रियं च साथम्यात्—जय॰ remarks:—यथान्यदिन्द्रलिङ्गं तथा मनोऽ-पीत्यर्थः But वाच॰ criticises this view:—इन्द्रियान्तरैः सात्विकाहङ्कारो-पादानत्वं च साथम्यम्, न त्विन्द्रलिङ्गत्वम् । महद्दहङ्कारयोरप्यात्मलिङ्गत्वेनोन्द्रियत्व-प्रसङ्गात् । तस्माद्व्युत्पत्तिमात्रमिन्द्रलिङ्गत्वं, न तु प्रवृत्तिनिमित्तम् ।

माठर reads पाद्यभेदाच in place of बाह्यभेदाश्व. This is noted by चिन्द्रका also. माठर's reading is preferable, because the second line of the कारिका lays down the reasons of the नानात्व of इन्द्रियं, the two reasons being, गुणपरिणामविशेषान् and पाद्यभेदान्.

The question is—how can one अहङ्कार create these manifold इन्द्रियंs whose functions differ? This question is raised by उद्योतकर in his न्यायवार्तिक (Chow S. S., p. 70)—यदि पुनिरिन्द्रयाण्ये-कात्मकानि स्यु:, कारणस्वभावानुविधानादैकात्म्याद्विषयव्यवस्था न स्यात्, सर्वे सर्वार्धमेकं वा सर्वार्थमित स्यात्। The reply to it is—गुणपिणामविशेषात्. Although अहङ्कार is one, yet the three गुणंड, accompanied by धमं and अवमं, act and react upon one another; therefore, धमं and अवमं, act and react upon one another; therefore, the modified effects of अहङ्कार (i. e. the इन्द्रियंड) differ in their functions.

इह सांख्यानां स्त्रभात्रो नाम कश्चित् कारणमस्ति । This seems to be an interpolation or a mistake. In the first place, स्त्रभात्र is not

recognised as a cause in the सांख्य philosophy. माउर, in his बृति on the 31st कारिका says—इह सांख्ये पुरुषेश्वरस्त्रभावा न कारणम्। Secondly, even गौड० himself says so in the भाष्य on the 61st कारिका—मर्वकर्तृत्वात् कालस्यापि प्रधानमेव कारणम्। स्वभावोऽप्यत्रव लीनः। तस्मान् कालो न कारणं, नापि स्वभाव इति। Whosoever is responsible for the mistake, he has continued his notion of स्वभाव being a कारण, further in the भाष्य. cf. अधैतन्नानात्वं नेश्वरेण, नाहङ्कारेण, न बुद्धया न प्रधानेन; न पुरुषेण, स्वभावात् कृतगुणपरिणामेनेति।

But if we compare माउर on the 31st कारिका, we find—अथ-तन्नानत्वं नेश्वरेण न बुद्ध्या नाहङ्कारेण न प्रधानेन न पुरुषेण न स्त्रभावेन कृतम्, गुणपरिण्यमेनेति । On the basis of माउर's reading, I propose that we ought to read न स्त्रभावात्, कृतं गुणपरिणामेनेति । That is, this, नानात्व is not caused by God.......or Spontaneity, but by the modification of the Attributes.

Wilson has translated it—"but from modification of qualities produced by spontaneity." Keeping the text as it is, I have tried to steer clear of spontaneity as the cause. My translation is—"but is caused by the spontaneous modification of the Attributes." But to have this sense even we ought to read स्वभावकृतगुणपरिणाभेनेति.

परमार्थ seems to translate the word स्वभाव by 'Special Being' or 'a Special Dharma', which may be called "Being".

The reading गुणानामचेतनत्वात्र प्रवर्तते; प्रवर्तत एव is also faulty. I think we ought to read गुणामनामचेतनत्वात्र प्रवृत्तिः; अस्त्येव प्रवृत्तिः।

The following classification of the organs by परमार्थ, has no parallel in any commentary.

"Among the organs, there are those which apprehend objects close by while others perceive things from afar. Their object is double; (1) to avoid danger, (2) to protect the body. 'To avoid danger' (relates to the eyes and ears, which) in seeing and hearing from afar, avoid the danger. 'To protect the body' (relates to the eight other organs, which) perceive the eight species of objects, from each of the objects

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approaching the corresponding organ; that permits us to regulate our body, according to these objects. " (Tak. S. K., p. 37).

माठर reads रूपादियु in place of शब्दादियु in the text. बालराम also adopts this reading and observes :--चञ्चरादिक्रमेण पूर्वमिन्दि-याणामभियानात् ' शब्दादियु ' इति पाठो न सन्तिवेशितः । (p. 184, In.)

The word मात्र stands in the sense of "uniqueness" according to गाँड॰ and माउर; but, according to वाच॰, this word means "bareness." परमार्थ, seems to waver between the two senses. [See, Tak. S. K., pp. 37-38; S. N. S., p. 63, 1n. and J. R. A. S., July 1931, p. 632 (1)].

XXIX

स्वारुक्षण्यम्। गौड० and माठर read स्वारुक्षण्या.

सामान्यकरणवृत्तिः प्राणाया वायवः पञ्च। Does the word करण stand for त्रिविध अन्त:करण or त्रयोदशविध करण? While वाच॰ adopts the former view, all the other commentators agree to the latter interpretation, although 4137 curiously says at one place -समस्तस्यान्त:करणस्येत्यर्थः। विज्ञान॰ also explains the word करण as अन्त:करण in his भाष्य (on सां. सू. II 31). But वाच॰, while commenting on समस्तेन्द्रियवृत्तिः प्राणादिरुक्षणा जीवनम् (योगभाष्य on III 39), has given a different interpretation, viz., स हि प्रयत्नभेदः शरीरोपगृहीतमारुतिकयाभेदहेतुः सर्वकरणसाधारणः यथादः 'सामान्यकरणव्यत्तिः प्राणाचा वायव: पञ्च ' इति । बालराम correctly points out the discrepancy. He suggests that योगभाष्येऽपि समस्तेन्द्रियशब्देनान्त:करणत्रयमेव प्रार्ध, न तु बाद्येन्द्रियमपि, because in deep sleep when all the external sense-organs are dormant, we see the five vital airs Therefore, these vital airs cannot be said to be functioning. the function of external sense-organs.

XXX

Cognition has been divided into three kinds in the सांख्य philosophy, viz., perception (प्रत्यक्ष), inference (अनुमान) and valid testimony (शब्द). Now, in प्रत्यक्ष, the three अन्त:करणs and one of the organs of sense,—all four seem to function

simultaneously and gradually. But, according to the नैयायिकs there are only gradual stages, which, however, are not observable on account of the swiftness of the different functions. Cf. ज्ञानायागपथोदकं मनः (न्या. मू. III. 2. 57), न युगपदनेक-कियोप टब्ये: (ibid, III. 2. 58), अलातचक्रदर्शनवत् तदुपलब्यिराग्रसञ्चारात् (ibid, III. 2. 59). For, according to the नैयायिकs, the mind is अगुपरिमाण. The followers of सांख्य, on the other hand, regard the mind to be of मध्यमपरिमाण, and, therefore, there can be a युगपद्वृत्ति.

In the case of अनुमान and মহ, only the three अन्त:কংणs function. They can operate simultaneously and gradually both, but they do not depend upon the cognition of senses at that particular moment.

XXXI

সাহ্ন—Davies observes:—' $\overline{A}k\overline{u}ta$ is glossed in the Petersb, Lexicon by Absicht (= purpose), Antrieb (= motive). Colebrooke's translation is "incited by mutual invitation."...
.....The meaning of "incitement to activity," mentioned by Wilson, expresses more nearly the sense of $ak\overline{u}ta$It is composed of \overline{a} , to, towards, and $k\overline{u}$, to cry. Gaudapāda says that it means $\overline{a}darasambhrama$ (respectful eagerness in action).' (p. 68, 1n).

Davies is wrong in considering that गोंड॰ is correct in applying this verse to the three internal organs only (See Davies, p. 68, in). All the other commentators apply it to all the organs, for each and every इन्द्रिय functions for प्रस्थार्थ.

The spirit of the सां. स., "स हि सर्ववित् सर्वकतां" (III. 56) and "इंद्रशेश्वरसिद्धिः सिद्धा" (III. 57), goes directly against the theory of the कारिकाs, where no ईश्वर is mentioned. Nor is the position helped by विज्ञान 's remark, viz, प्रकृतिलीनस्य जन्येश्वरस्य सिद्धिः 'यः सर्वज्ञः सर्वविद् यस्य ज्ञानमयं तपः' इत्यादिश्वतिभ्यः सर्व-सम्मतेव, नित्यस्येश्वरस्येव विवादास्पद्त्वादित्यर्थः ॥......न्ववेवमीश्वरप्रतिपेथ-विरोधस्तवाह—'इंद्रशेश्वरसिद्धिः सिद्धां। सात्रिध्यमात्रेणेश्वरस्य सिद्धिस्तु सर्व-सम्मतेत्वर्थः। (सां. स. III. 57).

The word प्रमार्थ has been rendered as "The will of Spirit" by परमार्थ. The idea of the Spirit having a will is further strengthened by परमार्थ—"Spirit has this will: 'you have to manifest yourself, and find for me a solitary existence. To obey this will of Spirit, the three gunas produce all the organs. It is in accord with the will of Spirit that each one acquits itself of its appropriate function; besides the will of Spirit, there is not any other instigator." (Tak. S. K., p. 41) This soul of परमार्थ is more akin to the इंचर of the नेयायिक who is endowed with इच्छा (and other गुणs); such a soul is foreign to सांख्य [See also, J. R. A. S., July 1931, p. 632, (m)].

XXXII

The three functions of seizing, retaining and manifesting are, as Davies rightly points out (pp. 69-70), common to all the organs. Thus "the organ of sight seizes and holds the impression conveyed by an external object and manifests it to manas." (ibid). According to गाँड॰, आहरण and धारण belong to कमेंन्द्रियं and प्रकाशन to इंद्रीन्द्रियं . माठर ascribes आहरण to इन्द्रियं in general, and धारण and प्रकाशन to अहङ्कार and बुद्धि respectively. वाचं followed by चन्द्रिका, would relegate आहरण to कमेन्द्रियं , धारण to बुद्धी , अहङ्कार and मनस्, and प्रकाशन to बुद्धीन्द्रियंs. According to परमार्थ, आहरण belongs to अन्तःकरण, प्रकाशन to बुद्धीन्द्रियंs and धारण to कमेन्द्रियंs [see Tak. S. K., p. 42].

The word दशया in the second half of this verse presents a difficulty. वाच॰ takes दशया with आहाये, धार्य and प्रकाश्य each. The objects seized by the इन्द्रियs, being only five, are doubled by dividing them into दिन्य and अदिन्य. Similarly, the body which is retained by the अन्तःकरण, is made up of five vital airs; but these are also दिन्य and अदिन्य, and so tenfold. The objects manifested by the बुद्धोन्द्रियs are also tenfold because of being divided into दिन्य and अदिन्य varieties. I think there is another and better way of explaining the कारिका. The objects

seized, retained and manifested are altogether ten, viz., five objects of organs of action and five objects of organs of sense. These ten are supervised by the three internal organs.

XXXIII

বাৰo explains why কাল is not recognised as a separate category in the सांख्य philosophy. According to the वैशेपिकसन "अपरस्मिन्नपरं युगपिच रं क्षिप्रमिति लिङ्गानि" (II. 2. 6), काल is one category which is divided into three parts-past, present and future—. according to different circumstances. प्रशस्तपाह clarifies this point—" एकत्वेऽपि सर्वकार्याणामारम्भकियाभिनिर्वृत्तिस्थिति-निरोचोपाधिभेदान्मणिवत्पाचकादिवद्वा नानात्वोपचारः; that is, just as one and the same man is called a पाठक or a पाचक in different circumstances, or just as one and the same piece of crystal assumes different colours according to the objects placed near it, so all the effects, though of one nature, become different under the different circumstances of beginning. ending, remaining and perishing. Thus, there is only one কাত. To this বাৰণ replies— Why should we first assume one কাত and then assume different circumstances or उपाधिs to make this काल multifarious? Why should we not recognise the उपाधिs only? Cf. स खल्बरं कालो वस्तुग्रन्योऽपि बुद्धिनिर्माणः शब्दज्ञानानुपाती लौकिकानां व्युत्थितदर्शनानां वस्तुस्वरूप इवाभासते-योगभाष्य on III. 52.

XXXIV

अविशेष = non-specific, i. e., तन्मात्राड. विशेष = specific, i. e., पञ्चमहाभूतड.

XXXV

The word द्वारे has been translated by S. N. S., as 'principal'. The translation is based upon जयo's phrase द्वाराण्यस्य सन्तीति. I think that 'warder 'expresses the sense of द्वारे better than 'principal'. For, in spite of the fact that all the sense-organs bring their percepts to the अन्तःकरण, the latter itself receives these percepts for delivering them to पुरुष, as

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is clear from the next कारिका. The criticism of S. N. S. would have been right if अन्तःकरण were to retain these percepts for itself and not present them to the Spirit. Therefore, the three-fold अन्तःकरण acts as a warder for the Spirit and not as the principal (one). परमार्थ renders त्रिवियं करणं द्वारि as "the three internal organs master the gate." (Tak. S. K., p. 44).

XXXVII

of the superiority of sig. nieo, on the other hand, interprets the first line as the cause of the second;—because intellect brings about the entire enjoyment of the Spirit, therefore, it brings about also the discrimination between the Spirit and the Nature. Hist quotes the following speech of segit.—

अहङ्कारो धियं बूते मैनं सुप्तं प्रबोधय । प्रबुद्धे परमानन्दे न त्वं नाहं न तज्जगत् ॥ मिय तिष्ठत्यहङ्कारे पुरुषः पञ्चविंशकः । तत्त्ववृन्दं परित्यज्य स कथं मोक्षमिच्छति ॥ योऽसौ सर्वेश्वरो देवः सर्वव्यापी जगद्गुरुः । देहीति पद्मुचार्य हा मयात्मा लघुः कृतः ॥

माठर further remarks—न हि भगवतः कपिलस्य मते किमपि कर्तव्यमनुष्टेयतया, किं तु सांख्यानां पञ्चविंशतितत्त्वज्ञानमेव साधर्म्यण वैधर्म्यण च निःश्रेयसहेतुः। उत्तं च—

इस पित्र छढ मोद नित्यं विषयानुपभुञ्ज कुढ च मा शङ्काम् । यदि विदितं ते किपिलमतं तत्प्राप्त्यसे मोश्रसौख्यं च ॥ This verse is more of tirade against the सांख्य philosophy than an exposition.

XXXVIII

Why तन्मात्राs are called अविशेषs?—This has been explained by गौड॰ and माठर as देवानामेते सुखलक्षणा विषया दु:खमोहरहिता:, which is wrong. For, तन्मात्राs, being evolved out of त्रिगुणात्मिका प्रकृति, cannot be said to be devoid of दु:ख and मोह (= रजस् and

तमम्). Therefore, the explanation of वाच०, viz., न चैषां शान्तत्वादिरस्त्युपभोगयोग्यो विशेष इति मात्रशब्दार्थ:, is better. That is, all the Attributes are present in the तन्मात्राs, but they are not patent enough to be enjoyed.

XXXIX

The specific elements are divided into three divisions—
"(1) Subtle body; (2) those which are born of father and mother; and (3) gross substances or inorganic matter......
It (subtle body) becomes 'specific' by the aggregation of the subtle elements which in themselves are 'non-specific' or diversified." (Davies, p. 76). But, according to वाच॰, सङ्गगरीरं शान्तवोरमुदौरिन्दियौरिन्वतत्वाद्विशेष: (Kār. 40);—the subtle body is called specific because it is endowed with the sense-organs possessed of the qualities of calmness, violence and delusion.

XL

पूर्वीत्पन्नम्—According to वाच॰, each Spirit is endowed with a subtle-body at the beginning of the creation. But according to सां. स. सप्तर्शेकं लिङ्गम् (III. 9), there is an aggregate of subtle-bodies which is created in the beginning. Cf. विज्ञान॰. लिङ्गशरीरं, तच सर्गादो समष्टिरूपमेकमेव भवति, इत्यर्थ:. Then, how do the subtle bodies separate? To this, the सन्न replies—व्यक्तिभेदःकमिविशेषात् (III. 10)—they are separated or differentiated according to particular actions. On this विज्ञान॰ comments—ययि सर्गादो हिरण्यगभीपाधिरूपमेकमेव लिङ्गम्, तथापि यस्य पश्चाद्वयक्तिभेदो व्यक्तिरूपेणांशतो नानात्वमिष भवति। But, is not this idea of हिरण्यगर्भ foreign to सांख्य ?

The word छिङ्ग is explained as प्रत्यकाले महदादिमङ्मपर्यन्तं करणोपेतं प्रधाने लोयते by गाँड॰ वाच॰ and माउर agree with it. But, यरमार्थ means by it, "endowed with the mark of subtlety", and explains it as:—"The subtle body migrates through the existences and it is what the sages alone see. (That is why one says it has the mark of subtlety)." (Tak. S. K. P. 50).

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According to this anta, the number of the constituents of लिङ्ग्यरीर is eighteen, but according to सूत्र, it is seventeen. বিয়ানত has ingeniously removed this discrepancy by saying— अहङ्कारस्य च बुद्धावेवान्तर्भावः।

XLI

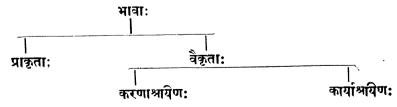
A distinction should be made between लिङ्ग and लिङ्गश्रारीर. The latter is the vehicle of the former, which consists of thirteen principles, viz., intellect, ego, mind, five organs of sense and five organs of action, and which is referred to as अङ्ग्रहमात्र: पुरुष: in the authority quoted by वाच॰.

The reading of गौड़ and माठर is विना अविशेष:, whileas वाच॰ has विना विशेषै:. वाच० calls the सूक्ष्मशरीर as विशेष in Kārikā XL. So विना विशेष: means विना सक्ष्मै: शरीरै:. But this is confusing because, to say that the लिङ्ग (composed of thirteen principles) cannot exist without सूक्ष्मश्रीर (composed of लिङ्ग and पञ्चतन्मात्राs) is not logical. गाँड॰'s explanation is better when he says that लिङ्ग cannot exist without अविशेषs viz.. the five subtle elements.

The reading of परमार्थ also seems to be विना आविशेष:, and he agrees with गाँड॰ in explaining अविशेष as the five subtle elements. (Tak. S. K. p. 50). चिन्दिका gives a different opinion of some commentator :—केचितु स्थूल्कारीरावस्यकत्वाभिप्रायकामिदामिति वंर्णयन्ति । तथा हि, लिङ्गं समुदायात्मकं लिङ्ग्रश्रारीरं विशेषैः स्थूलदेहैर्विना निराश्रयं सत्र तिष्ठति, किन्तु स्थूलशरीरमाश्रित्यैव तिष्ठति । अतो न लिङ्गशरीरेण स्थूलशरीर-स्यान्यथासिद्धिरिति भावः॥

XLIII

According to वाच॰ and जय॰ dispositions may be divided like this—



The प्राकृतभावs, which are innate, are of four kinds, viz.. यमे. ज्ञान, वेराग्य and ऐस्यं. They belong to किएल only. Those depending on the instruments (करणाश्रयिण:) are eight viz., यमं, अवर्म, ज्ञान, अज्ञान, वैराग्य, अवैराग्य, ऐश्वर्य and अनैश्वर्य. Those dispositions which depend on the effect or body (कार्याश्रयिण:) are also eight, viz., five when the body is in the womb and three, i. e., childhood, youth and old age, when the body is outside the womb. गोंड॰ and माठर, however, divide the भावs into three kinds—सांसिद्धिक, प्राकृत and वैकृत. धर्म, ज्ञान, वैराग्य and ऐश्वर्य are born along with कपिल, so they are सांसिद्धिक or innate in his case; but they come to सनक, सनन्दन, सनातन and सनत्क्रमार (the four sons of बहान) after their birth, and are therefore, प्राकृत or natural in their case. The वैकत or acquired dispositions re. side in ordinary human beings and depend upon the instruments and the effected body.

परमार्थ, however, explains सांसिद्धिक-भावs "as the state acquired by goodness", i. e. acquired by good deeds performed in previous birth. But this does not agree with the case of कपिल, whose भावs are सहोत्पन्न.

XLIV and XLV

According to माउर, the सक्ष्मशरीर rises to the eight states by practising virtue. The states are ब्राह्म. प्रांजापत्य, ऐन्द्र, पित्र्य. गान्धर्व, याक्ष, राक्षस and पैशाच. गौड० gives सौम्य for पित्रय, and याक्ष has been dropped in Wilson's text and ours, but is given in the Benares edition. By practising vice, the मुक्सशरीर sinks to the five states of पश्च, पक्षी, स्ग, सरीसप and स्थावर. The प्राकृतिकबन्य, according to वाच॰, is due to the identification of the Spirit with प्रकृति itself; but माउर includes the eight kinds of evolvents (प्रकृतिs) in this bondage. The वैकारिकबन्ध. according to वाच॰, is the identification of the Spirit with the विकारs of प्रकृति (i. e. the evolutes); but according to माउर, this bondage is brought about by making the eight states, viz., the ब्राह्म, प्राजापत्य and others, as the summum bonum. These three

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kinds of bondages are explained by वाच॰ at length in his तस्वेवशासी on योगभाष्य I. 24•

The word प्रकृति in प्रकृतिलय:, stands for महद्दङ्कारभूतेन्द्रियाणि, according to वाच॰; but, according to गाँड॰ and माउर. the word denotes प्रधानबुद्धचहङ्कारतन्मात्रा:.

XLVI

For the criticism of Keith, see Sovani (p. 424). This creation of intellect or "the conduct of the human understanding" (Davies, p. 84), distinguished by Ignorance, Incapacity, Contentment and Attainment, is divided into fifty kinds.

गोहर and माठर illustrate all these four states by means of an example of post. There is विषयं, when you are in doubt, whether you are seeing a man or a post. There is अशक्ति, when even after seeing the post clearly, you are not entirely free from the doubt. There is जाह, when you do not want to remove the doubt as to the identity of the post. There is सिद्धि when you succeed in establishing the correct identity of the post. The explanation of वाच is better. विषयं is that which obstructs the path of the Spirit to liberation. "Incapacity (अशक्ति) arises from the imperfection of senses. Acquiescence or Contentment (तृष्टि) is a passive state of intellect. Perfection (सिद्ध) means perfect knowledge, not completeness in moral virtue." (Davies, pp. 84–85).

XLVII

विपयंय or अविद्या is of five kinds:—अविद्या, अस्मिता, राग, द्वेष and अभिनिवेश, which are called तमस्, मोह, महामोह, तामिस्र and अन्यतामिस्र by the कारिका.

XLVIII

तमस् or आविया is of eight kinds and arises on account of identifying the Spirit with Nature, Intellect, Ego, and the five usbtle elements.

मोह or अस्मिता is also of eight kinds. The gods and the rest consider the eight varities of Attainment or सिद्धिs as the summum bonum.

महामोह or राग is of ten kinds and arises from the attachment to the objects of five senses; these objects are ten, five belonging to gods and five to human beings.

तामिस्र or द्वेष is of eighteen kinds, and arises from the hatred towards one or the other of the ten objects of sense (mentioned above) and the eight varieties of Attainment or सिद्धिs.

अन्यतामिस or अभिनिवेश is also of eighteen kinds and arises from the fear of losing the eight सिद्धिs or the ten objects of sense. Or it may be the fear of death which might obstruct the enjoyment of these eighteen objects. Cf. स चायमभिनिवेश: क्षेश: स्वरसवाही कृमेरि जातमात्रस्य प्रत्यक्षानुमानागमैरसंभावितो मरणत्रास उच्छेददृष्ट्यात्मक: पूर्वजन्मानुभूतं मरणदु:खमनुमापयित (व्यासभाष्य on यो. सू. II. 9). "मरणत्रासोऽन्यतामिस उच्यते।" (जय० p. 51).

Thus, there are 62 kinds of विपर्ययः

XLIX

The quotation in वाच॰, enumerating the list of the injuries to organs, is found with a variant (मुग्वता: for मन्दता:) in the सांख्यसंग्रह (Chow. S. S. No. 246, p. 77). गाँड॰ uses प्रसुप्ति (or paralysis) for कुष्ठ, and उपजिद्धिका for जडता. Cf. " जिह्नाया जाड्यम्," in जय॰, p. 52. माठर and गाँड॰ adopt गुदावर्त for उदावर्त (= obstruction of bowels).

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माउर (and not गोंड॰, as S. N. S. says, page 9!, 1n) reads आध्यात्मिक्य: in place of आध्यात्मिका:. आध्यात्मिका: is grammatically wrong, asआध्यात्मिक is derived from अध्यात्म + ठञ् ("अध्यात्मादेशिकायते" वार्तिक on पाणिनि IV. 3, 60). आत्मिन = अध्यात्मं, is an अव्ययीभाव compound in the sense of locative case, according to "अव्ययं विभाक्ति॰" पाणिनि II. 1. 6. Then the feminine termination कीप् (and not

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टाप्) is added to आध्यात्मिक by the सत्र of पाणिनि. " दिह्याणन्।" IV. 1. 15 and the form will be आध्यात्मिकी.

The names of external varieties of Contentment vary with different commentators:

	वाच०	जय०	माडर	गोंड०
1.	पारम्	सुतारम्	तारम्	सुतम:
2.	सुपारम्	सुपारम्	सुतारम्	पारम्
3.	पारापारम्	lost	सुनेत्रम्	सुनेत्रम्
· 4.	अनुत्तमांभ:	अनुत्तमांभ:	समरीचम्	अनुत्तमांभासकम्
5.	ਤੁਰੂਸ਼ਾਂ ਮ•	उत्तमां भ•	उत्तमांभ िकम	नारीकम

If अर्जन, रक्षण, क्षय, भोग (or संग, according to गौड़॰) and हिंसा are named in the order given above, then गौड़ calls the last two as नारीक and अनतमांभासिक respectively—, which is against the order observed by other commentators. My teacher, the late Mahāmahopādhyāva P. Rāmāvatāra S'arma has tried to explain these varieties of 3/2 as follows: धनार्जनदु:खपारप्रापियतृत्वात् पाराख्येयं तुष्टि: । अर्जनदोषद्र्शनेऽपि कदाचिद्धोगाभिलाषेण प्रवृत्तिः स्यात्, रक्षणभयार्तस्य तु प्रवृत्तेरतितरामसंभव इति तदीयायास्त्रष्टे: सपारता, क्षयं भावयतः कदाचित् प्रवृत्तिः कदाचिदप्रवृत्तिः इति तदीया तृष्टि: पारावाराख्या (read पारापाराख्या ?). भोगे रोगभयं भावयत-स्तृष्टि: स्वार्थपरेति तस्या उत्तरेतरामभस्त्वम् . हिंसादोषतस्तस्यास्त्रष्टेस्त कारुण्य-मुखकत्वादत्तमाम्भस्त्वम् ॥ बाढराम्, pp. 219-220.

The nine द्वाष्ट्रs are thus tronslated into Chinese.

- (1) अम्भ: = lubricating water.
- (2) स्टिडम् = moving water.
- (3) ओघः = running water.
- (4) 312: = lake water.
- (5) सतमः = water [which has] well penetrated.
- (6) **पारम** = water easy to cross.
- (7) सुनेत्रम् = water which gushes well.
- (8) नारीकम् = transparent water.
- (9) अतुत्तमांभासिकम = excellent and pure water.

(Tak. S. K. p. 62)

I am tempted to quote the interesting explanation of these terms given by Fuji, the Japanese commentator, and quoted by Mr. Suryanarayana Sastri in Tak. S. K., p. 62, In.

(1) 'lubricating water,' because Nature penetrates all, as water lubricates all: (2) 'moving' because by the necessary objects one purifies oneself as water which is moving and of little depth purifies all; (3) 'running', because with time a river joins the ocean; (4) 'lake-water', because the influence of the acts committed in other existences is like the water of the lake which the rain refills; (5) 'well-penetrated' because one renounces the acquisition of riches, as a desiccated ground is irrigated by water; (6) 'easily crossed', because one has not to occupy oneself any more with protecting, as [in the case of a piece of] water that has been crossed; (7) gushes without ceasing; (8) 'transparant', for there is no more attachment: (9) 'excellent and pure', for not to injure others is like water of the purest and most excellent quality.

LI

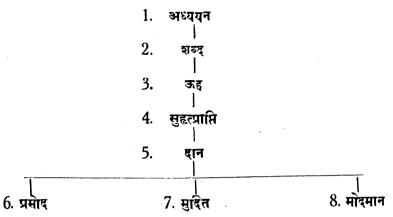
No commentator has given the names of आसिद्धिs: जय॰ which gives them—तासां चासिद्धीनां मोपमुःणमानरियायाः (?) संज्ञाः—, has a defective reading.

वाच॰ criticises the view of some writer in para 237. This view, as has been shown by me in my article ("Javamangala and other commentaries on the Sāmkhya-Kārikās", Indian Historical Quarterly, Vol. V. iii, p. 429), belongs to जय o; this point is of great importance for the question of the relative chronology of the different commentaries. I have discussed it in my article referred to above.

[LI-

-LI]

Following is the scheme of the division of सिद्धिs according to वाच॰



The last three are the effects of all the remaining five together.

परमार्थ's original gives a very beautiful tale in explaining how दान secures सिद्धि.

"A brāhmin is hated by others, and he sees it, he becomes an ascetic; when he has become an ascetic, his master and his fellow-disciples also hold him in hatred and do not communicate knowledge to him. Conscious of his little chance, he betakes himself to a distant village to remain there, saying to himself: 'In this village, there are no brahmins; I can pass there my summer(varsa)retreat. During his sojourn, one makes him many gifts. He gives the superfluous to his friends and to his acquaintances. He gives of it even to women and to shepherds. All the inhabitants of the village cherish him. At the end of the summer-retreat, everybody makes gifts to him: the triple staff, the water bowl, clothes etc.; at the approach of a festival of S'akra, he says to the villagers: 'Who wishes to accompany me to my native country to be present there at the festival? Those who wish to accompany me should bring each one a gift for me. 'Arrived at his place, he betakes himself to his old master. Choosing the best gifts, he makes an offering of them to him. Then, the master, the fellow-disciples and the others commence to love him. His master, by way of gift, communicates knowledge to him. By that knowledge he arrives at absolute knowledge and final Deliverance. That perfection then is acquired by gifts." (Tak. S. K. p. 65)

These eight सिद्धिs, viz. तार. सुतार, etc. are thus translated by परमार्थ.

- (1) तार = Crossing by oneself.
- (2) सुतार = Crossing well.
- (3) तारतार = Crossing all.
- (4) प्रमोद = Crossing with joy.
- (5) प्रमुद्धित = Crossing with an excessive joy.
- (6) प्रमोदमान=Crossing with full joy.
- (7) रम्यक = Crossing by love.
- (8) सदाप्रमुद्दित = Crossing by universal love.

परमार्थ adds to it a lengthy explanation of his own which slightly differs from the original commentary at places. For instance, the दान-सिद्धि, which is equal to सदाप्रमादित, is explained by परमार्थ thus:—

'Crossing by universal love'. A man of this class, after having been hated by all, gives in alms all his goods and thus makes himself loved by all. Since all wish him to attain Deliverance, one says in this case 'Crossing by universal love.'

While वाच॰ construes अड्ड्रुश as निवारक and refers by it to विपयंप, अशांकि and तृष्टि, विज्ञान॰ (on सां. स. III. 44) explains अड्ड्रुश as आकर्षक and refers by it to the three सिद्धिs, viz. ऊह शब्द and अध्ययन, leaving सुहरप्राप्ति and दान as of secondary importance. He criticises वाच॰ as follows—कश्चित्वेतासामद्यसिद्धीनाम्ड्रुशो निवारक-पूर्विश्विविधो विपर्ययाशक्तितृष्टिरूपो भवति बन्धकत्वादिति व्याच्छे तत्र। तुष्टय-

[LII—

भावस्याशक्तितया बाधियांदिवत् सिद्धिविरोधितालाभेन तृष्टचतृष्टचोः सिद्धिविरोधिन्दवासंभवात्. In reply to this it may be said that तृष्टि and अतृष्टि are not mutually contradictory, but positive धर्मेs. See Sovani p. 427.

LII

The word छिद्ध has been explained as महत्तत्वं द्विद्विति by विज्ञान (on सां. स. III 45). But this is not correct. वाच॰ is right in explaining it as referring to the objects of senses and the two bodies—subtle and gross. Davies remarks:— "Some commentators make the linga itself to be Buddhi (intellect) and bhāvas to be its conditions. The former interpretation (i.e. वाच॰ H.) is preferable, for the linga, though formed of intellect and other internal organs, is yet something different from them. It is, moreover, conditioned by the state of a former life, which is due to 'intellect'. (p. 90).

Curiously enough, Colebrooke translates न विना छिद्भन भाव-निर्देशित: as 'without person there would be no pause of dispositions.' This is accepted by Wilson also in his translation of the गोंड. But, the word in the text is निर्देशित and not निर्देशि. I have, therfore, translated it as 'without linga, there can be no elaboration of dispositions.' Because, virtue and the rest are acquired by the formation of gross and subtle bodies. The Spirit cannot experience or acquire virtue or vice. For this purpose, there is always the necessity of gross and subtle bodies. Therefore, Wilson's explanation 'but is equally necessary for their occasional cessation' (p. 216) is quite beside the mark. (See also Davies, p. 89 with 1n; S. N. S., p. 97).

LIV

सत्त्वविशाल means where सत्त्व predominates. It may be asked why this state should not be the human goal, why should men hanker after मोक्ष? To this the सत्र replies:— आवृतिस्तत्राप्युत्तरोत्तरयोनियोगाद्धेयः (सां. स. III 52). विशान explains

it as—तत्राप्युर्ध्वगतावि सत्यामावृत्तिरस्त्यत्र उत्तरोत्तरयोनियोगादघोऽघोयोनि-जन्मनः सोऽपि लोको हेय इत्यर्थः. This very idea is expressed in the next कारिका.

According to गाँड॰ there are sixteen forms of creations—
"that is, apparently, each of the four classes of beings proceeds from four modifications of nature; or from the invisible principles, from the subtile rudiments, from conditions or dispositions of intellect and from the gross elements."
(Wilson, p. 220). It seems that गाँड॰ takes देव, माउप and त्येग्योन (= two, जङ्गम and स्थावर), and divides each of them into four classes, viz., अभातिक, छङ्ग, भाव and भूत.

The phrase ब्रह्मादिस्तम्बपर्यन्त: refers to all the three creations above, in the middle and below. Davies thinks (p. 90. 2n) that Wilson construes this phrase with मध्ये रजोविशाट: Thereupon, Davies remarks, 'Brahmā does dot belong to it (i. e. midst), but to the region "above". I think Davies has misunderstood Wilson who does not distinctly join the two phrases given above. (See Wilson, p. 220). परमार्थ explains बम्हादिस्तम्बपर्यन्तः as "Brahmā is at the commencement and pillar at the end." He goes on to explain स्तम्ब—"Why is the last of all the creations called 'pillar'? Because the herbs, trees, mountains, rocks etc., support the three worlds; that is why one calls it 'pillar.'" (Tak. S. K., pp. 69-70).

LV

पतञ्जिले also expresses the same idea—'परिणामतापसंस्कार दुःखेंगुंणवृत्तिविरोधाच दुःखमेव सर्वं विवेकिनः' (यो. सू. II. 15). Compare also, समानं जरामरणजं दुःखम् ' (सां. सू. III. 53).

स्वभावेन is explained by चन्द्रिका as स्त्रत एव सर्गो दु:खरूप:, विवेकिनामिति शेष:।

माठर reads अत्र in place of तत्र, and समासेन in place of स्वभावेन in the text. The former term he explains as त्रिपु लोकेपु and the latter as संक्षेपेण.

-LXIV1

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LVI

The illustration of a cook cited by वाच॰ and the (सां. मू. III 63)—विविक्त बोधात् मृष्टिनिवृत्तिः प्रधानस्य सूदवत् पाके, has got this disadvantage that सह is चेतन. The illustration of गौड॰ viz., यथा कश्चित् स्वार्थे त्यक्त्वा मित्र कार्याणि करेगति, has the same disadvantage. The second illustration of गौड॰, viz., तथा चोक्तं कुम्भवत् प्रधानं पुरुषार्थं कृत्वा निवतंते, is better, because कुम्भ is non-intelligent.

चन्द्रिका quotes two योगस्त्र in support of the purport of this कारिका—" तद्दर्थ एव दृश्यस्यात्मा" (II 21) and " कृतार्थं प्रति नष्ट-मन्यनष्टं तद्दन्यसाधारणत्वात् (II 22).

LVII

माठर, गोड॰ and जय॰, interpret this कारिका as illustrating the प्रवृत्ति and निवृत्ति (of प्रधान) both, while as वाच॰ speaks of प्रवृत्ति only.

LVIII

औरसुक्य means इच्छा; but it is only a blind instinct or activity, which is the nature of the three गुणs in सांख्य philosophy. It is not the इच्छा of the नैयायिकs according to whom it is the quality of a sentient being. परमार्थ explain औत्सुक्य as 'incertitude'. (Tak. S. K. p. 72).

LXI

This कारिका has given rise to a great controversy. With whom should we construe the word मे? Is it पुरुष which feels that there is nothing सुकुमारतर than प्रकृति or is it प्रकृति itself which feels that there is nothing सुकुमारतर than myself? The first meaning is adopted by माउर; वाच॰ and गाँड॰ would seem to mean that it is the author of the कारिका who feels that there is nothing सुकुमारतर than प्रकृति.

The next difficulty is about the meaing of the term सुक्रमारता. जय॰ explains it by 'subtlety', वाच॰ and माठर, by 'bashfulness', and गौड॰ by 'enjoyability'.

Again, in the 59th कारिका, प्रकृति is compared to a नदी but here to a कुळवधू.

As to the existence of another कारिका on the basis of गाँड॰, see my foot-note to the text of the कारिका and introduction

"पुनर्न दर्शनमुपैति पुरुषस्य "—वाच॰ explains it as—अप्रमत्तां यथैनां परपुरुषान्तराणि न पुन: प्रयन्ति । This is not a good interpretation. गौड॰ is much nearer the mark when he says—अहमनेन परपुरुषेण दृष्टास्मीत्यस्य पुंस: पुनर्दर्शनं नोपैति ।

LXIII

Prof. Suryanarayana Sastri remarks (see Tak. S. K. p.77), "This verse is lacking in the Chinese text. That is perhaps an interpolation posterior to the time of Paramārtha (546), though I cannot give the special reason for it. One may, however, affirm that the original of the Chinese translation did not contain that verse, for there is no room to suppose that the translator had by error jumped over this verse and the commentary, if all the time there had been one. This verse is found in the Sūtra, 111. 73."

On page 58 of our text, read एतानि सप्त प्रोच्यन्ते धर्म:, वैराग्यं, ऐश्वर्यं in place of धर्म:, ज्ञानं, वैराग्यं, ऐश्वर्यम्.

LXIV

The word तत्त्वाभ्यास, according to जय॰, गोड॰ and माउर, means the अभ्यास or practice of the twenty-five तत्त्वs. वाच॰ clarifies this अभ्यास as तत्त्वविषयज्ञानाभ्यास, which leads to the realisation of the distinction between पुरुष and प्रकृति.

The following scheme shows the different interpretations of the phrases नास्मि, न में and नाहम, as given by various commentators.—

	्वाच॰	माठर	गौड०	जय०
नास्मि		नास्मि तत्त्वानि।	नाहमेव भवामि।	सूक्ष्मशरीरे भातिके
	नास्मि ।			च न भवामि, अपि
न मे	न मे स्वामित्रास्ति।	न मे तत्त्वानि।	न म्म शरीरम्,	तु प्रकृतिः । न ममेदमपि तु
	·		यतोऽहमन्यः,	प्रकृते:।
नाहम्	अइं कर्ता न	नाहं तत्त्वानाम्।	शरीरमन्यत्। अहङ्काररहितो- ऽहम्।	नाप्यहं प्रकृति:।

LXVI

प्रयोजनं नास्ति सर्गस्य—The idea is that भोग and विवेक are for the purpose of the Spirit (i.e., पुरुषार्थंs). They urge the Nature into activity. But, after the Spirit has enjoyed the products of Nature and has attained the discriminative knowledge, there remains no other purpose of the Spirit. भोग and अपवर्ग are no more पुरुषार्थंs. So, in the case of this particular Spirit, भोग and अपवर्ग cannot urge the Nature into activity.

LXVII

S. N. S. remarks—"Curiously enough, Paramartha seems to understand this verse without importing any notion of *jivanmukti*. His rendering runs thus: Because of full and perfect knowedge, dharma, etc., have no longer any influence; transmigration is arrested like the body (or force) of the potter's wheel, whose motion one interrupts: see B. F. E. O., IV, 1056. This is, of course, hardly satisfactory." (p. 116, 1n).



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