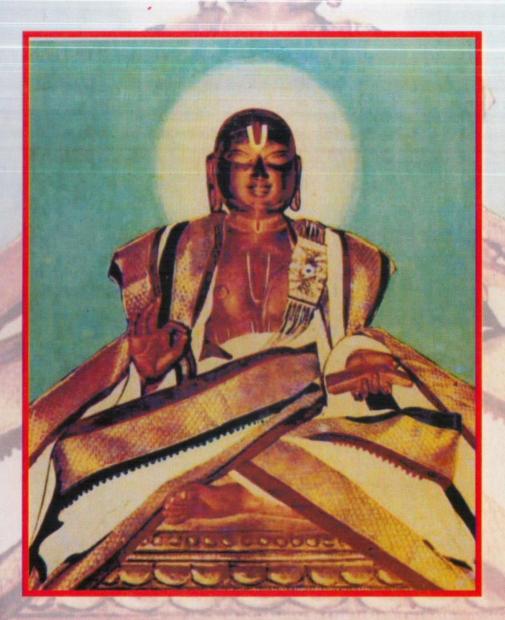
The Philosophy of Viśistādvaita Vedānta

A Study Based on Vedānta Deśika's Adhikaraṇa-Sārāvalī



S. M. SRINIVASA CHARI

The school of *Vedānta* designated as *Višiṣṭādvaita* was expounded by Sri Rāmānuja in the classic *Śrī-Bhāṣya*, which were developed by Sri Vedānta Dešika in his two philosophical treatises titled *Tattva-muktā-kalāpa* and *Adhikaraṇa-sārāvalī*.

This scholarly work of Dr. S.M.S. Chari deals with the Adhikaranasārāvalī. The variety of theories related to Vedānta which are discussed in the 156 Adhikaranas of the Vedānta-sūtras are consolidated and presented in a sequential order under five major headings: the doctrine of Brahman, the doctrine of universe Brahman, the doctrine of jīva and Brahman, the doctrine of sādhana and the doctrine of Paramapurusārtha. In the concluding chapter on General Evaluation, Dr. Chari discusses dispassionately the differing views of Śamkara, Rāmānuja and Madhva on the fundamental controversial theories of *Vedānta*. This volume along with the author's other books on Vedānta would be invaluable for a fuller understanding of Viśiṣṭādvaita in all its aspects.

The Philosophy of Viśiṣṭādvaita Vedānta

The Philosophy of Viśiṣṭādvaita Vedānta

A Study Based on Vedānta Deśika's Adhikaraṇa-Sārāvalī

S.M. Srinivasa Chari

MOTILAL BANARSIDASS PUBLISHERS PRIVATE LIMITED • DELHI

First Edition: Delhi, 2008

© 2006 by S.M. Srinivasa Chari All Rights Reserved

ISBN: 978-81-208-3180-3

MOTILAL BANARSIDASS

41 U.A. Bungalow Road, Jawahar Nagar, Delhi 110 007 8 Mahalaxmi Chamber, 22 Bhulabhai Desai Road, Mumbai 400 026 203 Royapettah High Road, Mylapore, Chennai 600 004 236, 9th Main III Block, Jayanagar, Bangalore 560 011 Sanas Plaza, 1302 Baji Rao Road, Pune 411 002 8 Camac Street, Kolkata 700 017 Ashok Rajpath, Patna 800 004 Chowk, Varanasi 221 001

Printed in India
BYJAINENDRA PRAKASH JAIN AT SHRI JAINENDRA PRESS,

A-45 NARAINA, PHASE-I, NEW DELHI 110 028
AND PUBLISHED BY NARENDRA PRAKASH JAIN FOR
MOTILAL BANARSIDASS PUBLISHERS PRIVATE LIMITED,
BUNGALOW ROAD, DELHI 110 007

To

The revered memory of my ācārya

Srī. Goṣṭīpuraṃ Sowmyanārāyanācārya Swāmī with profound respect and gratitude

CONTENTS

Foreword		xiii
Prefac	e	xv
_	viations	xviii
Introd	uction	xix
Снарт	rer One	
THE	STUDY OF VEDĀNTA	1
I.	Brahma-jijñāsā	2
II.	Pūrva-mīmāmsā and Uttara-mīmāmsā	3
III.	Definition of Brahman	12
IV.	Proof for the Existence of Brahman	19
V.	The Upanișads and Brahman	20
Снарт	er Two	
THE	DOCTRINE OF BRAHMAN	27
I.	Brahman as Sentient Being	27
II.	Brahman as Ānandamaya	31
III.	Brahman as Endowed with Spiritual Body	36
IV.	Brahman as Distinct from Non-sentient	
	Cosmic Entities	39
	a. Ākāśa as Brahman	40
	b. Prāṇa as Brahman	41
	c. Jyotiş as Brahman	42
V	Brahman as Antaratma of Indra-Prana	44

	CHAPTER THREE THE DISTINGUISHING CHARACTERISTICS			
		AHMAN	53	
	I.	Brahman as the Self of All	55	
		Brahman as the Devourer of the Universe	58	
	III.	Brahman as the Puruṣa Abiding in the Eye	61	
	IV.	Brahman as the Inner Controller of All	65	
		Brahman as the Imperishable Reality (Akṣara)	69	
	VI.	Brahman as Vaiśvānara	71	
	VII.	Brahman as the Ayatana of Heaven and Earth	74	
	VIII.	Brahman as Infinitely Great (Bhūmā)	77	
	IX.	Brahmana conceived as Akṣara is the Ādhāra		
		of the Universe (Viśvādhāra)	80	
	Χ.	Brahman as the Object of Enjoyment for		
		Muktas	84	
	XI.	Brahman as the Subtle Space within the Heart		
		(Daharākāśa)	86	
	XII.	Brahman as Anguṣṭhamātra Puruṣa is		
		Sarvaniyantā	91	
	XIII.	Brahman as the Object of Meditation for		
		Devatās	93	
	XIV.	Brahman as the Nāma-rūpa Nirvahitā	95	
C	HAPTE	er Four		
B	RAH	MAN AS THE CAUSE OF THE UNIVERSE	101	
	I.	Avyakta conceived as Prakṛti is not the Cause		
		•	103	
	II.	Ajā conceived as Prakṛti is not the Cause of		
			105	
	III.	The term Pañca-pañca-janā does not imply		
			107	
	IV.			
		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	109	
	V.	Puruṣa as Jīva is not the Cause of the Universe	111	
	VI.	Atman conceived as Mukta-purusa is not the		
			115	

Contents	1

Contents	s	ix
VII.	Īśvara conceived by yoga school cannot be the Cause of the Universe	119
VIII	. Brahman as the Supreme Deity is the Cause	
	of the Universe	120
	er Five	
THE I	DOCTRINE OF UNIVERSE AND BRAHMAN	N 123
Ī.	Brahman as the Material Cause of the	
	Universe	123
II.	The Relation of Brahman to the Universe	129
III.	U	
IV.	, 0	
	Brahman as the Upādāna Kāraṇa	136
	a. The Smṛti Texts of Sāṁkhya and Yoga are	
	opposed to Vedānta	137
	b. The Cause and Effect are of different nature	138
	c. Brahman is not subject to the experience of	
	pleasure and pain	140
	d. Brahman as the Creator of the Universe is not	
	affected by the afflictions of the Universe	141
	e. Brahman is not in need of Accessories for	
	Creation of the Universe	142
	f. Brahman does not transform itself into the	
	Universe	143
	g. The Purpose of Creation of the Universe	145
Снарті		
THE T	THEORY OF COSMIC CREATION	149
I.	The Sāṁkhya Theory of Cosmic Evolution	150
II.	Vaiśesika Theory of Cosmic Creation	154
III.	Buddhist Theories of Cosmic Origin	156
	a. Vaibhāṣika Theory	156
	b. Sautrāntika Theory	157
	c. The Theory of Yogācāra	159
	d. Mādhyamika Theory	162

	IV.	Jaina Theory of Universe	165
	V.	The Theory of Pāśupata	168
	VI.	The Theory of Pañcaratra	169
		The Ontological status of the Evolutes of	
		Prakṛti	171
	VIII.	The Process of Formation of the Physical	
		Universe	177
			1,,
	LI A DTE	r Seven	
		OCTRINE OF JĪVA AND BRAHMAN	181
		•	
	I.	Jīva as Eternal (Nitya)	183
		Jīva as Jñātā	184
		Jīva as Kartā	188
	IV.	The Dependence of Jīvātman on Paramātman	
	V.	The Relation of Jīva to Brahman	195
	VI.	The Theory of Transmigration of Jīva	201
	VII.	Four States of Jīva	210
		a. State of dream	210
		b. State of sușupti	211
		c. State of swoon	213
C	HAPTE	r Eight	
Γ	HE D	OCTRINE OF SĀDHANĀ	217
	I.	Brahman as the Object of Meditation	217
		a. Brahman as Ubhayahlinga	217
		b. Brahman as the Supreme Being	225
		c. Brahman as the Bestower of Mokṣa	227
	II.		228
	III.	The Theory of Brahma-Vidyā Karma as Subsidiary means to Vidyā The Nature of Vidyā (Upāsanā)	238
	IV.	The Nature of Vidyā (Upāsanā)	245
		- · · -	
		R NINE	
I.	HE D	OCTRINE OF PARAMA PURUȘĀRTHA	257
	I.	The Nature of Liberation of the Jīva from	
		Bondage	257

Contents xi

II.	The Theory of Exit of the Jīva from the Body	261
III.	The Theory of Arcirādi-mārga	273
IV.	The Goal of Attainment by Jīva	276
V.	The Nature of the Supreme Goal	283
	a. The Nature of Attainment by Jīva in the State	
	of Mukti	283
	b. The Manner in which the Jīva enjoys Brahman	286
	c. The Specific Form in which Jīva manifests in the	e
	State of Mukti	290
VI.	The Status of Jīva with Brahman in the State	
	of Mukti	292
GENE	RAL EVALUATION AND CONCLUSION	30 3
GENE	RAL EVALUATION AND CONCLUSION	30 3
I.	Nature of Brahman	313
II.	Brahman as the Upādāna-kāraņa	318
	The Theory of Jivātman	32 3
IV.	The relation of Jīva and Universe to Brahman	325
V.	The Causal Relation of Universe to Brahman	331
Appena	dix I - The Names of the Adhikaranas	339
Appena	dix II – The Names of Brahma-Vidyās	373
Glossa	ry	375
Bibliog	graphy	391
Index		395

FOREWORD

प्रकृतस्य 'विशिष्टाद्वैतम्' इत्येद्ग्रन्थस्य महतः प्रणेतारः एते श्री. उ.वे. S.M. श्रीनिवासाचार्याः, बहोः कालात्पूर्वमेव श्रीमित्रगमान्तमहादेशिकविरिचतामितिप्रौढां शातदूषणीमिधकृत्य महान्तं शोधनप्रबन्धं विधाय Ph. D. उपाधि प्राप्तवन्त इति जानीयुः विद्वासः।।

एते हि सुप्रसिद्धमहानुभावानां महात्मनां श्रीमदुभयवेदान्तेत्याद्यन्वर्थीवशेषणानां श्रीगोष्ठीपुरं स्वामिचरणानां सिन्नधौ संप्रदायक्रमेण वेदान्तशास्त्रमधीत्य, ततः स्वीयज्येष्ठभातृभ्यः प्रसिद्धमहाविद्वद्भ्यः श्री उ.वे. सरगूर् श्रीनिवासवरदाचार्येभ्यः मननादिक्रममिप जानन्तः उभयभाषाप्रवीणा विराजन्त इति सर्वविदितम्।।

भारतीयसर्वकारस्य परदेशीयदूतावासेष्वनेकेषु संस्कृतिविभागे बहुकालमनेकविधं स्थानं निर्वहन्तः, विश्रान्ताश्चेते। परदेशावासकाले एते तदा तदा पाश्चत्यपण्डितैस्साकं दर्शनिवचारादिकमकुर्वन् यदा, तदैतेषां मनिस, "पाश्राश्चात्यदेशेषु अद्वैतिसद्धान्तवत्, विशिष्टा (सिवशेषा) द्वैतस्य स्थानं कुतो न दृश्यते?" इति विचारमग्नास्तत्कारणादिकमपि सम्यङ्निश्चत्य ज्ञातवन्त एते।।

उद्योगाद्विश्रान्त्यनन्तरं तदर्थमेव कृतभूरिपरिश्रमा एते भगवद्रामानुजस्य विशिष्टा (सविशेषा) द्वैतदर्शनं बहुधाऽधीत्य, सर्वसंमानानार्हान् बहून् ग्रन्थान् विरच्य, प्रकाश्य चैतित्सद्धान्तस्यानितरसाधारणीं सेवां कुर्वन्तः, जन्मैव सार्थकीकुर्वन्तो विराजन्तः, प्रशंसनीयचरिता विलसन्तीति सर्वविदितमेव।।

अद्य प्रकटीक्रियमाणोऽयम् 'विशिष्टाद्वैतम्' इति ग्रन्थः पूर्वमेभिरेव प्रकटीकृतात् उपनिषत् ब्रह्मसूत्रविचारग्रन्थापेक्षयाऽत्यन्तं विलक्षणः। अत्र हि भगवद्भाष्यकारैः स्थापितस्यास्य सिद्धान्तस्य श्रीमद्वेदान्तदेशिकैः कवितार्किकसिंहैः दर्शनत्वेन प्रापितप्रचारस्य प्रक्रियां विमर्शपूर्वकं अतिसरलक्रमैः अधिकरणसारावल्यां

प्रतिपादितक्रममनुसृत्य, एते श्री श्रीनिवासाचार्याः अधिकरणसारावलीं प्रधानाधरत्वेन स्वीकृत्य स्वीयं विमर्शप्रबन्धं रचयामासुः। अत एवायं सिद्धान्तः न केवलं मतरूपः, किन्तु दर्शनरूप एवेति सम्यगवगन्तुं शक्यत इत्ययमंशो विशेषेणावधानमहित विदुषाम्। एतेषामसाधारणविमर्शसरिणः, भाषाद्वयपान्डित्यमित्यादिकम् एतादृशमहत्तमकार्यसाध नक्षममभूदिति न संशयलेशोऽपि। एवमेवैते आरोग्यादिसपन्नाः एतिसद्धान्तस्य प्रकाशने इतोऽपि बहुधा सेवां कृत्वा विराजन्तुतरामिति भगवन्तं प्रार्थये।

नव्यमङ्गलाभिजनो वरदाचार्यः

K.S. Varadacharya Mahāmahopādhyāya, Śāstraratnākara,

Panditaratnam, Mysore

PREFACE

The Brahma-sūtra Bhāṣya of Śrī Rāmānuja, traditionally revered as Śrī-Bhāsya, is a monumental commentary on the Vedānta-sūtras of sage Bādarāyana. In this work, Rāmānuja has expounded in detail the doctrines of Viśistādvaita Vedānta with adequate support of the Upanisads. Vedānta Deśika, an illustrious successor to Rāmānuja wrote two independent philosophical treatises, Tattva-muktā-kalāpa and Adhikarana-sārāvalī with the main objective of establishing Viśistadvaita as a sound and most acceptable system of Vedānta. Both these works are written in the form of verses containing 500 and 562 verses respectively, composed in the rhythmic sragdharā metre. The Tattva-muktā-kalāpa discusses comprehensively all the theories of Visistādvaita - epistemological, ontological, cosmological and eschatological - and establishes their soundness by examining critically the corresponding theories of rival schools of thought including Advaita Vedānta. The Adhikaraņa-sārāvalī, on the other hand, is confined to the study of the Brahma-sūtra Bhāṣya of Rāmānuja and it presents the essential teachings of each adhikarana, or section dealing with specific topics of Brahmasūtra, as interpreted by Rāmānuja. In the Tattva-muktākalāpa, Vedānta Deśika does not enter into the discussion of the Scriptural texts for the obvious reason that he wanted to prove the soundness of the Visistadvaita theory more on a logical basis than on the Scriptural authority. But in the Adhikaraṇa-sārāvalī, which directly deals with the Śrī-Bhāṣya, he attempts to establish that the doctrines of Viśiṣṭādvaita are in full accord with the Upaniṣadic teachings and the Vedānta-sūtras. These two classics are complementary and are comparable, in the words of Vedānta Deśika, to the two hands supporting each other (anyonyahastapradam). A study of both these works is considered essential for a fuller understanding of Viśiṣṭādvaita Vedānta in all its aspects.

My book "Fundamentals of Viśiṣṭādvaita", published earlier covers the study of the Tattva-muktā-kalāpa and attempts to show that Viśiṣṭādvaita is a sound philosophical system. In order to justify that Viśiṣṭādvaita Vedānta also conforms fully to the Upaniṣads and Vedānta-sūtras, unlike Advaita Vedānta, I have now undertaken the present work on the basis of an in-depth study of Adhikaraṇa-sārāvalī.

This book does not attempt to render into English the 562 verses with explanatory notes nor does it deal with the 156 adhikaraṇas in the same order as it is found in the original text. Its scope is confined to enunciate the doctrines of Viśiṣṭādvaita Vedānta as outlined in the adhikaraṇas of the Brahma-sūtras. For this purpose the selected adhikaraṇas which have direct bearing on the philosophical doctrines of Viśiṣṭādvaita are discussed in a logical sequence and presented as a coherent system of philosophy.

In the preparation of this book, I have drawn material mostly from the original texts 'Adhikaraṇa-sārāvalī' and the two learned commentaries on it titled Adhikaraṇa-cintāmaṇi contributed by Śrī Kumāra Varadācārya, the son of Vedānta Deśika and Padayojanā, written by Śrī Śaṭakopa Rāmānujayati, the 34th pontiff of Ahobila Maṭham. Among the contemporary traditional scholars, Sri Uttamur Veeraraghavacharya has also written a detailed commentary named Sārārtha Ratnaprabhā. Another book under the title Śārīraka Adhikaraṇa Ratnamālā by Mm. Kapisthalam Desikacharya presents in lucid Sanskrit the essential teachings of the adhikaraṇas with a statement of

Preface xvii

pūrvapakṣa and siddhānta. I have made use of these works. For purposes of elucidation, wherever necessary, I have also taken material from the Śrī-Bhāṣya of Rāmānuja and the learned commentary on it titled Śrutaprakāśikā, by Sudarśana Sūri and also Vedānta Deśika's Tattva-muktā-kalāpa and Śatadūṣaṇī.

It is for the first time, such an attempt is made to publish in English an authentic treatise on Viśiṣṭādvaita Vedānta based on original source books. It is hoped that this volume will be found useful for an in-depth study of Viśiṣṭādvaita Vedānta as expounded in the Śrī-Bhāṣya and the Adhikarana-sārāvalī.

I must pay my respects to my revered Acharya, the late Sri Gostipuram Sowmyanarayanacharya Swami to whom I owe my knowledge of Vedanta. I must also pay my respects to the late Sri Madhurantakam Veeraraghavacharya Swami and the late Mm. Saragur Madabhushi Varadacharya Swami, under whom I studied Śrī-Bhāṣya, Tattva-muktā-kalāpa and Adhikaraņa-sārāvalī in the traditional manner. I am deeply indebted to them. I have derived help and guidance for understanding the crucial adhikaranas of the Vedānta-sūtras from traditional scholars Mm. N.S. Ramanuja Tatacharya, Mm. V. Srivatsankacharya and Mm. K.S. Varadacharya. I express my grateful thanks to them. I should also thank my esteemed friends Sri Ananthanarasimhachar, Dr. N.S. Anantharangachar and Sri S. Srinivasachar who have gone through the major part of the typescript and offered useful suggestions for improvement. I also express my grateful thanks to the eminent scholar Mm. K.S. Varadacharya for writing a foreword to the book.

Bangalore

Date: 9th August, 2006 S.M. Srinivasa Chari.

ABBREVIATIONS

Acc. According to

Ait. Up. Aitareya Upanişad As. Adhikarana-sārāvalī

A&V. Advaita and Viśiṣṭādvaita-A Study

based on the Satadūsaņī

BG. Bhagavad-gītā

Br. Up. Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad Ch. Up. Chāndogya Upaniṣad

FVV. Fundamentals of Viśistādvaita-A

Study based on Tattvamuktākalāpa

Mu. Also Muṇḍ. Up. Muṇḍaka Upaniṣad NS. Nyāyasiddhāñjana

RB. Rāmānuja Bhāṣya on VS.

SB. Śańkara Bhāṣya on VS.

SS. Sarvārthasiddhi Sub. Up. Subāla Upaniṣad

Svet. Up. Švetāśvatara Upanisad Tait. Br. Taittirīya Brāhmana Tait Up. Taittirīya Upanisad

Up. Upaniṣad VP. Viṣṇupurāṇa

VS. Vedānta-Sūtra of Bādarāyaņa

INTRODUCTION

Meaning of the term Viśistadvaita

The system of Vedanta as expounded by Śrī Rāmānuja is designated as Viśistādvaita. The term Viśistādvaita signifies that the Ultimate Reality, named Brahman in the Upanisads is one as organically related to the sentient jīvas (cit) and the non-sentient cosmic matter (acit). On the basis of the Upanisadic teachings, this school of thought acknowledges three real ontological entities namely, Brahman or Iśvara, the jīvātman or the individual self and the prakrti or the primordial cosmic matter. Though all the three are different from each other, Brahman being inseparably related to the sentient souls as well as non-sentient matter is ultimately one as a qualified Reality. As Vedānta Deśika states, though there is absolute difference between *Iśvara* and the two other ontological entities and also among the individual selves and cosmic matter, the ultimate Reality is considered as one from the standpoint of its being a Visista tattva: (viśistasya advaitam)1.

Historical Development of Viśistadvaita

Though all the schools of Vedānta owe their origin to the Upaniṣads, Brahma-sūtras and the Bhagavadgītā, the three basic source books, Viśiṣtādvaita as a well formulated philosophical system or darśana, with properly developed epistemology and ontology on logical ground as well as on the basis of correct interpretation of the Scriptural

statements and allied texts, was expounded by Rāmānuja in his monumental commentary on the Vedānta-sūtras known as Śrī-Bhāṣya. In view of this, Rāmānuja may be regarded as the founder of the Viśiṣṭādvaita system. But Rāmānuja himself does not claim this distinction. In the opening para of the Śrī-Bhāṣya, he says that he is writing a commentary on the sūtras in accordance with the views contained in an elaborate and extensive vṛṭṭi or glossary written by Bodhayana which was abridged by earlier teachers2. Though Bodhāyanavrtti as well as the works of these ancient teachers are not extant, there is ample internal evidence to show from the quotations cited by Rāmānuja that there were already eminent exponents of Viśistādvaita Vedānta such as Bodhāyana, Tanka, Dramida, Guhadeva, Kapardi and Bhāruci³. In his Vedārtha Sangraha, Rāmānuja mentions the names of all these ancient exponents. He also quotes a few statements of Bodhāyana who is also known as vrttikāra and also by the name of Upāvarsa, according to Samkara. This establishes beyond any doubt that the system of Vedanta developed by Ramanuja follows faithfully an ancient tradition (sista-parigrhīta-purātana-veda-vedāntavyākhyāna). Such evidence is not forthcoming either in the Samkara's Sūtra-bhāṣya or Madhva's Brahmasūtra-bhāṣya.

According to Vedānta Deśika, Nāthamuni, who lived in the tenth century was the first exponent of Viśiṣṭādvaita as a system of Philosophy (nathopajñam pravṛttam)⁴. He wrote two important works: Nyāya tattva and Yoga-rahasya, but both these are not extant⁵. However it is evident from the numerous quotations cited by Vedānta Deśika in his Nyāya-siddhānjana, that Nyāya-tattva is regarded as an important philosophical treatise which had considerable influence on both Rāmānuja and Vedānta Deśika⁶. According to Vaiṣṇava tradition, Nāthamuni inherited his knowledge of Viśiṣṭādvaita Vedānta from a long line of preceptors commencing from Nammāļvār, the renowned Tamil saint, who is claimed to have lived in the beginning of Kaliyuga 2803 B.C.

Introduction xxi

After Nāthamuni, Ālavandar, also known as Yāmuna, who lived sometime between AD 916-1036 developed the system by contributing a few independent philosophic works (bahubhiḥ yāmuneya prabhandhaiḥ upcitam)⁷. He wrote six works and of these the most important is Siddhitraya consisting of three parts – Ātmasiddhi, Īśvarasiddhi and Samvitsiddhi, each one being devoted to one of three fundamental doctrines of Viśiṣṭādvaita. The teachings of Yāmuna have greatly influenced both Rāmānuja and Vedanta Deśika as they have extensively used the logical arguments advanced by him in the refutation of Advaita doctrines.

Rāmānuja, who came after Yāmuna, was born in AD 10178. Though he could not become a direct disciple of Yāmuna, he was orally instructed by four of his disciples – Mahāpūrṇa, Tirukkottiyur Nambi, Tirumalai Nambi and Tirumalai Āṇḍān. The works of Yāmuna and the teachings received from his disciples enabled Rāmānuja to further develop and re-establish the Viśiṣṭādvaita as a full fledged system of Vedānta on strong foundation (tratum samyag yatīndraih)9.

From the foregoing brief account, it may be observed that Viśistādvaita Vedānta was not a new system founded by Rāmānuja. On the contrary, it was already in existence from the time of Badarayana who compiled the Vedanta sūtras on the basis of the Upanisadic teachings and also sage Bodhāyana, who wrote the first authoritative glossary on it. At the time Rāmānuja was born, there was a long felt need for consolidation and systematization of the apparently conflicting interpretations of the Upanisads. Earlier than Rāmānuja, Śamkara, Bhāskara and Yādavaprakāśa, among the extant schools of Vedānta, had attempted to interpret the Upanisads and the Vedānta-sūtras through scholarly Bhāsyas. But the doctrines presented by them were not found acceptable. Samkara's doctrine of Māya on the basis of which the Nirviśesa Brahmādvaita with the denial of reality to the individual souls and the universe is developed was not found philosophically sustainable. The Bhedābheda vāda of Bhāskara and Yādava was also not tenable since this concept conceived by them involved selfcontradiction. It therefore became necessary for Rāmānuja to develop a more rational system of Vedanta by properly interpreting the Vedānta-sūtras and the connected Upanisadic texts and by refuting the doctrines which were opposed to the main tenets of Visistādvaita. He successfully accomplished this task assigned to him10 by writing the monumental Bhāṣya on the Brahma-sūtras. He also wrote several other works. These are Vedānta-dīpa, Vedānta-sāra, which are brief commentaries on Vedānta Sūtras, Vedārthasamgraha, containing the quintessence of the Upanisads, the Gītā Bhāsya, a commentary on the Bhagavad-gīta, three lyrics named as Śaranāgati-gadya, Śrīranga-gadya and Vaikuntha-gadya and lastly Nitya-grantha mainly dealing with the mode of worship of the image of God. Of these works, the commentary on Brahma-sūtra, named Śri-Bhāṣya is the magnum opus of Rāmānuja in which the Visistādvaita doctrines are thoroughly discussed. This will mainly engage our attention in the present book.

For nearly two centuries after Rāmānuja, there was no significant contribution to the Visistadvaita system by way of major philosophical works. The ācāryas who succeeded Rāmānuja, though some of them were eminent vedāntins such as Parāśara Bhatta, Visnucitta, Vātsya Varada, Sudarśana Sūri and Ātreya Rāmānuja, confined their attention primarily to the dissemination of the philosophy of Rāmānuja by teaching Śrī-Bhāṣya or writing further glossaries on it. The Śrutaprakāśikā, written by Sudarśana Sūri is an outstanding commentary on Śrī-Bhāṣya. Some of the Ācāryas, such as Pillān, Nanjīyar, Periavāccān Pillai, Vadakkutiruvīdi Pillai, who were attracted by the devotional hymns of the Alvars in Tamil engaged themselves in writing elaborate commentaries on them. During this period the theological aspect of Viśiśtādvaita received much greater emphasis and importance than its philosophy.

Introduction xxiii

Besides, the Viśiṣṭādvaita system itself seems to have been exposed to the criticism by rival schools of thought and in particular from the Advaitins. Though Rāmānuja had vigorously attacked Māyāvāda of Śaṁkara in his Śrī-Bhāṣya, the Advaita scholars of post-Rāmānuja period had attempted to defend their doctrines against the criticisms of Rāmānuja. Thus there was a clearly felt need for another great philosopher to consolidate the teachings of Rāmānuja and establish the Viśiṣṭādvaita system of philosophy on a stable foundation.

This need was fulfilled by Venkatanātha, popularly known as Vedānta Deśika and also Vedānta Ācārya, who was born in the year 126811. It is said that Vedānta Deśika's future role as the re-establisher of Rāmānuja's philosophy was prophesied even when he was a child of five by Vatsya Varadācārya, a spiritual descendent of Rāmānuja. The story goes that when the child accompanied by his maternal uncle met the ācārya for the first time, the latter was so attracted by the extraordinary intelligence of the boy, that he blessed him in the following words: "May you establish the Vedanta on a firm basis, vanquishing the theories of rival schools of thought; may you become the respected of the orthodox Vedāntins and the abode of abundant auspiciousness"12. Vedānta Deśika himself acknowledges with gratitude the blessings received from his spiritual guru in the opening verses of Tattva-muktā-kalāpa and Adhikaraņa-sārāvalī, the two major philosophical treatises devoted to the exposition of Viśistādvaita Vedānta on a solid foundation¹³.

Vedānta Deśika was a prolific writer and he wrote more than hundred works not only in the realm of philosophy and religion but also in the field of poetry and drama. His chief philosophical works are: Nyāya-pariśuddhi, Nyāya-siddhāñjana, Tattva-muktā-kalāpa along with Sarvārthasiddhi (his own commentary), Adhikaraṇa-sārāvalī, Seśvara-mīmāmsā, Mīmāmsā-pādukā, Śatadūṣaṇī. His other philosophical works which are in the form of commentaries are Tattva-ṭīka (an incomplete commentary on Śrī-Bhāṣya),

Tātparya-candrikā (a gloss on Rāmānuja's Gītā-bhāṣya), Īśāvāsyopaniṣad-bhāṣya (a commentary on Īśāvāsyopaniṣad), Gītārtha-saṁgraha-rakṣā (a commentary on Yāmuna's Gītārtha-saṁgraha), Rahasyarakṣā, a commentary on Yāmuna's Stotra-ratna, Catuḥślokī and Rāmānuja's Gadyatraya.

Among the philosophical works, Nyāya-pariśuddhi, Nyāya-siddhānjana, Śatadūṣanī, Tattva-mukta-kalāpa and Adhikaraṇa-sārāvalī are important since in these works the doctrines of Viśistādvaita are expounded. Nyāya-parīśuddhi is an epistemological work devoted primarily to the discussion of the nature of the pramanas and other epistemological theories of Visistādvaita. In the Nyāyasiddhāñjana, the ontological theories of Viśistādvaita are presented in detail. The Satadūsanī, which is a polemical work (vāda-grantha) is devoted to the refutation of the doctrines of Śamkara's Advaita Vedānta by adopting dialectical arguments with a view to establishing the soundness of the theories of Viśistādvaita. The Tattvamuktākalāpa, which is written in verse containing 500 verses composed in sragdharā metre is intended primarily to present the Visistadvaita doctrines by critically evaluating the corresponding theories of rival schools of thought. Unlike Nyāya-siddhānjana, it is a comprehensive philosophical classic of Viśistādvaita Vedānta covering all topics in the realms of Metaphysics, Ontology, Theology, Epistemology, Cosmology and Eschatology. As Vedanta Deśika claims, there is no topic in Philosophy which is not covered in this work and what is not considered here cannot be found elsewhere (yannāsmin kvāpi naitat)14. It is indeed the magnum opus of Vedanta Deśika¹⁵.

The Adhikaraṇa-sārāvalī, is an equally important philosophical treatise written in the same style as Tattva-muktā-kalāpa in sragdharā metre. It is primarily devoted to the discussion of the different adhikaraṇas or sectional topics of Brahma-sūtras as interpreted by Rāmānuja in his classical Śrī-Bhāṣya. In this work Vedānta Deśika, while

Introduction xxv

summarizing the contents of each adhikarana, attempts to establish that the doctrines of Viśistādvaita as developed by Rāmānuja are philosophically sound and well rooted in the Upanisads. While the main objective of Tattva-muktākalāpa is to establish the soundness of the Viśiṣṭādvaita theories on a logical basis by way of proving the untenability of the corresponding theories of rival schools of thought, the main focus of the Adhikarana-sārāvalī is to establish that Viśistadvaita fully conforms to the Upanisadic teachings and the Vedanta-sutras, unlike the Advaita of Śamkara. In view of this, Vedānta Deśika states that the two philosophical treatises are complementary, comparable to the two hands supporting each other (anyonyahastapradam). Thus, among the philosophical works of Vedanta Deśika, the Tattva-muktā-kalāpa and Adhikaraņa-sārāvalī constitute the outstanding Vedanta classics which provide a comprehensive knowledge of Viśistādvaita system.

Adhikaraņa-sārāvalī - its Scope and Contents

The Adhikaraṇa-sārāvalī, as its title suggests deals with the essential teachings contained in each adhikaraṇa of Brahma-sūtra. Bādarāyaṇa has codified the philosophical teachings of the Upanisads in the form of sūtras or concise aphoristic sentences expressed in a few cryptic words. The total number of sūtras, according to Rāmānuja, is 545. These are divided into four adhyāyas or chapters. Each adhyāya is subdivided into four pādas or pārts. Each pada is further subdivided into adhikaraṇas or sections dealing with specific subject covered in a single or group of sūtras. Adhikaraṇa is a technical name for a section devoted to discuss a specific subject or topic by following the five-fold methodology adopted in the traditional philosophical disputation¹⁶. The five stages of discussion are:

- 1. Viṣaya or the subject matter of discussion is to be stated.
- 2. Saṃśaya or all possible alternative views relating to it are to be mentioned.

- 3. *Pūrvapakṣa* or the prima facie view about it is to be presented.
- 4. Uttara or a suitable reply to it is to be given after a methodical discussion and refutation of pūrvapakṣa.
- 5. Prayojana or the usefulness of the discussion by way of the establishment of the conclusive view (siddhānta).

This methodology of discussion of a subject was introduced by the Pūrva-mīmāmsakas in respect of Mīmāmsā-sūtras which deal with the interpretation of the ritualistic portion of the Vedas. Though Bādarāyaṇa, who has framed the sūtras to codify the teachings of the Upaniṣads has not grouped them into adhikaraṇas, the commentators on Vedānta-sutra accepted this methodology and named the adhikaraṇas by grouping the sūtras dealing with the specific subject. There is great advantage in following such a methodology. First it becomes easier to comprehend a variety of subjects covered by Bādarāyaṇa in a large number of sūtras. More importantly, it provides a logical justification for arriving at a conclusive view on the basis of a critical evaluation of the possible alternative theories.

The number of adhikaraṇas is 156 according to Rāmānuja, whereas it is 196 for Śamkara and 222 for Madhva. This wide variation arises as a result of the manner in which the sūtras are grouped with reference to the subject matter acknowledged by the commentators.

The names of adhikaraṇas and the subject covered in them are given in the Appendix I. The adhikaraṇas are generally titled after the key word of the sūtra, which indicates its subject matter. Thus, for instance, the Jijñāsādhikaraṇa which covers the first sūtra is named after the term jijñāsā mentioned in the sūtra 'athāto brahma jijñāsā'. Wherever an adhikaraṇa covers several sūtras, as in the case of the Ānandamayādhikaraṇa dealing with the subject of Brahman as blissful, it bears the title of the keyword of the principal sūtra viz. 'ānandamayo abhyāsāt'. With the exception of a

Introduction xxvii

few, most of the adhikaraṇas cover more than one $s\bar{u}tra$ and in some cases 10-15 $s\bar{u}tras$, depending upon the nature of the subject to be discussed. It is therefore considered necessary for a commentator to discuss the subjects dealt with in the $s\bar{u}tras$ in the order of adhikaraṇas rather than individually.

The sequence of the adhikaraṇas is also the same as followed in the sūtras by Bādarāyaṇa. As will be seen presently, there is perfect coherence (saṅgati) not only between the four adhyāyas and the four pādas under each adhyāya, but also betw een the different adhikaraṇas under each pāda. According to the traditional commentators, even the sūtras are also inter-connected.

The central theme of the adhikaraṇas and the subject matter covered in them are the same as found in the Brahma-sūtras. The main subject of Brahma-sūtras as its title suggests, is Brahman. Though each adhyāya and each pāda of it covers different topics, these are directly or indirectly related to Brahman.

According to Rāmānuja, the first adhyāya which is named as Samanvayādhyāya, is primarily devoted to establish the correlation of various texts of the Upaniṣads with Brahman as the primary cause of the universe. It directly deals with Brahman after providing the needed justification for the enquiry into the nature of Brahman (Brahma-jijñāsā), a clear definition of Brahman, the proof for its existence and usefulness of the Upaniṣadic texts for knowing the Supreme Goal to be attained. It also discusses the essential nature of Brahman as a sentient being, as blissful (ānandamaya), as distinct from jīvātman and all other celestial beings, and also from the non-sentient cosmic entities such as ethereal space (ākāśa), vital breath (prāṇa), the cosmic light (jyotis). All these points are covered in eleven adhikaraṇas(1-11) included in the first pāda of Brahma-sūtra.

The second pāda deals with the distinguishing characteristics of Brahman. According to Vedānta Deśika,

it establishes on the authority of the Upaniṣadic teachings the following points:

- I) Brahman as the Self of all (Sarvātmā),
- II) Brahman as the devourer of the entire universe $(Att\bar{a})$,
- III) Brahman as the *Puruṣa* abiding for ever in the eye (*Akṣinityasthitiḥ*)
- IV) Brahman as the Inner Controller of all (Antaryāmin),
- V) Brahman as the Imperishable Reality (Akṣara)
- VI) Brahman as Vaiśvānara.

These subjects are covered in the adhikaranas 12 to 17.

The third pāda brings out a few more important characteristics of Brahman after critically examining the Upaniṣadic passages which prima facie appear to lend support to the theory that jīva is Brahman. These are:

- I) Brahman as the Support of heaven and earth $(\bar{A}yatana)$.
- II) Brahman as Infinitely great (Bhūmā).
- III) Brahman as the Ādhāra of the universe (viśvādhāra).
- IV) Brahman as the Object of Enjoyment of muktas (mukta bhogyaḥ).
- V) Brahman as the subtle space within the heart (daharākāśa).
- VI) Brahman as the Controller of all (Sarvaniyantā)
- VII) Brahman as the Object of meditation for celestial deities (Devādīnām upāsyaḥ)
- VIII) Brahman as the Nāma-rūpa Nirvahitā.

All these points are covered in the adhikaranas 18-27 of the third $p\bar{a}da$.

The fourth pāda of the first adhyāya is devoted to establish that Brahman as the primary cause of the universe is the Ultimate Reality by way of refuting the claims of the ancient Sāṁkhya school of thought, according to which prakṛti, also named as pradhāna and also described as avyākṛta, is

Introduction xxix

the cause of the universe. It also takes up for critical examination the views of the later Sāmkhya school which claims that the jīvātman, which is the twenty fifth principle and is other than prakṛti, is the cause of the universe. In the same strain, it also refutes the theory that the liberated self (muktātmā), is Brahman. In this connection, it also examines critically the view of the Yoga school which upholds that Īśvara is only instrumental cause (nimitta kāraṇa) and establishes that Brahman is the material cause of the universe (upādana-kāraṇa) and also the instrumental cause (nimitta kāraṇa). These topics are dealt in adhikaraṇas 28 to 35 of the fourth pāda.

The second adhyāya of Brahma-sūtra is named as Avirodhādhyāya or the chapter which proves the absence of contradictions. It is primarily devoted to uphold the main thesis of the first adhyāya viz that Brahman is the primary cause of the universe. For this purpose Bādarāyaṇa refutes the theories advanced by the rival schools of thought which were prevalent during his time and which stood opposed to the Vedānta theory of Reality. The schools which come up for critical examination in the order in which it is stated in the Brahma-sūtra are: Sāmkhya, Yoga, Nyāya-vaiśeṣika, Buddhism, Jainism, Pāśupata (the ancient Śaiva school) and Pāñcarātra.

In the first pāda of this adhyāya, the arguments advanced by the schools of Sāmkhya and Yoga against the possibility of accepting Brahman as the cause of the universe are discussed and set aside. In this conn41ection the theory of causality as conceived by the Vaiśeṣikas viz. that cause and effect are distinct is discussed with a view to establish the causal relationship between Brahman and universe. A few objections raised against the Vedanta theory of Brahman as the material cause of the universe are also answered. All these topics are dealt in adhikaraṇas 36 to 46.

The second pāda of second adhyāya examines critically the other schools of thought including Sāmkhya, Nyāyavaišeṣika, Bauddha, Jaina, Pāśupata and Pāñcarātra. In the case of Sāmkhya it highlights the self- contradictions involved in their teachings. Regarding Nyāya-vaiśeṣika, Buddhists and Jainas, the impossibility of paramāṇus or subtle atomic elements becoming cause of the universe is demonstrated.

It also refutes the śūnyavāda of the Mādhyamika Buddhists. In the case of Pāśupata, the theory of Īśvara as the only nimitta kāraṇa is refuted. In the case of Pāñcarātra, it is proved to be acceptable as its teachings are in conformity with the Vedas. All these issues are covered in adhikaraṇas 47 to 53.

The third $p\bar{a}da$ of second $adhy\bar{a}ya$ is far more important as it deals among other topics with the nature of $j\bar{i}v\bar{a}tman$. Out of seven adhikaraṇas included in this part, five are devoted to establish that $j\bar{i}v\bar{a}tman$ is eternal (nitya), it is the subject of knowledge $(j\bar{n}\bar{a}t\bar{a})$ and also the agent of action $(kart\bar{a})$. It also discusses in detail the relation of $j\bar{i}va$ to Brahman in terms of difference and non-difference and affirms that $j\bar{i}va$ is an $a\dot{m}\dot{s}a$ or integral part of Brahman. This $p\bar{a}da$ also examines the evolutes such as viyat (ether), tejas (fire) and $v\bar{a}yu$ (air) and establishes that they have an origin unlike $j\bar{i}v\bar{a}tman$. All these are covered in the adhikaraṇas 54 to 60.

The fourth pāda of this adhyāya takes up for consideration the nature of the sense organs (indriyas), their number, their atomic character, the nature and role of prāṇa vāyu (vital breath). An important subject which comes up for discussion is the manner in which the physical universe consisting of variety of living beings and non-sentient entities is created through the process of quintuplication of five elements (pañcīkaraṇa). It is shown that the creation of the physical universe is brought about through the media of caturmukha Brahmā by Paramātman, as stated in the Upaniṣads. These issues are dealt with in the adhikaraṇas 61 to 68.

The third adhyāya of Brahma-sūtra is named as Sādhanādhyāya, since it primarily deals with the sādhana or the ways and means of attainment of Brahman. According

Introduction xxxi

to Bādarāyaṇa, upāsanā or unceasing mediation on Brahman, which is termed as vidyā, is the direct means to the attainment of Brahman. Prior to embarking on meditation, the spiritual aspirant is required to develop vairāgya or a sense of non-attachment to worldy and heavenly objects and also a deep craving for attainment of Brahman. For this purpose, the first pada of this adhyāya and early part of second pāda, describes the transmigration of the soul, the manner of its rebirth and also its condition in different states such as dream, deep sleep (susupti) and swoon (murcchā). In the later part of the second pāda, the nature of Brahman as totally free from all defects and also endowed with auspicious attributes (ubhayalinga) is presented in detail as it is considered necessary to know that Brahman is the worthy object of meditation. In this connection it is also pointed out that Brahman is the highest Reality (para) and the bestower of the Supreme Goal for the attainment of which upāsanā is laid down. All these subjects are covered in the adhikaranas 69 to 82.

The third pāda of this adhyāya, which is the longest in the Brahma-sutra comprising 26 adhikaraṇas, deals with the different types of vidyās or modes of meditation for realization of Brahman. The Upaniṣadic passages prescribe 32 types of meditation. These are not different paths for mokṣa but are regarded as alternative means since the goal to be attained is the same. They are, however, named differently since certain attributes (guṇas) with which Brahman is to be meditated upon are different for each vidyā. The discussion of this subject in the different adhikaraṇas is generally centered round the issues relating to what guṇas are to be included and what are to be excluded. This pāda is therefore titled guṇopasaṁhāra pāda or the part dealing with the inclusion or exclusion of Brahma-guṇas. All these topics are covered in the adhikaraṇas 83 to 108.

The fourth pāda of the third adhyāya is of some importance as it straight-away discusses the nature of the means for attaining the Supreme Goal (puruṣārtha) and the

place of karma vis-a-vis upāsanā. It sets aside the view of Mīmāmsakas who lay greater emphasis on karma or observance of ritutals and regards that jñāna or upāsanā is subordinate to it. Bādarāyaṇa emphasizes the need of the observance of the prescribed rituals by all the aspirants for mokṣa and also the cultivation of ethical virtues such as śama, dama etc. as necessary pre-requisites for upāsanā. These points are all covered in the adhikaraṇas 109 to 123.

The fourth adhyāya, which is named Phalādhyāya or the chapter dealing with the spiritual Goal, considers the manner in which the prescribed sādhana is to be practised, utkrānti or the exit of the individual soul from the physical body at the time of liberation from bondage, the description of the path (arcirādi gati) through which the liberated soul passes to reach the ultimate Goal and the nature of the Goal attained by the jīva after final liberation from bondage. These points are covered in the four pādas of this adhyāya comprising a total of 33 adhikaraṇas (124 to156).

In the Adhikaraṇa-sārāvalī, Vedānta Deśika deals with all the 156 topics and discusses them in the same order as found in Rāmānuja's Brahma-sūtra Bhāṣya. As stated earlier, it is written in the form of verses composed in the dignified sragdharā metre. It is difficult to present a philosophical discussion in poetic style with the statement of prima facie view (pūrvapakṣa), criticism of the same and establish a conclusive theory (siddhānta). But Vedānta Deśika, being a gifted poet (kavi) and logician (tārkika) has successfully accomplished this task, as he has done in the Tattva-muktā-kalāpa.

This treatise is not a mere summary of the contents of the adhikaraṇas as found in the $Sr\bar{\imath}$ -Bhāṣya, as the term 'Sārāvalī' denotes. Its scope is much wider. So also the method of presentation of the subject is different. It does not attempt to present in a stereotyped manner, as in the Sutra-bhāṣya, the details of the $p\bar{\imath}$ rvapakṣa along with the viṣayavākya or the Upaniṣadic statements which form the basis for the $s\bar{\imath}$ tra, and the dialectical arguments and

Introduction xxxiii

counter-arguments advanced to establish a conclusive theory with the supporting scriptural authority. If it were a mere repetition of what is already stated in the Śrī-Bhāṣya, then Adhikarana-sārāvalī would be a mere duplication of the effort made by Rāmānuja and it would not be of any special value. Vedānta Deśika himself seems to be aware of this possible objection, which is evident from the fact that at the commencement of the work, he attempts to justify this arduous undertaking. In the opening verse he states that he would defend the title of Vedantacarya conferred on him by Lord Ranganatha, the presiding deity of Śrīrangam (tena devena dattām vedāntācārya saminām ...sārtham anvarthayāmi). If we closely study the work, we find that this claim made out of modesty is well founded by establishing the doctrines of Visistadvaita enshrined in the sūtras and expounded in the Śrī-Bhāsya by Rāmānuja on a more solid ground not only with the support of Scriptural texts but also on the basis of logic through the discussion of the issues arising as a result of the interpretation of the sūtras and the connected Upanișadic texts. Unlike Rāmānuja, he does not go into the details of the pūrva-paksa and answer them step by step in a dialectical manner. On the other hand, he concentrates on the main issue or issues related to the doctrine enshrined in the sūtras and after examining them with the relevant arguments, he sets down the siddhanta in a precise and clear way. In the Śrī-Bhāsya, a reader often gets lost in the elaborate discussion on the views of the pūrvapakṣa with arguments and counter arguments and miss the essential theory that needs to be established. Vedānta Deśika, in his Adhikarana-sārāvalī avoids such an elaborate discussion and confines his attention to the disputed issue which is directly related to the topic and answers it with a clear statement of the final view on the subject. This method of discussion enables us to grasp the essential points relevant to a doctrine. A comparative study of the manner of treatment of the adhikaranas such as Jijñāsādhikarana, Samanvayādhikarana,

Ānandamayādhikaraṇa and Ārambhaṇādhikaraṇa in Śrī-Bhāṣya and Adhikaraṇa-sārāvali will bear out the observation made above. If we take note of these facts, it becomes evident that Adhikaraṇa-sārāvalī is not a mere summary of the contents of the adhikaraṇas of Brahma-sūtra but is a distinctive philosophical treatise aimed to present the essential teachings contained in the adhikaraṇas.

There are a few other characteristic features of Adhikaraņa-sārāvalī. The first and foremost is the attempt made by Vedānta Deśika to establish the sangati or connection not only between one sūtra and the other but also between the four adhyāyas, the four pādas of each adhyāya and more importantly between the adhikaraņas. On the face of it, it appears that the sūtius and adhikaraṇas under which they are grouped are somewhat disconnected. But it is not so according to the author of the sūtras, who has conceived a perfect sequence. The entire work of Brahma-sūtra is a well-knit treatise. Though all the commentators are generally agreed on this point, Vedanta Deśika makes a special effort to establish a close and meaningful connection (sangati) between the sūtras. Though for modern scholars, this may not be of any special importance, the traditional scholars accord great significance to it since it provides a rational justification for formulating a sūtra in certain order and sequence from the beginning to the end.

Another important feature of this treatise, as Vedānta Deśika himself points out, is that it clarifies the doubts or minor criticisms raised by some critics on the Śrī-Bhāṣya such as repetition of what is already stated elsewhere (paunarukti), negation of what is stated (uktabādha), irrelevance of the teachings (mandatva), absence of proper sangati or connection between adhyāyas, pādas and adhikaraṇas, opposition to the accepted pramānas (mānabādha) etc.. According to Vedānta Deśika the Adhikaraṇa-sārāvalī reveals that the adhikaraṇas of Brahma-sūtra Bhāṣya of Rāmānuja is free from these defects. He says

Introduction xxxv

that those who read these verses carefully with an open mind will be delighted to find that it is free from defects¹⁷.

It may be observed from this brief contents of the adhikaranas in the preceding pages that the text in original is very extensive comprising 562 terse verses in Sanskrit and covering 156 adhikaranas related to a variety of philosophical and allied topics. For persons not well acquainted with Sanskrit, an English translation of the verses with explanatory notes may provide some idea of the contents of the book. But an English translation having its own limitation cannot bring out the spirit of the original text. It does not also provide to the reader a comprehensive and consolidated account of the doctrines of Viśistādvaita Vedanta in a sequential order. Therefore, neither any attempt is made to present a translation of this original work nor a summary of the adhikaraṇas is given in the same order as found in the original text. Some of the adhikaranass, particularly those which are included in the third pada of third adhyāya dealing with different types of vidyās and the issues relating to what gunas or attributes of Brahman are either to be included or excluded in respect of the upāsanā, would not be of any special philosophical significance. The main objective of the book is to present the important doctrines of Visistādvaita Vedānta as expounded in the classic Sūtra-bhāṣya of Rāmānuja on the basis of the Upanisad and the sūtras in a logical order. For this purpose we have confined our attention to the discussion of the selected adhikaranas that have a direct bearing on the fundamental doctrines of Viśiṣṭādvaita.

Though the central theme of the *Brahma-sūtra* is Brahman, it deals with three major subjects. These are *Tattva* or Brahman, the *Sādhana* or the means of its attainment and *Puruṣārtha* or the Supreme Goal. Under these three major subjects, the following doctrines are discussed in the various *adhikaraṇas*.



The Doctrine of Brahman

- 1. The essential nature of Brahman
- 2. The distinguishing characteristics of Brahman
- 3. Brahman as the cause of the universe

The Doctrine of Universe and Brahman

- Brahman as the material cause of the universe
- 2. The relation of the universe to Brahman
- 3. The theory of cosmic creation

The Doctrine of Jiva and Brahman

- 1. The essential nature of jīva
- 2. The relation of jīva to Brahman
- 3. The theory of the transmigration of jīva
- 4. The different states of jīva

The Doctrine of Sādhana or the Means of attainment of Brahman.

- 1. Brahman as the worthy object of Meditation.
- 2. Vidyā (upāsanā) as the direct means of attainment of Brahman.
- Karma as subsidiary means to Vidyā.
- 4. The nature and components of *Upāsanā*.

The Doctrine of Parama-puruṣārtha.

- 1. The nature of the liberation of jīva from bondage.
- 2. The theory of utkrānti.
- The theory of the pathway to mokṣa (Arcirādimārga).
- 4. The status of jīva in the state of mukti.

In the present book we shall deal with the adhikaraṇas which are related to the above doctrines in a sequential order with the main objective of expounding Viśiṣṭādvaita philosophy as developed by Rāmānuja in the Brahma-sūtra Bhāṣya and as further elucidated by Vedānta Deśika in the Adhikaraṇa-sārāvalī. We shall not attempt a comparative

Introduction xxxvii

and critical study of these theories with reference to the commentaries of Śamkara and Madhva on the adhikaraṇas, since this task has already been accomplished in the book 'The Philosophy of the Vedāntasutra — A study based on the comments of Śamkara, Rāmānuja and Madhva'. We shall not also take up a comparative study of the corresponding theories of other schools of thought to establish the soundness of the Viśiṣṭādvaita doctrines, since this task is undertaken in the book 'Fundamentals of Viśiṣṭādvaita— A study based on Vedānta Deśika's Tattva-muktā-kalāpa. This book is primarily aimed to give an exposition of Viśiṣṭādvaita Vedānta established in conformity with the Upaniṣads and Brahma-sūtras as evidenced by the Adhikaraṇa-sārāvalī of Vedānta Deśika.

See NS p1. Prakāra-prakāriņoh prakārāņām ca mitho atyanta bhede api višistaikyādi vivakṣaya ekatva vyapadesaḥ

^{2.} RB 1.1.1. Bhagavat bodhayāna kṛtam brahmasūtra vṛttim pūrvācāryāḥ sanchikṣupuḥ tanmatānuśareṇa sūtrākṣaraṇi vyūkhyāsyante

^{3.} Vedārtha Saṅgraha – p.100

^{4.} TMK V-136 nāthopajñam pravṛttam

^{5.} In recent years a book under the title 'Yoga-rahasya' is published by Sri T.V.K. Desikachar who claims that it is the same 'Yoga-rahasya' of Nāthamuni, which was revealed to his father, Sri T. Krishnamacharya, during the state of trance at Alwar Tirunagari, the birth place of saint Nāmmālwar. This claim is questionable since the Yoga-rahasya of Nā thamuni which was not available to such eminent Ācāryas, Rāmānuja and Vedānta Deśika could have been discovered by a person of the present century.

TMK IV-10 and V-59

^{7.} TMK – V-136

^{8.} For an authentic account of the biography and the works of Rāmānuja, see the author's article in the 'History of Science, Philosophy and Culture in Indian Civilization' - Vol II - part 3. pp. 70-105.

See TMK V-136

According to the tradition, one of the commands of Yāmuna was that Rāmānuja should write a proper commentary on the Vedānta-sutras.

For a biographical sketch of Vedānta Deśika and his works, see author's 'Advaita and Viśistādvaita' pp. 1-4 and also the volume

- mentioned under fn. 8.
- 12. pratisthāpitavedāntah pratiksipta bahirmatah; bhūyah traividyāmanyastvam bhūri-kalyanabhajanam.
- 13. TMK I-2. Varadagurukṛpālaṃbitoddamabhumā... See also AS. verse 2. Varadācārya Rāmānujābhyam samyagdṛṣṭeṇa sarvam.
- 14. TMK V-134
- For further details regarding Tattvamuktākalāpa see Fvv. Introduction.
- 16. It is defined as follows: vişayo samsayascaiva pūrvapakṣaḥ tathottaram; prayojanam ca pañcāngam pañco adhikaraṇam viduḥ. Vedānta Desika offers another definition of adhikarana which is an expansion of the five stages of discussion into ten: sangatiḥ viṣayascaiva saṃsayotthāna kāraṇam; saṃsayasca prakārāsca tadarthā ca vicāraṇa; tasyam phalaphalitvam ca nyāyau dvau pakṣayordvayoḥ, nirṇayas-tat phalam ce'ti bodhyany-adhikratau dasa.
- 17. See AS verse 3. hrdyā padyavaliyam hṛdayam-adhigatā sāvadhānāt dhinotu (santuṣtān karotu)

CHAPTER ONE

THE STUDY OF VEDĀNTA

Brahma-sūtra is primarily concerned with the study of Brahman, which is the ultimate metaphysical Reality. Bādarāyana therefore rightly commences his classic treatise on Vedanta with four aphorisms to justify the need and importance of the philosophic study for obtaining the knowledge of Brahman. These sūtras deal with four important subjects viz., a) enquiry into the nature of Brahman, b) definition of Brahman as the primary cause of the cosmic functions, c) śāstra as the only source of knowing Brahman, and d) the main purport of the Upanisads is Brahman. The first four adhikaranas named as Jijñāsādhikaraņa, Janmādyadhikaraņa, Śāstrayonitvādhi-karaņa and Samanvayādhikarana cover these subjects respectively. These adhikaranas which constitute one unit (peţikā) are regarded by the commentators as a preface (upodghāta) to Brahma-sūtra since they affirm the value and importance of the Vedanta study by way of refuting the general objection that the study of Vedanta is futile. As explained by the commentators, Bādarāyana has in mind four possible objections prevalent during his time against the study of Vedānta. These are: (a) The Upanisadic texts which teach about Brahman which is an existent (siddhapara) are not purportful; (b) the definition about Brahman offered by the Upanisad is not satisfactory and hence Brahman cannot be known; (c) since the existence of Brahman can be proved by inference, Sacred texts cannot teach anything new; and

(d) the knowledge of Brahman derived from the Upaniṣads does not serve any useful purpose. The details of these criticisms will be explained when we discuss the relevant adhikaraṇas. For the present it may be noted that these are implied in the relevant sūtras and that Bādarāyana, as explained by the commentators, attempts at the very outset to refute them in order to establish the value of Vedānta study. We shall discuss these four topics in the present chapter.

I. Brahma-jijñāsā

Regarding Brahma-jijñāsā, the sūtra reads: Athāto brahmajijñāsā2. It means: 'Then, therefore, the enquiry into Brahman'. Each word in the sutra has far reaching implications. Jijñāsā means desire to know (jñātum icchā). It refers to the object of desire viz., knowledge of Brahman which is more important than desire itself. The term Brahman denotes, according to Rāmānuja, the Supreme Person (Purusottama) who by nature is endowed with infinite auspicious attributes and is also free from all imperfections.³ The word atha means soon after (anantara) and implies, as interpreted by Rāmānuja, that Brahmajijñāsā is to be undertaken after completing the study of Pūrva-mīmāmsā dealing with the ritualistic portion of the Vedas. The word atah means 'therefore' and it implies the reason for pursuing the study of Vedanta after one has realized the futility of the fruits of the rituals and come to know the eternal value of the spiritual goal to be attained by the study of Vedanta. The fuller meaning of the sūtra, as explained by Rāmānuja, is that the enquiry into the nature of Brahman is to be undertaken by a spiritual aspirant after he has completed the study of Pūrvamīmāmsa, which deals with the ritualistic portion of the Vedas and realized the impermanent value of the fruits achieved by the Vedic rituals and the eternal value of the Supreme Goal to be attained by the study of Uttaramīmāmsa, which deals with the later portion of the Vedas (Upaniṣads)

This view has for its support the teaching of the Muṇḍaka Upaniṣad on the basis of which the *sūtra* itself is formulated. Thus it states:

Parīkṣya lokān karmacitān brāhmaņo nīrvedamāyāt. Nastyakṛtaḥ kṛtena. tadvijñārtham sa gurumeva abhigacchet samitpāṇiḥ śrotriyam brahmaniṣṭham. Tasmai sa vidvān upasannāya saṃyak praśāntacittāya samanvitāya. Yenākṣaram puruṣam veda satyam provāca taṁ tattvato brahmavidyām⁴

"After having examined the fruits obtained by the performance of the prescribed rituals, a Brāhmaṇa (one who has studied the Vedas) should become dejected by realizing that what is eternal (Paramātman) cannot be attained from the non-permanent fruits of the rituals. In order to know that (Reality), he should approach with a token gift a preceptor who is learned in the Vedas and is also well established in the knowledge of Brahman. To such a pupil, who has approached the preceptor with his senses restrained and equipped with mental tranquility, the guru (preceptor) should impart the knowledge of Brahman by means of which the eternal and imperishable Reality is realized".

The above passage clearly indicates that the study of *Vedānta* for gaining the knowledge of Brahman is to be taken up after the study of *karma-kāṇḍa*. This view is also supported by the authoritative statement of Bodhāyana, an ancient commentator on *Brahma-sūtra*. Thus, it is stated: *vṛttāt karmādhigamāt anantaram brahma vividiṣā.*⁵ "Soon after the comprehension of the knowledge of the rituals has taken place, there follows the enquiry into Brahman.

II. Pūrva-mīmāmsā and Uttara-mīmāmsā

The first question that is raised in this connection is whether there is any connection between $P\bar{u}rva$ - $m\bar{t}m\bar{u}m\bar{s}\bar{a}$ and Uttata- $m\bar{t}m\bar{u}m\bar{s}\bar{a}$. It is contended that these two are distinctive parts of the Vedas dealing with separate subjects, the former with

the rituals and the latter with Brahman. There is difference in respect of their authors, contents, aim and the persons eligible for their study. There is also opposition between karma or observance of rituals which is the main theme of Pūrva-mīmāmsā and jñāna or knowledge of Brahman, which is the central theme of the Vedānta. Besides, the study of Pūrva-mīmāmsā is not of any use for the study of Vedānta and hence the study of Pūrva-mīmāmsā is not a necessary precedent to the study of Vedānta.

These issues are discussed in great detail by Rāmānuja in the Śrī-Bhāṣya while commenting on the first sūtra and also by Vedānta Deśika in the Adhikaraṇa-sārāvalī and the Śatadūṣaṇī. These are refuted on the basis of three strong arguments. First, the enquiry into the meaning of the Vedic texts which comprises the ritualistic as well as Brahman portion should cover the study of both Pūrva-mīmāmsā and Uttara-mīmāmsa. Secondly, the knowledge of Pūrva-mīmāmsā is very essential for the study of Vedānta. Thirdly, the two Mīmāmsas - Pūrva and Uttara- form one integral whole.

Regarding the first argument, it is pointed out that the Scriptural injunction demands the study of the entire Vedas including the Upanisads along with the anciliary texts (Vedāngas). Its meaning also should be grasped with the aid of the rules of interpretation and other logical arguments since with the understanding of the meaning only, it is possible to determine the subsequent action. The enquiry into their meaning (arthavicāra) may be initiated either through a specific injunction, as the Mīmāmsakas maintain, or it may take place out of one's own desire (rāgataḥ). In either case, Vedānta Deśika argues, that it covers the entire portion of the Vedas, as it cannot be restricted to any one part. Though it may be possible to restrict the enquiry that is undertaken due to a specific injunction, it is not possible to do so in the case of an enquiry initiated out of one's own desire. It cannot be restricted to Brahman since one may desire to know all the four human goals (puruṣārthas) and

a desire to know all the four puruṣārthas naturally leads to the enquiry into the meaning of the entire Scriptural texts including the Upaniṣads. Consequently, one realizes in a general way from the Scriptural statements that svarga etc., achieved through prescribed sacrifice are of impermanent nature and that the knowledge of Brahman obtained through the study of the Upaniṣads lead to eternal Spiritual Goal (akṣayaphala).

Regarding the second argument, Vedānta Deśika points out that the Pūrva-mīmāmsā actually aids the Uttaramīmāmsā. The aid is in the form that Vedānta requires the arguments and the principles of Pūrva-mīmāmsā (nyāyopajīvanam). The first adhyāya of Pūrva-mīmāmsā establishes that Vedas are authoritative. This in general is very essential for Vedānta. The second adhyāya named Bhedādhyāya discusses the nature of difference etc. This is useful to the study of the third section of the third adhyāya of the Vedanta titled Gunopasamhāra pāda. Again the third adhyāya of the Pūrva-mīmāmsā which deals with the principles of interpretation is useful throughout the study of Vedanta. Prayukti or that which discusses the purpose of each ritual which comes under the fourth adhyāya of Pūrvamīmāmsā, is helpful in ascertaining whether the religious duty connected with the caste etc., is meant for the purpose of Brahman-knowledge or confined to the āśrama itself. Again in the fifth adhyāya of Pūrva-mīmāmsā, the topic dealing with the succession of rituals (kramah) is helpful in studying the third section of the last chapter of Brahmasūtra. The discussion relating to the nature of the agent etc., which is taken up in the sixth adhyaya of Pūrvamīmāmsā is useful for the discussion about the eligibility of persons to the study of Vedānta. Likewise the other adhyāyas of Pūrva-mīmāmsā are also useful either directly or indirectly to the study of Vedanta. Thus, the meaning of Vedanta texts is ascertained with the help of the principles and arguments set forth in the Pūrva-mīmāmsā and hence the knowledge of Pūrva-mīmāmsā is indispensible for Uttara-mīmāmsā.

Vedānta Deśika further contends that there is absolutely no contradiction between $P\bar{u}rva-m\bar{t}m\bar{a}mis\bar{a}$ and $Uttara-m\bar{t}m\bar{a}mis\bar{a}$ either in respect of content or end or aspirant. The aspirant is one and the same. He who has studied the $P\bar{u}rva-m\bar{t}m\bar{a}mis\bar{a}$ and understood the finite and impermanent character of the fruits of karma enters on the study of Vedānta which refers to the Supreme Goal. As regards the subject matter, though there are minor differences there is an inherent unity between the two subjects. Ritualism is preliminary and philosophic quest is subsequent development. One is apprenticeship and the other is adeptship. One clarifies and illuminates the other. Thus, there is organic unity between the two treatises (śāstras). As will be shown, presently the two constitute one single treatise.

Nor is there any opposition between karma or the performance the prescribed rituals and jñāna taken in the sense of the knowledge of Brahman or upāsanā (meditation) on Brahman. As will be seen in the later chapters, the performance of rituals is helpful in acquiring the desire to know Brahman (vividiṣā), as the Advaitin admits and it is a subsidiary means to upāsanā, as the Viśiṣṭādvaitin maintains. The ritualistic observances cannot be dispensed with as it serves as the purificatory programme and aids Brahman-enquiry.

But how could the two treatises be considered to be one, while they have been composed by different authors? This is an important objection raised by the critic. Vedānta Deśika exposes the hollowness of this objection. One and the same person can plan a project and successfully execute many endeavours, many schemes; or again countless persons by combined effort may accomplish a single project as in the case of the construction of a tower of a temple. Even in respect of a literary work, one scholar can compose a number of independent treatises. Or as in the case of the commentary on Pāṇini sūtras, even though different authors are involved, the treatise continues to be the same.

It may be argued that in many of the *Vedānta-sūtras* the position taken by Jaimini is indicated as *pūrva pakṣa*, that is, a position to be repudiated. Does not this indicate that the two are incompatible? How then can they coalesce into a single unity?

This objection is baseless, argues Vedānta Deśika. The differences referred to between Badarayana and Jaimini relate to minor matters, almost to trivial formalities (atyalpatara apradhānārtha). If in a portion of a building some part is removed and reconstructed the main unity of the building is not destroyed. On the other hand, the removal of the part and its reconstruction add to the beauty of it. Likewise it should be understood that the Pūrva-mīmāmsā has been corrected by the Uttara-mīmāmsā. Or again the differences between Jaimini and Bādarāyana may be understood in a different way. It may be taken that Jaimini has given expression to such views not with the intention of opposing the views of Bādarāyana but to demonstrate his capacity to establish the truth on grounds conceding the opponents' assumptions (vaibhavokti). Bādarāyaṇa reexamines them with the idea that laymen may not mistake them for truths. The position of Jaimini is, therefore, quoted with approval for removing likely doubts, for clarification of the issues and also for a reasoned reinforcement of the main doctrines. All this is amply evidenced by references like 'So said Jaimini'. More than that, in many contexts Bādarāyana refers to Jaimini by name for supporting his own views. 6 Similarly Jaimini to support his own conclusion refers to Bādarāyana and his authority.7 These reciprocal references must prove convincingly that the two brances of the literature dealing with karma-kāṇḍa and Brahma-kāṇḍa constitute a totality.

Now we come to the third important argument in support of the theory upheld by Rāmānuja that the study of the *Pūrva-mīmārisā* should precede the study of *Vedānta*. According to the tradition, *Mīmārisā-śāstra*, which is concerned with the interpretation of the *Vedas*, is one single

śāstra comprising three parts. The first part is named as karma-kānda consisting of 12 adhyāyas which deal with the nature and manner of performing the various rituals. The Pūrva-mīmāmsā sutras of Jaimini constitute this part and it is generally acknwoledged as the basic Mīmāmsā treatise. The second part is known as Devatā-kāṇḍa consisting of four adhyavas which deal with the nature and status of celestial deities referred to in the Vedas. It is also called Samkarşana-kānda, named after its author, Samkarşana. This work is not extant. However, there are references made to it in other works. The concluding sūtra of this kānda which refers to Visnu, the Supreme Deity and who is equated with Brahman is quoted by Vedānta Deśika and also by Madhva. The relevant sūtra reads: sa visnurāha hi..tam brahmetyācakṣate tam brahmetyācakṣate. "He is known as Visnu and that he is called Brahman". The mention of Brahman in the concluding sūtra of Samkarṣaṇa kāṇḍa also establishes its connection to the opening sūtra of the Brahmasūtra. The third part of Mīmāmsā śāstra is the Brahma-sūtra of Badarayana consisting of four adhyayas. The three constitute one single śāstra, though they are divided into three parts, each one being authored by three different sages. Keeping this fact in mind, the author of the Bodhāyana Vrtti states: samhitam-etat śārīrakam jaiminīyena sodasa lakṣanena iti śāstraikatva siddhih. (Quoted by Rāmānuja in the Śrī-Bhāṣya). "The śārīraka (Vedānta-sūtra) of four chapters forms a textual totality with the sixten-chaptered Pūrva-mīmāmsā of Jaimini."

To give prominence to Jaimini, Samkarṣaṇa is not mentioned by name by Bodhāyana, as Vedānta Deśika explains. But it is implied by the word ṣoḍaśalakṣaṇa or 16 chapters, since Jaimini's Mīmāmsā-sūtras cover only 12 adhyāyas, as accepted by all the Mīmāmsakas. On the authority of Bodhāyana who is the reputed ancient commentator on Brahma-sūtra, Rāmānuja affirms that Mīmāmsā is a single śāstra beginning with 'Athāto dharma-jijñāsā' and ending with 'Anāvṛtti śabdāt', divided into three

parts: Karma-kāṇḍa of twelve chapters, Devatā-kāṇḍa of four chapters, and Para-devatā-kāṇḍa of four chapters. This twenty-chaptered literature is throughout dominated by a central plan and execution. In view of these facts it is considered necessary that the study of Pūrva-mīmāṁsā should necessarily precede the study of Vedānta.

According to the Advaita Vedānta, Pūrva-mīmāmsā is not a pre-requisite for the study of Vedānta. There are four factors which are considered necessary for the study of Vedānta. These are: discrimination of eternal and non-eternal (nityā-nityavastu vivekaḥ) possession in abur Jance of calmness, equanimity and other such means (śama damādi sādhana sampat), non-attachment to the enjoyment of fruits here and hereafter (ihāmutraphalabhoga virāgaḥ) and desire for release (mumuksatvam).

Vedānta Deśika rejects the above theory on the ground that the four factors in question do not invariably precede the enquiry into Brahman. The main point of his criticism is that the discrimination of things eternal and non-eternal becomes possible only after one has made a study of Vedānta and hence it cannot be a pre-requisite to the study of Vedānta.8 It cannot be said that this knowledge of discrimination arises from the study of other systems, which one would have completed before commencement of the study of Vedanta. In that case, the study of Vedanta would become superfluous since the knowledge that is to be obtained from it would have already been derived from the study of other systems. Similarly if the possession of śama, dama etc., is taken to imply perfect control of sense organs, this would be possible only after one has studied Vedanta and embarked on the sadhana for the realization of the Self (darśana). This is evident from the following Upanișadic text: "Hence having become possessed of calmness, equanimity, turning away from the objects of pleasure and the desire to abandon them, one seeing the Self in the self (mind) alone, sees everything".9 As regards the non-attachment to the fruits here or hereafter and the

desire for release, though these may be needed for the study of Vedānta, it is more appropriate, contends Vedānta Deśika, that the study of Pūrva-mīmāmsā is accepted as the pre-requisite to the enquiry into Brahman for more than one reason. First, it suggests the order in which a person proceeds to study Vedānta. Secondly, it makes evident that an individual who enters into the study of Vedanta has clearly understood the arguments that are required for the purpose of knowing the nature of Brahman as well as contemplation thereon. Thirdly, it also facilitates an unhindered enquiry into Brahman through the removal of the prima facie superficial knowledge that the ritualistic deeds lead to the infinite and permanent result. The Scriptural text to which we have already referred also states: "Let a Brahmin after he has examined all these worlds (fruits of karma), obtain freedom from all desires and approach a qualified guru to obtain knowledge of Brahman".10

Another serious objection is raised by the Mīmāmsakas questioning the usefulness of the study of Vedanta. In fact this constitutes the prima facie view (pūrvapakṣa) for the sūtra enjoining Brahma-jijnāsā, as interpreted by the commentators. According to Prābhākara Mīmāmsā, words convey their meanings only as related to specific action. The process by which the meanings of words are derived is explained by an illustration. An elderly person asks a younger person to bring a cow and take it back. A child nearby observes the younger person carrying out the command and comes to understand that the word cow mentioned in the statement refers to the animal 'cow'. From this it is concluded that in the first stage words convey their meanings through such injunctive statements of elderly persons involving action (ādyā vyutpattih kārya eva). On the basis of this, the Prābhākaras uphold that words convey their meanings only as related to specific action. The implication of this theory is that only Vedic statements of injunctive character are purportful, whereas the Upanisadic statements which refer to the existent or what is already established (siddhapara) cannot be taken as valid except as

complemental to the injunctive statements. In view of this, the study of *Vedānta* is not of any use.

Following the criticisms offered by Rāmānuja in the Śrī-Bhāsya, Vedānta Deśika refutes this theory. He explains how at the initial stage words derive the meaning without any reference to activity in respect of existents. Thus, a person pointing his finger at a cow tells his child that it is called cow and the child learns to associate that word with the object 'cow'. The child then understands the meaning of words without those words having any reference to activity. To give another example, an individual, who is aware of the fact that the news about the birth of a child causes pleasure, conveys such news to the father of the newlyborn child, and the latter feels happy after hearing the statement of the former. It is obvious that the statement of the first individual conveys the meaning to the second individual and as such he reacts with joy. It is not therefore necessary that, in order to be meaningful, statements should have a direct bearing on activity.

Vedānta Deśika further explains how in the subsequent periods too, words convey their meaning in respect of existents. A person who is already acquainted with the meaning of certain words, understands on the basis of previous experience that such and such words have specific meanings and vice versa. With the knowledge of limited number of words, he also understands the meaning of more connected words in our ordinary experience. Whatever meanings are attached to the words in our ordinary experience, the same also hold good in respect of Vedic vocabulary. When however, there are Vedic words which do not bear the meaning current in our ordinary experience, their meaning is to be understood with the help of *Nirukta*, the treatise containing etymological interpretation of Vedic words.

Vedānta Deśika therefore concludes that words and the Upaniṣadic statements about Brahman are purportful even in respect of the existent.¹¹ Hence the study of Vedānta is

to be undertaken after the study of $P\bar{u}rva-m\bar{i}m\bar{a}\dot{m}s\bar{a}$, as enjoined in the $Brahma-s\bar{u}tra$.

III. Definition of Brahman

This is the subject of the adhikaraṇa named as Janmādya-dhikaraṇa covering the second sūtra in which Brahman, the object of jijñāsā is defined by Bādarāyaṇa. The sūtra reads: janmādy-asya yataḥ¹². The word janma means creation (sṛṣṭi) and the affix ādi implies sthiti or sustenance and laya or dissolution. The word asya refers to the variegated universe including the souls. The total meaning of the sūtra is that from which proceed the creation, sustenance and dissolution of the universe is Brahman. Thus, Brahman is defined by Bādarāyaṇa as that which is the cause of the creation, sustenance and dissolution of the universe.

This sūtra is formulated with reference to the passage of the Taittirīya Upaniṣad which offers the definition of Brahman. Bhṛgu requests his father Varuṇa to teach him about Brahman. In reply, Varuṇa states:

Yato vā imāni bhūtāni jāyante, yena jātāni jīvanti, yat prayanti abhi-samvišanti, tad vijijnāsasva, tat brahmeti¹³.

"That from which these beings are born, that from which when born they live, and that unto which when departing, they enter, seek to know that; that is Brahman."

In the context of the Upaniṣadic teaching there is no vagueness regarding the definition of Brahman offered by Bādarāyaṇa. The sūtra clearly lays down the three-fold cosmic function (jagatkāraṇatva) as the criteria for determining an ontological entity as Brahman.

In this connection an important issue is raised by the critic. There are two ways by which an object is defined. It can be defined in terms of its essential attributes (viśeṣaṇas) or qualifications per proprium. It can also be described with reference to certain identity marks (upalakṣaṇas) or qualifications per accidens. The moon in the distant sky, for instance, can be identified with reference to its abundant luminosity. It can also be identified through the moon visible

as if close to the branch of a tree. The first kind of definition is known as svarūpa laksana or definition in terms of its essential qualities belonging to the object. The second type is named as tatastha laksana or description offered by using certain identity marks (upalaksanas) which do not actually belong to the object. The question to be considered is whether the present Upanisadic text defines Brahman through the visesanas or the upalaksanas. The prima facie view is that in either case. Brahman cannot be defined. If the three cosmic functions are taken as viśesanas, these are different in nature and as such they denote three different entities as each one being qualified by a particular function. This view is based on the assumption that different viśeṣaṇas are applicable to different viśesyas or substances. On the contrary, if these functions are taken as upalaksanas, even then Brahman is not defined. The upalakṣaṇa can convey the knowledge of the upalaksya or the object denoted by it when the latter (Brahman) is already known in some way. Since Brahman is not already known, the upalaksana in the form of cosmic functions cannot convey the knowledge of Brahman. Hence the definition given in the Upanisad does not help us to know Brahman. It is therefore futile to undertake Brahma-jijñāsā.

In reply to this general criticism, Vedānta Dešika points out that Brahman as the Supreme Being and as the primary cause of the universe is already known through other Scriptural texts, particularly in the *Puruṣasukta* passage of the Vedas. It is only such a Brahman that is being taught by Varuṇa to Bhṛgu in the Taittirīya Upaniṣad. This is evident from the two pronouns yataḥ and tat used in the passage. The word yat implies what is well established as the creator of the universe and tat refers to such a Brahman.¹⁴

The Advaitin advances a different criticism. If all the three cosmic functions are regarded as *viśeṣaṇas*, then Brahman denoted by them cannot be one undifferentiated Being. This view is based on the logical principle adopted

by the Advaitin that different viśesanas mentioned in a statement about the viśesya or substance break up the unitary character of the viśesya (viśesanānam viśesyabhedakam). The example given in support of this view is the statement describing the cow as one without horn, with broken horn and with full horn (khando mundah pūrnaśrango gauh). This statement does not convey the idea of one cow but three different ones. In the same way the definition of Brahman as that which is the cause of the creation of the universe, as the cause of its sustenance and as the cause of its dissolution does not denote one Brahman. This criticism also applies to the definition of Brahman as satyam, jñānam and anantam which is regarded as lakṣaṇa vākya or statement offering a definition. In this statement, if the three terms are taken as attributes, Brahman cannot be one undifferentiated Being.

To avoid this difficulty, if one of the cosmic functions alone is taken as *viśeṣaṇa* denoting Brahman, then the other two functions mentioned in the Upaniṣad become irrelevant. If all the three together denote Brahman, then Brahman cannot be distinguished from entities other than Brahman. According to the Advaitin, each term in the statement should serve the purpose of distinguishing Brahman from what it is not, as in the case of *satya* from what is *anṛta* or unreal, *jñāna* from what is *jaḍa* and *ananta* from what is finite. Hence the definition of Brahman in terms of three cosmic functions taken as *viśeṣaṇas* is unsatisfactory similar to the statement on cow as *khaṇḍo muṇḍaḥ pūrṇasrañgaḥ*.

The above criticism is untenable, contends Vedānta Deśika. The three cosmic functions Viz. janma, sthiti and pralaya are not mutually opposed as in the case of the cow with broken horn, without horn and with horn. Wherever the characteristics are not mutually opposed, the object to which these are applicable does not become disintegrated. That is, the object denoted by different attributes which are not mutually opposed (aviruddha) is one and the same as qualified by them, as in the statement that Devadatta is

śyāma or of dark complexion, yuvā or youth and lohitākṣaḥ or having brown eyes. In the statement 'The cow with broken horn, without horn and with full horn', the qualifications attributed to the cow are mutually opposed. Besides this fact is also evident to our experience. The important point to be noted is that in a judgment where the terms stated in apposition connote different qualities which are not opposed to each other and which can also inhere in the same substance, the object denoted by them is not disintegrated. Where the terms connoting different qualities that are opposed to each other and which do not inhere in the same substance, the object denoted by them is not one and the same (viruddhameva viśesanam viśesyabhedakam, na punah aviruddham viśesanam)15. The three cosmic functions mentioned in the Upanisadic text are therefore applicable to Brahman.

It may be still questioned how the three cosmic functions, which are different in nature, are applicable to one Brahman? The same Brahman which is the creator of the universe cannot also be its destroyer. In reply to this objection, Vedānta Deśika points out that the same one Brahman can perform different functions at different times (kālabhedena). It is possible to define Brahman in terms of one function only. That is, Brahman is that which causes the creation of the universe. Yet all the three functions together are adopted as the criteria of the definition in order to eliminate the possibility of mistaking other lower deities such as Brahmā, Rudra etc., as Brahman.¹⁶

An objection is also raised against the definition of Brahman through the *upalakṣaṇa*, that is, in terms of the cosmic functions taken as identity marks. When an object is defined through *upalakṣaṇa*, some aspect of the *upalakṣya* or the object to be defined is required to be known. The illustration cited to explain this point is the paddy field of Devadatta which is being identified through the tree on which a sārasa bird is sitting. In this illustration the tree associated with the sārasa bird sitting on it serves as the

upalakṣaṇa for the identification of the field of Devadatta. In this case the field is known but what is not evident is that it belongs to Devadatta. The tree associated with the bird is made use of to identify Devadatta's field. In the case of Brahman, which is to be made known through upalakṣaṇa, it is not possible to specify what aspect of it is known and what aspect is unknown (jñātājñātāinśa bhedastu durabhilapaḥ). If Brahman is known, it is then possible to say that the term Brahman denotes it. If it is not known, the query about Brahman does not arise.

The above dialectical argument is set aside by Vedanta Deśika. That Brahman as the Ultimate Reality is infinitely great is well established in several Śruti and Smṛti texts such as 'Brahma parivrīdam sarvatah', 'bṛhati brahmayati tasmāducyate param brahma' etc., What is not known is that among the various other deities referred to in the Śruti and Smriti texts such as Brahmā, Visnu, Rudra etc., it is not known which particular Deity is the Supreme Being. In order to remove this doubt, the Upanisad teaches in a specific way that which is the cause of the creation, sustenance and dissolution of the universe is Brahman¹⁷. All the three cosmic functions are not attributable to any other Vedic Deity than Brahman. Similarly in the Purusasūkta passage, the term Purusa is used in a general way in the earlier part. In order to specify who this Puruşa is, the later part of the passage (uttarānuvāka) states that Goddess Śrī and Bhū are His consorts. The mention of Śrī and Bhū as His consorts eliminates the possibility of Purusa being any other Deity than the Supreme Being designated as Nārāyaṇa who is equated with Para Brahma in the Taittirīya Nārāyaṇa Upanisad.

As we have stated earlier, there are two ways of defining an object, either by means of *viśeṣaṇas* or *upalakṣaṇas*. The definition of an object in terms of its characteristics which refer to the nature of the object (*svarūpa*) is called *svarūpa lakṣaṇa*. The definition of an object by means of certain identity marks, as for example, the description of the moon

seen in the distant sky through the moon seen as if close to the branch of a tree, is known as taṭastha lakṣaṇa. According to the Advaitin, the definition of Brahman in terms of the three cosmic functions is regarded as taṭastha lakṣaṇa. The definition of Brahman as satyam, jñānam and anantam is svarūpa lakṣaṇa. This distinction is maintained by the Advaitin since Brahman being niriviśeṣa or devoid of all determinations cannot be defined in terms of characteristics. Jagatkāraṇatva as a viśeṣaṇa cannot be attributed to higher Brahman which is undifferentiated. The terms satya, jñāna and ananta in the other definition refer directly to the svarūpa of Brahman.

This view is rejected by Vedānta Dešika as unsound. As Rāmānuja has pointed out, jagatkāraņatva taken either as upalakṣaṇa or viśeṣaṇa, can serve the purpose of knowing Brahman directly. According to Madhva, both the definitions are svarūpa lakṣaṇas since they reveal the nature of Brahman.

Logically an object is defined in terms of its essential characteristics. We distinguish one object from another only with reference to its essential characteristic. Brahman is defined as the origin of three comic functions to distinguish it from other sentient and non-sentient entities. Similarly in the case of the definition of Brahman as satya, jñāna and ananta, the three terms which refer to three distinguishing characteristics of Brahman denote Brahman as qualified by them.

The above explanation is in conformity with the grammatical rule laid down by Pāṇini Mahābhāṣya and also the principle of interpretation adopted by the Seśvara Mīmāmsakas. According to the Grammarian, in a sentence or judgment where the terms are stated in apposition (samānādhikaraṇa), though each term connotes different qualities, they denote one entity as qualified by them¹8 This principle applies to the definition of Brahman as satya, jñāna and ananta.

According to the principle governing the interpretation of Vedic statements adopted by the Mīmāmsakas, the words in a sentence bearing different imports are applicable to the same one entity or act. There is a Scriptural statement which reads: aruṇayā ekahāyinyā pingākṣyā somam krīṇāti. It enjoins that soma plant (for yaga) is to be bought in exchange for a cow of red colour, one year old and tawny eyed. The question raised in interpreting this statement is whether both the terms aruna denoting the quality of redness (guna) and ekahāyin referring to one year old cow (dravya) are applicable to the cow. The prima facie view is that they are not applicable to the cow and the sentence is therefore to be broken up into two since redness being a general quality is not necessarily applicable to one year old cow. This view is rejected by the Seśvara Mīmāmsaka and it is established that the act of buying the cow being one, both the quality (guna) and the dravya or object referred to are applicable to the same one cow.19

The Upanisadic text offers the definition of Brahman in terms of the three cosmic functions viz., sṛṣṭi, sthiti and laya. As Rāmānuja has stated, the mention of the three cosmic functions may be taken either as upalakṣana or viśeṣaṇa. Either way, the definition provided by the Upanișad conveys the knowledge of Brahman. The implication of this stand taken by Rāmānuja, as Vedānta Deśika explains, is that jagatkāranatva taken either as upalaksana or višesana, does not make any difference in respect of knowing the svarūpa of Brahman. The višesanas necessarily inhere in the object defined, whereas the upalaksanas, though not belonging to the object, serve the purpose of identifying it as in the case of the moon seen through the branch of the tree. Vedānta Deśika, therefore, concludes that the Upanisadic text offering the definition of Brahman is sound and it conveys the knowledge of Brahman. Hence the study of Vedānta is justified.

IV. Proof for the Existence of Brahman

This is the subject-matter of a separate adhikaraṇa named Śāstrayonitvādhikaraṇa covering the third sūtra which reads: śāstra-yonitvāt²o. It means that śāstra is the source for knowledge of Brahman. The word śāstra is taken in the broad sense to mean the Vedas including the Upaniṣads and all the allied sacred texts such as Vedangas, Itihāsas and Purāṇas. The term yoni means kāraṇa or source (pramāṇa) for the knowledge of Brahman. The fuller implication of the sūtra, as interpreted by Rāmānuja, is that Brahman cannot be known either by means of perception (pratyakṣa) or inference (anumāna) and that śāstra is the only pramāna for knowing it (śāstraika pramāṇam).

The Naiyāyikas attempt to prove the existence of God by means of inference. They have advanced several logical arguments for this purpose. Of these the most important one is the cosmological argument based on the idea of causation (kāryatā). The universe is an effect and must have been produced by an agent or creator called *Iśvara*. The argument is expressed in the following syllogistic form: 'This physical universe must have been caused by an agent, because it is an effect, just as a pot.' (Pṛthivyādikam sakartrkam, kāryatvāt, ghatavat). By further qualifying the kartā or agent as one endowed with omniscience, it is attempted to prove the existence of God. Thus, if the existence of God can be proved by means of inference, there would be no need to undertake the study of Vedanta for knowing Brahman which is already established by other pramāṇas. Anticipating such an objection, Bādarāyana has formulated the sūtra to affirm that Brahman can be known only through śāstra and not by any other means.

This syllogistic argument is subjected to detailed critical examination by Rāmānuja in the Śrī-Bhāṣya and also by Vedānta Deśika in the Tattva-muktā-kalāpa and it is proved to be fallacious. In the Adhikaraṇa Sārāvalī, Deśika points out that the syllogism in whatever manner it is modified to

overcome the logical fallacies, cannot prove on the basis of the present probans viz., $k\bar{a}ryatv\bar{a}t$, the existence of an omniscient God as the creator of the universe. All that it can establish is that a super individual ($j\bar{i}va$) possessing unlimited capacity and knowledge acquired through penance could be the creator of the universe and not an omniscient and omnipotent Supreme God, as taught in the Upaniṣads. Hence Bādarāyaṇa states that śāstra is the only source for knowing the existence of Brahman.

The important point to be noted is that anumāna by itself cannot conclusively prove the existence of God or Brahman as conceived in the Upaniṣads. Apart from the fact that it suffers from various logical fallacies, it is possible for one to advance syllogistic arguments to disprove what is asserted by means of inference. As Vedānta Deśika points out, it is neither possible to prove the existence of God nor disprove His existence solely by means of inference.²¹

This does not imply that logic has no place in *Vedānta*. Logic is accepted to supplement what is stated in the *Śruti*. Sage Parāśara in Viṣṇupurāṇa uses logical arguments to prove the existence of Viṣṇu as the Supreme Deity. These arguments are intended to support what is stated in the Upaniṣads. The Taittirīya Upaniṣadic text teaching about Brahman as the cause of the universe is not to be construed as supplementing the *anumāna* adopted to prove the existence of God. On the contrary, it is a restatement about Brahman already well known in other Scriptural texts, as is evident from the preposition *yataḥ* (*yata iti ca sadādi uktisiddha anuvādāt*).²²

V. The Upanisads and Brahman

This is the subject-matter of the adhikaraṇa named Samanvayādhikaraṇa covering the fourth sūtra in which Bādarāyaṇa affirms that the Upaniṣads which teach about Brahman are valid and meaningful. The sūtra reads: Tat-tu samanvayāt²³. Its general meaning is that Brahman is known through the śāstra because all the Upaniṣadic texts proclaim it as their purport (tātparya). Every word in the sūtra is of special significance. The word tat means Brahman. To be more specific, it refers to the thesis maintained in the previous sūtra viz., that śāstra is the only source (pramāṇa) for knowing Brahman. The word tu which is a conjunction means 'but' and it implies that the view upheld by Bādarāyaṇa differs from that of the Pūrva-mīmāmsakas who do not consider the Upanisadic texts as purportful. According to them only Scriptural texts which are in the form of injunctions and which involve human endeavour such as the performance of a yaga leading to the attainment of a desired goal are meaningful. The Upanisads, on the contrary, teach about Brahman, which is an existent and accomplished fact (siddhavastu) and not something to be achieved by human effort, and these are not therefore purportful. Bādarāyaṇa rejects this view on the ground that all the Upanisadic texts are purportful since they teach about Brahman as the Supreme Goal of attainment. This is the implication of the word samanvayāt (samyak paramapurusarthabhūtasya brahmanah abhideyataya anvayat), as interpreted by Rāmānuja.24

The commentary of Rāmānuja on this sūtra is very elaborate. He presents the arguments advanced by the ancient Mīmāmsakas and the counter replies to them by the Bhedābhedavādins as well as the school of Advaita Vedānta in great detail. All these are refuted as untenable. The theory of the Advaitin that knowledge generated by the study of Scriptural texts (vākyārtha-jñāna), secures mokṣa through the removal of avidyā, comes up for special consideration. In the Adhikaraṇa-sārāvalī, Vedānta Deśika does not go into all these details. He highlights only the essential points of criticism to establish that the Upaniṣads are valid and meaningful. We may take note of these points.

According to the Mīmāmsakas, words convey their meanings only as related to specific action. On the basis of this principle, they contend that Vedic statements of injunctive character are purportful, whereas those which

refer to an existent (siddhapara) cannot be taken as purportful since they do not serve the purpose of achieving any fruitful result. Thus for instance, the Vedic injunction 'svargakāmo yajeta' or one who desires to attain svarga should perform a yaga is purportful, whereas the statement that a crow possesses eight teeth, referring to a matter of fact, does not serve any useful purpose. It may be argued that even a statement not involving some action is fruitful in so far as it generates some joy to the listener. For instance, a person makes a statement that there is hidden treasure in the house and the person who hears it derives some joy. This statement is therefore purportful. This will not do, since one can also make a false statement to this effect. Though it may cause some joy to the person, it is not of any use since the object referred to does not actually exist. It cannot be said that the Upanisadic texts become meaningful by making them as part of the injunctive statement, as in the statement 'One who desires to attain the highest goal should observe meditation on Brahman' (paro prāptikāmaḥ brahma vidyāt). Even then what is sought for may not be true, as in the case of the meditation on mind as the symbol of Brahman. Hence the mere study of Brahman for gaining its knowledge is of no practical value.25

Against these criticisms, Vedānta Deśika contends that even if the Scriptural text referring to Brahman as satya, jñāna etc., is taken as part of the injunctive statement enjoining the upāsanā on Brahman for attaining the Supreme Goal, it would not become purportless similar to the statement 'The crow has eight teeth.' Even if a false statement is made by a person, it can still cause some joy to the person as long he believes it to be true. If the listener knows that it is false, he cannot possibly derive any joy. When a child, for instance, hears a false statement made by a person that its father is safe, it becomes delighted since the child is not aware that it is false. Taking the Scriptural statement that Brahman is ānanda, the disciple who hears it, surely becomes delighted. If he thinks that it is a false

statement, he would not react to it with joy. But this would not render the Scriptural text meaningless. Vedānta Deśika therefore states that even if a statement is false and it is made only for the purpose of causing joy, it does not necessarily imply that the object referred to by it is false. As long as the listener believes that such a statement is true, he derives joy from hearing it and to this extent it is meaningful, even though it is not injunctive in character. The sweet words uttered to a child to pacify it causes delight even though they may not be true. It is not therefore correct to say that the Upanisadic texts teaching about Brahman as satya, jñāna, ananta, ānanda etc., are false because these statements generate interest in seeking Brahman. Besides, these statements are not contradicted either by perceptual knowledge or other Scriptural texts. Vedānta Deśika therefore concludes that the Upanisads are valid and meaningful in teaching about Brahman.26

There are other theories which attempt to justify the validity of the Upanisdic texts. These are: i) Nisprapañca niyoga vāda, ii) Dhyāna-niyoga vāda and iii) Advaita vāda. According to the first theory, held by the ancient Advaitins (jaranmāyāvādī) who follow the Mīmāmsakas, Brahman which appears to be associated with the illusory universe, is to be realized as dissociated with the universe (nisprapañca), by means of continuous meditation on Brahman. The Upanisadic texts become meaningful by subordinating them to the main injunction 'brahma nisprapañcam kuryāt' or 'Brahman is to be dissociated with the universe.'

According to the second theory, which is also advanced by the ancient Advaitins, Brahman is to be realized through a 'niyoga' or special potency in the form of adṛṣṭa generated by the observance of continuous meditation on Brahman. The Upaniṣadic texts teaching about Brahman are regarded valid since they are subordinate to the main injunction enjoining meditation.

According to the third theory advanced by the Advaita

Vedānta of Śamkara, the realization of the identity of the individual self and Brahman is the sole means to *mokṣa*. All the Upaniṣadic texts are purportful since they generate the direct intuitive knowledge (aparokṣa jñāna) of this identity which removes the cosmic ignorance (avidyā) leading to mokṣa.

As mentioned earlier, these theories are subjected to detailed criticism by Rāmānuja in the $Sr\bar{\imath}$ -Bhāṣya. Vedānta Deśika briefly refers to them and summarily rejects the same as unacceptable since these views are opposed to the teaching of the Upaniṣads, besides being self-contradictory (svapakṣa-svavacana vihatiḥ).²⁷

An objection may be raised against the stand taken by the Viśiṣṭādvaitin in respect of the pūrva-kāṇḍa and uttara-kāṇḍa of the Vedas. In the pūrva-kāṇḍa dealing with rituals, the glorificatory statements (arthavādas) are accorded validity (prāmāṇya) by treating them as subordinate to the injunctive statements, whereas in the uttara-kāṇḍa, he establishes prāmāṇya for them (arthavādas) on the basis that they serve the useful purpose of directly teaching about Brahman (svātantryeṇa). How then the two parts of the Mīmārisā be regarded as one treatise?

Vedānta Deśika replies that there would be no opposition between the two, if the principle of general and exceptional (utsarga apavāda nyāya)is adopted. In the pūrva-kāṇḍa, the glorificatory statements are accorded validity following the general rule laid down by the Mīmāmsaka that they are subordinate to the injunctive statements. In the case of the uttarakāṇḍa, particularly in the Samanvayādhyāya of Brahma-mīmāmsā, the Upaniṣdic texts of glorificatory nature are accorded validity since they serve the purpose of knowing more about the nature of Brahman (bodhamātrāt pumarthe). The stand adopted in respect of pūrva-kāṇḍa is of a general nature (utsarga), whereas the stand taken in respect of Uttarakāṇḍa is exceptional.²⁸

Vedānta Deśika proves the validity of the Upanișadic

texts on a different ground. There are injunctive statements in the pūrva-kāṇḍa enjoining the performance of certain types of yāga such as kārīya for rain fall which is a seen result of mundane character (aihika phala). There are also injunctive statements such as the performance of the prescribed sacrifice for securing svarga or heaven, which is an unseen result (adrsta phala) to be attained in a higher realm. There are references to the good and bad effects of good and bad omens, and also astrological forecasts of future events. Pious individuals well versed in the Vedic knowledge observe religious acts with the belief of obtaining higher spiritual benefits. If all these are accepted as valid and meaningful, there is no reason why the Upanișadic texts teaching about Brahman and the Supreme Spiritual Goal should not be accorded the same validity. In fact the entire Vedic texts including the Upanișads are valid and purportful since they are free from defects and are also not ascribed to any human author. Otherwise it would amount to denouncement of the Vedic way of life (naigamādhvāpalāpah²⁹).

By way of summing up the discussion of the four adhikaranas dealing with the subject-matter of the first four sūtras, which constitute one unit (peţika), Vedānta Deśika points out that these are intended to justify the study of Vedanta to secure the knowledge of Brahman for the purpose of attaining the Supreme Goal. The first adhikarana establishes that Brahma-jijñāsā is to be undertaken after completing the study of Pūrva-mīmāmsā and realization of the futility of the fruits of the ritualistic deeds and the permanent value of the Spiritual Goal to be attained by the study of Vedanta. The second adhikarana establishes that the definition offered by the Upanișad provides the knowledge of Brahman directly. The third adhikarana proves that śāstra is the only source for knowing Brahman. The fourth adhikarana establishes that all the Upanisadic texts are valid and purportful since they teach that

Brahman which is endowed with infinite bliss is the Supreme Goal to be attained.

- 1. See. AS. verse 22. See also Cintāmaņi on AS. Uktam ca pūrvācāryaih: vyutpattyabhāvāt pratipatti-dausthyād-anyenasiddheḥ aphalatvataśca; amātvam āśankya nirācakāra nyāyaiḥ caturbhiḥ pratipādya tattat.
- VS I-1-1
- 3. See RB I-1-1. Brahma-śabdena ca svabhāvataḥ nirasta-nikhila-doṣaḥ, anavadhikātiśaya asamkhyeya-kalyāṇa-guṇagaṇah, puruṣottamo abhidhīyate
- 4. Mu. Up. I-2-12 and 13.
- Quoted in RB I-1-1.
- 6. See, V.S. I-2-29; I-2-32; I-4-18; III-4-40.
- 7. See, Satadūsanī, vāda 3.
- See Satadūṣaṇī, vāda 8. for further details. Also A&V, chapter 8.
- 9. Br. Up. VI-4-23. tasmāt evam vit śānto dānta uparataḥ tītikṣuḥ samāhito bhūtva ātmanyeva ātmānam paśyet.(The references to Br. Up. is in accordance with Rangarāmānuja Bhāṣya)
- 10. See fn.4
- 11. See AS verses 28 and 33.
- 12. VS I-1-2
- 13. Tait. Up. III-1
- 14. See Padayojanā on Verse 35. Yato jagatsrstyādikam prasiadham tad brahmetyāha
- 15. See AS verse 36.
- 16. AS verse 37.
- 17. AS verse 38. Nānā āgamodyad-viṣaya śamanataḥ śrīmati brahmatokteḥ. See also Padayojanā on verse 38.
- 18. See. Mahābhāṣya on Pāṇini-sūtra. Binna pravṛttinimittānām sabdānām ekasmin arthe vrttih sāmānādhikaranyam.
- See Pūrva Mīmāmsā Sūtra III-1-12. Arthaikatve dravyaguņayoḥ ekakarman-niyamaḥ syād. See also RB.I-I-13 and AS verse 40.
- VS I-1-3.
- 21. See. TMK. III-24. See also VS II-1-11, tarkāpratisthānādapi.
- 22. See AS, verse 45.
- 23. VS I-1-4.
- 24. RB. I-1-4.
- AS verse 46.
- 26. AS verse 48. Trayyantāḥ Satya-nitya-adbhuta paramasukha brahmaniṣṭhāḥ pramāṇam
- 27. AS verse 49.
- 28. AS verse 50.
- Tbid 52. Sabde tasmāt ca bodhe sati paravişaye doṣabhāva-vyapete mānam tatra svato asau.

CHAPTER TWO

THE DOCTRINE OF BRAHMAN

In the preceding chapter we have seen how Bādarāyaṇa has justified the need to undertake the study of Vedānta for gaining knowledge of Brahman. In the subsequent sūtras of the first pāda of the first adhyāya, he proceeds to outline the essential nature (svarūpa) of Brahman. The next seven adhikaraṇas are devoted to bring out the following points relating to the svarūpa of Brahman:

- 1. It is distinct from *pradhāna* or the non-sentient primordial cosmic matter.
- 2. It is different from the jīvātman or the individual self.
- 3. It is distinct from the celestial deities such as Āditya-puruṣa, Akṣi-puruṣa etc, taken as exalted jīvas.
- 4. It is also distinct from non-sentient cosmic entities such as ākāśa, prāṇa and jyotiṣ.

We shall discuss these topics in the present chapter.

I. Brahman as Sentient Being

The *Īkṣatyadhikaraṇa* deals with this subject. It is based on the *sūtra* which reads: *Īkṣateḥ na aśabdam¹*. The word aśabdam means, according to Rāmānuja, that which is not proved by Scripture but established by inference (ānumānika). It implies the *pradhāna* or the primordial cosmic matter accepted by the Sāmkhyas as the cause of the universe.

The word na negates it. That is, the pradhāna as conceived by the Sāmkhyas is not the cause of the universe. The reason for the denial of this theory is contained in the word 'ikṣateḥ'. This term derived from the root verb īkṣaṇa means the function of seeing or resolving. The fuller meaning of the sūtra is that pradhāna admitted by the Sāmkhyas on the basis of the inference cannot be the cause of the universe since the function of resolving to create the universe, as stated in the Upanisad, cannot be ascribed to it. It is Brahman that is the cause of the universe. Thus, Bādarāyaṇa seeks to establish that Brahman is a sentient Being and as such it is different from non-sentient cosmic matter.

The justification for bringing up the theory of Sāmkhya for criticism and thereby assert that Brahman is the cause of the universe is found in the context of the passage of the Chāndogya Upaniṣad which teaches that sat is the cause of the universe. Thus it states: Sadeva saumya idam agra āsīd ekameva advitīyam...tad aikṣata bahusyām prajāyeyeti. Tat tejo asrjata²- "In the beginning (prior to creation), my dear, this universe existed as sat only, one only, without a second. That sat resolved, 'May I become many'. Then it created tejas etc."

It is possible to construe this passage in favor of the Samkhya theory of pradhāna as the cause of the universe, the word sat being interpreted as the unmanifested causal state of the manifold universe. According to the Sāmkhyas, this variegated universe consisting of three guṇas, sattva, rajas and tamas, existed prior to the state of creation as unmanifest, when the three guṇas were in equilibrium. With the disturbance of the equilibrium, the unmanifest pradhāna evolved itself into the manifest universe through the process of evolution. The main logical argument advanced in support of this view is that whatever is the nature of the effect (kārya), the same should be the nature of the causal substance (kāraṇa). It is only on the basis of the non-difference between cause and effect, that it is possible to

explain that by the knowledge of the causal substance, the products made out of it can be understood, as in the illustration of the clay and its products cited in the Upanişad.

The above view is rejected by Bādarāyaṇa, the main reason being that the expression 'aikṣata' or resolved mentioned in the Upaniṣadic text, does not hold good in respect of the non-sentient pradhāna. That is, īkṣaṇa or the the function of resolving to become many cannot be ascribed to the non-sentient entity such as pradhāna.

Against this view, it may be argued that the function of thinking (īksana) is not to be taken in its primary sense. It is to be understood in a figurative sense (gauna) to mean that prakrti is in the state of readiness to evolve itself into its manifest form. In the same passage it is said that the sat created tejas (tat tejo asrjata). There are statements such as 'The trees look forward to rainfall'3 in which even nonsentient entities are described to have the function of thinking. It is therefore appropriate to ascribe ikṣaṇatva to sat taken as pradhāna. Further, as pointed out earlier, the causal substance should be of the same nature as its effects. Otherwise it would not be possible to substantiate the general principle stated by the Upanisad viz., by the knowledge of the one, the many become known. The illustration of the clay and its products cited by the Upanisad to substantiate it fully supports the inferential argument adopted by the Sāmkhyas to prove that sat referred to in the passage is pradhana as the cause of the universe.

These arguments are untenable, contends Vedānta Deśika. As explained by Rāmānuja in the Śrī-Bhāṣya, the illustration cited in the Upaniṣad does not serve the purpose of the probans (hetu) for the syllogistic argument advanced by the Sāmkhyas. As will be pointed out later in the chapter on the universe, it is not necessary that the cause and effect should be of the same nature. In fact Brahman which is the material cause of the universe is not of the same nature

as the non-sentient universe.⁴ Further, in the concluding passage of the Chāndogya dealing with Sadvidyā, sat is identified with Ātman (aitadātmyam idam sarvaṁ tat satyaṁ, sa ātmā)⁵. Hence the non-intelligent pradhāna cannot possess the power of thinking even in a figurative sense.

There are other arguments which are advanced by Bādarāyaṇa to prove that sat is not the pradhāna of the Sāmkhya. In this Upaniṣadic passage it is taught that the person who meditates on sat (Brahman) attains mokṣa soon after he is liberated from bondage. If sat were pradhāna, then it would amount to the attainment of non-self, which is not what is sought after (tanniṣṭasya mokṣopadeśāt⁶). Besides, as already stated, it would run counter to the statement made in the beginning of the passage viz., 'All that is not known becomes known by the knowledge of the ātman.'(yena aśrutaṁ śrutaṁ bhavati) The implication of this statement is that by the knowledge of the causal substance, all its effects become known, as in the instance of clay and its products. If pradhāna were the causal substance, the jīvas which are not its products cannot be known.

In the same passage, we come across a statement, which says that the individual soul during the state of deep sleep merges itself in sat which is its source. If sat were pradhāna, such a merging would not be possible because the Sāmkhyas do not admit pradhāna as the causal substance for the sentient souls.

The most important point which goes against the claim of the Sāmkhyas, is the crucial Upanisdic text "Tattvamasi" "Thou art that', which is the final teaching of Uddālaka to Svetaketu. If 'tat' which refers to sat were pradhāna, then 'tvam' referring to jīva should be one with pradhāna, a nonsentient entity. This would amount to the wrong philosophical teaching (heyatva vacanācca⁹).

It is also stated in the Upaniṣad that sat which is Brahman enters itself along with jīva into all that is created and gives names and forms to all the entities created by it (anena jīvenātmanā anupravišya nāmarūpe vyākaravāṇi¹¹). If sat were

pradhāna, its anupraveśa along with jīva is inconceivable.

More importantly, all the Upaniṣadic texts speak of only a sentient Being as the cause of the universe. Thus states the Aitareya Upaniṣad: ātmā vā idam eka eva agra asīt, sa īkṣata lokānnu sṛjā iti¹¹. The Taitirīya says: so' kāmayata bahusyām prajāyeya iti.¹²

Taking all these points into consideration, Vedānta Deśika affirms that the *īkṣatyadhikaraṇa* brings out an important nature of Brahman viz., it is the cause of the entire universe through the operation of its free will (sveccātaḥ sarvahetuḥ).¹³

II. Brahman as Ānandamaya

This is the subject-matter of a separate adhikarana named Ānandamayādhikarana. In the previous adhikarana, it was shown that Brahman as a sentient Being is different from the non-sentient cosmic matter. In the present adhikarana, Bādarāyana establishes that Brahman is blissful in nature and as such it is distinct from the sentient individual self (jīvātman). The reason for taking up this particular topic is two-fold. First, if pradhāna of the Sāmkhyas cannot be the cause of the universe, since tkṣaṇatva in its primary sense cannot be ascribed to it, the question is raised whether jīvātman which is sentient can be admitted as the cause of the universe. Secondly, in the same Chandogya passage teaching Sadvidyā, we come across the famous statement 'tat-tvamasi' which prima facie, implies that jīva is identical Anticipating such an objection, with Brahman. Bādarāyana points out that Brahman is essentially of the nature of bliss and that it is different from jīvātman, which being subject to affliction in the state of bondage, cannot be the cause of the universe.14

The main sūtra reads: Ānandamayo abhyāsāt. 15 It means that Brahman is constituted of bliss because of the repetition of the term ānanda in respect of Brahman in the Upaniṣad. The fuller implication of the sūtra can be understood with

reference to the passage of the Taittiriya Upanisad on the basis of which it is formulated. This passage teaches about the nature of Brahman for the purpose of easy comprehension in five concrete forms as annamaya or consisting of essence of food, as prāṇamaya or consisting of vital breath, as manomaya or consisting of mind, as vijñānamaya or of the nature of knowledge and ānandamaya or constituted of bliss. Brahman is first conceived as annamaya because food sustains the body in which the self resides. But this is transcended by the concept of Brahman as prāṇamaya because life breath is of greater importance for the sustenance of life. This is further transcended by Brahman as manomaya because mind is important for the function of the body. This is superseded by vijñānamaya since vijñāna, understood as the individual self, is more important than the manas. Brahman as vijñānamaya is further transcended by the concept of ātman (Brahman) as ānandamaya.

Each one is described as puruṣa in a human form having head (śiraḥ), right and left side (pakṣaḥ), middle part (ātmā) and foundation (puccha). It also states that prāṇamaya ātmā is other than annamaya puruṣa. The manomaya ātmā is other than prāṇamaya. Distinct from manomaya is vijñānamaya ātma. After the description of vijñānamaya, the Upaniṣad mentions the ānandamaya ātmā, which is considered other than vijñānamaya. Thus says the Upaniṣad: tasyaiṣa eva śārīra ātmā, yaḥ pūrvasya tasmād vā etasmāt vijñānamayāt anyontara ātmā ānandamayaḥ.¹⁶ It means: "He who is the Self of the preceding one is the Self related to the vijñānamaya also. As compared with this vijñānamaya, there is another self which is constituted of bliss."

While each one of these forms other than annamaya is stated to be higher and different from the preceding one, the Upanisad does not mention any other principle higher than ānandamaya. Hence ānandamaya ātmā is admitted as Brahman. Further, the concluding passage of the Upanisad refers to the different gradations of bliss. It commences with

the statement: saiṣā ānandasya mīmāmsā bhavati.17 It means, "Now commences the enquiry concerning bliss." It first mentions what the measure of one human bliss is (eko mānuṣa ānandaḥ) in terms of youthful energy, sound body and mind and full of wealth. One hundred times of this human bliss is one unit of bliss of human gandharvas (manusya gandharva); one hundred times of manusya gandharva is one unit of bliss of divine gandharva (deva gandharva). What is one hundred times of the bliss of divine gandharva is one measure of the bliss of manes who dwell in the enduring world (pitrloka). In this manner the Upanisad goes on mentioning by upward gradations the ānandas of gods born in the ajāna heaven, of karma devas (sacrifical gods), of the devas (celestial deities), of Indra, of Bṛhaspati, and of Prajāpati. Finally it states that one hundred times of the bliss of Prajāpati is the one unit of bliss of Brahma, the word brahma being understood as Brahman, as interpreted by Rāmānuja.

This description of ānanda of Brahman by comparing it progressively with all other beings, commencing from human being to the highest celestial deity, provides the justification for affirming that Brahman is ānandamaya or infinitely blissful. This is what is implied by the words 'ānandamayo abhyāsāt' in the sūtra.

A few objections are raised against this conclusion of Bādarāyaṇa. The major objection is that what is described as ānandamaya is the jīvātma-svarūpa. This is based on the assumption that jīva and Brahman are not essentially different. This view constitutes the pūrva-pakṣa or prima facie view, according to Rāmānuja. He therefore devotes special attention to the examination of this theory and refutes it. In this connection he discusses in great detail the true import of the famous Upaniṣadic statement 'tattvamasi', which prima facie supports the Advaitin's doctrine of the non-difference between jīva and Brahman and establishes that jīva is distinct from Brahman and that ānadamaya ātmā is Brahman. Vedānta Deśika does not go

into all these details in the *Adhikaraṇa-sārāvalī*. He confines his attention to the following general criticisms made against the conclusion of Bādarāyaṇa:

- 1) The affix mayat to the term ānanda implies the sense of vikāra or modification, as in the case of the term annamaya, whereas Brahman is nirvikāra.
- 2) The Upaniṣad describes the ānadamaya ātmā as śārīra-ātmā which means that it is a soul encased in the physical body (śarīra sambandha jīvātmā) as in the case of annamaya ātmā which refers to the physical body of an individual soul.
- 3) The ānandamaya ātmā is conceived in a human form with a head (śiraḥ), sides (pakṣaḥ) and tail (puccha). 18

Regarding the first objection, Vedanta Desika points out that the affix mayat does not necessarily imply the sense of modification as in the case of the concept of annamaya. Thus, in respect of the concept of prāṇamaya, we do not take it in the sense of vikāra. Here it is understood as essentially of the nature of prana. In the same way, the term anadamaya in respect of Brahman should be understood in the sense of abundance (prācurya), that is. Brahman is essentially of the nature of ananda. Anandamaya taken in the sense of modification is not applicable even in respect jīvātman or the higher Brahman as conceived by the Advaitin since the higher Brahman is nirvikāra or not subject to modification. It is also not correct to understand the word prācurya in the sense of predominance, since in that case it would imply that there exists a small amount of suffering (duḥkālpatva). Brahman which is described by the Upanisad as the one who dispels the fear or suffering of the devotees cannot have an iota of duhka. Hence it is essentially and wholly constituted of bliss.19

Regarding the second objection viz. the description of it as \$\bar{a}\bar{r}\bar{r}\bar{a}tm\bar{a}\$, Ved\bar{a}nta Desika contends that this description is very appropriate in respect of Brahman. The statement

'tasyaiṣa eva śārīrātmā yaḥ pūrvasya' is intended to point out that as in the case of the earlier concept of Brahman conceived as annamaya etc, the ānadamaya ātmā does not have for it another antarātmā or the Indwelling Spirit but on the contrary, Brahman itself is the antarātmā for it. Brahman being the Self of the entire universe which is its śarīra, as well established in the Antaryāmi Brāhmaṇa, it can be regarded as śārīrātmā. In fact, as Vedānta Deśika points out, the description of ānandamaya ātmā as śārīrātmā is most appropriate in its fullest sense since Paramātman is the only one who is the Self (śarīrī) of the entire universe. (śarīroktiḥ tasmin akhilatanutayā syād asaṅkocaḥ vṛttiḥ).20

The third objection, viz the description of ātmā in human form with head, sides (arms), tail, etc is of some significance. In fact, Samkara also in his interpretation of the relevant sūtra of this adhikaraṇa takes the stand that the ānandamaya brahma cannot be the higher Brahman since it is nirvikāra and niravaya. The statement Brahmapuccham pratiṣṭhā implies, according to him, that Brahman is transcendental support of all empirical souls. (pucchavat puccham pratiṣṭhā parāyaṇam ekaniḍam). This is the true Brahman which is the higher Reality (para brahma) and not the ānadamaya ātman, which according to him, is the lower Brahman (apara brahma). He advances sufficient arguments in support of this theory.

Rāmānuja refutes all these arguments. He rejects the view that puccha Brahman is different from ānandamaya Brahman. The same ānandamaya Brahman is symbolically described in terms of head, arms, puccha, etc. for the purpose of meditation.²² As an additional point of criticism, Vedānta Deśika points out that if the description of higher Brahman in terms of puccha is acceptable to Advaitin, why should he have any objection to the view of the Viśiṣṭādvaitin who admits that the ānandamaya Brahman is symbolically presented by the Upaniṣad in terms of human form with head, arms and puccha? The expression 'Brahma puccham pratiṣṭhā' means that Brahman itself is the foundation for

itself. That is, it does not have to depend on any other ground than itself. It is self-existent (anitarādhāra)²³. Elsewhere in the Upaniṣad in reply to the query 'sa bhagavaḥ kasmin pratiṣṭhitā', it is stated 'sve-mahimni'²⁴ that is, it exists by its own power. It is therefore not inappropriate to describe Brahman in terms of Brahma puccham pratiṣṭhā. Thus, it is concluded that Brahman is essentially constituted of infinite bliss (ānadamaya) and it is distinct from jīvātman.

III. Brahman as endowed with Spiritual Body

This is the subject-matter of the Antarādhikaraņa which establishes that Brahman as anadamaya also possesses a spiritual body. The relevant sūtra concerned with this subject reads: Antah taddharmopadésāt.25 The word antah means within or what abides inside and it implies with reference to the two passages of the Chandogya Upanisad that the purusa who resides within the orbit of the sun and also in the eye (aksi) is Brahman. The expression tad-dharmopadeśāt means because the passages speak about the characteristics that are only applicable to Brahman. The fuller meaning of the sūtra can be understood with reference to the concerned passages of the Upanisad on the basis of which this sūtra is formulated. The main objective of the sūtra, as explained by Rāmānuja, is to prove that Brahman as a spiritual Being is not only distinct from jīvātman but it is also different from exalted jīvas.

The following passages dealing with the meditation on Udgītha, a hymn of Sāmaveda covering the syllable 'Aum' refer to the puruṣa who is seen within the orbit of the sun and also within the eye with vivid description: atha ya eṣo antarāditye hiranmayaḥ puruṣaḥ dṛṣyate hiranyasmaṣruḥ hiranyakeṣa ā-praṇakhāt sarva eva suvarṇaḥ; tasya yathā kapyāsam puṇḍarīkam evamakṣiṇī; tasyoditi nāma, sa eṣa sarvebhya pāpmebhya uditaḥ, udeti ha vai sarvebhyaḥ pāpmabhyaḥ. Ya evam veda.²6

"Now this Golden Person (puruṣa) who is seen within the sun, has a golden beard and golden hair, who is golden to the very tip of his nails. His eyes are like a red lotus flower. His name is *ut*, for he has risen above all evil. He who knows this, raises above all evil."

The other passage states: atha ya eṣo antarakṣiṇi puruṣo dṛṣyate, saiva ṛk, tat sāma, tad uktham tad yajuḥ, tad brahma tasyaitasya tadeva rūpam. yadamuṣya rūpam, yāvamuṣya geṣṇau tau geṣṇau yannāma tannāma.²¹ "Now this person (puruṣa) who is seen within the eye is the hymn (ṛk). He alone is the chant (sāman), the recitation (uktha), the sacrificial formula (yajus), is Brahman. The form of this one is the same as the form of that (person seen in the sun). The songs of the former are the songs of this. The name of this one is the same as the other".

The description of the puruṣa in terms of physical body with golden colour, with eyes similar to the lotus, etc gives room for the doubt whether such a Being could be Brahman. It is therefore possible to advance a theory on the basis of these passages that the puruṣa in question is an exalted jīvātman, who has risen to such a position by virtue of the accumulation of excessive puṇya and who can function as Īśvara or Ruler of the universe in cyclic succession at each epoch like the celestial Deity, Indra and create the universe with the aid of the body and intellect. This is the prima facie view that is advanced against the sūtra.

Bādarāyaṇa rejects this view and affirms that the puruṣa seen in the sun and also in the eye is Brahman who possesses a spiritual lustrous body. The main reason for refuting this view is that certain characteristics mentioned in the passage in respect of the puruṣa are applicable only to Brahman and not to jīvātman even if it is exalted. Secondly, what abides within the orbit of the sun is Paramātman, as is evident from the Antaryāmī Brāhmaṇa of the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upanisad.²⁸

By way of elucidating the reason advanced by Bādarāyaṇa against the prima facie view, Vedānta Deśika points out, that the body of golden colour (hiraṇmayaḥ) with eyes similar to the lotus does not refer to the physical

body caused by karma (akarma utthita divyākṛtiḥ) but it is a spiritual divine body constituted of śuddha-sattva.²⁹ It is a body assumed by the Supreme Deity out of His own will for the benefit of the devotees who desire to meditate on Him. It is such a Supreme Person who is endowed with glory and associated inseparably with Goddess Lakṣmī (nityaśrīḥ) and who is also the Ruler of the entire universe that is referred to in the Upaniṣadic passage as residing in the orbit of the sun. This puruṣa in the orbit of the sun is not different from the puruṣa abiding in the inner recess of the heart (ya eṣo antarhṛdaya ākāśaḥ; tasminnayam puruṣo manomayaḥ, amṛto hiraṇmayaḥ). The Taittirīya Upaniṣad also states the same. (sa yaścāsau āditye, sa ekaḥ)

It may be argued that the statement in the passage viz., the *puruṣa* abiding in the sun is free from all *pāpas*, does not rule out the possession of some *puṇya*. Such a Being associated with *puṇya* cannot be considered to be one free from *karma*, since *karma* in Vedānta consists of both *puṇya* and *pāpa*.

This objection is untenable, contends Vedānta Deśika. Several other Scriptural texts declare that Brahman is free from both puṇya and pāpa. In fact, the term pāpma in the Upaniṣadic parlance includes puṇya too. Further, Brahman who has unchecked freedom confers the fruits of the deeds to all individuals in accordance with their puṇya and pāpa³⁰.

An objection may be raised against the view that *Īśvara* possesses a body. Even if this body is regarded as non-material and divine in character it may be subject to modification. In reply to this objection, Vedānta Deśika points out that it is made of spiritual substance which is of the nature of pure sattva (śuddha sattva) unmixed with the element of rajas and tamas. The existence of transcendental realm constituted of spiritual substance as different from the material world is warranted by several Scriptural texts³¹. It is nitya or everlasting in the sense that it is not subject to decay or destruction (nāśarahitam). The Scriptural text says that Viṣṇu, the Supreme Deity with such a divine form is

eternally seen by the nitya-sūris or divine sages (tadviṣṇoḥ parmam padam sadā paśyanti sūrayah) Such a Supreme Being manifests Himself out of His own free will in different incarnated forms (avatāras) such as vyūhas, vibhāvas, arcā and antaryāmin without abrogating His transcendental spiritual character purely for the purpose of the protection of the pious devotees (sa devah pumsām samsāra śāntyai viparinamati vyūhapūrvaih vibhāgaih32). Vedānta Deśika therefore contends that as against a strong Scriptural authority supporting the possession of a Divine body, the inferential arguments denouncing the body for Iśvara on the basis of the probans such as dehatvāt or because it is a body and amsatvāt or because it is divisible into parts, stand sublated. If the Divine Being in His incarnated human form behaves like a human being as if affected by grief, it is all a mere enactment, similar to the acting of a person on the theatrical stage in different roles (svecchā avatāreșu abhinayati).

The description of the puruşa with eyes similar to a lotus (puṇḍarīkākṣa) is regarded by Rāmānuja as Supreme Deity in the name of Nārāyaṇa or Viṣṇu since the Itihāsas and Purāṇas speak of such eyes exclusively in respect of Viṣṇu.

IV. Brahman as Distinct from Non-Sentient Cosmic Entities

In the preceding sections, it is observed that Brahman is distinct from the individual souls as well as the exalted Puruṣas in the sun and in the eye. In the same way, Bādarāyaṇa regards that Brahman is also different from ontological entities such as ākāśa or ether, prāṇa or breath and jyotis or cosmic light. These three are specifically mentioned in the Upaniṣadic passages which prima facie give the impression that they are the very cause of the universe (in the case of ākāśa and prāṇa) and the highest Spiritual Being (in the case of jyotis). This matter is therefore examined in three separate adhikaraṇas named

Ākāśādhikaraṇa, Prāṇādhikaraṇa and Jyotiradhikaraṇa with a view to determining the nature of Brahman as distinct from all physical entities.

a. Ākāśa as Brahman

This is the subject of the $\bar{A}k\bar{a}s\bar{a}dhikaraṇa$ which deals with the question whether the term $\bar{a}k\bar{a}sa$ mentioned in the following passage of the Chāndogya refers to the etherial space which is generally the accepted meaning of it, or does it refer to Brahman. The $s\bar{u}tra$ framed on the basis of the passage reads: $\bar{a}k\bar{a}sah$ talliṅgāt.³³ It means that $\bar{a}k\bar{a}sa$ is Brahman since the characteristic marks mentioned in the passage about $\bar{a}k\bar{a}sa$ are applicable to it.

In reply to the query 'what is the goal of this universe' the Upaniṣad states: ākāśa iti hovāca, sarvāṇi imāni bhutāny ākāśādeva samutpadyante, ākāśam pratyastam yānti, ākāśohy evebhyo jyāyān, ākāśaḥ parāyaṇam.³⁴

"It is $\bar{a}k\bar{a}\hat{s}a$, for all these beings originate from $\bar{a}k\bar{a}\hat{s}a$ and return to $\bar{a}k\bar{a}\hat{s}a$. $\bar{A}k\bar{a}\hat{s}a$ is greater than these. Therefore, $\bar{a}k\bar{a}\hat{s}a$ is the goal."

The term ākāśa generally means the etherial space. Besides, in the Taittirīya Upaniṣad it is stated that from ātman (Brahman) ākāśa is brought into existence (ātmanaḥ ākāśaḥ sambhūtaḥ). As a product of Ātman, it cannot be Brahman itself. Hence, its description in this passage as the origin of the universe and as the goal, gives room for the doubt whether it could be Brahman.

But there should be no room for such a doubt, contends Vedānta Deśika' because in the statement 'sarvāṇi ha vā bhūtāni ākāśādeva samutpadyante' the expression ha vā implies the acceptance of special meaning of the term on the basis of the established principle viz. that the general term should bear the meaning of the special term. Thus, in the passages dealing with causation of the universe, the general terms such as sat, ātmā, Brahman which are employed in them, are taken to denote the meaning of the special term

'Nārāyaṇa' mentioned in the Mahopaniṣad in the same context.³⁵

Besides, the passage describes ākāśa as the highest of all beings and also their goal (ākāśo jyāyān ākāśaḥ parāyaṇam). This description is not applicable to the etherial space (bhūtākāśa). Further in the Taittirīya text it is stated that ākāśa is brought into existence from the ātman (ātmanaḥ ākāśaḥ sambhūtaḥ). The ātmā referred to here stands contextually to Brahman mentioned at the commencement of the passage which is described as vipaścit or all-knowing (vividham paśyaccitva) or omniscient Brahman. This bhutākāśa which is the product of Brahman is different from Ākāśa mentioned in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad. Ākāśa is Brahman in the sense that it illumines everything else (ākāśayati) and it also shines everywhere (ākāśate).

b. Prāṇa as Brahman

This is the subject of the *Prāṇādhikaraṇa* which discusses the issue whether the term *prāṇa* employed in the Chāndogya passage stands for the vital breath or Brahman. The passage states: in reply to the query made to *prastotā* priest regarding the deity connected with *prastāva*, it is said: *prāṇa iti hovāca*, sarvāṇi ha vā imāni bhūtāni prāṇameva abhisamviśanti prāṇam abhyujjihate, saiṣā devatā prastāvam anvyāyattā.³⁶

"The prāṇa is that deity, for all these beings merge in the prāṇa alone and from prāṇa alone do they depart. This is the deity which is connected with prastāva."

The $s\bar{u}tra$ which is framed with reference to, this passage says: Ata eva $pr\bar{a}na\dot{n}$. It means for the same reason, that is, the reason offered in respect of $\bar{a}k\bar{a}\dot{s}a$ in the earlier $s\bar{u}tra$, namely that the characteristics of Brahman mentioned in the Upaniṣad holds good in respect of Brahman.

The doubt arises in respect of $pr\bar{a}na$ because $pr\bar{a}na$ is taken in the commonly understood sense of fivefold vital breath. In the case of $\bar{a}k\bar{a}sa$ the commonly accepted meaning (rudhyartha) of the term $\bar{a}k\bar{a}sa$ is rejected since it is not known to be the origin of all living beings. Hence it is not appropriate to reject the commonly accepted meaning for

prāṇa and attach a special meaning to it in favour of Brahman.

Bādarāyana rejects this argument. The main reason for its rejection, as elucidated by Vedanta Desika, is that as in the case of the passage on ākāśa as Brahman the expression ha vā used in the statement, "sarvāni ha vā imāni bhūtāni prāṇameva abhisamviśanti..." implies that prāṇa here is the source (cause) of all beings in the universe. That which is the source of all beings cannot be the ordinary vital breath but Brahman which sustains life of all entities both sentient and non-sentient, such as wood, rocks, (kāstha śilādisu). Such a power or capacity to sustain life of all entities is not found in vital breath. Further, as in the case of ākāśa, the Śruti texts speak of Brahman as prāṇasya prāṇaḥ, amṛtasya prāna. More importantly, the Taittirīya states that no one else other than Brahman can sustain life of all. Brahman is therefore admitted as prana in the sense that it sustains all life (nikhila prāṇana or prāṇayati sarvāṇi bhūtāni). Hence prāṇa denotes Brahman.38

c. Jyotis as Brahman

This is the subject of *Jyotiradhikaraṇa* which establishes that the *jyotis* or self-luminous light referred to in the Upaniṣad denotes Brahman and not the cosmic light. The sūtra covered by this adhikaraṇa reads: *Jyotiś-caraṇābhidhānāt.*³⁹ It means: 'The cosmic light is Brahman because of the mention of the feet or part (in the Upaniṣadic passage connected with cosmic light.)

In the Chandogya Upanisad, a passage refers to the cosmic entity named as *jyotis*, in connection with the meditation on *gāyatrī*. It states:

Atha yad ataḥ paro divo jyotir dīpyate viśvataḥ pṛṣṭheṣu sarvataḥ pṛṣṭheṣu anuttameṣu uttameṣu lokeṣu, idam vāva tad yaḥ idam asminnantaḥ puruṣe jyotiḥ tasyaiṣa dṛṣṭiḥ.⁴⁰- "Now the light which shines above the heaven, above all, above everything, in the highest worlds beyond which there are no higher worlds; verily that is the same as the light which is here within the person."

The question raised in this connection is whether the jyotis mentioned in the passage refers to the physical light radiated by the sun and other luminaries or Brahman which is the Supreme Spiritual Light. The prima facie view is that it is the extraordinary light of the sun and the like, which is the well established meaning of the term. As Vedānta Deśika explains, there are certain favourable factors in support of this view. First, unlike in the passage referring to the ākāśa and prāṇa, there is no mention in this passage that jyotis is the cause of the universe, so that the meaning commonly accepted for the term can be overlooked, as Śruti is stronger than linga or descriptive identity mark. Secondly, the jyotis of the higher realms is equated with the digestive fire within one's body (jatharāgni). Though agni as the cause of the universe is stated elsewhere in the Upanisad dealing with Vaiśvānaravidyā, it is not mentioned in the present passage. Hence it is appropriate to accept the well-established meaning of *jyotis* as physical light and not Brahman.

The above arguments are not tenable, contends Vedānta Deśika. As Bādarāyaṇa states, the *jyotis* denotes Brahman because of the mention of the feet. The *sūtra* reads: caraṇābhidhānāt⁴¹. The fuller implication of it is that the earlier part of the passage, which deals with the manner of mediation on the gāyatrī mantra, the following statement of the Purusasūkta is reiterated:

etāvānasya mahimā, ato jiyāyāmsca purusah, pādosya visvābhūtāni, tripādasya amṛtam divi. 42

"Such is the greatness of it; greater than it is the Supreme Person (puruṣa). One part of it represents all the beings in the universe, while the other three parts (tripād) cover the immortal higher domain (amṛtam divi)".

The same Supreme Person who is connected with the three quarters of the higher abode is referred to in the present Upanisad as the Light (*jyotis*) connected with the higher domain (*atha paro divo jyotiḥ*). This fact cannot be overlooked. *Jyotis*, therefore, denotes Brahman.⁴³

An objection may be raised against this conclusion. At the commencement of the passage, it is said that all this is gāyatrī (gāyatrī vā idam sarvam). In the later part of the passage, the jyotis in the higher domain is described as having four parts. Since gāyatrī mantra also has four metrical quarters, it is possible to say that jyotis referred to in the passage is gāyatrī and not Brahman.

This objection, which is anticipated by Badarayana also44, is set aside. The teaching about gāyatrī is intended for the purpose of meditating on Brahman as having four parts similar to the four (metrical) quarters of gāyatrī. The four parts of Brahman represent the totality of the jīvas denoted by the term bhūta or the living beings, prthivī or earth, which is the field of experience, the physical body which is the accessory for experience and the hrdaya or the inner recess of the heart in which atman resides. The bhūtas taken to mean all beings together cannot actually be the pada or part of gayatri. Hence the reference to paramiyotis is to be understood as referring to Brahman. Brahman also stands for the Supreme Light since it gives light to all other luminaries. Thus states the Mundaka Upanisad: Tameva bhāntam anubhāti sarvam tasya bhāsā sarvam idam vibhāti45 - "Him the shining one, everything shines after; by this light all this is lighted". The Brhadaranyaka also says: "Him the Gods worship as the light of the lights, as the immortal (Taddevā jyotiṣām jyotirāyur hopāsate artam46).

V. Brahman as Antarātmā of Indra-prāņa.

This is the subject-matter of *Indra-prāṇādhikaraṇa* which discusses the issue whether the terms *Indra*, the chief of the celestial deities and the *prāṇa* referred to by him, which are employed in an important passage of the Kauṣītakī Upaniṣad, denote Indra himself as the Ruler of the universe or Brahman which is the *antarātmā* of all entities. We have seen in the preceding *adhikaraṇa* (*Antaradhikaraṇa* and *Prāṇādhikaraṇa*) that Brahman is distinct from the celestial

deities such as āditya-puruṣa or the puruṣa seen in the sun taken as exalted jīvātman and also prāṇa taken as vital breath. The Indra and prāṇa concepts are allied to the issues related to the āditya-puruṣa and prāna respectively and hence Bādarāyaṇa takes it up for consideration as a separate topic.

The relevant sūtra states: prāṇaḥ tathānugamāt47. It means, according to Rāmānuja, that the word prāna (referred to by Indra) denotes Brahman because it is correlated with the terms such as ananda, ajara and amrta referred to in the passage. This sūtra has direct reference to the passage of Kausītakī Brāhmana dealing with Pratardana vidyā. In a dialogue between Indra and Pratardana, the former being pleased with the performance of extraordinary deeds by the latter, asks Pratardana to choose a boon as a reward for his good act. But Pratardana does not name the boon and prays to Indra to confer what he himself deemed most beneficial to mankind. (yaṁ tvaṁ manuṣyāya hitatamam manyase.) Indra tells him: māmeva vijānīhi, etadeva aham manusyaya hitatamam manye - "Understand me only; that is what I deem most beneficial for mankind48". He first narrates his exploits and glories and thereafter says: prāno'smi prajñātmā tam mām āyur amṛtam iti upāsva, āyuh prāṇaḥ, prāṇo vā āyuh.49

"I am prāṇa, meditate on me as the intelligent self, as life, as immortality; life is prāṇa and prāṇa is life". In the concluding passage it is stated that prāṇa is prajñātmā, ānanda, amaraḥ, amṛtaḥ.50

The question which is raised in this connection is whether the meditation suggested by Indra is on the individual soul clenoted by the term prāṇa or on Brahman which is distinct from it. The prima facie view is that prāṇa here refers to the individual soul, since Indra instructs Pratardana to meditate on him as prāṇa and as the intelligent self. Such a meditation is considered most beneficial for mankind mutter. Besides, the passage also commences with this matter. Hence Indra who is credited with heroic

achievements is to be accepted as the Ruler of the universe (viśvakartā). According to the principle of interpretation, what is stated at the commencement (upakrama) is stronger than the conclusive statement describing prāṇa as amṛta, ajara, ānanda etc.

Following the explanation offered by Rāmānuja, Vedānta Deśika refutes the above prima facie view. There are three kinds of upāsanā on Brahman for the attainment of the highest goal: a) Brahman as related to jīvātman, b) Brahman as related to acit or cosmic matter c) Brahman in its essential nature (tredhā hi upāsyam bahuvidhā cid-acid-kañcukam svātmanā ca). The upāsanā enjoined in the present passage on Indra-prāṇa is to be treated as upāsanā on Brahman as related to the jīva of Indra. The description of Indra with the glory of his achievements is intended to bring out the great qualities of Indra, who represents the višeṣaṇa or body of Brahman in a technical sense, as the object of meditation for attaining the most beneficial goal of human endeavor.

Regarding the point mentioned in support of the prima facie view, it is true that the opening statement of the passage is stronger than the conclusive statement. But in the present passage there is no conflict between the two statements, since the opening statement referring to Indra prāṇa also stands for Brahman as qualified by Indra prāṇa (Indraviśista Paramātmā).

An objection, which is raised by the Śutrakāra himself is how Indra, who is the main spokesman (vaktā) and who is fully aware of himself being an individual soul, can mean by his prāṇa Brahman. The reply is that Indra is justified in advising Pratardana to meditate on him on the basis of the śāstradṛṣṭi, that is, the knowledge leading to the comprehension that jīvātman is the śarīra (body) of Paramātman, as taught in the Antaryāmi Brāhmaṇa and other Scriptural texts. Indra as an enlightened person was gifted with this spiritual knowledge and he can therefore advise Pratardana to meditate on his soul which denotes the Paramātman as the Antaryāmi of the soul. Bādarāyaṇa cites

the example of the Vedic sage Vāmadeva who was gifted with such a knowledge as stated in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad⁵².

In this connection, Vedānta Deśika explains why the criteria adopted in interpreting the general terms such as ākāśa, prāṇa, jyotis, Indra-prāṇa etc., in favour of Brahman is not uniformly the same and it differs in accordance with the subject-matter and the context in which the Upanisadic statements are made (visayabhedena). If the object or entity denoted by a term such as ākāśa is found to be a product or what is brought into existence (kārya), the commonly accepted meaning (rūdhyartha) is to be rejected and the etymological meaning (yaugikārtha) conveyed by it is to be adopted. Wherever a sentient Being denoted by a term is known to be subject to karma (karmavāsya), as for instance Prajāpati, a higher celestial deity, the same principle of interpretation holds good. This is the reason for interpreting ākāśa and āditya purusa mentioned in the Upanisad as Brahman. In the case of jyotis and Indra, the commonly accepted meaning is not admitted since the descriptions provided in the later part of the passages do not conform to them. Thus for instance, the identification of *jyotis* with the agni as physical fire and its meditation for attainment of higher goal cannot be reconciled. As regards Indra the description about his exploits, cannot be explained by accepting Indra as Supreme Being. Hence in both these cases, jyotis is taken to mean Brahman as qualified with self-luminous light (jyotiviśista brahma) and Indra is Brahman as the antaryāmin of Indra. The same principle is followed in respect of the two famous statements: aham brahmāsmi and tattvamasi. Aham which denotes the jīva is understood as svātmā višistam paramātmā or one's self as sarīra of Paramātmā. Similarly tvam refers to the jīva of Svetaketu and tvamasi means abhimukha cetana viśista Paramātmā, that is, Paramātman as qualified by Śvetaketu. Such an interpretation, Vedānta Deśika contends, is fully ustified according to the principle of interpretation laid

の心を見る

down by the Mīmāmsakas. There is a Vedic statement: "aindryā gārhapatyam". Gārhapatya is the name of sacrificial fire and Indra means in the accepted sense, a celestial deity. In this instance, Indra cannot be regarded as agni in the primary sense and hence Indra is understood in a secondary sense as agni since Indra is associated with sacrifice. But etymologically Indra can also be understood as *İśvara* since the root word Ind denotes the quality of Iśvara.53 The principle of interpretation followed by the Visistadvaitin is summed up as follows: Vyutpattyā paramātmānam tattaduktih prakāśayet; tallinga ananaythāsiddhau tadvīsistāvalambanī. It means: "The terms employed in such passages denote Paramātman with reference to their etymological meaning. If the descriptive statements in the passage about them do not corroborate that meaning, we have to interpret them in favour of Paramātman qualified by them.

By way of summing up the preceding adhikaranas dealing with the nature of Brahman, Vedanta Desika points out how each adhikarana brings out an important aspect of Brahman. The first four adhikaranas - Jijnāsādhikarana, Janmādy-adhikaraņa, Śāstrayonitvādhikaraņa, Samanvayādhikarana - are intended to justify the study of Vedānta (śāstra ārambha samarthana) and hence these are treated as Introductory. The actual teaching of Vedāntaśāstra commences from the fifth adhikarana named Iksatyadhikarana.54 The important point brought out in this adhikarana is that Paramatman is the creator of the universe out of His own free will (svecchātah sarvahetuh), as indicated by the term İkşana and supported by the Upanişadic statement 'tadaikṣata bahusyām prajāyeyeti, tat tejo asrjata'. The sixth adhikarana named Anandamayadhikarana highlights that Brahman who is endowed with auspicious attributes is constituted of ananda par excellence (subha gunavibhava ananta nissīma harşaḥ.) The Antaradhikaraņa reveals that Brahman possesses a divine form (body) which is constituted of śuddha-sattva or spiritual substance which is assumed out of His free will and which is not subject to

karma (śuddha akarmottha-divyākrtih). This point is supported by the Chandogya text: atha eşo antaraditye hiranmayah purusah. The Akāśādhikarana establishes that Brahman is of the nature of self-illumination (prakāśa) par excellence and illumintates every thing in the universe (anupadhika-ākāśanādi svabhāvah) and that it is also the highest Goal, as evidenced by the Scriptural text 'ākāśo jyāyān ākāśo parāyaṇam'. The Prāṇādhikaraṇa emphasizes that Brahman is the giver of life or sustenance (sattā) to everything in the universe, both living beings and nonsentient objects such as wood, rocks, etc., (saprāṇa aprāṇa bheda vyatikarabhidura jagatah prāṇanah). This is evident from the Upanisadic statement: sarvāni ha vā imāni bhūtāni prānameva abhisamviśanti prānam abhyujjihate). The Iyotiścaranādhikarana reveals that Brahman is of the nature of transcendental spiritual Light (divya dīptih). The Chandogya statements 'atha paro divo jyotih dipyate', uttamesu lokesu etc supports this. The last adhikarana known as Indraprāṇādhikaraṇa brings out the fact that Brahman is the antarātmā or Indwelling Self of celestial deities such Indra and non-sentient entities such as prāṇa (prāṇendriyādy antarātmā). The main objective of these adhikaranas and also those which are covered in the pādas 2 and 3 of first adhyāya, which deal with Brahman, according to Vedanta Deśika, is to highlight the gunas or attributes of Paramātman (sarvesam api adhikarananam tattat bhagavadguna prādhānakrtyam). The other details contained in these adhikaranas are meant for critical evaluation of prima facie views for the purpose of supporting the main thesis.55





^{1.} VS I-1-5

^{2.} Ch. Up. VI-6-1 and 3

^{3.} Cp. Vṛṣṭi-pratīkṣāḥ śālayaḥ

AS verse 56.

^{5.} Ch. Up. VI-8-7

^{6.} VS I-1-7

^{7.} See Ch. Up VI-8-1. satā somya tadā sampanno bhavati

^{8.} See VS I-I-10. Svāpyayāt

- VS I-1-8.
- 10. Ch. Up. VI-3-2
- 11. Ait. Up. I-1
- 12. Tait. Up. II-6
- 13. See AS. Verses 57 and 78
- 14. See AS. Verse 58.
- 15. VS. I-1-13
- 16. Tait. Up. II-5
- 17. Ibid II-8.
- 18. See Tait. Up. II-5. sa vā eṣa puruṣa vidhaḥ...tasya priyameva śiraḥ, modo dakṣiṇaḥ pakṣaḥ, pramoda uttaraḥ pakṣaḥ, ānanda ātmā, brahma puccham pratiṣthā...
- 19. See AS verse 59.
- 20. AS. Verse 60
- 21. SB I-1-19.
- 22. See RB I-1-13. Brahmaiva svabhāva višeṣaṇa puruṣavidhatvarūpitam śirah-paksa-puccha-rūpena vyapadiśyate.
- AS verse 61. Brahmaņi ātmapratisthāvacanam anitarādhāratā khyāpanāya.
- 24. See Ch. Up. VII-24-1
- 25. VS I-1-21
- 26. See Ch. Up. I-6-6 and 7
- 27. Ibid 1-7-5
- 28. See Br. Up.V-7-9. ya āditye tişthan, yasya ādityādantarah, yasya ādityah sarīram
- 29. AS verse 62.
- 30. See VS, III-2-37 phalam ataḥ upapatteḥ. See Also BG IX-24. ahaṁ hi sarvayajñānāṁ bhoktā ca prabhureva ca
- 31. See puruşa sükta: padosya visvā bhūtani, tripādasya amṛtaṁ divi... tamasaḥ paramo dhātā
- 32. See AS verse 64
- 33. VS I-1-23.
- 34. Ch. Up I-9-1
- 35. See FVV pp.224-25.
- 36. Ch up I-11-5
- 37. VS I-1-24
- 38. AS verse 70
- 39. VS I-1-25
- 40. Ch. Up. III-13-7
- 41. VS I-1-25
- 42. Tait. Aranyaka III-12
- See A.S. verse 72. pumsūkta-vākyodita parapuruşa pratyabhijñaptyabādhāt.
- 44. See VS I-1-26
- 45. Mund. Up II-2-10

- 46. Br. Up. IV-4-16
- 47. VS I-1-29
- 48. Kau. Up III-1
- 49. Ibid 111-2
- 50. Kau. Up III-9. sa eṣa prajñātmā ānando ajaro amṛtaḥ
- 51. AS verse 74
- 52. Br. Up III-4-10 Taddhaitat pāsyan ṛsir-vāmadevaḥ aham manurabhavam, aham kakṣīvān, sūryaśca ...aham ṛṣirasmi...pratipedire
- 53. Indratvam agnau gaunam syād yajñasambandha kāritam; indathyarthānusārādvā svakārya so'pi hi Isvarah
- 54. According to Madhva even this adhikarana is treated as part of the *upodghāta* or introduction.
- 55. See AS verse 78. See also Padayojanā.

CHAPTER THREE

THE DISTINGUISHING CHARACTERISTICS OF BRAHMAN

In the preceding chapter we have outlined the essential nature (svarūpa) of Brahman as enunciated by Bādarāyaṇa in the first pāda of adhyāya I of Brahma-sūtra. In the present chapter we shall present the distinguishing characteristics (dharmas) of Brahman as brought out by Bādarāyaṇa on the basis of the Upaniṣadic teachings dealing with Brahman.

The important passages of the principal Upanisads contain statements which are not clear as to whether they refer to Brahman or some other ontological entities such as jīvātman and prakṛti. According to Rāmānuja, such Upanisadic texts are of three kinds: 1) aspasta jīvādilingaka vākyas, or the statements which are not clear as to whether they teach about jīvātman. 2) spasta jīvādilingaka vākyas or the statements which appear to speak clearly about jīvātman. 3) spastatara jīvādilingaka vākyas or the statements which appear to teach more clearly about either jāvātman or prakṛti. If the main purport of the Upanisads is Brahman, as established in the samanvayādhikaraņa, it would be necessary to examine these statements to clear the doubts and establish that the Upanisadic texts teach about Brahman and its dharmas. The remaining three padas of first adhyaya are devoted to the consideration of this important matter. Accordingly, the second pāda deals with the statements which are vague (aspasta), the third pāda deals with statements which are unambiguous (spaṣṭa) and the fourth pāda deals with texts which appear to point out more clearly that either prakṛti or jīvātman is the cause of the universe (spaṣṭara). By way of critically examining the prima facie views advanced by the critics of Vedānta either on the basis of their own accepted theories or on certain assumptions, Bādarāyaṇa brings out the following important dharmas of Brahman:

- 1) Brahman as the Self of all (Sarvātmā)
- 2) Brahman as the Devourer of the entire universe $(Att\bar{a})$
- 3) Brahman as the Purușa abiding in the eye (Akșisthiti purușa)
- 4) Brahman as the Inner Controller of all (Antaryāmin)
- 5) Brahman as the Imperishable Reality (Akṣara)
- 6) Brahman as the Ruler of all souls (Vaiśvānara)
- 7) Brahman as the Support of heaven and earth (Āyatana)
- 8) Brahman as Infinitely great (Bhūmā)
- 9) Brahman as the Ādhāra of the universe (Viśvādhāra)
- 10) Brahman as the object of enjoyment for muktas (Muktabhogya)
- 11) Brahman as the subtle space within the heart (Daharākāśa)
- 12) Brahman as the angustamātra Purusa is the Ruler of All (Sarvaniyantā)
- 13) Brahman as the object of meditation for celestial deities (*Devādīnām upāsyaḥ*).
- 14) Brahman as the Nāmarūpakartā of the universe
- 15) Brahman as the Cause of the universe
- 16) Brahman as Ubhayalinga

The adhikaraṇas of the second and third pādas deal with the topics 1 to 14. We shall discuss each of these in the present chapter. Regarding the topic 15, this subject is covered in the adhikaraṇas of the fourth pāda. As these are

mainly concerned with the establishment of the Vedānta theory that Brahman is the cause of the universe by way of refuting the views of the Sāmkhya and Yoga, as reflected in some of the Upaniṣads, it will be considered separately in the next chapter. Regarding the topic 16, it is covered in the adhikaraṇa named Ubhayalingādhikaraṇa, which is included in the third adhyāya and which establishes the two-fold characteristic of Brahman as endowed with attributes and also free from defilements. As this is an important subject having a bearing on whether Brahman is the worthy object of meditation, it will be discussed in the chapter on Sādhana.

I. Brahman as the Self of All

This is the subject-matter of the Sarvatra-prasiddhyadhi-karaṇa. The main sūtra related to it reads: Sarvatra prasiddhopadeśāt¹. The word sarvatra means everywhere, that is, in all the Upaniṣads. Rāmānuja offers another meaning viz. everything in the universe (sarvasmin jagati). Prasiddha upadeśa means a teaching or theory which is well established in the Upaniṣads. The fuller implication of the sūtra will become clear from the famous passage of the Chāndogya Upaniṣad dealing with Śāṇḍilya Vidyā or the meditation prescribed by Śāṇḍilya on Brahman as the primary cause of the universe. The passage commences with the following statement: Sarvaṁ khalu idaṁ brahma tajjalān iti śānta upāsīta.²

"Verily, all this is Brahman, because all this originates from, ends in, and is sustained by Brahman. Thus knowing one should mediate with calm mind." The subsequent statement says: Atha khalu kratumayaḥ puruṣo yathā kraturasminn-loke puruṣo bhavati tathetaḥ pretya bhavati, sa kratum kurvīta, manomayah prāna śarīrah bhārūpah.³

"Man is indeed of the nature of thought (mediation); he becomes in his supra mundane state after departing from this life, what he meditates upon in his life. Let him therefore practise meditation. Let him meditate on that which consists of mind (manomaya), which has prāṇa or vital breath as its body (prāṇaśarīra) and whose form is light (bhārūpaḥ)"

The opening sentence of the passage refers to the meditation on Brahman since the compound word 'tajjalān' employed in it implies that from which the universe originates (tajjatvāt), that in which the universe is dissolved (tallatvāt) and that in which everything is sustained (tadanatvāt). These are the three cosmic functions that are attributed to Brahman only and not to any other ontological entity. This fact that Brahman is the primary cause of the universe is well established in all the Upanisads (sarvatra prasiddha), as is stated in the sūtra.

In the subsequent statement, it is said that meditation is to be observed on that which is manomaya, prāṇaśarīra, and bhārūpa. This description of meditation in terms such as manomaya, prāṇaśarīra, and bhārūpa gives room for doubt as to whether the object of meditation is the individual self (jīvātman) or the Supreme Self (Brahman). The prima facie view is that it refers to the individual self because manas or mind and prāṇa or breath are associated with jīva. The word 'manomaya' is taken to mean as that which consists of mind and prāṇaśarīra as that which has breath (prāṇa) as its body. Accordingly, what is referred to in the Upaniṣad is jīva since manas and prāṇa belong to it. It cannot be Brahman since according to the Upaniṣad Brahman is devoid of both manas and prāṇa. Thus says the Upaniṣad: aprāṇohy amanāḥ śubraḥ⁴-" Brahman is devoid of mind and prāṇa'

This view is rejected by the author of the sūtra. The reason for rejection, as explained by Rāmānuja, is that the same Brahman which is referred to in the opening sentence is to be meditated upon as qualified with dharmas such as manomayatva, prāṇamayatva, etc which are well established in all the Upaniṣads. Thus says the Muṇḍaka Upaniṣad: manomayaḥ prāṇa śarīra netā - "He who is made of mind, the guide of the body of breath." The Kena Upaniṣad says: "He is the Ruler of prāṇa." The term manomaya is appli-

cable to Brahman because Brahman is to be apprehended only by purified mind (viśudhena manasā grāhyatvam). Prāṇaśarīra means that Brahman is the Supporter and Ruler of prāṇa (prāṇasyāpi ādhāratvam niyantṛtvam ca).

The above explanation is offered by Rāmānuja to answer the objection that the second statement in the passage refers to the meditation on <code>jīvātman</code> since it is described as <code>manomaya</code>, <code>prāṇaśarīra</code>, etc. As pointed out by Vedānta Deśika, there is another prima facie view, according to which the entire passage covering both the opening sentence and the subsequent one refer to the meditation on <code>jīvātman</code> and not Brahman. In the opening statement, "sarvam khalu idam brahma" brahma can also mean <code>jīvātman</code> since <code>jīva</code> takes birth due to <code>karma</code> in variety of forms in the universe. Hence it is equated with the universe by the expression 'idam sarvam'. It is such a <code>jīva</code> on which one has to meditate as <code>manomaya</code>, <code>prāṇamaya</code>, etc.

This view is untenable, contends Vedānta Deśika. As pointed out by Rāmānuja, the entire passage speaks about the meditation on Brahman. Though jīva exists in a variety of forms in the universe, it cannot be the cause of the creation, sustenance, and dissolution of the entire universe, as expressed in the phrase 'tajjalān' Secondly, the word sarvatra taken in the sense of everything in the universe (sarvasmin jagati or vastuni), according to the second interpretation of Rāmānuja, implies that Brahman is the entire universe in the sense that it is the Ātman or the Self of everything in the universe which constitutes the śarīra or body of Brahman in a technical sense viz that it is sustained and controlled by Brahman. Jīva which is finite in character and part of the universe cannot be the Self of the universe in this sense.

The terms manomaya, prāṇaśarīra, etc. constitute the dharmas or attributes of Brahman. The meditation on Brahman as the cause of the universe which is enjoined in the opening statement in a general way is made more specific in the subsequent statement by indicating that

Brahman as qualified by attributes of manomayatva, prāṇaśarīratva, etc is to be meditated upon. It is not a separate injunction (vidhi) but it is a restatement of what is already enjoined in a more specific way. Prasiddha upadeśa in the sūtra means, according to this interpretation, that it is so well established in the Taittirīya and other Upaniṣads and sarvatra means that Brahman is the Self (ātmā) of all entities in the universe. The expression 'sarvaṁ idaṁ brahma 'therefore implies that Brahman is the universe in the sense that it is the Self of all (sarvātmā). This qualification does not apply to jīvātman.

A few other arguments are advanced to prove that the object of meditation is Brahman. The various attributes which are mentioned in the passage such as sarvakarma, sarvagandhah, sarvarasah, ākāśātmā, etc.6, for purpose of mediation are only applicable to Brahman. In a later part of the passage⁷ it is stated that this (Brahman) is my Self⁸. This statement conveys the difference between jīva and Brahman and hence it cannot be jīva. Its description as smaller than the smallest (anīyān) is intended to convey that Brahman abides in one's heart for the purpose of upāsanā (nicāyatvāt).⁹

The important point to be noted in this adhikaraṇa is that Brahman is Sarvātmā or the Self of everything in the universe. That is, Brahman abides in all entities in the universe as Ātman (Indwelling Self) by controlling them from within (svādhīna-aśeṣa-sattā-sthiti yatanatayā sarvabhāvena tisṭhan¹¹).

II. Brahman as the Devourer of the Universe

This is the subject-matter of the adhikaraṇa named Attrādhikaraṇa. A passage in the Kaṭha Upaniṣad describes ātman symbolically as the one for whom Brāhmaṇas and Kṣatriyas are food and death is itself the condiment. Thus it states: yasya brahma ca kṣatram ca ubhe bhavata odanaḥ; mṛṭyuḥ yasya upasecanam¹¹ - "For Him brahma (Brāhmaṇa) and kṣatra (kṣatriyas) are food and death (mṛṭyu) is the

condiment. No body really knows how and where He is." In this verse brahma and kṣatriya which mean Brāhmaṇas and Kṣatriyas represent the entire universe of movables and immovables. Mṛṭyu represents the God of death. The words food and condiment suggest that the Ātman referred to here is the attā or devourer. Based on this passage Bādarāyaṇa has framed the sūtra which reads: attā carācara grahaṇāt¹². It means that the eater is Brahman because of the mention of what is movable and what is immovable.

The question arises whether such a physical activity of eating is applicable to Brahman. The prima facie view is therefore advanced that the individual self (jīva) is the attā or eater, since normally a jīva who is subject to karma is the eater of the food. The sūtra, as interpreted by Rāmānuja, rejects it and upholds that it is the Supreme Self or Brahman which is attā, because the terms 'brahma and 'kṣatra' together with mṛtyu used in the Upaniṣad symbolically represent the entire universe comprising the movable (cara) and immovable (acara) entities. Jīva cannot consume the entire universe. Brahman is therefore the attā or devourer. That is, it is the Samhartā or the cause of the dissolution of the universe.

The act of eating here symbolically represents the dissolution (samhāra) of the entire universe by Brahman. As the primary cause of the creation and sustenance of the universe, Brahman also withdraws it from the state of manifestation into itself. In this sense the characteristic of attratva is attributed to Brahman.

Vedānta Deśika also points out that in the same context, the Upaniṣad brings out that the jīva is distinct from Paramātman (Brahman) (jīvavyāvartam ca prakaraṇa viditam¹³). The question of regarding jīva as samhartā of the universe does not therefore arise.

However, an objection is raised against the theory of Brahman as attā on the basis of a later passage of Katha Upanisad in which it is said that two ātmans (jīva and Brahman) who have entered the cave (heart) drink the fruit of karma (rta). The relevant passage says: Rtam pibantau

sukṛtasya loke guhāni praviṣṭau parame parārdhe; chāyā'tapau brahmavido vadanti¹⁴-"The two of the nature of sunshine and shadow having entered the cave drink the fruit of karma (ṛta) in the world of good deeds." If the two who have entered the cave are Brahman and jīva, the question arises whether Brahman can be the enjoyer of the fruits of karma (sukṛta). If Brahman is not the bhoktā unlike jīva how can it enjoy the fruits of karma? This issue may be resolved by treating the two who have entered the cave as buddhi and kṣetrajña (Paramātman) respectively. Such a view is also supported by a statement in Paingī Rahasya Brāhmaṇa dealing with the same matter. Thus it is stated: Tayoranyaḥ pippalam svādvatti iti sattvam. Sattva here is interpreted as buddhi which experiences karma.

Bādarāyaṇa has anticipated this objection and replied to it. The relevant sūtra reads: guhām pravistau ātāmnau hi tad-darśanāt15. It means that the two who have entered into the cave are two souls, the individual self and the Supreme Self, because it is stated so in the Upanisad. The two, according to the Upanisadic statement, as interpreted by Rāmānuja, are the individual self and Brahman since both of them enter into and dwell in the heart which is symbolically expressed as guhā or cave. The individual soul being subjected to karma actually drinks the rta in the sense of reaping the benefits of good deeds. Paramātman is regarded as the one who drinks the rta in a figurative sense by virtue of his companionship with the drinking jīva. This is explained on the analogy of the statement 'chattrino gacchanti' which literally means those holding the umbrella move (walk). Actually only one person holds the umbrella but the others who have been walking under its shade are regarded as going with umbrella. The Upanisadic statement can also be understood in the sense that Paramātman as preraka or the impeller causes the jīva to drink the fruits of karma, while jīva actually enjoys it as impelled by Him (prerya). That is, jīva who actually enjoys the fruits of karma is the one who is impelled to do so by Paramātman in

accordance with his karma. As the controller or impeller of jīva, Paramatman is figuratively regarded as bhoktā while the actual bhoktā is jīva.

Regarding the Paingī Śruti quoted in support of the two selves as buddhi and Paramātman respectively, Vedānta Deśika points out that even this particular text which elucidates the Kaṭha text referring to two birds sitting on a tree, one eating the fruit and the other sitting as passive observer, uses the word sattva as qualifying the word anyaḥ (tayor-anyaḥ pippalaṁ svādvatti sattvam). The term sattva stands for jīvatman and not buddhi, as wrongly interpreted. Sattva means jantu or a living being, according to kośa.¹6 A jantu is one which experiences the fruits of karma and accordingly it cannot be regarded as buddhi (jantau ca sattva śrutiḥ iyam ucitā karma-bhuk¹¹).

Thus the Attrādhikaraṇa brings out the important characteristic of Brahman as the samhartā or the one who dissolves the universe. Though in an earlier adhikaraṇa (Janmādyadhikaraṇa) dealing with the definition of Brahman, it is established that Brahman is the cause of the dissolution of the universe, this subject is separately considered in order to prove that Brahman is not the bhoktā or experiencer of the fruits of karma, unlike jīva, though it abides in the heart.

III. Brahman as the Purusa Abiding in the Eye

This is the subject matter of a separate adhikaraṇa named Antarādhikaraṇa which discusses the issue whether the puruṣa abiding in the eye seen by the Yogins, as stated in the Upaniṣad, is Brahman or some other being. This adhikaraṇa is different from the Antarādhikaraṇa discussed earlier which deals with the puruṣa seen in the orbit of the sun (ādityapuruṣa) and also in the eye (akṣipuruṣa). The former is part of the Upakosala-vidyā narrated in the Chāndogya and the latter is part of the Antarādityavidyā mentioned in the same Upaniṣad in a different context. The present adhikaraṇa is aimed to prove that Brahman abides

in the eye in the same way as it abides in the inner recess of the heart to enable a *upāsaka* to meditate on it. The previous *adhikaraṇa* (*Antarādhikaraṇa*) on the other hand, is intended to prove that the *ādityapuruṣa* and *akṣipuruṣa* are not the higher celestial deities but Brahman.

The Chāndogya Upaniṣad teaching Upakosala-vidyā states: ya eṣo akṣiṇi puruṣo dṛśyate, eṣa ātmā iti hovāca, etad amṛtam abhayam etad brahmeti, tad yady apyasmin sarpir vodakam vā siñcati, vartmani hy eva gacchati¹⁸.

"This person (puruṣa) who is seen in the eye, He is the Self ($\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$). This is the immortal, the fearless (abhayam), this is brahma, that is why if one drops melted butter into the eye, it flows out."

The question raised with reference to this statement is: who is that puruṣa referred to as seen directly (by the yogins) in the eye. Four alternatives are possible. Either it is the reflection of the jīva, since it is so explicitly stated to have been perceived directly by the yogins; or it is the jīvātman, since on the basis of the function of the eye, the presence or absence of (life) is determined; or it can be the presence of a deity (sūrya devatā) who is stated to be present in the eye through the rays; or it is the very Ātman (Brahman).

Bādarāyaṇa rejects the first three views and affirms that the puruṣa seen in the eye is Brahman. The relevant sūtra reads: Antara upapatteh. Is It means: The person seen inside the eye is Brahman because of the relevance of the attributes mentioned in the Upaniṣad. That is, the puruṣa seen in the eye is Brahman because the Upaniṣad describes it as ātman and it is amṛta or immortal, abhaya or fearless and brahma or infitintely great. These attributes are not applicable to either jīvātman or its reflection or to the celestial deity. That the puruṣa in the eye is Brahman is further confirmed by the subsequent statement which refers to the following other attributes of Brahman:

etam samyadvāma ity ācakṣate, etam hi sarvāņi vāmāni abhisamyanti, sarvāņi enam vāmāny abhisamyanti, ya evam

veda...eşa u eva vāmāniḥ eşa u eva bhāmānīḥ, esa hi sarveşu lokesu bhāti.²⁰

"This they call samyad vāma since all desirable things go towards Him. All desirable things go to him who knows this." "He is vāmāniḥ since he bestows all blessings to living beings. "He is bhāmāni for He shines in all worlds." Both these terms vāmāni and bhāmāni (describing Brahman) signify that Brahman who is the object of meditation bestows all blessings to living beings and that it shines in all the worlds. These attributes are applicable to Brahman who abides in the eye for the purpose of meditation by the upāsaka.

In the earlier part of this passage referring to the instruction imparted by the sacrificial fires (fire Gods) to Upakosala who was made to stay in the hermitage of the sage Satyakāma Jābāli while he was away, the following teaching was imparted to Upakosala: prāṇo brahma kaṁ brahma hrahma - "The prāṇa is Brahman, joy (kaṁ) is Brahman, ether (khaṁ) is Brahman." By way of clarification of what is kaṁ and khaṁ, it is further stated: yadvāva kaṁ tadeva khaṁ, yadvāva khaṁ tadeva kaṁ iti; prāṇam ca hāsmai tadākāśaṁ ca ūcuḥ²¹- "What is joy(kaṁ) that itself is ākāśa (khaṁ). What is ākāśa (khaṁ) that itself is the joy (kaṁ). They (agni Gods) taught him about prāṇa and ākāśa.

The term prāṇa 'as interpreted by Rāmānuja' refers to Brahman since it is the giver of life to the entire universe. The term kaṁ means joy and the word khaṁ means infinite and the two terms taken together as qualifying each other imply that Brahman denoted by prāṇa is infinitely blissful (jagat prāṇayitṛtvena prāṇa viśiṣṭam yad Brahma tadeva aparicchinna sukharūpeṇa ca...²2)

The point to be noted is that the mention of the essential characteristic of Brahman as kam and kham supports the view that the akṣi-puruṣa mentioned in the Chāndogya passage denotes Brahman and not jīva or any other entity. Bādarāyaṇa also mentions this fact in the sūtra reading 'Ata eva ca sa brahma.'23 It means that because of the mention of



ka and kha as qualifying characteristic of prāṇa, the Upaniṣadic statement refers to Brahman.

Two other arguments are advanced by Bādarāyaṇa in support of this view. In the Antaryāmī Brāhmaṇa of Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad it is stated that Paramātman dwells in the eye as the inner controller (ya cakṣusi tiṣṭhan). In view of this, the puruṣa seen inside the eye by the yogins is Brahman. Besides, the Chāndogya Upaniṣad dealing with Upakosala-vidyā mentions the arcirādi mārga. This pathway is prescribed only for those upāsakas who meditate on Brahman (sthitiniyatibalāt arcirādi yuktitaśca²⁴). The akṣipuruṣa referred to here is therefore Brahman.

A minor objection is raised against the theory of akṣipurusa being regarded as the object of meditation in Upakośala-vidyā. The puruṣa who is seen in the eye could be a reflection of the person and such a reflected Being (pratikṛti-puruṣa) is not capable of giving any fruitful result. Can it be considered as a worthy object of meditation?

Vedānta Deśika refutes this argument. In matters enjoined by the Scriptural texts which enjoy supreme authority, we have to accept them in good faith irrespective of the fact whether or not the object of meditation leads to good result. (svātantrya uttamsitastu śrutişu na phaladaśaiva veduatva vādah²⁵). Thus for instance, we accept on the authority of the Scriptural text that the performance of jyotistoma sacrifice is dharma and the killing of a Brahmin is adharma. There are statements which say that seeing auspicious objects after waking in the morning such as gold, diamond, sandal paste, white cow, the flower etc, is the portender of good event. We accept them on the authority of the sacred texts without questioning whether the object seen is real or unreal. The seeing of such objects irrespective of its reality or otherwise yields the good result. In the same way the meditation on the aksipurusa, even if it is taken as a reflected image, can confer good result since it is enjoined by the Scriptural text.

From the foregoing details, Vedānta Deśika concludes that the Antarādhikaraņa establishes that Brahman always

abides in the eye (akṣinityasthitiḥ), as stated in the Antaryāmi Brāhmana.

IV. Brahman as the Inner Controller of All

This is the subject matter of the Antaryāmyadhikaraṇa which brings out explicitly that Brahman is the Antaryāmin of all entities in the universe, both sentient and non-sentient. The relevant sūtra reads: Antaryāmyadhidaiva adhiloka ādişu taddharma vyapadeśāt.26 The term antaryāmī means one who controls from within or the Inner Controller. Adhidaivādisu means the deities and other entities referred to in the Upanișadic statements. The word adhiloka added by Rāmānuja on the basis of the Mādhyandina recension of the Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad means the worlds and others. The word taddharmopadeśāt means because of the mention of the attributes applicable to Brahman. The total meaning of the sūtra, as interpreted by Rāmānuja, is that Antaryāmin or the Inner Controller of the deities and other entities mentioned in the Upanisadic passage is Brahman because the attributes stated in the passage are only applicable to Brahman.

This sūtra is based on the significant passage known as the Antaryāmi Brāhmaṇa of the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad. In a discourse between the Sage Yājñavalkya and Uddālaka, Uddalaka asks Yājñavalkya to tell him about Antaryāmin who controls from within this world as well as the next world and all things: Vetta nu tvam antaryāmiṇam. Ya imāmca lokam param ca lokam sarvāṇi bhūtāni yo antaro yamayati. In reply Yājñavalkya states: yaḥ pṛthivyām tiṣṭhan pṛthivyā antaraḥ, yam pṛthivī na veda, yasya pṛthivī śarīram, yaḥ pṛthivīm antaro yamayati, yeṣa ta ātmā antaryāmy amrtah.²⁷

"He who dwells in the earth, who is within the earth, of whom the earth does not know, whose body the earth is, who controls the earth from within, He is your self (ātmā), the Inner Controller (antaryāmī), the immortal (amṛtaḥ)."





In the same strain Yājñvalkya repeats the statement twenty times covering in each statement the following other entities viz. ap (water), agni (fire), antariksa (sky), vāyu (air), divi (heaven), āditya (sun), dik (quarters), candra-tāraka (moon and stars), ākāśa (ether), tamas (darkness), tejas (light), sarvabhūta (all beings), prāṇa (life breath), vāk (organ of speech), caksus (ther eyes), śrotra (the ear), manas (the mind), tvak (the skin), vijñāna (the individual self) and retas (semen). The above enumeration of the entities is according to the recension of the Kānva. The Mādhyandina recension of the Upanisad lists a few more additional entities viz. sarvaloka, sarva veda and sarva yajña. Besides, in place of vijñāna, it uses the term ātman, or the individual self. Thus it is stated: ya ātmani tisthan, ātmano antaro, yam ātmā na veda, yasyātmā śarīram, ya ātmānam antaro yamayati, sa ta ātmā antaryāmī amrtah.28

This significant passage covers in an exhaustive way both the sentient and non-sentient entities including the individual self denoted by the term vijñāna and ātman. In each it is described that Paramātman (Brahman) dwells in them (tiṣṭhan) and also abides within them (antaraḥ), none of the entities know Him (na veda), But they constitute His body (sarīram). Paramātman controls them from within (antaro yamayati). It is also stated that this Paramātman is your Self (yeṣa ta ātmā), who is Antaryāmin and immortal (amrta).

After narrating in a grand way the immanence of *Paramātman* in all the entities of the universe, Yājñavalkya makes the following statement:

Adṛṣṭo draṣṭā, aśrutaḥ śrotā, amanto mantā, avijñāto vijñātā, nānyato'sti draṣṭā, nānyato'sti śrotā, nānyato'sti mantā, nānyato'sti vijñātā, eṣa ta ātmā antaryamī amṛtah ato anyad āṛtam.²⁹

It means according to Rāmānuja: "He (Antaryāmin) is not seen but He sees all. He is not heard but hears everything. He is not comprehended but He comprehends everything. He is not perceived but He perceives everything. There is no other seer but He. There is no other hearer but He. There is no other cognizer but He. There is no other knower but He. He is your $\bar{A}tm\bar{a}$ (self) the inner controller, and the immortal. Everything else is a source of misery ($\bar{a}rtam$).

An important question raised with regard to this passage is whether this Antaryāmin referred to here is Paramātman or is it jīvātman? According to the prima facie view, it is jīvātman. The main argument in support of it is that towards the end of the passage it is described as draṣṭā, one who sees, śrotā or one who hears etc. Besides it is also mentioned that there is no one else who is the seer, no one else who is the hearer etc. These descriptions do not fit with Paramātman but only with jīva. The act of hearing or seeing is possible through the media of respective sense organs and only a jīva associated with the mind and sense organs can have such functions.

Bādarāyaņa rejects this view and affirms that the Antaryāmin referred in this Upanișad is Brahman. The reason advanced in favour of this conclusion is that the dharmas or the attributes mentioned in the passage are directly applicable to Paramatman (taddharma vyapadeśāt). The first important characteristic, which is well brought out in the Upanisadic statements, is that He controls all the deities, all the worlds and all the entities by virtue of His being their Antarātmā or indweller. Such a dharma cannot belong to anyone other than Paramatman. What is said in these statements viz. that all entities in the universe are controlled by Paramātman by virtue of His being inherent in them and that the respective entities do not know this fact, is repeated in the following statements by way of conclusion at the end of the passage: Adrsto drasta na anyato'sti drastā, aśruto srotā etc., The implication of it is that Paramātman cannot be seen through the eyes, and he cannot be heard through our ears etc. But such a Paramātman is the true seer (drastā) and the true hearer (srotā) in the sense that He directly intuits all things in the universe without the aid of the sense organs, unlike a

jīvātman (tattatkaraņa sāpekṣatvābhāve'pi svābhāvika tattat viṣaya sākṣātkaraṇa³)

Further, both the Kānva and Mādhyandina recension of Antaryāmi Brāhmaṇa, emphatically state that Paramātman indwells in jīvātman³¹¹ denoted by the synonymous terms vijñāna and ātman, and that jīvātman is the śarīra of Paramātman in the technical sense, as explained by Rāmānuja, viz., that it is sustained (ādheya) and controlled (niyāmya) by Him. The final statement 'sa te ātmā antaryamī amṛtaḥ' also draws a clear distinction between the jīvātman and Paramātman. Hence the jīvātman cannot be the Antaryāmin.

It may be still argued that the terms vijnāna and ātman, though they may have the same meaning, may be taken in the sense of buddhi or intellect in which Paramatman dwells. It is therefore not possible to advance the theory of bodysoul relation (śarīrātmabhāva) between jīva and Paramātmā on the basis of Antaryāmi Brāhmana. In reply, Vedānta Desika points out that this is a wrong interpretation (apārtha). It is well established in all the Scriptural texts and also in the ordinary empirical usage, that the terms vijñāna and ātman are applicable to a sentient being and not to an insentient object. For instance, in the Upanișadic statement 'vijñanam yajñam tanute', the term vijnāna does not mean mind but the individual self. In the text of the Katha Upaniṣad, 'ātmānam rathinam viddhi', the term ātmā means jīva. There is no compelling reason to adopt a secondary meaning to ātmā as buddhi. The final statement 'sa ta ātmā', or He is your Self, stands well explained by taking Paramātman as the Antaryāmin of the individual self. (sa ta ityādibhih sāmarasyam)³².

Vedānta Deśika therefore comes to the conclusion that this adhikaraṇa establishes that all entities in the universe constitute the body (śarīra) of Brahman by virtue of its being the Inner Controller (akhila tanuḥ³³).

V. Brahman as the Imperishable Reality (Akṣara)

This is the subject-matter of the adhikarana named Adrsyatvādi-gunakādhikarana, which discusses the issue whether the metaphysical principle termed as aksara which is described by the Mundaka Upanisad as adršya or that which is not perceived, as agrāhya or that which is not grasped etc. refers to Brahman or some other entity either prakrti or jīvātman. This doubt arises since the relevant passage of the Mundaka Upanisad on which the sūtra is framed contains statements about aksara, which do not clearly reveal whether this akṣara denotes Brahman. Hence Bādarāyaṇa takes up this subject for consideration. The relevant sūtra reads: Adrśyatvādi gunako dharmokteh34. It means: The entity denoted by akṣara in the Upaniṣad which is qualified by the attributes such as imperceptibility (adrśyatva) is Brahman, since the characteristics (dharmas) mentioned in the Upanisadic texts belong to Brahman. The fuller implications of the sūtra will be evident from the examination of the concerned passage of the Mundaka Upanisad.

The Upaniṣad commences with a significant passage in which sage Aṅgiras teaches Śaunaka about the nature of the ultimate principle, by knowing which everything else becomes known. After explaining the two types of *vidyās* which are to be known for this purpose, Angiras makes the following statement:

Atha parā yayā tadakṣaram adhigamyate, yat tad adṛeśyam agrāhyam agotram avarṇam acakṣuḥ śrotram tad apāṇipādam nityam vibhum sarvagatam susūkṣmam tad avyayam yad bhūtayonim paripāsyanti dhīrāḥ.35

'Now this parāvidyā by means of which the akṣara is to be comprehended; that which is imperceivable, ungraspable, without family, without caste, without eyes or ears, without hands or feet, which is eternal, all pervading, omnipresent, exceedingly subtle, that is the imperishable (avyayam) which, the wise perceive as the source of beings (bhūtayoni)."

Later in the second section of the Upaniṣad, it states: "divyo hi amūrtaḥ puruṣaḥ sa bāhyābhyantaro hy ajaḥ, aprāṇo hy amanāḥ śubhro akṣarāt parataḥ paraḥ."

'The *Puruṣa* is divine. He is formless (amūrtaḥ), He is pervading within and without, unborn. He is without prāṇa and mind (amanāḥ) He is higher than akṣara (akṣarat parataḥ parah)."³⁶

Taking into consideration both the statements, a doubt arises as to whether the term akṣara mentioned in the opening statement and also in the later statement refers to the prakṛti and jīva respectively or to Paramātman. According to the prima facie view, the qualities described in the Upaniṣadic texts appropriately apply to the prakṛti of the Sāmkhya. The text of the second section of the Muṇḍaka speaks of something higher than akṣara and this akṣara cannot possibly be Brahman. It may refer to jīva, since jīva is higher than prakṛti (akṣarāt parataḥ paraḥ).

Bādarāyaṇa rejects this view and affirms that akṣara referred to in the beginning of the passage, which is also regarded as bhūta-yoni or the source of the universe is Brahman and not either pradhāna or jīva. The main reason in support of it is that the akṣara mentioned at the commencement of the passage is described later on as sarvajña and sarvavit, the two important attributes which are applicable only to Paramātman. (sarvajñatvādi dṛṣṭeḥ prathama samuditam akṣaram brahma śuddham³¹).

In the second statement, 'akṣarāt parataḥ paraḥ', akṣara refers to the prakṛti for the reason that there cannot be anything greater than akṣara taken as Brahman. In this statement, akṣarāt parataḥ paraḥ, three principles are referred to: prakṛti, jīva and Paramātman. Akṣarāt paraḥ means greater than prakṛti is jīva; the words parataḥ paraḥ imply, greater than jīva is Brahman (para³³). Hence, akṣara in the later statement denotes prakṛti.

As Rāmānuja has explained, the entire passage teaches about Brahman. A few important points are mentioned in the passage, which support this view. First, akṣara is

described as *bhūtayoni* or source of the universe, that is, the material cause of the universe, as explained by the analogies of spider and the web created by it, the herbs growing on earth, and the growth of hairs on the body of a living person. Secondly, it is also stated that from *akṣara* originates *prāṇa*, *manas* and the sense organs and all elements.³⁹ It is also mentioned that the *puruṣa* is divine, formless and pervading within and without. The passage also states that the heaven, moon, sun, the *dik*, *vāyu*, *pṛthivī* and the entire universe represent parts of His śarīra and that *Paramātman* is *antarātmā* of all entities.⁴⁰ All these points unmistakably reveal that *akṣara* referred to in this passage of the Muṇḍaka is no other principle than Brahman. Thus, this *adhikaraṇa* brings out the fact that *akṣara* as qualified with negative qualities such, as *adreśyatva* is Brahman.

VI. Brahman conceived in its Cosmic form is the Ruler of all Souls (Vaiśvānara)

This is the subject-matter of Vaiśvānaradhikaraņa which discusses whether vaiśvānara ātmā referred to in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad denotes Brahman or some other principle.

The relevant passage commences with the narration of five sages who are desirous of knowing "what is our Self (Inner Controller), what is Brahman" (ko na ātmā kim brahma). They first approach Uddālaka who in turn takes them to Aśvapati Kaikeya who is reputed to know it better. On meeting Kaikeya, they request him with these words: 'Ātmānameva vaiśvānaram sampraty-adhyeṣi tameva no brūhi.'41

'You know at present that Vaiśvanara Self. Tell us that'. With a view to finding out how much the sages already knew, Kaikeya asks each one of them to tell what they have been presently meditating. In reply each one mentions that he meditates on Vaiśvānara conceived as one of the following entities respectively: divi (heaven), sūrya (sun),

vāyu (air) ākāśa (ether), ap (water) and pṛthivī (earth). Realizing that this amounts to the meditation of Vaiśvānara as limited by a part only and not its complete form, Kaikeya makes the following statement:

Tan hovāca ete vai khalu yūyam pṛthagivemam ātmānam vaiśvānaram vidvāniso annam attha, yastu etam evam prādeśamātram abhivimānam ātmānam vaiśvānaram upāsāte, sa sarveşu lokeşu sarveşu bhūteşu sarveşu ālmasu annam atti⁴²

"Then he (Aśvapati) said to them: you meditate this vaiśvānara ātmā in part only as if it were many and you eat your food (that is, obtain limited material benefits). But he who meditates on the vaiśvānara ātman measured by a span or part (prādeśa mātra) as abhivimāna (as unlimited, pervading the entire universe) eats the food in all worlds, in all beings, in all selves. That is, he enjoys Brahman which abides in all places and in all beings."

Based on this passage, which does not convey the import of the term Vaiśvānara, Bādarāyana introduces the following sūtra: Vaiśvānarah sādhāraņa śabda viśeṣāt43. The word Vaiśvānara means Brahman. The reason for regarding it as Brahman is contained in the next words of the sūtra 'sādhāraņa śabda viśeṣāt'. Its meaning is that the common word is qualified by distinctions. By way of elucidation, it is pointed out that this is regarded as the common word because it applies to more than one thing. It can mean either the digestive fire (jațharāgni), or elemental fire (bhūtāgni), or its presiding deity (tadabhimāni-devatā) or even Paramātman. We come across Scriptural texts using them in these different senses. The doubt therefore arises as to which one of these is applicable to the term vaisvānara employed in the Upanisad. As stated by Badarayana, this term denotes only Brahman because it is qualified by distinguished attributes (viśeṣāt).

How does the common word (sāmānya śabda) become distinguishable (viśeṣa)? According to the explanation offered by Rāmānuja, the common word Vaiśvānara is further qualified by distinguishing marks, which are

applicable to Brahman. Taking this entire passage into consideration, it may be noted that it commences with an enquiry by the five sages about Brahman and the person who teaches it is also reputed to have that knowledge. Both the subject of enquiry and the contents of the teaching imparted by Kaikeya is also related to Brahman. The terms ātmā and Brahma used in the opening statement 'kona ātmā kim brahma' are replaced later on in the passage by ātmā and vaiśvānara respectively. The term Vaiśvānara which replaces Brahman denotes that it is the same as Brahman. Besides the fruits of the meditation as described in the later part of the Upaniṣad and also the fact that the knower of vaiśvānara becomes free from all sins⁴⁴ clearly confirms that the term vaiśvanara denotes Brahman.

Further, in this passage, Vaiśvānara is personified and described for purposes of meditation as possessing different parts of the universe viz., divi as its head, āditya as its eye, vāyu as its prāṇa, ākāśa as its body, water as its bladder (vasti) and pṛthivī as its feet. Such a description is appropriate only in respect of Vaiśvānara as Brahman and not jīvātman, since the entire universe consisting of sentient and non-sentient entities is the śarīra or body of Brahman, as declared in the Antaryāmi Brāhmaṇa (paramātmanaḥ prapañca śarīrakatayā anyatra prasiddheḥ46).

An objection is raised against this conclusion. In one of the Scriptural texts of the Vājasaneya śākhā, dealing with Vaiśvānara-vidyā, it is stated that agni is Vaiśvānara (sa eṣo agnir vaiśvānarah), thus equating Vaiśvānara with agni or fire. In the present passage of Chāndogya too, the upāsaka on Vaiśvānara is required to regard one's own heart as the altar or basis for gārhapatya sacrificial fire and offer oblations to it (mentally) in the name of prāṇa and its other forms. This agni is conceived in a human form as abiding inside one's body. From these descriptions it follows that the term Vaiśvānara mentioned in the passage is jāṭharāgni or digestive fire inherent in one's body which carries out the functions of digestion. Hence it is not possible to state conclusively

that Vaiśvānara is Paramātman.

Bādarāyana himself has anticipated this objection and given a suitable reply to it. 47 As explained by Rāmānuja, the same Vaiśvānara who is Brahman in its universal form, that is, as having the entire universe as its body, is to be regarded as jāṭharāgni or digestive fire, as inherently related to Paramātman (jāṭharāgni -śarīraka paramātmā). The contemplation on jāṭharāgni or digestive fire inside the body is not the mere physical aspect of agni but that which constitutes the body of Paramātman. This explanation is justified because the mere jāṭharāgni cannot be the puruṣa or the Supreme Person in his cosmic form comprising all entities in the universe as His body. For the same reason, it cannot be either mere elemental fire or its presiding deity.48 One other explanation is that the term agni, according to etymological meaning, denotes directly Brahman, (agram nayatīti agnih). This interpretation is also supported by Jaimini. According to him, there is no objection in taking the term Vaiśvānara to denote Brahman directly (Sākṣād api avirodham jaiminih49). According to the grammatical rule, the term vaiśvānara is formed out of the word Vaiśvānara, which means one who is the Ruler of all human beings or souls (viśvesām narānām netāra). Thus this adhikarana brings out the fact that Brahman conceived as Viśva-śarīraka is the Ruler of all souls (Vaiśvānara).

VII. Brahman as the Support of Heaven and Earth (Ayatana)

This is the subjectmatter of the adhikaraṇa named as $Dyubhv\bar{a}dy$ -adhikaraṇa which establishes another important characteristic of Brahman viz. it is the $\bar{A}yatana$ or Support of the heaven (dyu), earth $(bh\bar{u})$, sky (antarikṣa) and other entities such as mind (manas) and breath $(pr\bar{a}ṇa)$, as stated in the Muṇḍaka Upaniṣad. In a significant statement made about the $\bar{A}tman$, the Upaniṣad says: $Yasmin\ dyauh\ prthiv\bar{v}$

ca antarikṣam otam manaḥ saha prāṇaśca sarvaiḥ; tamekam jānatha ātmānam anyā vāco vimuñcatha, amṛtasya eṣa setuḥ50.

'He in whom the heaven, earth and the sky along with the mind and the vital breath ($pr\bar{a}na$) are woven; know Him alone as the $\bar{A}tman$ and abandon all other talk; He is the bridge (setu) to the immortality."

In the subsequent statement, the Upanisad says: arā iva ratha nābhau samhatā yatra nādyaḥ sa eṣa antaḥ carate bahudhā jāyamānaḥ⁵¹-"In the heart, the nādis are fixed like the spokes of the wheel on the hub of the chariot."

With reference to this passage, the question is raised whether that which is described as the support of heaven, earth and so on is Brahman or jīvātman. According to the prima facie view, it is jīvātman. The main argument in support of it is that manas and other sense organs are woven in it and whereas Paramātman is devoid of sense organs (aprāṇo hi amanāḥ). Besides in the later statement it is said that it is the main support (ādhāra) for the nāḍis, similar to the central hub on which the spokes of the wheel rest and that it also moves inside the bodies (antaḥ carati) and takes birth in different forms (bahudhā jāyante). Taking all these descriptions, it follows that what is referred to in the passage is jīvātman.

This view is rejected by Bādarāyaṇa. Thus says the sūtra: dyubhvādyātanaṁ sva śabdāt⁵². The compound word dyubhvau (dvyauśca bhūśca dyubhvau) means heaven and earth. The suffix ādi implies other entities such as sky (antarikṣa), mind (manas) and vital breath (prāṇa) mentioned in the Upanisadic text. Āyatana means that which provides the support. The total meaning of the fourth part of the sūtra is that Brahman is the support of the heaven, earth and so on. The reason for maintaining this view is expressed in the word sva śabda which means that the very term Ātman is specifically mentioned in the Upaniṣadic passage.

By way of elucidation it is pointed out that the term $\bar{A}tman$ in its primary sense denotes Brahman ($\bar{a}pnoti\ iti\ \bar{a}tm\bar{a}$). The words dyu and $prthiv\bar{v}$ referred in the text are

illustrative of the entire universe. As clearly stated in the Upaniṣadic text, only Brahman can be āyatana of the universe. More importantly, it is described as the setu for attaining immortality. The term setu is to be understood in the sense of prāpaka or the one who enables the person to attain immortality (setuḥ amṛtasya prāpakaḥ) It can also be understood, as explained by Rāmānuja, to mean that which leads towards immortality that lies beyond the ocean of samsāra or bondage in the same way as a bridge leads to the other side of the river bank. The characteristic of āyatanatva therefore belongs to Brahman only.

The above conclusion is further affirmed by Bādarāyaṇa himself with additional arguments on the basis of the statements of the Muṇḍaka Upaniṣad. Firstly, the Upaniṣad itself states that the released soul attains the state of mokṣa⁵³. The relevant text says: yadā paśyaḥ paśyate rukmavarnam kartāram īśam puruṣam brahma yonim; tadā vidvān puṇya pāpe vidhūya nirañjanaḥ paramam sāmyam upaiti.⁵⁴

"When the knower of Brahman (jīvātman) sees the Puruṣa (Paramātman) who is of the golden colour, who is the Ruler of the universe, the cause of the prakṛti, then the knower of Brahman shaking off good and evil and becoming free from defilements, attains the Supreme equality with the Lord."

In a later passage it is specifically said that the liberated soul attains the Divine Puruṣa who is higher than both prakṛti and puruṣa (tathā vidvān nāmarūpād vimuktaḥ parātparam puruṣam upaiti divyam⁵⁵). Further, this Upaniṣad also speaks of the difference between Brahman and jīva by citing the analogy of two birds sitting on the same tree, one abiding as the passive observer (anaśnan) and the other enjoying the fruits of karma. More importantly, the subjectmatter of the entire passage is related to Brahman only (prakaraṇataḥ). There is no mention of either jīva or prakṛti as the āyatana or support of the heaven, earth etc. Hence it is concluded that Brahman is āyatana or the Support of the entire universe. The support of the entire universe.

Vedanta Desika further points out that the description of the mind and senses being woven in the all-pervasive Brahman should not be regarded as inconceivable. Though Paramātman is not subject to birth caused by karma, He can assume many forms out of His will. As Antaryamin or one who indwells in the body of an individual, He can be the ādhāra or the support for the numerous nādis, similar to the hub of the chariot in which the spokes rest (arā iva ratha nābhau samhatā yatra nadyah). The presence of Brahman in the body as Antarātmā is warranted by the Brhadāranyaka and other Upanisads. The antascarana or the movement of Brahman in the body is to be understood in the sense of Brahman being the supporter of everything in the universe (adhisthana matram) by virtue of His svarupa pervading everywhere.⁵⁸ It is in this sense that the Subāla Upaniṣad also uses the word antaścarana (yah prthivīm antare sancaran).

VIII. Brahman as Infinitely Great (Bhūmā)

This is the subject-matter of the Bhūmādhikaraṇa which brings out the characteristic of Brahman as bhūmā or infinitely great on the basis of the passage of Chāndogya Upaniṣad .The term bhūmā is derived from the root word bahu (immense) but with the addition of the suffix imnic, it becomes bhūmā. It therefore, means bahutva or immensity in terms of quality and not quantity, as contrasted to alpatva or smallness. As a quality it should inhere in a substance or entity. What is that entity which is described as bhūmā in the Upaniṣad?

According to Bādarāyaṇa, the term bhūmā refers to Brahman. Based on the passage of the Chāndogya Upaniṣad, the sūtra says: Bhūmā saṃprasādāt adhyupadeśāt. 59 Bhūmā refers to Brahman. The reason for regarding it as Brahman is given in the next compound word of the sūtra, viz. Saṃprāsadāt adhyupadeśāt. Saṃprasāda means, according to the interpretation of Rāmānuja, jīvātman, since the Chāndogya Upaniṣad elsewhere uses this word as synonymous with jīva (eṣa saṃprasādaḥ asmāt śarīrāt

samutthāya⁶⁰). The word adhyupadeśāt means that bhūman which is identified with satya or Brahman is taught in addition to the jīvātman which is termed as prāṇa in the passage.

The fuller implication of the *sūtra* can be understood with reference to the passage of the Chandogya Upanisad. This passage covers an interesting dialogue between Sanatkumāra and his pupil, Nārada. It commences with the request made by Nārada to teach him ātma-vidyā or knowledge of Brahman, which is the means to overcome bondage (tarati śokam ātmavit), To facilitate the realization of Atman, Sanatkumāra first suggests the meditation on a series of the entities conceived as symbols of Brahman in an ascending order beginning with nāma, or name, followed by vāk or speech, manas or mind, samkalpa or will, citta or mental state, dhyāna or contemplation, vijñāna or comprehension, bala or strength, anna or food, apa or water, tejas or fire, ākāśa or ether, smara or memory, āśā or hope and lastly prāṇa or individual self (according to Rāmānuja). In enumerating these fifteen entities for the purpose of meditation as the symbols of Brahman, Sanatkumāra extols each one of them as worthy object of meditation leading to the acquisition of certain higher material benefits. In reply to Nārada's query, he also states that each one, commencing with vāk, is higher than the preceding one. But with regard to the meditation on prana, no further query is made by Nārada as to whether there is anything higher than prāṇa. Nor does Sanatkumāra suggest any other principle as superior to it. On the other hand, he glorifies the meditation on prāṇa to a greater extent than the others. He also says that prāṇa is everything (prāṇo hy eva etāni sarvāṇi bhavanti). He who knows prāṇa is considered as ativadi or one who can speak of its greatness (ativādī bhavati61).

After extolling the meditation on *prāna*, Sanatkumāra mentions the greatness of *satya* or Reality. *Satya* is extolled with the words: "He who speaks about *satya* surpasses everything else. Thus he says: *eṣa tu vā ativadati yaḥ satyena*

ativadati.62 It means: "But in reality he is an ativādī who has become an ativādī by the knowledge of satya."

In the above dialogue culminating with prāṇa, after which no further query from Nārada is made regarding anything higher than prāṇa and Sanatkumāra also does not make any categorical statement to the effect that satya is higher than Prāṇa, a doubt arises whether prāṇa can be bhūman. According to the prima facie view, prāṇa itself is bhūmā. The main argument in support of this view is that Sanatkumāra who was approached by Nārada seeking the Ātma jñāna ends up with the teaching about prāṇa. The glorifying description provided in the Upaniṣad about prāṇa as everything, that it is father, mother, ācārya etc. and that if one ill treats them, he is considered to be harming them, lends support to the theory that prāṇa is jīvātman and that itself is bhūman.

This view is rejected by Bādarāyaṇa. The term *bhūmā* does not refer to *jīvātman* denoted by the word *prāṇa* but to Brahman. The reason given is that after culminating the teaching with *prāṇa*, the Upaniṣadic passage proceeds to extol *satya* with the words:

Eṣa tu vā ativadati yaḥ satyena ativadati. "But in reality he is an ativādī who has become an ativādī by the knowledge of the satya."

The implication of this statement soon after extolling prāṇa is that satya is greater than prāṇa and one who speaks of the glory of this is a true ativādī. As Rāmānuja explains, in the text "eṣa tu vā ativadati" the word 'tu' implies that some higher principle than prāṇa is going to be emphasized. Though there was no query on the part of Nārada as to whether there is anything higher than prāṇa, Sanatkumāra on his own mentions satya as the highest object with the intention of teaching Nārada that the meditation on satya leads to liberation from bondage. The term satya stands for Brahman. Nārada also readily responds by saying that he would become an ativādī by the knowledge of satya. In response to the desire expressed by Nārada to know satya

sanatkumāra instructs him to meditate on satya (satyam tveva vijijnāsitavyaḥ63). He also instructs him the various steps to be taken for realization of satya (Brahman). Further, satya is identified with Bhūmā. Satya therefore denotes Brahman and on that basis it is concluded that Bhūman is Brahman and not jīvātman or prāṇa. Besides, Bhūman is also described as sukha or bliss (yo vai bhūmā tat sukham64). This implies that Brahman is essentially of the nature of infinite bliss (niratísaya-sūkha-rupa).

Another reason for regarding Bhūman as Brahman is that this Upaniṣadic passage ascribes several attributes to Bhūman. These are besides sukha (bliss), satyatva, amṛtatva or immortality, ananyādhāratva or not being dependent on anything else for its existence than its own greatness (sve mahimni pratiṣṭitatva⁶⁵) and sarvātmakatva or that it is the Self of all (sa eva idam sarvam⁶⁶). All these dharmas, as stated by Bādarāyaṇa, are applicable only to Brahman and not to jīvātman. It is therefore concluded that the passage dealing with the theory of Bhūman brings out the characteristic of Brahman as infinitely great (anantabhūmā). As the Inner Controller of all it is higher than all the fifteen entities including prāṇa as stated in the Upaniṣad in an ascending order. (prāṇaḥ satyaḥ parātmā sakala niyamitā gamyate bhūma vākye⁶⁷).

IX Brahman conceived as Akṣara is the Ādhāra of the Universe (Vísvādhāra)

This is the subject-matter of the adhikaraṇa named as Akṣarādhikaraṇa which establishes that akṣara referred to in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad is Brahman by its being the ādhāra or main support of the entire universe by virtue of its supreme commanding power (praśāsana). In an earlier adhikaraṇa titled Adṛśyatvādhikaraṇa, the same ontological principle termed as akṣara, which is described by the Muṇḍaka Upaniṣad as qualified with negative attributes such as adṛśyatva etc. was proved to be Brahman on the basis of the fact that it is described as sarvajña and sarvavit.

In the present adhikaraṇa, the same concept of akṣara which is described in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka with negative qualities such as asthūla, anaṇu etc. is proved to be Brahman on a different ground viz. It is ādhāra or supporter of the universe by virtue of its supreme power to command everything in the universe (praśāsana). The purpose of taking up this issue separately is to establish that akṣara referred to in the teaching of Yājñavalkya to Gārgi is neither prakṛti nor jīvātman.

The relevant sūtras relating to this subject read: Akṣaram ambarānta-dhṛteḥ and sā ca praśāsanāt.⁶⁸

The first sutra means, according to Rāmānuja, that akṣara is Brahman because it is stated in the Upaniṣad that it is the supporter (dhṛti) of the entire universe beginning from the gross element of earth and culminating in the subtlest unmanifest ākāśa (sūkṣma-bhūta ākāśa). The second sūtra means that akṣara is the supporter of all that exists because of its supreme command (praśāsanāt). The fuller implication of the sutras can be understood with reference to the passage of the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad dealing with the teaching of Yājñavalkya to Gārgi on the nature of akṣara. Gārgi poses two searching questions to Yājñavalkya. The first question is:

Yad ūrdhvam, yājñavalkya, divaḥ, yadarvāk pṛthivyāḥ yad antarā dyāvā pṛthivī ime, yad bhūtam ca bhavacca bhaviṣyaccety ācakṣate; kasmin tad otam ca protam ca iti.⁶⁹

"O Yājñavalkya, what is it in which woven like warp and woof that which is above the heaven, which is beneath the earth, that which is between the two, the heaven and earth, that which was in the past, that which is in the present and that which will be in the future."

Yājñavalkya replies that it is the unmanifest ether $(\bar{a}k\bar{a}\hat{s}a)$ in which all these are woven like warp and woof $(\bar{a}k\bar{a}\hat{s}a)$ tadotam ca protam ca)

Gārgi then poses (as her second question) "In what is ākāśa woven like warp and woof?" In reply Yājñavalkya makes the following statement describing akṣara in negative terms:

Sa hovāca, etad vai tad akṣaram, Gārgi, brāhmaṇā abhivadanti, asthūlam, anaṇu, ahṛasvam, adīrgham, alohitam, asneham, accāyam, atamaḥ, avāyu, anākāśam, asaṅgam, avaśam, agandham, acakṣuṣam, aśrotram, avāk, amanaḥ, atejaskam, aprāṇam, amukham, amātram, anantaram, abāhyam, na tad aśnāti kimcana, na tad aśnāti kaścana⁷⁰

"He said: O Gārgi, the knowers of Brahman call that akṣara the imperishable, it is neither gross not subtle, neither short nor long, neither red nor adhesive, it is neither shadow nor darkness, neither air nor space, it is unattached, without taste, without smell, without eyes, without ears, without organ of speech, without mind, without radiance, without breath, without mouth, without measure, having no interior or exterior, it does not eat anything, nor is it eaten by any one."

In the subsequent passage, the same akṣara is described by Yājñavalkya in positive terms. Thus he says:

"etasyā vā akṣarasya praśāsane Gārgi sūryā candramasau vidhṛtau tiṣṭhataḥ; etasya vā akṣarasya praśāsane gārgi dyāvāpṛtihvyau vidhṛte tiṣṭhataḥ; etasy va akṣarasya praśāsane gārgi, nimeṣā muhūrtā ahorātrāṇi, ardhamāsā māsā ṛtavaḥ samvatsarā iti vidhṛtaḥ tiṣṭhanti⁷¹"

'Verily, at the command of this akṣara, Gārgi, the sun and the moon are held in their respective positions; at the command of this akṣara, Gārgi, heaven and earth are held in their respective positions; at the command of this akṣara, the moments, hours, days and nights, fortnights, months, seasons stand in their respective positions'

While concluding this teaching about aksara, Yājñavalkya states:

"Tadvā etadakṣaram, Gārgi, adṛṣṭam draṣṭṛ, aśrutam srotṛ, amatam mantṛ, avijnātam vijnātṛ, nānyad ato' sti draṣṭṛ, nānyad ato'sti śrotṛ, nānyad ato'sti mantṛ, nānyad ato'sti vijnātṛ; etasmin khalu akṣare Gārgi ākāśa otaśca protaśca"⁷²

'Verily, that akṣara, O Gārgi, is unseen but is the seer, is unheard but is the hearer, unthought but is the thinker, unknown but is the knower. There is no other seer but this,

there is no other hearer but this, there is no other thinker but this, there is no other knower but this. But this ak\$ara, Gargi, is the ether $(\bar{a}k\bar{a}\$a)$ woven like a warp and woof.'

In the above passage, it is not quite clear what the term akṣara denotes. It may be pradhāna or the primordial cosmic matter from which the manifest universe evolves. Or it may be the jīvātman which is the basis for prakṛti or it may be Paramātman (Brahman). According to the prima facie view, it is the pradhāna, since at the commencement of the passage it is stated to be the basis for ākāśa and its other modifications. The description in terms of physical qualities such as asthūla, anaņu etc. is applicable to it. Besides the word akṣara is also used in the sense of pradhāna.

Alternatively, akṣara can stand for jīvātman, since it is the basis of everything which is non-sentient such as pṛthivī. The term akṣara is also employed in the Upaniṣad in the sense of jīvātman (avyaktam akṣare līyate).⁷³

Bādarāyana rejects both these views and affirms that aksara is Brahman because of the two characteristics mentioned in the sūtras viz. Ambāranta-dhṛtatva or the capacity to sustain the entire universe and praśāsanatva or its power to command everything in the universe. These characteristics do not apply either to the non-sentient prakṛti, or to the jīvātman (anitaraniyata). The passage brings out vividly how Brahman holds everything in the universe in their respective places through its supreme commanding power. Another important reason in support of this view is that aksara is stated in the passage as drsta or seer, as śrotā or hearer and as vijñātr or the knower and that there is no other seer, hearer or knower than this Akṣara. This point is also mentioned in the subsequent sūtra which reads: Ananyabhāva vyāvṛtteśca⁷⁴, meaning that the very Upaniṣad makes out the difference between aksara as Brahman and the other two entities viz. prakrti and jīvātman (drastrantarasya vyudāsanam iha tattulya tad drastrapohah)75.

The important point brought out in this adhikaraṇa, as summed up by Vedānta Deśika, is that Brahman who is

designated as akṣara is niyamana dhṛtikṛt, which means that it is ādhāra or supporter of all entities in the universe by virtue of its command (niyamanena śasanena sarva kāryādhāraḥ).⁷⁶

X. Brahman as the Object of Enjoyment for Muktas

This is the subject of a separate adhikarana named as Īkṣatikarmādhikaraṇa which establishes that Brahman is the object of realization through meditation on the syllable 'Aum' mentioned in the Prasnopanisad. This is different from the *İkşatyādhikarana* discussed earlier in which pradhāna of Sāmkhya is ruled out as the cause of the universe on the ground that the function of īksana or will to create the universe is not attributable to it. In the present adhikarana, the subject of discussion relates to the question whether the object realized through the upāsanā on praņava or the syllable 'Aum' is Brahman or the celestial deity named as Hiranyagarbha, also known as Caturmukha Brahmā. The relevance of bringing up this issue, as explained by Vedānta Deśika, is that in the preceding adhikarana, akṣara was proved as Brahman on the basis of the description as adrsto drasțā or that which though not seen visually is a seer, But in the statement of the Prasnopanisad, it is stated that the Paramapurusa or the Supreme Being is visualized by the upāsaka on pranava (purusam īksate), How can then such a Purusa, who becomes the object of vision is regarded as Brahman. To meet this objection Bādarāyana introduces the following sūtra based on the passage of Praśnopanisad: Īksati karma vyapadeśāt saḥ⁷⁷.

It means: "The object of *īkṣaṇa* or vision is Brahman only", because the Upaniṣadic statements directly convey this fact." The fuller implication of the *sūtra* can be understood with reference to the relevant passage of the Praśnopaniṣad. The fifth section of the Praśnopaniṣad dealing with the meditation on the syllable 'Aum' with all the three letters (tisromātra) becomes free from sins and beholds Parama

puruṣa as dwelling in one's heart. The relevant passage reads 'ya punaḥ etam trimātreṇa aum iti etaineva akṣareṇa parama puruṣam abhidhyāyīta, sa tejasi surye sampannaḥ yathā padodaras tvacā vinirmuktaḥ sa sāmabhir unnīyate brahma lokam; sa etasmāt jivaghanāt parātparam puriśayam puruṣam īksate'. 78

"He who meditates on the Highest person (*Parama puruṣam*) with this very syllable with three letters (*a,u,ma*) becomes united with the effulgent sun. As the snake becomes free from its old skin, in the same way he is freed from the sins. He will be lead by *Sāma* (chants) to the *Brahmaloka*. He beholds the Supreme Self (*Puruṣa*) who is higher than the *Jīvaghana* and who dwells in the body (*puriṣayam*).

With regard to this passage, doubt arises whether the Parama Purusa mentioned at the commencement as the object of meditation and also the purusa referred to at the end of the passage described as the object of iksana or realization is Brahman or some other celestial deity such as Hiranyagarbha. According to the prima facie view, it is the Hiranyagarbha because he is stated to be higher than prakṛti and jīva (jīvaghanāt parāt param puruṣa). Besides the Brahmaloka to which the person meditating on Parama Purusa is first taken is the abode of caturmukha brahmā. According to the passage those who meditate on two syllables of Aum attain higher heavenly felicity. But one who meditates on the purusa with all the three letters reaches Brahma-loka. Brahma-loka, which is above antarikṣa-loka, represents the region of caturmukha Brahmā or Hiranyagarbha.

The above theory is rejected by Bādarāyana on the ground that the object of īkṣaṇa or what is visualized by the upāsaka, is Brahman. By way of explaining the reason advanced in the sūtra in favour of this view, Rāmānuja points out that according to tatkratu nyāya, whatever is the object of meditation, the same is attained. If the upāsaka meditates on the Supreme Brahman with the support of the syllable Aum with all the three letters, he should attain

the same Brahman and not Hiranyagarbha or the lower Brahman, as Śamkara contends. Besides, the Upanisad states that the upāsaka becomes free from all sins, that is, he is liberated from bondage and it is but appropriate that the liberated soul attains the Brahman proper. Further, at the conclusion of the passage, the Upanisad points out that the upāsaka attains through the path of Aumkāra, Brahman which is described as tranquil (santam), unaging (ajaram), immortal (amrtam) and fearless (abhayam). The relevant statement reads: Tam aumkārenaiva-āyatanena anveti vidvān yat tat śāntam ajaram amṛtam abhayam param ca79. These characteristics do not apply to Hiranyagarbha. All these dharmas in their primary sense are applicable only to Brahman. The statement 'jivaghanāt parāt param puriśayam purusam īksate', which bears the same meaning as the Mundaka Upanișad text 'nāmarūpād vimuktah parāt param purusam upaiti divyam', conveys clearly that what is attained by the liberated soul is Paramātman (Brahman) and not Hiranyagarbha. Vedanta Deśika therefore concludes that the İksatikarmādhikarana establishes that Brahman is the object of attainment by the muktas (Muktabhogyasvabhāvah⁸⁰).

XI. Brahman as the Subtle Space within the Heart (Daharākāśa)

This is the subject-matter of the Daharādhikaraṇa which discusses the question whether the concept of Daharākāśa or the subtle space within one's heart mentioned in the famous Chāndogya passage as the object of meditation along with certain attributes refers to Brahman or some other entity such as bhūtākāśa (ethereal space) or jīvātman.

The Upanișad states:

'Atha yad-idam asmin brahmapure daharam puṇḍarīkam veśma, daharośmin antarākāśaḥ tasmin yadantaḥ, tad-anveṣṭavyam tad vāva vijijñāsitavyam'81

"Now, herein this city of Brahman is an abode, a small lotus (of the heart), within it is the small $\bar{a}k\bar{a}\dot{s}a$; what is within that small $\bar{a}k\bar{a}\dot{s}a$, that should be sought; that is what one should desire to know."

In this statement couched in a symbolic language, the word brahmapura, as explained by the commentators, refers to the human body since it is chosen by Brahman as its residence to enable the upāsaka to mediate on it. Brahmaveśma or the abode of Brahman is the human heart which is figuratively described as lotus-like abode (puṇḍarīkaveśma); Within this heart of the body, there is a small or subtle space known as dahara ākāśa (dahara meaning alpa or small). The daharākāśa along with what it contains within it (tasmin yadantaḥ) is to be meditated upon.

What is this *daharākāśa*? The Upaniṣad itself comes up with the following description:

"Yavān vā ayam ākāśaḥ tāvān eṣo antarhṛdaya ākāśaḥ, ubhe asmin dyāvāpṛthvī antareva samāhite; ubhau agniśca vāyuśca sūryā candramasau ubhau, vidyun nakṣatrāṇi, yacca asti yacca nāsti sarvaṁ tad asmin samāhitam." 82

As far as this (ethereal) space extends, so far extends the space within the heart. Within it are contained both heaven and earth, both fire and air, both sun and moon, lightning and the stars; and whatever there is in this world and whatever is not, all that is contained within it (the ākāśa in the heart).

The question is raised: if everything that exists is contained in this city of Brahman, then what is left of it when old age overcomes it or when it perishes?

In reply the Upanișad says:

"Nāsyā jarayā jīryati, na vadhenāsya hanyate etat satyam brahmapuram, asmin kāmāḥ samāhitāḥ, eṣa ātmā apahatapāpmā vijaro vimṛtyuḥ visoka vijighatso apipāsaḥ satyakāmaḥ satyasamkalpaḥ."⁸³

"With old age of the body this (daharākāśa) does not age; with the death of the body, it does not die. It is eternal (satyam). In it all desires (auspicious qualities) are contained.

It is the ātmā which is free from evil, free from old age, death, grief, hunger, thirst, whose needs are fulfilled and whose desires are not obstructed."

What does this daharākāśa which is to be meditated denote? There are three possible views. It can be the physical space (bhūtākāśa), since the word ākāśa is commonly understood in that sense. It can also denote jīvātman since the eight attributes mentioned in the passage can also be ascribed to it. Besides in the later part of the passage a reference is made to jīvātman by the word 'eṣa ātmā'. The description of the daharākāśa as subtle entity also supports the theory of jīva. The third alternative is that daharākāśa refers to Paramātman.

Bādarāyana rejects the first two alternatives and upholds that daharākāśa enjoined for meditation is Paramātman (Brahman). The relevant sūtra reads: dahara uttarebhyah⁸⁴. The word dahara means the subtle space and it is regarded as Brahman. The word uttarebhyah means on account of the reasons provided in the later statements of the Upanişad (uttarebhyo vākyagatebhyo hetubhyah). The first important reason in support of it is that the Upanisad states clearly that this ātmā (eṣa ātmā) is free from evil (apahata pāpmā), free from old age, death, grief, hunger, whose needs are always fulfilled (satyakāma) and whose desires are not obstructed(satyasamkalpah). Ātmā in its primary sense refers to Brahman. The attributes, particularly, the apahata pāpmatva, satyakāmatva, satyasamkalpatva are applicable only to Paramātman and not to bhutākāśa. The second reason in support of it is that the subtle ākāśa within the heart is stated to be of the same magnitude and excellence as the ākāśa outside and within it are contained the heaven and earth, the agni and the vāyu, the sun and the moon, the stars and the lightning. Such a description does not fit with the bhūtākāśa. Further as Vedānta Deśika points out, the term ākāśa, in Upanisadic parlance is well known to imply Paramātman (śrautī ca syāt prasiddhiḥ bhagavati). Thus in the statement of the Taittirīya Upaniṣad 'yadeṣa ākāśa ānando

na syāt'85 the word ākāśa clearly refers to Brahman.

Besides, the Brahmapura is regarded as satya (etat satyam brahmapuram) and that it is also ātmā (eṣa ātmā). These expressions are not applicable to bhūtākāśa. (satyātmabrahma śabda nabhasi kathamapi anvayam na prāpnuvanti). In the same passage it is also stated in reply to the question, what is there to be sought within daharākāśa (kim tadantaḥ vidyate yad anveṣṭavyaḥ), the Upaniṣad says that all desires are contained in it (kāmāḥ samāhitāḥ). kāmās here refer to the auspicious attributes of Paramātman (kāmyante iti kāmāḥ). What is thus enjoined in the passage is the meditation on daharākāśa as Brahman along with the eight attributes mentioned in the Upaniṣadic statement (tadguṇaḥ cintyamānaḥ). The daharākāśa cannot therefore be bhūtākāśa.

If the daharākāśa cannot be the bhūtākāśa, it may be possible to regard it as jīvātman. Two arguments are advanced in support of this view. First, eight attributes mentioned in the passage can be ascribed to it. Secondly, in the later passage dealing with the teaching of Prajāpati to Indra, a reference is made to jīvātman and its status after it is liberated from bondage. Besides, the description of the ākāśa in terms of alpatva or smallness in magnitude also favours the theory of jīva.

These arguments are untenable, contends Vedānta Deśika. It is true that jīva is also stated to be free from evil (apahatapāpmā), free from old age, death etc. and also it is satyakāma and satyasamkalpa. But these eight guṇas are ascribed to jīva only after it is totally liberated from bondage. The author of the sūtra states: Uttarāt cet āvirbhūta svarūpastu.⁸⁷ It means: If it is said that from the subsequent passage jīva is referred to, it is intended to convey the fact that the jiva manifests itself with all these attributes after it is liberated from bondage and attains Brahman. These guṇas are natural (svābhāvika) in respect of Paramātman, but not so in the case of jīvatman. In the state of bondage, these guṇas are eclipsed due to karma and they become manifest after it is liberated from bondage out of the grace



3

3

of the Supreme Being (Paramātma prasādena jīvasya satyasaņkalpatvādikam). The Chāndogya also states: Evam evaisa samprasādo asmāt śarīrāt samuṭhāya param jyotir upasampadya svena rūpeṇa abhiniṣpadyate.⁸⁸

It means: "The serene being (jīva) after having risen from the body and having attained the Supreme Light manifests itself in its true form."

Only in the state of mokṣa, jīva manifests itself with these eight qualities. The Muṇḍaka also states that the jīva, when it is free from bondage, attains an equal status with that of Brahman⁸⁹. Further, the daharākāśa is stated to be the support for the entire universe (viśvaikadhāraka) and this special feature is not applicable to jīvātman. The smallness or the subtle nature (alpatva) of Paramātman is due to the limitation of the inner recess of the heart (aupādhikī) and it is assumed by Paramātman by His will for the sake of meditation by the upāsakas. It is not therefore His natural form (svābhāvika). Hence the possibility of daharākāśa being jīvātman does not arise⁹⁰.

The question is raised as to why in this Chandogya passage dealing with the meditation on daharākāśa as Brahman, the theory of jīvātman comes up in the later part of the passage in which Prajapati instructs Indra about jīvātman. Are these two teachings about the meditation on jīvātma different? Or are they the same thing? The commentators also differ in their views regarding this matter. Vedānta Deśika, on the basis of Rāmānuja Bhāṣya, explains that the two teachings are interconnected. The later passage containing Prajāpati's teachings is subordinate to the earlier teaching on daharākāśa. The purpose of bringing up the teaching about jīvātman in this context is to show that meditation on daharākāśa as Brahman confers mokṣa to the upāsaka91 and also to explain the nature of the goal to be attained by the jīva (prāpya niṣkarṣaṇārtham92). There is no conflict or contradiction between the dahara vidyā dealing with meditation on Paramātma and Pratyagātmavidyā as contained in the teachings of Prajāpati. The latter

is not a separate teaching unconnected with the former. According to Rāmānuja, the knowledge of jīvātman is useful and also serves as a subordinate means (aṅga) for the attainment of Paramātman, which is the Supreme Goal. The Chāndogya text also says 'yastam ātmānam anuvidya vijānāti⁹³' – "He who has known this ātman (jīvatman) and meditates on it (vijānāti) attains all desires."On the basis of the foregoing discussion. Vedānta Deśika comes to the conclusion that the Daharādhikaraṇa reveals that Brahman which abides in the inner recess of the heart as subtle space (daharākāśa) is the support of the entire universe (Dahara svādhāra sarva lokah⁹⁴).

XII. Brahman as Anguşthamātra Puruşa is Sarvaniyantā

This is the subject-matter of a separate adhikarana named Pramitādhikaraņa which discusses whether the purusa abiding in one's heart limited to the size of a thumb of a human being (angustha-mātra purusa), as described in the Katha Upanisad refers to Brahman or jīvātman. There is a particular reason for taking up this subject for consideration. In the preceding section it was shown that dahara-ākāsa, though it is of the smallest magnitude, is Brahman because Brahman abides in that form in the inner recess of the heart for the purpose of meditation by the spiritual aspirants. The question arises whether the description of purusa in the Katha Upanisad as of the magnitude of a human thumb and as abiding within one's heart could be Brahman. In order to clarify this point, Bādarāyaṇa introduces the following sūtra based on the concerned statement of the Katha Upanisad: Śabdādeva pramitah95. It means: "The Purusa of the size of the human thumb is Paramātman (Brahman) because the very Scriptural text speaks about it in terms applicable to Brahman. The following Upanișadic passage of Katha Upanisad makes this point clear:

'anguşthamātrah puruso madhya ātmai tisthati; īśāno bhūtabhavyasya na tato vijugupsate, etad, vai tat'96

"The puruṣa who is only of the size of the thumb abides in the centre of the body; He is the Ruler of the past and future and He is not affected by it in any way. This is that."

A doubt arises with regard to this statement as to whether this *puruṣa* who is said to be of the size of the thumb could be *Paramātman*. In the Śvetāśvatara Upaniṣad we come across the following statement:

'Prāṇādhipaḥ samcarati svakarmabhiḥ anguṣṭhamātrah⁹⁷'"The ruler of the indriyas (sense organs) of the size of only
the thumb functions in accordance with his karmas." If this
statement is taken into consideration, it follows that the puruṣa
described as of the size of the thumb is jīvātman, since it is
associated with the sense organs and it functions in
accordance with its past karmas. This is the prima facie view.

This view is rejected by Bādarāyaṇa. The main reason is that the very Upaniṣadic text describing puruṣa as anguṣṭa-mātraḥ states that this puruṣa is the Ruler of all that exists in the past, present and future. Such a puruṣa as īśāna cannot be jīvātman but only Paramātman (Brahman).

The reason for describing Brahman as of the size of the thumb is that Brahman resides in the heart of a human being to enable him to meditate on it. The human heart is conceived as of the size of the thumb of a human being only for the purpose of meditation. Paramātman, who indwells in it is therefore regarded as of the size of the thumb. This limitation imposed on the Brahman does not constitue His natural form. It is assumed by Him out of His free will for the sake of the upāsakas to enable them to meditate on Him who is present within own's heart. As Bādarāyana states Brahman is described as of the size of angustha only with reference to the human heart, since only human beings are eligible for upāsanā on Brahman. The relevant sūtra reads: Hrdyapekṣayā tu manuṣyādhikāratvāt.98 This rules out the possibility of the presence of Brahman as of the size of angustha in other living beings, such as animals, reptiles, insects etc. since they do not have the capacity for upāsanā. Such a Brahman who resides in the heart of the

upāsakas is regarded by the Upaniṣads as Īśāna or Controller of all beings (sarvaniyantā).

XIII. Brahman as the Object of Meditation for Devatās

As allied to the concept of Brahman as anguṣṭhamātra puruṣa, the question is raised whether the celestial deities (devatās), who are regarded as higher category of beings, are eligible for upāsanā. Among the devatās, there is a special category of celestial deities known as vasus, rudras, ādityas, maruts and sādhyas who have attained a special status on account of their having already done some good deeds. Among the human beings also, one category of persons who, according to the Hindu caste system, are regarded as śūdras, are not eligible for the study of the Vedas and Vedānta. The author of Brahma-sūtra considers the question of the eligibility of all these categories of individuals – the devatās in general, the special devatās such as vasus and the śūdras – for the upāsanā on Brahman. There are three adhikaraṇas dealing with these matters. These are named as:

- 1) Devatādhikaraņa
- 2) Madhvādhikaraņa
- 3) Apaśūdrādhikaraņa

The first topic has reference to the theory advanced by Jaimini, the exponent of Pūrva-mīmāmsā, who does not admit the possibility of upāsanā for the devatās on the ground that they do not possess physical body and indriyas unlike human beings and hence do not have the capacity and required eligibility for meditation on Brahman. But Bādarāyaṇa rejects this view of Jaimini and upholds that devatās too have the knowledge of Brahman and eligibility to observe meditation. They also possess body and the sense organs, as is evident from the Scriptural texts.

The second adhikarana has reference to the passage in Chāndogya dealing with Madhuvidyā. 99 The prima facie view advanced regarding this matter is that the special

deities such as *vasus* etc. are themselves the objects of meditation and hence these deities are not required to do the meditation on Brahman. This view is also rejected by Bādarāyaṇa on the ground that they can meditate on Brahman as their *Antaryāmin*. The relevant *sūtra* reads: *Bhāvaṃtu Bādarāyaṇo asti hi.*¹⁰⁰

Regarding the third topic, this has reference to the Chāndogya passage dealing with Samvarga-vidyā¹⁰¹ or meditation on vāyu as samvarga. In this passage containing a dialogue between the sage Raikva and Jānaśruti a ksatriya, who does not possess Brahman knowledge, Raikva addresses Jānaśruti as śūdra in the sense of one who is afflicted with grief due to lack of Brahman knowledge (asya śuk sūcyate iti śūdrah). In this connection the question is raised whether the śūdras, the persons belonging to the lowest caste, are eligible for meditation on Brahman, since they are not permitted, according to the Vedic tradition, for recitation of Vedas. Bādarāyana takes the view on the authority of the Scriptural texts that śūdras are not eligible for Brahma-vidyā. The relevant sūtra reads: Śravanādhyanārtha pratisedhāt102 - "Because śūdras are prohibited by Srutis from hearing Vedas and studying them."

All these topics are not of philosophical significance. Even according to the author of the Brahma-sūtra, these are incidental topics (prāsangika). We need not therefore go into the details of these adhikaraṇas. We shall only take note of the following conclusions drawn by Vedānta Deśika with reference to these adhikaraṇas, as far as Brahman is concerned:

- 1) Brahman is the object of meditation for the devatās (devādīnam upāsyah)
- 2) The vasus and other deities meditate on Brahman as their Antaryāmin (vasumukhavibudhaiḥ svātmabhāvena sevyaḥ)
- Sūdras are not eligible for meditation on Brahman (sūdrād yopāsty-anarhah¹⁰³)

XIV. Brahman as the nāma-rūpa Nirvahitā

This is the subject-matter of the last adhikaraṇa of the third pāda of first adhyāya named Arthāntaratvādi-vyapadeśādhi-karaṇa, which discusses the issue whether ākāśa described in the Chāndogya as nāma-rūpa nirvahitā or that which performs the function of giving names and form to the created objects, is muktātmā or Paramātmā.

This subject is also incidental to the theory of daharākāśa as Brahman discussed earlier with reference to the Chāndogya passage dealing with the meditation on it. Towards the end of the passage dealing with Daharavidyā, the Upanisad states: ākāśo ha vai nāmarūpayoḥ nirvahitā, te yadantarā tad brahmā tad amṛtam sa ātmā'¹⁰⁴.

"This very ākāśa is the one which performs the task of giving names and forms to all that is created. The created universe of names and forms is in Brahman, that is immortal, that itself is Ātmā."

Preceding this text, the following statement is found:

Aśva iva romāṇi vidhūya pāpam candra iva rāhoḥ mukhāt pramucya, dhūtvā śarīram akṛtam kṛtātmā brahma lokam abisambhavāmi¹⁰⁵

"Shaking off evil as a horse shakes off its hairs, shaking off the body as the moon frees itself from the mouth of *Rāhu*, I as a perfected self obtain the eternal abode of Brahman."

The question that is raised with reference to the later passage is: what does ākāśa described as nāma-rūpa nirvahitā stand for? Does it refer to the muktātmā (liberated self) or Paramātmā?

The prima facie view is that the term ākāśa here denotes the muktātmā since in the preceding statement it is mentioned that the individual self attains brahma-loka after totally being liberated from the shackles of bondage. It is but appropriate to admit that the liberated self is ākāśa which can be regarded as nāma-rūpa kartā. In the state of bondage it was associated with a name and form and the same in the state of liberation exists without a name and form. Jīvātman is



described as Brahma, that is, it attains brahma-bhāva and also amṛta or immortality.

This view is rejected by Bādarāyana. The main reason advanced is that the Upanisadic text clearly conveys the idea that ākāśa referred to here is different from both the bound jīva and liberated jīva. The relevant sūtra reads: Ākāśo arthantaratvādi vyapadeśāt. 106 It means that ākāśa is Brahman, because of the indication that it is different from jīva. That is, the expression 'nāma-rūpa nirvāhakatva' or the function of giving names and forms to the different entities in the universe cannot be ascribed either to the bound jīva or the liberated jīva. The baddha jīva in its variety of forms as devas, humans, animals etc. derives the names and different forms from Paramatman in accordance with the karma. Hence it cannot itself perform this function in respect of all the entities in the universe. The muktātmā also cannot perform this function because in the state of moksa it is devoid of the capacity of cosmic functions which exclusively belong to Brahman. It therefore follows that only Brahman is the nāma-rūpa kartā. The Upanisadic text supports this. Thus says the Chandogya: 'anena jīvena ātmanā anupraviśya nāma rūpe vyākaravāņi'107 - "Brahman along with the jīva enters into the created objects and provides names and forms to them." Hence, the ākāśa referred to in the Upanisadic statement as nāma-rūpa kartā is Brahman.

Further, in the preceding statement, it is stated that the liberated jīvātman attains brahma-loka (brahmalokam abhisambhavāmi). The word brahma-loka does not mean the loka of Brahman (brahmaṇah lokaḥ) but it is interpreted as Brahman itself (Brahma eva brahmalokaḥ). It therefore becomes the goal of attainment for muktātmā. The term ākāśa used in the subsequent statement in the text refers to Brahman which is attained (Abhisambhāvyaḥ puroktā eva ayam punar-upāttaḥ¹os). Since jīva even in the state of mokṣa does not have the capacity to do the cosmic function of giving names and forms to created objects, ākāśa in the subsequent passage is to be admitted as Paramātman (Brahman).

Further, the ākāśa as nāma-rūpa kartā is described as Brahma (etad brahma). The term brahma cannot be understood as brahmāvasthā or the state of Brahman, since jīva does not attain a new status of brahmāvasthā after it is liberated. If what is attained is a new form, then it cannot be eternal. Hence brahmatva is not a new avasthā (brahmatvam avasthā na hi). Ākāśa as Brahman eternally exists as Brahman.

Another important reason in support of ākāśa as nāmarūpa kartā is that the Upaniṣad itself draws a clear distinction between jīva and Brahman (śrutiṣu yugapad jñāna ajñānatā vibhaktaḥ¹09). The Muṇḍaka Upaniṣad¹¹0 says that Īśvara is jña or omniscient, whereas jīva is ajña or ignorant one. One is Ruler (īśa) and the other is the one ruled by Īśvara, i.e. Anīśa. Hence it is not possible to regard muktātmā as nāma-rūpa kartā. Vedānta Deśika, therefore, concludes that this adhikaraṇa establishes that ākāśa as the nāmarūpa kartā is Brahman (nāmarūpaika kartā).

- 1. VS I-2-1
- 2. Ch. Up. III-14-1
- 3. Ch. Up. III-14-1 and 2.
- 4. Mund. Up. II-1-2
- 5. Kena. Up. I-2 prāṇasya prāṇaḥ
- 6. Ch. Up. III-14-2.
- Ibid III-14-3. eşa ma ātmā antarhṛdaye aniyān vrihervā yavādvā sarṣapādvāeṣa me ātmā antarhṛdaye jyāyān pṛthivyā jyāyān antariksāt.
- 8. See fn. 7 above.
- 9. See VS I-2-7 See also As verse 85
- 10. AS verse 98.
- 11. Kaṭha Up. I-2-25
- 12. VS I-2-9
- 13. AS verse 86
- 14. Kaṭha. Up. I-3-3
- 15. VS I-2-11
- Dravyāsu vyavasāyeşu sattvamastrī tu jantuşu. The term sattva used in non-feminic gender (astrī), denotes jantu, that is, a living being.
- 17. See AS verse 87
- 18. Ch. Up. IV-15-1

- 19. VS I-2-13
- 20. Ch. Up. IV-15-2 to 4.
- 21. Ch. Up. IV-10-5
- 22. RB I-2-16
- 23. VS II-2-16
- 24. AS verse 88
- 25. Ibid verse 89
- 26. VS I-2-19
- 27. Br Up. V-7-3
- 28. Br. Up. (Mādhyandina version) V-7-22
- 29. Br. Up. V-7-23
- 30. See Cintāmaņi on AS verse 91
- 31. See VS I-2-21 ubhaye'pi hi bhedenainam adhīyate
- 32. See AS Verse 92
- 33. See AS verse 98
- 34. VS I-2-22
- 35. Mund. Up. I-1-5
- 36. Mund. Up II-1-2
- 37. AS verse 93
- 38. See Cintāmaņi akṣarāt prakṛteh paratarah jīvāt paraḥ parama puruṣaḥ iti vākya yojanā
- See Mund. Up. Etasmāt jāyate prāņo manah sarvendriyāni ca; kham vāyur-jyotir-āpah pṛthivī viśvasya dhārinī.
- 40. Mu. Up. II-1-4
- 41. Ch. Up. V-11-6
- 42. Ch. Up. V-18-1
- 43. VS I-2-25
- 44. See Ch. Up. V-24-3. tad-yathā iṣīkatūlamagnau protam pradūyeta, evam hy-āsya sarve pāpmānaḥ pradūyante
- 45. See Ch. Up V-12-2 to V-17-2, See also Mund. Up.II-I-4
- 46. See Padayojanā, verse 94
- 47. See VS-1-2-27. śabdādibhyo antahpratisthānācca na iti cen na tathā drstyupadeśād asambhavāt- purusamapi cainam adhīyate
- 48. See VS I-2-28. Ata eva na devatābhūtam ca
- 49. See VS I-2-29
- 50. Mund. Up. II-2-5
- 51. Mund. Up. II-2-6
- 52. VS I-3-1
- 53. VS I-3-2. muktopasrpya vyapadeśāt
- 54. Mund. Up. III-1-2
- 55. Ibid III-2-8
- 56. See Mund. Up. III-1-1 and 2. See also VS I-3-4. bhedavyapadešāt and VS I-3-6. Sthityadanābhyāri ca
- 57. AS verse 102.
- 58. See Cintāmani on verse 103. antaryāmitvena adhisthānamātrasyaiva caraņa-śabda vācyaḥ.

- 59. VS I-3-7
- 60. Ch. Up. VIII-12-2
- 61. See Ch. Up. VII-15-1 to 4.
- 62. Ibid VII-16-1
- 63. Ch. Up. VII-16-1
- 64. *Ibid* VII-23-1
- 65. Ch. Up. VII-24-2. See also As verse 106
- 66. See fn. 65 above.
- 67. AS verse 107
- 68. VS I-3-9 and I-3-10
- 69. Br. Up. V-8-7
- 70. Br. Up. V-8-8
- 71. Ibid V-8-9
- 72. Ibid V-8-11
- 73. See Subala. Up. II-1
- 74. VS I-3-11
- 75. AS verse 108
- 76. See AS verse 129
- 77. VS I-3-12
- 78. Praśna Up. V-5
- 79. Praśna. Up. V-7. See also AS verse 109
- 80. AS verse 129. See also Cintāmaņi, muktaih upabhogya svabhāvah
- 81. Ch. Up. VIII-1-1
- 82. Ch. Up. VIII-1-3
- 83. Ch. Up. VIII-1-5
- 84. VS I-3-13
- 85. Tait. II-7
- 86. AS verse 112
- 87. VS I-3-18
- 88. Ch. Up. VIII-3-4
- 89. Mund. Up. III-1-2
- 90. AS verse 114
- 91. Ibid verse 115. daharākāsa apavarga prada iti gaditum samprasādoktiratra prājāpatye tu vākye para pari pathanam prāpya niṣkarṣaṇārtham
- 92. See fn 91.
- 93. Ch. Up. VIII-7-1
- 94. AS verse 129
- 95. VS I-3-23
- 96. Katha Up. I-4-12
- 97. Svet. Up. V-7-8
- 98. VS I-3-24
- 99. Ch. Up. III-1 to 11
- 100. VS I-3-32
- 101. Ch. Up. IV-1 to 3
- 102. VS I-3-38

- 103. See AS verse 129
- 104. Ch. Up. VIII-14-1
- 105. Ch. Up. VIII-14-1
- 106. VS I-3-42
- 107. Ch. Up. VI-3-2
- 108. AS verse 128
- 109. AS verse 128
- 110. Mund. Up. I-9

CHAPTER FOUR

BRAHMAN AS THE CAUSE OF THE UNIVERSE

In the preceding two chapters we have presented the nature and distinguishing characteristics of Brahman as enunciated by Badarayana in the first three padas of the first adhyāya on the basis of the Upanisadic teachings. The present chapter is devoted to outline another important characteristic of Brahman viz that it is the sole cause of the universe (jagatkāraņa). Though in the Janmādhyadhikaraņa, while defining the nature of Brahman, it is established that Brahman is the primary cause of the creation, sustenance and dissolution of the universe it is considered necessary to re-establish this theory. This need arises because there are a few important passages in the Upanisads, particularly in the Katha, Brhadaranyaka, Śvetaśvatara and Kausitaki, which convey the idea in more unambiguous terms (spastatara) that either the prakrti, also termed as avyakta or purusa, a sentient principle higher than non-sentient prakrti, is the cause of the universe. These passages, prima facie reflect the theories of Sāmkhya and Yoga, the two schools of thought which were predominant during the time of Bādarāyana. Bādarāyana therefore devotes special attention to the examination of these passages and shows that even the statements referring to the prakṛti and puruṣa in these Upanisads support the Vedanta theory of Brahman as the sole cause of the universe. The following eight adhikaranas of the fourth pada of first adhyaya deal with this matter.

- 1. Ānumānikādhikaraņa
- 2. Camasādhikaraņa
- 3. Samkhyopasangrahādhikaraņa
- 4. Kāraņatvādhikaraņa
- 5. Jagadvācitvādhikaraņa
- 6. Vākyānvayādhikaraņa
- 7. Prakrtyādhikaraņa
- 8. Sarvavyākhāynādhikaraņa

The first two adhikaranas attempt to prove that the terms avyakta and ajā, employed in the Upanisad do not support the Sāmkhya theory of pradhāna as the cause of the universe. The third topic explains that the mere enumeration of twenty five principles (pañca-pañca-janāḥ) does not imply the Sāmkhya theory of twenty five categories. The fourth one points out that the concept of avyākrta or unmanifest state of the universe referred to in the Brhadaranyaka, does not rule out Brahman as the direct cause of the universe. The fifth and sixth adhikaranas are aimed to prove that neither the purușa as baddha jīva nor the Ātman as muktātmā can be the cause of the universe. The seventh adhikarana is devoted to refute the Sāṁkhya theory of Īśvara as nimitta kārana or instrumental cause of the universe and establish that Brahman is the upādāna kāraņa or the material cause and also the nimitta kārana or instrumental cause. The eighth adhikarana points out briefly that all other Upanisadic statements which refer to some of the higher celestial deities imply that Brahman is the sole cause of the universe, in accordance with the principles of interpretation adopted in the earlier adhikaranas. We shall deal with all these topics except 7, in the present chapter. Regarding topic 7 (Prakrtyādhikarana), it discusses the theory of Brahman as the material cause of the universe. As this is an important subject in Vedanta and is also open to some objections raised by the Sāmkhyas and Vaiśesikas, we shall deal with it separately in the next chapter on 'The Doctrine of universe and Brahman'.

I. Avyakta conceived as prakṛti is not the cause of the universe.

This is the subject of the adhikaraṇa named Ānumānikādhikaraṇa. The word ānumānika means what is proved by inference. In the present context, it refers to prakṛti, also termed as avyakta, which is established as the cause of the universe by the Sāṁkhyas on the basis of inferential argument (anumāna). It is claimed by the Sāṁkhyas that the following passage of the Kaṭha Upaniṣad supports this view:

Indriyebhyah parāhy-arthā arthebhyasca param manah; manasastu parā buddhih buddher ātmā mahān parah; mahatah param avyaktām, avyaktāt puruṣaḥ paraḥ; puruṣānna param kiñcit sā kāṣṭhā sā parā gatiḥ¹

"The (sense) objects are of greater force than the sense organs. The mind is more important than the sense objects. Greater than the mind is the buddhi or intellect. More important than buddhi is the mahān-ātmā. Greater than the mahān-ātmā is the avyakta. Greater than avyakta is the puruṣa or the self and there is nothing beyond this."

This passage is construed in favour of the two ultimate principles of Sāmkhya viz prakṛti and puruṣa. The prakṛti is claimed to be the cause of the universe, since it is stated in the passage that there is nothing higher than puruṣa. This is the prima facie view advanced against the Vedānta theory of Brahman as the cause of the universe.

This view is rejected by Bādarāyaṇa on the ground that the term avyakta in the passage does not denote the Sāṁkhya concept of pradhāna, but on the contrary it refers to the physical body(śarīra) in the context of the illustration of the chariot (ratha) and the master of the chariot (rathī) cited by the Upaniṣad to explain the mode of control of the senses and mind for the purpose of attainment of the highest Spiritual Goal. The earlier part of the Kaṭha Upaniṣad enumerates how the senses, mind and intellect have to be progressively controlled by the spiritual aspirant on the analogy of the master of the chariot (rathī) and the chariot (ratha). Thus it is stated:

Ātmānam rathinam viddhi śarīram rathameva ca; buddhim tu sārathim viddhi manah pragrahameva ca; indriyāņi hayānyāhuh viṣayāmsteṣu gocarān²

"Know the master of the chariot as the ātman (the self in this body), the chariot as the physical body. Know the buddhi as the charioteer and the mind as the reins (pragraha). The senses are to be regarded as the horses and the objects of the senses as the paths treaded by the horses."

The above analogy of the chariot and the master of the chariot is intended to explain how it is important for the seeker of moksa to control the mind and the senses in order to attain the Supreme Goal which is described by the Upanisad as the Abode of Visnu (paramapada). In the context of this analogy of the charioteer and the chariot drawn by the horses, this passage explains the relative importance of the various factors such as the sense objects, the senses, the buddhi and the mind which are to be controlled by the spiritual aspirant. (vividhā vaṣīkārya mukhyakramoktih3). Thus the passage tells that the sense objects are of greater force than the sense organs since the presence of the objects can disturb the senses. The mind is more important than the senses because even in the absence of objects, the mind becomes attracted to them. Greater than the mind is *buddhi* because in the absence of determined will (adhyavasāya), mind does not remain controlled. More important than buddhi is the mahān-ātmā which means acc. to Rāmānuja, the individual self which is the agent of all actions (kartā). Greater than mahān-ātmā is the avyakta which, in the present context denotes the physical body as it is compared to the chariot. Greater than the body is the self which is compared to the master of the chariot (*rathī*). Greater than the self is the Purusa or the Supreme Self (Paramātman) which is the goal to be attained, as stated in the Upanisad (so adhvanah pāram āpnoti tadvisnoh paramam padam4)

In view of these explanations, the avyakta referred to in the passage does not denote the pradhāna of Sāṁkhya. On the contrary, it denotes the physical body. As stated by Bādarāyaṇa, the body is regarded as avyakta since it is the modification or the product of the primordial cosmic matter, which during dissolution assumes the state of avyakta or subtle form⁵. Further, the statement 'There is nothing higher than the puruṣa and that it is the ultimate Goal' conveys the idea that Viṣṇu (Brahman)as the ultimate Goal is to be attained by the spiritual aspirant. This is evident from the following text.

'So adhvanaḥ param āpnoti tadviṣṇoḥ paramaṁ padaṁ' Thus there is no room to interpret this passage in favour of the Sāṁkhya theory of pradhāna.

Vedānta Deśika points out that the passage taken as it is even without reference to the analogy of ratha and rathi cannot favour the Sāmkhya theory. According to Sāmkhya, there is no causal relationship between sense objects and the senses since the indriyas are not the products of objects. Nor is the mind the cause of the objects. Buddhi does not cause the mind nor does buddhi cause mahat because according to the Sāmkhya theory of evolution buddhi itself is mahat-tattva. Hence it follows that the term avyakta denotes śarīra or the physical body and not prakṛti (avyaktoktiḥ śarīre⁷).

II. Ajā conceived as prakṛti is not the cause of the universe.

This subject is discussed in a separate adhikaraṇa named Camasādhikaraṇa. In the preceding adhikaraṇa it was shown that the term avyakta used in the Kaṭha Upaniṣad refers to the physical body (śarīra) and not prakṛti of Sāmkhya. The present adhikaraṇa discusses whether the term 'Ajā' employed in the Śvetāśvatara Upaniṣad in connection with the creation of the universe refers to the prakṛti of the Sāmkhya. The prima facie view which is advanced on the basis of the following Upaniṣadic text is that it implies that prakṛti which is unborn, that is, not having an origin, is the cause of the universe.

Ajām ekām lohitaśuklakṛṣṇām bahvīḥ prajāḥ sṛjamāṇām sarūpāḥ; ajo hy eko juṣamāṇonuśete jahāty enām bhukta bhogyām ajonyaḥ⁸

"This one is unborn red, white and black, which gives birth to many creatures similar to itself; and an unborn lies attached to it and enjoys it, while another unborn gives it up having had its enjoyment."

This passage may be construed in favour of the Sāmkhya theory of prakṛti and puruṣa since the word ajā literally means the 'she-goat' and the second word 'ajā' as 'he-goat' and the words red, white and black as the three stripes of the she-goat. The first word 'ajā' can be taken as the prakṛti which is constituted of three qualities sattva, rajas and tamas and the second word aja as the individual soul respectively. Both are unborn (aja) in the sense that they have no beginning. The soul which is bound (baddha) is attached to prakṛti whereas the soul which is liberated is free from attachment to it. The word 'sṛjamāṇām' or that which gives birth to many creatures, conveys the idea of prakṛti as the independent cause of the variegated universe (svātantryena nikhila-janakatā), as conceived by the Sāmkhyas.

Bādarāyaṇa rejects this view. The main reason advanced is that the word aja is a general term which only means that it has no beginning. But the Upaniṣadic statement in which it is employed does not specify that aja, understood as the prakṛti can be the cause of the universe independently, that is, without the guidance or control of Brahman, as Vedāntins maintain (abrahmātmakā ajāgrahaṇe viśeṣa apratīteḥ).

The relevant sutra reads 'Camasavat aviśeṣāt'.' Aviśeṣāt means unqualified, that is, the term is not used with specific qualifying description. To illustrate this point, the word camasa employed in a Vedic statement, is cited. Camasa as a general term means a sādhana or an article useful for consuming the food used in the yāga. But the later part of the Vedic statement gives a vivid description of it as a vessel having a narrow neck at the top and a small opening at the bottom and with a wide

circular base. On that basis, its meaning is determined as a special vessel for drinking the soma juice used in the sacrifice. There is no such description of *aja* indicating that it is an independent cause of the universe.

Besides, as Vedānta Deśika points out, it is well established in the Taittirīya Upaniṣad and also in the Śvetāśvatara that *prakṛti* as controlled by Brahman is the cause of the manifest universe. This is evident from the fact that the same passage found in Śvetāśvatara occurs in the Taittirīya after mentioning the process of creation caused by Brahman. In the Śvetāśvatara also, *prakṛti* which is designated as *māyā* is stated to be the cause of the evolution as controlled by *māyin* or *Paramātman* (*asmāt māyī srjate viśvametat*¹⁰)

As regards the statement that $aj\bar{a}$ gives birth to many beings (bahviḥ prajāḥ srjamāṇāṁ sarūpāṁ) it does not imply that prakrti creates the universe independently. On the other hand it means that prakrti is the cause of the universe being impelled by Paramatman. There are two ways in which kartrtva or being the agent of creation is understood prayojya kartā and prayojaka kartā. The former refers to that which is the cause of the creation being impelled by a higher principle. The latter refers to that which actually wills or impels another being to undergo the process of creation. In the case of prakrti it can be the cause of creation of the universe by being impelled by Paramātman. In this sense the expression 'srjamāṇatva' by ajā is to be understood. This does not contradict Paramātman being the sole cause of the creation of the universe (srjati-rapi para-preryatām no'parundhyāt11

III. The term Pañca-pañca-janā does not imply the Sāmkhya theory of Prakṛṭi and its Evolutes.

This is the subject of Samkhyopasamgrahādhikaraṇa which discusses whether the term pañca-pañca-janā mentioned in a passage of the Bṛhadaranyaka Upaniṣad refers to the Sāmkhya doctrine of prakṛti and its twenty three evolutes along with Puruṣa, making a total of twenty five principles

which can account for the causation of the universe. The relevant Upaniṣadic statement reads:

yasmin pañca pañca janā ākāśaśca pratiṣṭhitaḥ;

tamevam anya ātmānam vidvān brahma amṛto amṛtam.12

"That in which the five into five categories including ākāśa is established, the man of wisdom who knows that alone as ātman becomes immortal".

The question which is raised in this connection is whether the twenty five principles mentioned here refers to the Sāmkhya theory of twenty five categories. The prima facie view answers it in the affirmative. Pañca-pāñca janā, that is, the five groups of five principles (pañcānāṁ janānāṁ samūhaḥ pañca-janāḥ) correspond to the twenty five ontological categories acknowledged by the Sāmkhyas. Thus says the Sāmkhya Kārikā:

'mūla prakṛtiḥ avikṛtiḥ mahadādyāḥ prakṛti vikṛtayaḥ sapta; sodaśakaśca vikāro na prakṛtiḥ na vikṛtiḥ puruṣa iti'. The mūla prakṛti is unmodified. Mahat and six other evolutes are causal substances and also the modifications. That is, these are modifications of prakṛti but they also serve as causes for other evolutes. There are sixteen other evolutes which are only modifications. The soul is neither causal substance nor a modification.

According to Badarayana this view is untenable. The relevant sūtra reads: na samkhyopasangrahād-api nānābhāvāt atirekācca.¹³

It means that even the enumeration of the twenty five principles does not imply the twenty five tattvas acknowledged by the Sāmkhyas because of two reasons. First, what is stated in the Upaniṣad is different from what is admitted by the Sāmkhyas. That is, in this statement the twenty five principles and also ākāśa are stated to be established in Brahman, denoted by the words 'yasmin pratiṣṭhitaḥ'. Sāmkhyas do not subscribe to such a theory. Secondly the total number of principles comes to twenty seven if we take due note of ākāśa as distinct from twenty five tattvas and also Brahman, denoted by the word yasmin,

which is the ground (ādhāra) for all these. Hence the expression pañca-pañca-janāḥ or five groups of five in each do not imply the twenty five tattvas accepted by the Sāmkhyas.

What then does the term 'pañca-pañca-janāḥ' imply? Vedānta Deśika explains that this phrase is to be taken as a technical word implying a group of any five entities similar to the word 'sapta-saptaṛṣayaḥ' or seven Rṣis. These five entities are the five jñānendriyas viz. prāṇa, cakṣus, śrotrā, anna and manas as is evident from the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣadic text 'prāṇasya prāṇam uta cakṣuṣaḥ cakṣuḥ śrotrasya śrotram annasya annam manaso mano ye viduḥ'¹⁴. It is not therefore possible to claim that the mere enumeration of twenty five principles support Sāmkhya theory of prakṛti and its evolutes.

IV. Avyākṛta as Prakṛti is not the Cause of the Universe.

This is the subject of a separate adhikaraṇa named Kāraṇatvādhikaraṇa which examines the passages dealing with the causation of the universe (viśvopadāna vaktṛ śrutis) and affirm that Brahman alone is the cause of the universe even though the terms such as avyakta, ajā, sat, asat and avyākṛta etc. used in these passages may reflect the Sāmkhya theory of prakṛti.

In the previous three adhikaraṇas it was shown how the terms avyakta, ajā and pañca-pañca-janā employed in the Upaniṣads do not favour the Sāmkhya doctrine. The present adhikaraṇa discusses that the concepts of avyākṛta and asat used in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka and Taittirīya Upaniṣads respectively, also do not support the Sāmkhya theory.

The Brhadāraņyaka Upaniṣad states:

laddhedam tarhy avyākrtam āsīt, tan-nāmarūpābhyām eva vyākriyata¹⁵

"At that time (prior to creation), this universe was midliferentiated and it became differentiated with names and forms"



Similarly, the Taittirīya Upaniṣad states:

'asad vā idamagra āsīt'16

"This universe was asat prior to the creation."

The term avyākṛta means that which is unmanifest. So also the term asat denotes what is unmanifest. According to the Sāṁkhyas, the prakṛti existed in the unmanifest form prior to its evolution into the manifest universe. If according to these statements prakṛti is the source of the universe, the terms such as sat, ātmā etc employed in the passages dealing with the causation of the universe are to be interpreted in accordance with Sāṁkhya doctrine. This is the prima facie view.

This is rejected by Bādarāyaṇa. The argument adduced in support of it is that these very passages which employ the terms such as asat, avyākṛta etc also point out that a sentient Being endowed with omniscience and omnipotence creates the universe through the operation of its will¹⁷. Thus for instance, the Taittirīya text where the statement 'asadvā idamagra āsīt' is mentioned, it is stated in the earlier part of this passage that Brahman described as omniscient (vipaścitā Brahmaṇā), wills to become many (so akāmayata bahusyām prajāyeyeti). Similarly in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka where the term avyākṛta is employed, it is evident with reference to the earlier context of the same passage that this term implies Brahman as inherently related to the unmanifest universe. (avyākṛta śabdena avyākṛta śarīraṁ brahmaiva abhidhīyate).

Vedānta Deśika explains how these terms 'asat', 'avyā-kṛta' etc do not denote prakṛti but refer to Brahman as the cause of the universe. The statement 'asadvā idamagra āsīt' signifies only the state of the universe during the stage of dissolution (vilayāvasthātāmātram uktam). It does not imply that universe is mere consciousness (cinmātrarūpa) as Advaitins contend. Nor does it mean absolute non-existence of the universe (atyantābhāvarūpatvam). It does not also convey the idea of non-existent (atyanta asadrūpatva). Even the text 'naiveha kiñcana agra āsīt' does not indicate the absolute destruction of the universe (vilaya) since in the

Vedānta system absolute destruction of an entity is not admitted. On the other hand, it refers to the modified state of the universe. The term avyākṛta therefore means that the universe in the state of pralaya is devoid of names and forms (nāmarūpa vibhāgābhāva). In other words it exists in an unmanifest form. Since Brahman is the antarātmā or the indwelling Self of all entities even in the state of dissolution (kāraṇāvasthā) as in the state of creation (kāryāvasthā), it is appropriate to regard the concepts of avyākṛta, asat etc in the sense of Brahman as inherently related to them (avyākṛtādy-avasthā viśiṣṭa tattat pradhānādi dravya-samūha antarātmā parama puruṣa eva)¹⁸

V. Purusa as Jīva is not the Cause of the Universe

This is the subject matter of the adhikaraṇa named 'jagadvā-citvādhikaraṇa' which discusses whether puruṣa conceived by the Sāmkhyas as the twenty fifth ontological principle and also as distinct from prakṛti, can cause the evolution of the universe. This question arises because an important passage in the Kauṣītikī Upaniṣad dealing with Bālākīvidyā mentions that the puruṣa described as kartā and also its karma are to be known (puruṣāṇām kartā yasya vai etat karma sa veditavyaḥ). If puruṣa is taken as jīvātman and if that be the ultimate metaphysical principle, the Vedānta doctrine of Brahman as the primary cause of the universe stands refuted. Hence Bādarāyaṇa devotes his attention to this matter and establishes that the puruṣa mentioned in this passage refers to Brahman which is the cause of the universe.

The relevant sūtra reads: jagad-vācitvāt¹⁹. It means: "It is Brahman because of the mention of the universe created by it". That is, what is referred to in the Upaniṣad is not the finite jīva but Brahman because of the mention of the universe which is created by it. The implications of the sūtra can be understood with reference to the relevant passages of the Kauṣītikī and Bṛhadāraṇyaka dealing with the teaching about Brahman by Ajātaśatru to Bālāki.

The Kauṣītakī Upaniṣad contains a dialogue between Bālāki, a Brahmin, who has only completed the study of the Vedas and Ajātaśatru, a Kṣatriya having full knowledge of Brahman. Bālāki who proposes to tell about Brahman to Ajātaśatru (brahma te bravāṇi) expresses his views about Brahman as the puruṣa present in the following entities as their presiding deities on whom he meditates – The āditya (sun), candra (moon), vidyut (lightning), ākāśa (ether), vāyu (wind), agni (fire), ap(water), ādarśa (person seen in the mirror), śabda (sound which follows a person while walking), chāyā (shadow of a person), dik (the person present in the quarters), puruṣa (the soul in the body). But Ajātaśatru considers that the views of Bālāki represent imcomplete knowledge of Brahman since the puruṣa presiding over these different entities is not Brahman.

He tells Bālāki: "yo vai Bālāke, eteṣam puruṣāṇām kartā yasya vai etat-karma sa vai veditavyaḥ²o". "You should know the creator (kartā) of all these puruṣas and also the karma (what is created by it).

Bālāki then desired to be instructed about the knowledge of Brahman. As he was not initiated to receive knowledge of Brahman directly, Ajātaśatru took him inside his residence where a person was fast asleep. He addressed the sleeping person by the name of Somarajan which means prāna but the person did not wake up. He hit the person with a stick and thereafter the person woke up from sleep. At this stage, Ajātaśatru posed the question to Bālāki. "Where was this purusa sleeping all this time? In what condition did he remain then? From where did he now come back? (kvaisa etat bālāke puruso asayista? Kva vā etad abhūt? Kuta edad-āgāt?). Bālāki could not answer these questions. In this connection, Ajātaśatru explains in detail the state of sleep (svapnāvasthā) and also the state of dreamless sleep (susupti). In the state of sleep, jīva rests in the puritati nādi which radiates from the centre of the heart (hṛdayāt purītatam abhipratisthanti. tāsu tadā supto bhavati). But in the state of susupti jīva rests with Paramātman in the purītati nāḍi when it does not experience any dreams since all sense organs cease to function and the prāṇa is united with jīva (prāṇa evaikadhā bhavati). When he wakes up, all the sense organs including mind and prāṇa start functioning. Finally he concludes with the statement that one who knows this Brahmavidyā becomes free from all sins and attains the highest Lordship (svārājyam ādhipatyaṁ).

After considering all these factors, the question arises whether the puruṣa referred to in this passage is jīvātman or Paramātman. According to the prima facie view, it is jīvātman for the following reasons. First, the statement 'yo vai bālāke, eteṣām puruṣāṇām kartā yasya vai etat karma sa vai veditavyaḥ' conveys the idea that it is the jīva which is subject to karma in the sense of the puṇya-pāpa karma. By the influence of the karma of the past it can be the creator of other beings (svakṛta pariṇateḥ puruṣāṇām kartā). Secondly the acts of awakening the sleeping person, calling him by a name and hitting him with a stick etc corroborate the view in favour of jīva. It is also stated that prāṇa, the vital breath becomes one with jīva in the state of suṣupti. Prāṇa subsists on jīva.

This view is untenable, contends Vedānta Deśika, because it conflicts with the subject matter mentioned at the commencement of the passage (upakrānti bhagnam). Ajātaśatru is required to teach Bālāki what he did not already know. Bālāki approaches Ajātaśatru and tells him voluntarily that he will speak to him about Brahman (Brahma te bravāṇi). But he tells Ajātaśatru about the puruṣas (jīvas) presiding over the various entities commencing with āditya. Since the purusa presiding over these entities is not Brahman proper, Ajātaśatru realizes that Bālāki lacks true knowledge of Brahman. He therefore tells him specifically that the karta or the creator of all these entities and the karma, in the sense of what is created by Brahman (kriyata III karma) should be known. If Ajātaśatru were to teach about purusa taken as jīvātman, there is no useful purpose In teaching about what is already known by him. What is not known by Bālāki is: what is to be meditated upon is not jīva but Brahman, which is the kartā in the sense of being the creator of the puruṣas presiding over the various entities in the universe. The term karma mentioned here (yasya vai etat karma) refers in this context to the universe (jagat) which is created by Brahman. Etymologically, karma can mean what is created (kriyata iti karma), that is, the entire jagat or universe created by Brahman.

Keeping all these facts in mind, Bādarāyaṇa says in the sūtra: 'jagadvācitvāt²¹': "What is denoted by karma in the Upaniṣadic statement is jagat created by Brahman. As Vedānta Deśika points out, the primary import of karma with reference to Brahman is jagat (kriyata iti karmeti vyutpattyā jagata īśvarāpekṣaya karmatva vacanam mukhyam²²)

An objection can be raised to this conclusion. If contextually, the entire passage is considered to be related to the subject of Brahman, why then in the later part of it, the Upaniṣad speaks about mukhya prāṇa and that it also becomes one with jīva. That is, Ajātaśatru takes Bālāki inside the palace to see the person who is fast asleep and addresses him as 'Somarājan', which is the name for mukhya-prāṇa. He also explains that hitā nāḍi in which the puruṣa rests, is the svapnasthāna and the jīva resting in purīti nāḍi with Paramātman is suṣuptisthāna. Would not these statements about mukhya-prāṇa conflict with the main subject of the passage viz. Brahman?

Vedānta Dešika points out that there is no conflict involved because the teaching about mukhya-prāṇa as related to Brahman is intended for the purpose of meditation on prāṇa as the śarīra of Paramātman (tadviśiṣṭe upāsā bhavati²³). In the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, prāṇa and jīva are both regarded as śarīra of Paramātman, since they depend on Paramātman for their existence.

Thus it follows that this adhikaraṇa does not support the Sārhkhya theory of puruṣa as the cause of the universe, but on the contrary, it establishes that Brahman is the cause of the universe.

VI. Atman conceived as Mukta-purușa is not the Cause of the Universe.

This is the subject of the Vākyānvayādhikaraṇa which discusses whether the term'Ātman' employed in the Maitreyī Brāhmaṇa of the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, conceived as the puruṣa being totally dissociated with prakṛti could be the cause of the universe. In the previous adhikaraṇa it was shown that puruṣa referred to in the Kauṣītikī Upaniṣad, which is regarded as jīvātman in bondage, cannot be the cause of the universe. In the present adhikaraṇa Bādarāyaṇa attempts to establish that 'Ātman' conceived as the liberated puruṣa or the jīvātmā totally free from the association with prakṛti cannot also be the cause of the universe.

The cryptic sūtra which is based on an important passage of the Brhadaranyaka Upanisad, enjoining the meditation (nididhyāsana) leading to the realization of the self (ātma darśana), reads: 'vākyānvayāt24'. Its general meaning is that 'Atman' (which is to be meditated upon) is Brahman because the statements in the Upanisadic passage become well connected. The fuller implications of the sūtra can be made out with reference to the passage of Maitreyī Brāhmaṇa teaching about Atman by Yājñavalkya to Maitreyī. Yājñavalkya who wishes to renounce the life of a householder and enter that of anchorage proposes to divide his wealth between Maitreyī and his other wife Kātyāyinī. On hearing this, Maitreyī wishes to know if she would be able to attain immortality (amṛtatva) with all this wealth. In reply, Yājñavalkya makes it clear that there is no hope of immortality through wealth (amṛtasya tu na āśā asti vittena). Thereupon, Maitreyī, realizing the futility of wealth, seeks to know the means to immortality. In this background, Yājñavalkya teaches the following.

na vā are patyuḥ kāmāya patiḥ priyo bhavati ātmanastu kāmāya patiḥ priyo bhavati na vā are jāyāyai kāmāya jāyā priyā bhavati ātmanastu kāmāya jāyā priyā bhavati²⁵ "Verily not due to the desire of the husband, the husband is dear to the wife, but the husband is dear to the wife due to the will of *Paramātman* (acc. to R)."

"Verily not due to the desire of the wife, the wife is dear to the husband, but the wife is dear to the husband due to the will of *Paramātman*."

In the same strain the Upanisad mentions several other entities such as son, wealth etc. Finally it says:

Ātmā vā are draṣṭavyaḥ śrotavyo mantavyo nididhyāsitavyaḥ; maitreyī ātmano vā are darśanena, śravaṇena matyā vijñānena idam sarvam viditam bhavati²⁶

"O Maitreyī, it is ātmā that should be seen, to be heard, to be reflected on and meditated upon. Verily, by seeing of, by the hearing of, by the thinking of, by understanding of the ātman, all this is known.

The issue to be considered is whether the 'ātmā' mentioned at the commencement of the passage and also in the concluding statement as that which is to be realized (draṣṭavyaḥ) refers to jīvātman or Paramātman. According to the prima facie view it denotes jīvātman because the passage states at the very commencement that husband wife etc are dear to each other due to the desire of one's self (ātmanaḥ kāmasiddhaye). It is the jīva that enjoys the fruits of good or bad deeds, according to its past karma.

This view is untenable, contends Vedānta Deśika, because it contradicts the statements made both at the commencement of the passage and conclusion (prakramādi pratīpam). By way of explanation he points out that the expression 'ātmanastu kāmāya' does not imply that the husband is dear to the wife due to the desire or will of the husband. On the contrary, the husband is dear to the wife due to the samkalpa or will of Paramātman (kāmāya being understood as samkalpāya). That is, a wife is dear to a husband not because the husband desires but because Paramātman wills that the wife should be dear to the husband in accordance with his karma. A person or an object becoming dear to one is dependent on the samkalpa or the will of Paramātman (tattat priyatvam bhagavat-

samkalpāyattam²⁷). It is only when Paramātman wills that one's wife should be dear to the husband in accordance with his karma, the wife becomes dear to the husband. An individual self cannot make a person or object dear to him (priyatva). The word 'ātman' in the statement therefore refers to Paramātman. This meaning for 'ātman' is also appropriate, as Rāmānuja points out, in the context of the teaching about the way of reaching immortality. The mere darśana or realization of jīvātman cannot confer mokṣa. All the Upaniṣads affirm that only the attainment of Paramātman is mokṣa. Hence the statement 'ātmā vā are draṣṭavyaḥ' signifies that the realization of Paramātman leads to mokṣa.

Vedānta Deśika justifies the meaning adopted for ātman in favour of Paramātman. There are three views in support of this interpretation. The term 'ātman' etymologically means that which pervades everything (āpnoti iti ātmā). Accordingly it primarily means Paramātman (vyutpattyā hi ātmā śabdaḥ prathayati paramam Brahma). This is the first view. The second view is that it can also mean Paramātman according to the well accepted meaning of the term (yadvā samāsāt svārtho'yam). The third view is that the term ātman which is generally regarded by laymen as jīva also denotes Paramātman in the sense that jīvātman is inherently related to Paramātman (dvāravṛttyā paramam vadati²).

Even during the time of Bādarāyaṇa, differing views about ātman were held by ancient Ācāryas named Āśmarathya, Auḍulomi and Kāśakṛtsna as is evident by the references made to them by name in the Vedānta sūtras²⁹.

According to Āśmarathya, jīva and Brahman are essentially non-different (vyaktaikya) and hence jīva can also denote Paramātman. Audulomi maintained the view that jīva and Brahman are different in the state of bondage due to avidyā which is the limiting adjunct but in the state of mokṣa when avidyā is eradicated the two are essentially one (advaita). Hence it is appropriate to regard jīva as Brahman. The third view is ascribed to Kāṣakṛtsna, according to which

Paramātman indwells in jīvātman as its antaryāmin and hence jīvātman can be regarded as Paramātman in the sense of its being inherently related to Paramātman (jīva śarīraka paramātmā).

Vedānta Deśika points out that the views of Audulomi that jīva becomes Brahman in the state of mokṣa is most unsound. This theory is explained on the analogy of ether which is all pervasive, becomes conditioned by several limiting adjuncts such as pots. But with the removal of the limiting adjuncts, space conditioned by the pots becomes one with the ether. In the same way, the jīvas are regarded as many when Brahman is conditioned by the limiting adjuncts such as antaḥkaraṇas caused by avidyā. When avidyā is removed the jīva becomes one with Brahman. This theory is untenable because according to the several Scriptural texts, jīvas are nitya just as Brahman is nitya and they are also many. Hence it cannot be said that the two become one in the state of mukti.

The Scriptural texts also declare that jīvas and Brahman are different by their very nature (nityam tad bheda drsteh). Besides, the Upanisadic texts state that in the state of moksa jīva attains equal status with Paramātman (paramam sāmyam upaiti), which clearly implies the difference between the two even in the state of mukti. Hence it is not possible to say that jīva and Brahman are essentially the same (svarūpaikya). The illustration of clay and its products cited by the Upanisad cannot be taken to support the view of non-difference in terms of essential nature (mṛtsvarūpa) because according to the Scriptural texts the jīva and Brahman are by their very nature different. Hence the view advanced by Kāśakrtsna is sounder than the other two theories. According to him, Brahman abides in jīva as its Inner Controller (jīva īśe tatsthatvāt). By virtue of Paramātman indwelling in the jīva, the term jīva denotes Paramātman. This is a sound view and stands justified since it upholds that jīva and Brahman are both different and also one in the sense of jīva being inherently related to Paramātman. In the opinion of Vedānta Deśika, this view represents the vyāsa siddhānta (kāśakṛtsno yadiha niravahat vyāsa siddhānta esah)³⁰

VII. Isvara conceived by Yoga school cannot be the Cause of the Universe.

This is the subject-matter of the adhikarana named Prakrtyadhi-karana. In the preceding six adhikaranas the views of the ancient school of Sāmkhya which maintains the theory of either prakrti or purusa as the cause of the universe and which are also reflected in a few Upanisads, were examined and refuted as untenable. In the present adhikarana, the view of the Seśvara Sāmkhya (yoga school of thought) which admits Iśvara or God as the instrumental cause of the universe (nimitta kāraņa) is taken up for consideration. There are two reasons for consideration of this matter separately. First, there are a few Upanisadic statements which point out that prakrti as controlled by *İśvara* is the cause of the universe. Thus says the Śvetāśvatara: asmāt māyī srjate viśvametat - "The māyī (Īśvara) creates the universe through the media of prakrti (named as māyā)". Secondly Brahman is nirvikāra and if it be regarded as the material cause, it would be subject to transformation. Further in the illustration of clay and its products cited by the Upanişad, it is seen that clay is the material cause, whereas the potter is the instrumental cause. Thus the material cause is different from the instrumental cause. Accordingly with regard to Brahman and universe which are causally related, it is to be admitted that Brahman is nimitta kāraņa while prakṛti is the upādāna kāraņa of the universe.

Bādarāyaṇa refutes this view and affirms that Brahman is both the *nimitta kāraṇa* and the *upādāna kāraṇa* with the support of the Upaniṣadic texts and also logical arguments. He also examines the several objections raised against this conclusion by the Sāmkhyas and Vaiśeṣikas and shows that

they are untenable. The adhikaraṇas of the first pāda of the second adhyāya are mainly devoted to this matter. As this is an important subject in Vedānta, we shall discuss these adhikaraṇas separately in the next chapter on the doctrine of Universe and Brahman. For the present, it may be noted that according to Bādarāyaṇa, Īśvara is not only the nimitta kāraṇa as maintained by the Seśvara Sāṁkhya but it is also the upādāna kāraṇa.

VIII. Brahman as the Supreme Deity is the Cause of the Universe.

This is the subject-matter of the last adhikarana named Sarvavyākhyānādhikaraṇa which covers the single conclusive sūtra of the fourth pāda of the first adhyāya. In the preceding seven adhikaranas, Bādarāyana has examined the selected Upanisadic statements which convey the idea of either the Pradhāna or puruṣa as the cause of the universe and shown that their true import is Brahman as the sole cause of the universe. Brahman, according to Rāmānuja, is the Supreme Deity in the name of Nārāyaṇa or Viṣṇu, as is evident from the statements of Subāla, Kaṭha, Taittirīya, Nārāyana and Mahopanisad. There are a few stray Scriptural statements appearing in the Upanisads which prima facie, speak of other deities such as Hiranyagarbha, Śiva, Indra, Rudra etc as the higher deity that existed prior to creation. Thus it is stated: Hiranyagarbhah samavartata agre bhūtasya jātah patrireka āsīt. "Prior to creation, Hiranyagarbha existed and that He became the ruler by creating all beings³¹". The Švetāśvatara says – yadā tamaḥ tanna divā na rātriḥ na sat na ca asat siva eva kevalah³². "At the time prior to creation when it was only darkness which was neither day nor night, when there was neither being nor non-being, only śiva existed".

These statements give room for the doubts that other than Brahman there are other deities which could be the cause of the universe.

In order to remove such doubts, Bādarāyana states: etena

sarve vyākhyātāḥ. It means "All such statements stand explained by adopting the principles of interpretation and logical arguments stated in the preceding adhikaranas of the earlier pādas (prāgukta nītibhedāt). That is, if we take into consideration the context in which these statements are made, the main theme or the subject matter of the entire passage and also the sentences at the commencement and conclusion of the passage, it becomes apparent that all the Upanisadic statements conclusively establish that Brahman is the only cause of the universe. The details of the interpretation of the texts referring to Hiranyagarbha, Śiva etc are given in the Vedārtha Sangraha of Rāmānuja and other theological treatises of Vedanta Desika. These are not therefore discussed in the Adhikarana-sāravālī. He mentions only one important point to assert the Supremacy of Viṣṇu as Para Brahman. In the popular concept of trimūrti or three deities namely Brahmā, Visnu, Rudra mentioned in the Puranas, Visnu referred to here on a par with the other two deities is the incarnated form of Brahman as a devatā for the purpose of carrying out the function of raksana (protection). The Supreme Lord assumes the incarnated form of Matsya (fish), Kūrma (tortoise), Rāma and Kṛṣṇa (as human forms) for specific purposes on specific occasions without abrogating His original essential nature³³. Visnu as the incarnated form of a devatā is not different from Vișnu as the Supreme Deity. Hence it is concluded that all the Upanisadic texts teach that Brahman as the Supreme deity is the sole cause of the universe.

^{1.} Katha Up. I-3-10 and 11.

^{2.} Kaṭha Up. I-3-3 and 4.

^{3.} AS verse 132

^{4.} Katha. Up. I-3-9

See VS I-4-2. sūkṣmam tu tad-arhatvāt – "The subtle avyakta becomes the body, for it is only then that it becomes fit to be useful." See AS verse 133.

^{6.} Katha Up. I-3-9.

^{7.} See AS verse 133.

- 8. Svet. Up. IV-5
- 9. VS I-4-8
- 10. Svet. Up. IV-9
- 11. AS verse 134
- 12. Br. Up -VI-4-17
- 13. VS-I-4-11.
- 14. Br. Up. VI-4-8
- 15. Br. Up. III-4-70
- 16. Tait. Up. II
- 17. See Ch. Up. VI-2-3. Also AS verse 137. yatra asatvādi dṛṣṭam, tatra prakaraṇa viditam sarvajūatādyam liṅgam syōt
- 18. See Padayojanā AS verse 138
- 19. VS I-4-16.
- 20. Kau. Up. IV-18.
- 21. VS I-4-16.
- 22. Cintămani verse 139.
- 23. AS verse 140. prāṇākhyānam na tena kṣatiriha ca tathā tadvísiṣṭe hy upāṣā.
- 24. VS I-4-19.
- 25. Br. Up. IV-4-5
- 26. See Br. Up.IV-4-6
- 27. AS verse 141. tattad-bhoga pradātuḥ prathayati hi vibhoḥ kāmataḥ tatpriyatvam. See also Cintāmaṇi on verse 141 tattad putradi nimitta, bhoga pradātuḥ parama puruṣasyaiva samkalpāt teṣām putrādīnām pitrādīn prati priyatvam bhagavat samkalpāyattam ityarthah.
- 28. See AS verse 142. See also Padayojanā, śarīra vācakānām śarīri paryantatva nyāyena dvārabhūta jīva aparityāgena tad-viśiṣṭatayā pratipādayati.
- 29. See V.S. II-4-20, 21, and 22.
- 30. AS verse 143.
- 31. Rg Veda. X-121. See also Tattirīya Samhitā IV-1-8.
- 32. Svet. Up. IV-18.
- 33. AS verse 150. etat matsyādibhāveşviva nija-vibhava anukriyā naṭyam syāt. See Rāmāyaṇa,VI-104 tatstvamapi durdarṣaḥ tasmāt bhāvāt sanātanāt; rakṣarthaṁ sarva bhūtānāṁ viṣṇutvam upajagmivān.

CHAPTER FIVE

THE DOCTRINE OF UNIVERSE AND BRAHMAN

In the previous chapter we have seen how Badarayana has established by methodical analysis and proper interpretation of the Upanisadic texts that Brahman is the sole cause of the universe. In connection with the refutation of the theory of Seśvara Sāmkhya (Yoga) which admits Iśvara as the nimitta kāraņa of the universe, he has upheld the doctrine of Vedanta that Brahman is the upadana karana of the universe on the basis of the Upanisadic teachings. The Prakrtyādhikarana to which we have referred earlier, mainly deals with this subject. Several objections are raised against this theory by the Sāmkhyas. These are all dealt in the adhikaranas of the first pāda of second adhyāya. In this context, the relation of Brahman to the universe comes up for special consideration in the Arambhanādhikarana included in the first pāda of the second adhyāya and also in the Ahikundalādhikaraņa included in the second pāda of the third adhyāya. We shall deal with all these matters in the present chapter with a view to presenting a coherent doctrine of universe in relation to Brahman

I. Brahman as the Material Cause of the Universe.

This is an important subject in Vedānta. It is covered in a separate adhikaraņa named Prakṛtyādhikaraṇa. The relevant sūtra reads: Prakṛtiśca pratijñā-dṛṣṭāntānuparodhāt¹. The word prakṛti, as interpreted both by Rāmānuja and Samkara

means upādāna kāraṇa². The word 'ca' added to it implies that it is also the nimitta kāraṇa. That is, Brahman is both the material and instrumental cause of the universe. The reason for advancing this view is contained in the words of the sūtra 'Pratijñā dṛṣṭānta anuparodhāt'. It means that the general statement and the illustrations mentioned in the Upaniṣad in support of it would not be contradicted by the admission of Brahman as both material and instrumental cause. An important passage of the Chāndogya Upaniṣad to which the sūtra refers contains statements which point out that by the knowledge of the one Reality everything else becomes known (eka vijñānena anyat sarvam vijñātam bhavati). Thus says the Upaniṣad 'uta taṁ ādeśam aprākṣyaḥ yena aśrutaṁ śrutaṁ bhavati, amataṁ mataṁ, avijñātaṁ vijñātam'³.

"Have you ever asked that instruction by which that which is not heard becomes heard; that which is not thought becomes thought; that which is not comprehended becomes comprehended."

By way of elucidation of this statement, the Upaniṣad cites three illustrations: yathā saumya ekena mṛtpiṇḍena sarvaṁ mṛṇmayam vijñātam syātekena loha maṇinā sarvaṁ lohamayaṁ vijñātaṁ syāt; ekena nakha nikṛntanena sarvaṁ kārṣṇāyasaṁ vijñātam syāt⁴....

"My dear, as by one lump of clay, all that is made of clay is known,....by one nugget of gold, all that is made of gold is known, by a pair of nail scissors, all that is made of iron is known"

The general statement about the knowledge of one (the causal substance) leads to the knowledge of everything else (all the products made of it) is named $pratij\bar{n}\bar{a}$ or declaration. The illustrations offered by the Upanisad to elucidate this are called $drst\bar{a}nta$. If we take into consideration the illustrations cited by the Upanisad, it is obvious that the knowledge of the material cause leads to the knowledge of the products made out of it. On the same analogy, it is maintained that if Brahman is admitted as the material cause of the universe, everything else caused by it would be

known. This is the main justification for affirming that Brahman is the *upādāna kāraṇa*.

In support of the above conclusion, Bādarāyaṇa points out that the very Upanisadic texts state that Brahman itself resolved to become the universe in the following words 'tadaikṣata, bahusyām prajāyeya' - 'It resolved, may I become many'5. The Taittirīya Upaniṣad also says 'so'kāmayata, bahusyām prajāycya: "It thus resolved, may I become many'. The Taittiriya Upanisad also states: 'tad-ātmānam svayam akuruta' - "It (Brahman) makes itself evolved into the form of the universe". On the basis of these Upanișadic texts Bādarāyaṇa states that Brahman itself becomes the universe through modification. The relevant sūtras read: Ātmakṛteḥ, parināmāt⁷. The word 'parināmāt' used in the sūtra means, as explained by Rāmānuja, pariņāma-svābhāvyāt, that is, Brahman possesses the characteristic of undergoing modification. Its implication is that Brahman is of such a nature as it is capable of undergoing modification without at the same time, its svarūpa or intrinsic nature being subject to change. This is possible because, according to Viśistādvaita Vedānta, Brahman is inseparably related to the souls and the cosmic matter (cid-acid-viśista Brahma). As explained by Rāmānuja, Brahman is always (sarvadā) associated with cit and acit both in the states prior to creation and also after creation. In the state prior to creation, Brahman is associated with cit and acit in their subtle state, and the same Brahman, when it wills to become many, manifests itself as associated with cit and acit in their manifest form. This explanation has the full support of the Scriptural texts. The Brhadaranyaka Upanisad says: 'Taddhedam tarhi avyākṛtam āsīt tan-nāmarūpābhyām eva vyākriyata8' - "This universe consisting of souls and matter existed prior to creation in unmanifest form. It then became many with name and form". All the changes apply to cit and acit and not to Brahman. But Brahman as the substrate of cit and acit is not affected by the change. This is illustrated by the analogy of a boy growing into youth and the youth

attaining manhood etc. In this instance, the different states such as youth, manhood etc involving physical change, actually belong to the body and the soul which is the ādhāra or support of the body is in no way affected by it. In the same way, the modification taking place in the cit and acit do not affect the svarūpa of Brahman, which is its ādhāra. Brahman is regarded as upādāna kāraṇa by virtue of its being the substrate of acit which actually undergoes modification. It is only in this sense that purināma of Brahman is to be understood in order to maintain its nirvikāratva.

By way of defending the above explanation offered by Rāmānuja, Vedānta Deśika points out that the analogy of clay and its products should not be taken literally in respect of the causal relation of Brahman to the universe. It is not necessary that there should be absolute similarity in every respect between drstanta or illustration and darstrantika or the object to be explained. The analogy is to be made use of to the extent it is plausible (yathā yogyam sādharmyam). There are other instances which substantiate how a substance can serve as a material cause without transforming itself into the state of an effect. Thus for instance, the spider causes the web without effecting any change in respect of it. Neither the body of the spider nor its jiva undergoes modification but only the spider as associated with the body (dehaviśista ūrnanābhih) creates the web9. In the same way, it is to be understood that Brahman as associated with cit and acit undergoes modification without affecting its svarūpa.

Vedānta Dešika further points out that there is no inconsistency in respect of Brahman being both the *upādāna* and *nimitta kāraṇa* as this is supported by the Scriptural texts. The general principle (*pratijñā*) viz. the knowledge of the causal substance leads to the knowledge of its effects is sustainable if *kāraṇa* or causal substance is not different from *kārya* or its effects. In order to substantiate that Brahman is *upādānakāraṇa* the Upaniṣad has provided the illustration of clay and its products (*tadanuguṇa udāhari dṛṣṭāntavargaḥ*).

The statement that Brahman itself resolved to become many conveys the idea that it is also nimitta kāraṇa. In the context of the creation of the universe, a passage of the Rgveda also speaks of Brahman as both upādāna and sahakāri kāraṇa or accessory cause. Thus it states: 'kiṁsvid vanaṁ ka u sa vṛkṣa asīt, yato dyāvā pṛthivī niṣṭatakṣuḥ, brahma vanaṁ brahma sa vṛkṣa āsīt, yato dyāvā pṛthivī niṣṭatakṣuḥ' —

"What was the wood (vanam), what is the tree from which they have shaped the heaven and earth? Brahman is the wood and Brahman is the tree from which they have shaped the heaven and the earth".

The first part of the verse raises the question as to what is the material cause of the universe and what is the material out of which it is made? The later part of the verse gives the answer in terms of Brahman as the *upādāna* denoted by the words *brahma vanam* and that Brahman itself is the material denoted by the words *brahma sa vṛṣṣa*. On the basis of it, the *sūtra* says: 'sākṣācca ubhaya amnāt¹0'. That is, the Scriptural text speaks of Brahman itself as both the *upādāna kāraṇa* and the accessory cause (sahakāri kāraṇa). That it is also nimitta is implied in the verse.

The Mundaka Upanisad also states that Brahman is 'yoni' or source of the universe, implying that it is the material cause on the analogy of the spider creating the web. Based on this, Bādarāyana says: Yoniśca hi gīyate¹¹.

As pointed out earlier, the Taittirīya also states that Brahman itself becomes the universe by undergoing modification (ātmakṛteḥ pariṇāmāt) in the sense that prakṛti which constitutes its body is made to evolve into the manifest universe from its unmanifest state. Taking all these facts, Vedānta Deśika contends that there is no inconsistency in admitting Brahman as both the material and instrumental cause of the universe¹²

An objection is raised against this conclusion. Whatever is regarded as *upādāna kāraņa*, the same cannot be *nimitta kāraņa*. That is, whatever is other than *upādāna* is to be regarded as *nimitta kāraṇa*. In the same way, if something





is regarded as nimitta kāraṇa, it cannot be upādāna kāraṇa (yadvā siddham nimittam na bhajati tadupādānatām). Vedānta Deśika refutes this argument as unsound. It is possible to regard the same one entity in two different forms with reference to the two different forms or states with which it is associated (ākāra bhedāt nānātva vyavahāra yogitvam siddhyati). Both the Scriptural texts and also our common experience warrant such a theory.

According to the Upaniṣads, Brahman as associated with cit and acit in their subtle state (sūkṣma cid-acid-viśiṣṭa brahma) is the upādāna kāraṇa, while the same Brahman, when it manifests as the manifold universe by its will, becomes the nimitta kāraṇa. Hence there is no contradiction involved in conceiving Brahman as both the upādāna and nimitta kāraṇa.

One other objection is raised against the theory that sūkṣma-cid-acid-viśiṣṭa-brahma is upādāna kāraṇa. According to the Subāla Upaniṣad dealing with the dissolution of the universe, the different evolutes successively become absorbed in their respective causal substance. The prakṛti is dissolved in the akṣara (jīvātman), the akṣara in turn is dissolved in tamas and tamas finally becomes one with Paramātman. The Viṣṇu-purāṇa also states that both prakṛti and puruṣa are absorbed in Paramātman (prakṛti-puruṣaścāpi ubahu etau līyete paramātmani). According to these statements, both prakṛti and puruṣa are destroyed, the word 'laya' being interpreted as vināśa or destruction. How then can it be claimed that Brahman which exists prior to the state of creation is associated with cit and acit in their unmanifest state?

Vedānta Deśika clarifies that the word 'laya' or 'līyate' does not imply total destruction. On the contrary, the 'laya' of an entity is the assumption of its previous state after giving up the present state (svāvasthā prahāṇena pūrvāvasthā prāptirūpam). The statement 'pṛthivī apsu liyate' means that pṛthivī assumes the state of ap or water after losing the state of pṛthivī. Laya is also understood in another way. It means

merging of an entity into another without losing its nature and assuming an undistinguished form (svāvasthā prahāņamantareņa vastvantarāvirbhāva anarha samsarga viśesa prāpti). In the Subāla Upanisad the statement 'tamaḥ pare deva ekī bhavati' implies that prakṛti and puruṣa assume in the state of dissolution, such a form that they become indistinguishable. It does not mean that they are totally destroyed because the Scriptural and Smṛti texts speak that they are anādi or having no beginning and also nitya or eternal. This is analogous to the melted iron rod and the water into which it is dipped (ayastoyanīti). When the melted rod is dipped into the water, it assumes the state of the iron rod without losing its metallic nature. In the same way, when tamas or prakrti becomes united with Paramātman, prakṛti is not totally lost but it remains in Paramātman in the state of undistinguishable form. Thus the theory of Brahman as related to cit (souls) and acit (cosmic matter) can become upādāna kārana. It is also the nimitta kārana since the universe is created through the operation of His will (samkalpāśrayāt nimitta kāraṇa). This is a sounder theory than that of Advaita which explains upādāna kāraņatva by resorting to vivarta vāda or the theory that Brahman illusorily appears as universe due to avidyā. It is also sounder than Samkhya theory which explains causation of the universe by God as only nimitta kārana (asau bhoktr-bhogya-prabhrti-kavacitāt visva-srstih samīcī)13

II. The Relation of Brahman to the Universe.

Brahman and Jagat are non-distinct (ananya).

A major objection is put forward by the ancient Vaiśeṣikas who maintain that cause and effect are absolutely different and as such Brahman cannot be regarded as material and instrumental cause of the universe. The Ārambhaṇā-dhikaraṇa discusses this important issue and explains the causal relationship between Brahman and the universe in terms of non-difference (ananyatva).

According to the Vaisesikas cause and effect are two different entities. Taking the common example of the threads and the cloth as cause and effect, the cloth is brought into existence anew by the collection of various causal factors. What is accepted as a cause is known by a name different from that which is an effect. Thus for instance, the cause of the cloth is named as thread, whereas its effect is known as cloth. By number (sankhyā), the two are different. The threads are numerous, whereas the cloth is a single entity. By function (vyavahāra), they are not the same. Cloth covers the body, whereas the threads do not serve such a purpose. The knowledge of the thread is not the same as the knowledge of the cloth (buddhi-bheda). Cause and effect differ also in respect of shape (ākāra). There is also temporal difference between the two. Threads are first made and cloth is made later. Because of these several factors, effect is distinct from the cause (anya)14.

Vedānta Deśika does not agree with this view. Threads may be different from the cloth but the two can be regarded as different states of the same substance, as in the example of the scroll of palm leaf and an earring made out of it by just rolling it into the shape of an earring. When it is flat, it is called a scroll but when it is rolled, it is known as an earring. In this instance, the two entities as cause and effect are different by virtue of the name, function, shape etc but still the two are modifications or states of the same substance. That is, the same substance is regarded as cause and effect with reference to the two different states it assumes (dravaikye'pi astu sarvam tadabhimatadaśā bhedatah). In the same way, Brahman as the cause of the universe is regarded as non-distinct from the universe as its effect. Thus states Bādarāyaṇa:

Tad-ananyatvam ārambhaṇa śabdādibhyaḥ¹⁵. It means, as interpreted by Rāmānuja, that the universe is non-distinct from Brahman for the reason that the Upaniṣadic statement beginning with the word 'ārambhaṇa' supports it. The fuller implication of the Sūtra is explained with reference to the

passage of the Chāndogya Upaniṣad on the basis of which it is formulated.

The Upanisad states:

Yathā saumya ekena mṛtpiṇḍena sarvam mṛṇmayam vijñātam syāt, vācārambhaṇam vikāro nāmadhyeyam mṛttiketyeva satyam¹⁶

"My dear, as by the knowledge of one lump of clay, all that is made of clay is known, the modification (the object made of clay) being connected with speech".

This statement is explained by Rāmānuja in the following way. The word arambhana is taken as a variant of alambana on the basis of a grammatical rule. Alambana means being touched (sprsyate). The word vāk means speech. The combined word vacā-ārambhaņa means being touched or being connected with speech. That is, the modification (vikāra) of clay in the form of configurations such as pot or pitcher and the names adopted to designate them are connected with speech for the purpose of bringing out appropriate transactions such as fetching water. The implication of this explanation is that the pot as an effect of clay is not an altogether different entity, as Vaisesikas claim, but on the other hand, it is a modified form of the clay. Though cause and effect may be regarded as distinct, in actuality it is non-distinct in the sense that the pot is only the modified form of the same one substance, namely the clay (mṛd-dravyameva samsthānāntara nāmadheyāntara bhāk). The other important implication of this explanation is that the pot as a modification of clay, is not illusory ($mithy\bar{a}$), as Samkara contends. It is as real as the clay. This is the significance of the words: mṛttikā dravyam ity-eva satyam, mentioned in the Upanisad. Cause and effects are therefore, two different states (avasthās) of the same one substance.

On the basis of these explanations, Rāmānuja maintains that Brahman as the cause and the universe as its effect are ananya or non-distinct. By way of elucidation he points out that Brahman is always (sarvadā) integrally related to the

universe comprising the sentient souls(cit) and non-sentient cosmic matter (acit), both in the state prior to dissolution, that is, prior to creation (agre) and also after the creation of the universe by its samkalpa. In its causal state (kāraṇāvasthā), Brahman is associated with cit and acit in their unmanifest form (sūksma-cid-acid-viśista). When it wills to become many, the same Brahman assumes a state in which it is associated with cit and acit in their manifested gross form (sthūla-cid-acid-viśiṣṭa-brahma). The former is the causal state and the latter is the effect state. On the analogy of the clay and pot, the two states are not different, since Brahman which is the ādhāra for the unmanifested universe and also the manifested universe, is the same. The Chandogya passage dealing with the causation of the universe supports this view. The statement: 'sadeva saumya idamagra asīt ekamevā' implies that Brahman existed prior to creation (agre) as integrally related to cit and acit in their subtle form. This is the ekatvā-vasthā of Brahman, that is, Brahman as associated with cit and acit in their unmanifest form as different from bahutvā-vasthā assumed after it creates the universe by its will. The Brhadaranyaka clearly states that the universe existed in an unmanifest form prior to creation and the same became manifest after creation. Thus it says: Tad-dhedam tarhi avyākrtam āsīt, tan-nāma rūpābhāym vyākriyata¹⁷. The Subāla Upanisad dealing with the dissolution of the universe affirms in clear terms that tamas which represents the unmanifest universe comprising of both the prakrti and the jivas (akṣara) becomes united with Brahman (tamah pare deva ekī bhavati18). The Chandogya teaching sad-vidyā also states; 'Sanmūlāh somya imāh prajāh sadāyatanāh satpratisthāh19'. Considering all these Upanisadic statements, it is obvious that Brahman as related to sūksma cit and acit is the material cause of the universe, on the analogy of the clay and pot cited by the Upanisad, and it is non-distinct from the universe created by it in the sense that the same Brahman as associated with sūkṣma cit and acit becomes Brahman as associated with sthula cit and acit.

An objection can be raised against this theory. If sat or Brahman in the causal state exists along with cit and acit in their unmanifest state, how could it be regarded as advitīya or without a second as stated in the Upaniṣadic statements?

In reply, Vedānta Deśika points out that even the schools of Śamkara, Bhāskara and Yādava Prakāśa who also subscribe to the theory of Brahman as upādāna kāraņa, admit that Brahman as associated with māyā, upādhi and śakti respectively is the cause of the universe. But they seek to overcome the conflict with the concept of advītiya by regarding māyā, upādhi and śakti as apradhāna or secondary principle since it is a quality (viśeṣaṇa), while Brahman which is pradhāna or primary principle remains advitiya. If this is the explanation offered by them, the same explanation holds good in respect of Viśiśtadvaita theory, which admits cit and acit as subordinate to Brahman. Brahman as the Antaryāmin of prakrti and purusa (jīva) is the Principal Reality, while the other two entities are the visesanas or dependent realities. Epistemologically, the substance as qualified by the visesanas is one only. From the standpoint of Brahman as inherently related to cit and acit, it is one (viśista vivaksayā ekatva). Philosophically and also logically, this is a sounder theory of Brahmopādānatva than that of Advaitins and bhedā-bheda vādins, since this conforms better to the Scriptural teachings (sarva śrutyaikarasya)20

III. The Universe as an Integral Part of Brahman.

In the preceding section we have considered the causal relationship between Brahman and universe in terms of ananyatva or non-distinction. In a later adhikaraṇa included in the second pāda of the third adhyāya, Bādarāyaṇa discusses specifically the question of the relation of the non-sentient universe to Brahman in terms of viśeṣṇṇa and viśeṣṇa. That is, jagat caused by Brahman is related to it in the same way as an attribute to the substance or the body to the soul (śarīra-śarīrī bhāva). As this subject has a direct bearing on the theory of the relationship between Brahman

and the universe, it is considered appropriate to discuss it in this chapter.

In connection with the consideration of the two-fold character of Brahman (ubhaya-linga), Bādarāyaṇa introduces three sūtras in which he refers to the different views on the nature of the relation of Brahman to the universe in terms of bhedā-bheda or difference-cum-non-difference and abheda or non-difference by citing two illustrations: 1) serpent and its coils (ahikuṇḍala) and 2) The luminous body and its light (prākaśāśraya and prakāśa).

The sūtra containing the first illustration reads: Ubhaya vyapadeśāt-tu ahikuṇḍalavat²¹. It means, according to Rāmānuja, that the relation of Brahman to the universe is similar to that of the serpent and its coils, since Brahman is spoken of in the Upaniṣads as different and also non-different from the universe (ubhaya vyapadeśāt). Thus the Chāndogya says: sarvam khalu idam brahma — "All this is Brahman". The Śvetāśvatara states: bhoktā bhogyam preritāram ca matvā. This statement draws a distinction between Brahman and the universe. In order to reconcile these two conflicting statements, the non-sentient universe is regarded as a special form (samsthāna višeṣa) of Brahman, as a coil is of the serpent. This represents a prima-facie view, according to Rāmānuja, which upholds non-difference between Brahman and the universe.

The second $s\bar{u}tra$ containing the illustration of the light and its luminous body reads: $prak\bar{a}s\bar{a}sray\bar{a}dv\bar{a}$ $tejastv\bar{a}t^{22}$. It means – "Alternatively $(v\bar{a})$, it is like light and its substrate, both being luminous. Its implication is, according to Rāmānuja, that light and its body are different but at the same time they are one in so far as both are of the nature of light (tejas). This also presents a second alternative prima facie theory, according to which there is difference and non-difference between Brahman and the universe.

The subsequent $s\bar{u}tra$ which simply reads: ' $p\bar{u}rvavadv\bar{a}^{23}$ ', is taken to present the view of Bādarāyana, as admitted by both Śamkara and Rāmānuja. The word ' $p\bar{u}rvavad$ ' literally means 'as stated previously'. The word

' $v\bar{a}$ ' implies that the views contained in the present $s\bar{u}tra$ is different from the two prima facie theories mentioned in the preceding two $s\bar{u}tras$ supporting the relation of non-difference and difference-cum-non-difference respectively between Brahman and the universe.

The earlier sūtra to which Bādarāyaṇa refers, as interpreted by Rāmānuja, is the one relating to the nature of relation of jīva to Brahman in terms of amsa or an integral part of Brahman, which is mentioned in the third pada of the second adhyāya. It reads: amśo nānāvyapadeśāt anyathā ca24- "The self is an integral part of Brahman on account of difference and otherwise (non-difference) also." The fuller implications of this sūtra will be explained in the chapter on the Doctrine of Jīva. For the present it may be noted that Bādarāyana has in mind this sūtra, when he says 'pūrvavad $v\bar{a}'$ to explain the relationship between the universe and Brahman, since the principle adopted to determine the relation of jīva to Brahman is equally applicable to the relation of universe to Brahman. As both jīva and Brahman are śarīra of Brahman, it is relevant to refer to the sutra dealing with jīva while discussing the relation of nonsentient universe to Brahman.

The universe is also regarded as an amsa or an integral part of Brahman since it does not have a separate existence apart from Brahman as in the case of jīva (jīvavat pṛthak-siddhyanarha viseṣaṇatvena acid vastuno brahmāmsam²5). This is similar to the relation of body to the soul (śarīra sarīrī bhāva) adopted by Rāmānuja to explain the relationship between universe and Brahman on the authority of Antaryāmī Brāhmaṇa. The non-sentient universe, like the sentient soul, is śarīra of Brahman in the technical sense that these are necessarily and always supported and controlled by Brahman which is their śarīrī or the Indwelling Self²6. This theory accommodates both difference and non-difference from different standpoints, difference as śarīrī and śarīra and non-difference as śarīrī integrally related to the śarīra.

IV. Refutation of the objections against the theory of Brahman as upādāna kāraņa.

As pointed out earlier, a few objections are raised against the Vedanta doctrine of Brahman as the upadana karana. One major objection raised by the Vaisesikas that cause and effect are absolutely different and as such Brahman cannot be regarded as the cause of the universe is already discussed in the preceding section. There are other objections raised by the Sāmkhyas on the assumption that there cannot be any causal relationship between Brahman and the non-sentient universe since they are of different nature. If on the other hand, Brahman and jagat are considered to be non-different, then the defects found in the material universe and also the afflictions of the jivas would be applicable to Brahman. Further, if Brahman itself as the material cause of the universe, undergoes modification, it would affect its nature as nirvikāra or devoid of change. In the absence of any accessories for creation of the universe and also a useful purpose to be served, Brahman cannot be conceived as the creator of the universe. All these objections are examined by Bādarāyana and set aside in order to establish the causal relation of Brahman to the universe. The following adhikaranas included in the first pāda of the second adhyāya discuss these issues and bring out the relation of Brahman to the universe.

- i) Smrtyadhikarana
- ii) Yoga-pratyukty-adhikarana
- iii) Vilakşanatvādhikarana
- iv) Bhoktrāpatty-adhikaraņa
- v) Ārambhaṇādhikaraṇa
- vi) Itaravyapadeśādhikaraņa
- vii) Upasamhāra-daŕsanādhikaraņa
- viii) Krtsnaprasakty-adhikarana
- ix) Prayojanatvādhikaraņa

We shall present the important points of these adhikaranas, except (v) which has been discussed earlier, as pointed out by Vedānta Deśika.

a) The Smṛti texts of Sāmkhya and Yoga are opposed to Vedānta.

At the outset, Bādarāyaṇa discusses the issue whether the Kapila Smrti or the treatises of Sāmkhya system founded by sage Kapila and Yoga-smrti or the texts of Yoga system founded by Hiranyagarbha, are to be accepted as authoritative for determining the teachings of the Upanisads relating to the cause of the universe. This matter is covered in two separate adhikaranas named as Smrtyadhikarana and yoga-pratyukty-adhikarana. The prima facie view advanced in this connection is that Smrti texts are generally regarded as upabrahmanas or that which elucidate the teachings contained in the śrutis and in view of it, the doubtful Upanisadic statements teaching about Brahman as the material cause of the universe are to be interpreted with reference to what is clearly stated in Kapila Smṛtis. Besides, Kapila is revered in the Vedic texts as a sage, gifted with spiritual knowledge (rsi prasūtam kapilam²⁷). It is therefore contended that kapila smrti is to be depended upon for ascertaining the true cause of the universe. If this view is accepted, it follows that prakrti or the primordial cosmic matter is the material cause of the universe and not Brahman as claimed by the Vedantins.

This view is rejected by Bādarāyaṇa. The relevant sūtra reads: Smṛty-anavakāśadoṣa prasaṅga iti cet, na anya-smṛty-anavakāśadoṣa prasaṅgāt²². Its general meaning is: "If it is argued that Kapila Smṛti would be rendered unauthoritative by not making use of it to determine the meaning of Vedānta texts, then it would lead to the position that other Smṛti texts (such as Manusmṛti) are of no value."

The implication of this is that there are other more authoritative *Smṛtis* such as *Manu Smṛti* and these would be rendered unauthoritative if we rely on *Kapila Smṛti* for determining the meaning of the Upaniṣadic texts. Sage Manu is also reputed to be gifted with Spiritual knowledge and his treatises mention in clear terms that Brahman is

the source of the universe. We cannot therefore ignore them. Further, the teachings of Kapila that *prakṛti* is the cause of the universe is opposed to the Upaniṣadic texts. *Manu Smṛti* does not also mention *prakṛti* as the cause of the universe. The same is the case with Yoga *smṛti* founded by Hiranyagarbha. This is also not regarded as authoritative source book for determining the true purport of the Upaniṣadic texts dealing with the causation of the universe by Brahman. Hence the theory of Brahman as the material cause of the universe is to be admitted as taught in the Upaniṣads.

b) The Cause and Effect are of different nature.

The Sāmkhyas advance an argument on a different ground that Brahman cannot be claimed to be the cause of the universe since the two viz. Brahman as the causal substance and the universe as its effect (kārya) are not of the same nature. That is, Brahman is a sentient Being, whereas the cosmic universe is non-sentient in character and the two being different in nature (vilakṣaṇa), there cannot be any causal relationship between them. The basis for this objection is that according to the Sāmkhyas, the universe is constituted of three guṇas viz. sattva, rajas and tamas and prakṛti which is its cause, is also of the same nature. Hence it is logical to affirm that prakṛti is the cause of the universe and not Brahman, which is of different nature from the universe (na asamāt).

Bādarāyaṇa refutes this objection. This matter is discussed in the *vilakṣaṇādhikaraṇa*. It is not necessary that the causal substance and the effect brought out of it should be of the same nature. By way of elucidating this point, Vedānta Deśika asks the question whether there should be similarity (*sāmya*) between the cause and the effect in every respect or in respect of some aspect only (*kenacit sāmya*). Such a similarity can be seen in respect of a mountain and *paramāṇu*, in so far as the two have a common feature of being *padārthas* (substances). But it does not serve the purpose

· 自己是自己是我,我们们是一个是一个,我们就是我们的一个,我们们是我们的,我们就是我们的一个,也不是一个,也不是一个,我们们就是我们的一个,我们们就是一个一个,

of determining the causal relationship between the two.

It may be argued that the common feature should be of such a nature that would determine the causal relationship between the cause and its effect. Then the argument stands defeated in respect of the cow dung and the scorpion born out of it (gomayāt vṛścikādau bhagna). There is a causal relationship between cow dung and the scorpion but we do not notice any common feature between the two. Hence it is not inappropriate to admit that Brahman as associated with sūkṣma cit and acit is the cause of the manifest universe in the sense that the same Brahman by its samkalpa assumes the state of Brahman as associated with the sthūla cit and acit (sthūlatvam yāti).

As explained earlier, Brahman does not transform itself into the universe in which case its nature would be affected. But on the contrary, the acit or the cosmic matter which constitutes the śarīra or body of Brahman undergoes modification. The change in the cosmic matter does not affect Brahman which is its ādhāra, in the same way as the changes taking place in the body of a person do not affect the self within. The Antaryāmi Brāhmana states that all entities in the universe including the jīvātman, constitute the śarīra or the body of Brahman. The term śarīra employed in the Upanisad is not to be taken in the ordinary sense as the physical body. As explained by Rāmānuja, śarīra or body with reference to Brahman is that which is always supported and also wholly controlled by it. It is defined as follows: yasya cetanasya yaddravyam sarvātmanā svārthe niyantum dhārayitum ca śakyam tachheşataika-svarūpam ca tat tasya śarīram.

It means: "Any substance which a sentient self can completely control and support for its own purposes and which stands to the self in an entirely dependent relation is called its śarīra." On the basis of this definition, Rāmānuja regards that all sentient and non-sentient beings constitute the śarīra or body of Brahman, as declared in the Antaryāmi Brāhmaṇa. The universe is śarīra of Brahman in the technical

sense that the universe is wholly dependent on Brahman for its existence. It is completely controlled by Brahman and it also subserves the purpose of the Supreme Being. Brahman is the *Śarīrin* or Universal Self of the universe, which is its body, because Brahman is the ground (*ādhāra*) for the universe. It is the controller (*niyantā*) and it uses the universe for its own purpose. In view of these explanations, the Vedānta theory of Brahman as the *upādāna kāraṇa* of the universe is logically tenable.

c) Brahman is not subject to the experience of pleasure and pain

If Brahman associated with the universe as its body is the cause of the universe, would it not experience the duḥkha or suffering inherent in the universe just as the jīva associated with a body experiences the sukha and duḥkha?. This is an objection which is raised by the Sāmkhyas against the Vedānta theory of Brahman as the material cause of the universe. According to them, Brahman associated with a body cannot escape the suffering of the universe (bhoktṛāpattiḥ). Consequently there would be no difference between jīva and Brahman, since both are subject to the experience of suffering (avibhāgaḥ). This matter is discussed in the Bhoktṛāpatty-adhikaraṇa.

Bādarāyana refutes this objection. The difference between jīva and Brahman is well established by several Upaniṣadic texts. Though both jīva and Brahman are associated with a body, Brahman does not experience the suffering, unlike jīva. The experience of pleasure and pain is not caused by the mere body, but on the contrary it is due to the karma of the jīva. Since Brahman is free from karma (apahata-pāpma), it is not subject to any affliction caused by karma. This is explained on the analogy of the ruler and the subjects ruled by him (samrād-bhṛtyādinīti). The persons who obey the command of a ruler enjoy the rewards conferred on them and those who disobey the commands are given punishment. But the ruler himself does

not experience any suffering caused by punishment to others nor does he experience any happiness enjoyed by those who are rewarded for their good conduct. In the same way, Brahman who is the Supreme Ruler of the universe is not subject to suffering or joy, while the *jivas* experience the same in accordance with their *karma*. This is the implication of the expression 'lokavat', mentioned in the *sutra* which reads 'bhoktṛāpatteh avibhagaścet syād lokavat'³⁰. If it be said that Brahman would be subject to the experience of pleasure and pain because of non-distinction, the reply is that there is distinction as seen in the world.

d) Brahman as the Creator of the Universe is not affected by the afflictions of the Universe.

In the Arambhanādhikarana dealing with the causal relationship between Brahman and the universe, it was established that the two as cause and effect (kārya) are nondifferent. It would then follow that jīvas too are nondifferent from Brahman in so far as they are part of the universe created by Brahman. Some of the Upanisadic texts such as 'tat-tvamasi', 'sarvam khalu idam brahma' also convey the idea of non-difference between the two. But the jivas are afflicted with all kinds of sufferings. It would then amount to admitting that Brahman is the creator of a universe filled with suffering. Thus the theory of Brahman as the cause of the universe would be subjected to the criticism of Brahman creating a universe, which is nonbeneficial to it. This is the objection raised against the Vedanta doctrine of Brahman as the cause of the universe and it is discussed in a separate adhikarana named Itaravyapadeśādhikarana. The relevant sūtra reads: Itaravyapadésād hitākaranādi-doṣa prasaktiḥ31. It means - "Since Brahman is stated to be non-different from the other (jīva), there would follow the defects of Brahman creating a universe not beneficial to it."

Bādarāyana sets aside this objection on the ground that it is well established in the scriptural texts that jīva and





Brahman by virtue of their nature are absolutely different. Thus says the sutra: 'adhikam tu bheda nirdeśāt32. By way of elucidation, Vedanta Desika points out that the Viśistādvaitin does not admit that the jīva and Brahman are essentially one (svarūpaikyam). On the other hand, the two are regarded as non-distinct (ananya) in the sense that Brahman as inherently related to the jīvas by virtue of its abiding as Antaryāmin in the jivas (tatsthyena jīvātmani antarātmatayā avasthānena ananyatvasya uktatvāt33). The Vedānta-sūtra also states: 'Avasthiteh iti kāśakṛtsṇah34'- "It is one because Brahman abides in the jīva, as stated by sage Kāśakṛtsna". On the authority of Antaryāmi Brāhmaṇa, jīva is regarded as śarīra and Brahman as its śarīrī or Self. Thus Brahman as inherently related to jīva is one but by virtue of their svarūpa, the two are different. Hence the defects found in the universe do not affect Brahman, even though it is the creator of the universe.

e) Brahman is not in need of Accessories for Creation of the universe.

Another minor objection is raised against the Vedānta theory of Brahman as the creator of the universe. Generally it is seen that for the production of an object, such as a pot by the potter, the requisite accessories (upakaraṇa) are needed besides the material (upādāna) and the person to produce the object. Though Brahman may be admitted as having the capacity to function as material and instrumental cause, it does not have any kind of accessories for the creation of the variegated universe. The Upaniṣadic text merely states that prior to creation, Brahman alone existed but there is no mention of the presence of the requisite accessories. Hence the theory of Brahman as the creator of the universe is not sound. This issue is discussed in the adhikaraṇa named upasamhāradarśanadhikaraṇa.

Bādārayaṇa rejects this objection. The relevant sūtra reads: upasamhāra darśanāt na iti cet na kṣīravaddhi. It means: "If it is said that the accessories are needed for the

production of an object, and in the absence of it in respect of Brahman, it cannot be the cause of the universe, the reply is it is untenable as in the instance of milk which has the power of becoming curd out of its own accord without the aids. Brahman which has the power to produce anything, can also create the universe without any accessories. Vedānta Deśika explains that Brahman possesses the śakti or power to create the universe without any accessories out of its samkalpa. He cites several examples to substantiate this point. The milk changes itself to curds on its own accord. The magnet attracts the iron by its own presence. The spider creates the web out of its saliva. The celestial deities create the heavenly objects by their will. A human being can make his body move by his mere desire without any accessories. Hence it is not inappropriate that the all-powerful Brahman creates the universe out of its samkalpa without the aid of any accessory.

f) Brahman does not transform itself into the Universe.

One other serious objection is raised against Brahman as the material cause of the universe. If Brahman itself becomes the universe, the question is raised whether Brahman as a whole undergoes transformation into the universe or only a part of it. In either case it affects the very nature of Brahman which being indivisible should not be subject to any change. Bādarāyana discusses this issue and provides an appropriate answer to it in the Krtsnaprasakty-adhikarana. The relavant sūtra reads: kṛtsna pṛsaktiḥ niravayava śabda kopo vā³⁵. Its general meaning is, according to Rāmānuja, if Brahman is wholly transformed into the universe, it would exhaust itself in becoming the universe and there would be no Brahman left other than the universe for the purpose of meditation and attainment by the seeker of moksa. If on the other hand, a part of Brahman is transformed, Brahman would be divisible. But such a position would violate the Scriptural texts which speak of Brahman as niravaya or devoid of parts.

Bādarāyana refutes this objection by taking recourse to the śruti or the Revealed Scripture as the sole dependable authority to determine these issues. The relevant sūtra reads: śrutestu śabda-mūlatvat36. It means, according to Rāmānuja, that such criticisms are not valid because of the Scriptural support (*śruteh*). That is, the Scriptural texts point out that Brahman is niravaya and that it also creates a variegated universe. Scripture being the sole authority in matters which are super-normal, we have to accept its teaching even though it may not appear logical. But it is also pointed out in a subsequent sūtra that Brahman possesses vicitra śakti or extraordinary powers to cause the universe through its pariņāma without affecting its svarūpa. The Vedānta Sūtra says: ātmani caivam vicitrāśca hi³⁷ - "So also it is seen in the case of Ātman (Brahman) that it possesses variegated power". The Upanisad also says: parāsya śaktiḥ vividhaiva śrūyate svābhāvikī jñāna bala kriyā ca38 - "His knowledge and power are revealed to be manifold". Brahman is thus endowed with extra-ordinary powers and it is therefore possible for it to create the universe without affecting its svarūpa. To overcome this problem, Śamkara resorts to vivarta vāda or the theory of illusory appearance of Brahman on the basis of the doctrine of avidyā. The universe and its origination in Brahman are fabrication of mere avidyā or the cosmic principle of illusion, which conceals the true nature of Brahman and projects its appearance as the universe. What is caused by avidya does not affect the true nature of Brahman. The universe is not really caused or created by Brahman, but it is a mere illusory appearance. But there is no mention in the Vedānta sūtras about māyā or avidyā as conceived by Śamkara or even the concept of vivarta. Nor is it supported by the Upanisads. Hence there is no inconsistency in the stand taken by Rāmānuja to explain the material causality of Brahman on the basis of parinama stated by Vedānta-sūtra and explained by Rāmānuja which is in conformity with the Upanisadic teachings.

g) The Purpose of Creation of the Universe.

The possibility of Brahman being the creator of the universe is questioned on the ground that there is no useful purpose served by such a creation (na prayojanatvāt³³). It is asked whether the creation of the universe is for the benefit of the creator himself or for someone else. It cannot be for the benefit of Brahman, since it is stated to be one whose desires are ever-fulfilled (avāpta samastakāmaḥ). If it is for others out of the compassion of the creator, then the creation of the universe filled with suffering is not justified (kāruṇyat duḥkhasṛṣṭiḥ na bhavati). Hence the theory of Brahman as the cause of the creation of the universe is not sound.

This theory is discussed in a separate adhikarana named 'na prayojanatvādhikarana'. The above objection is illfounded, contends Vedānta Deśika (andhacodyam). As stated by Bādarāyaṇa, the creation of the universe by Īśvara (Brahman) is a mere sport for Him (līlāsau lokavat syāt). This is explained on the analogy of the king. Though the king has no specific object to achieve, he indulges in the sports or gambling activities, purely out of pleasure. If God creates the universe as a divine sport for His own pleasure, how could He be regarded as 'avāptasamastakāmaḥ'?. In reply Vedanta Desika points out that the concept of avāptasamastakāmah does not mean that God has no desires at all or that His desires are already fulfilled, but on the contrary it implies that whenever He wills a thing, it is accomplished without any obstruction (abhimata samaye siddhih).

One other objection is raised. If God is the creator of the universe which is full of suffering and also there exists wide disparities in the suffering and happiness of individuals, He would be subject to partiality (vaiṣamya) and cruelty (nairghaṇya). This is not tenable says Bādarāyaṇa because He creates the individuals on the basis of their karma or their past deeds (karma sāpekṣatvāt). God dispenses good to

those who have done good deeds and evil to those who have done wicked deeds. This is also supported by the Scriptural text – 'sādhukāri sādhurbhavati pāpakāri papo bhavati'. Hence Īśvara is free from the defect of being cruel. Karma, which is the cause of birth in different strata, is anadi or beginningless, just as jīva is anādi (anāditvāt upapadyate). That is, the jīvas along with the variegated karma transmigrate birth after birth continuously from beginningless time like the seed and sprout (bijānkurādi krama viṣama bhāva anādi karmaughabhājāmi⁴⁰)

- Ch. Up. VI-1-3.
- 4. Ibid Ch. Up. VI-1-4 to 6.
- 5. Ch. Up. VI-2-3. See also Tait. Up. 'so'kāmayata bahusyām prajāyeyeti'. See also V.S. I-4-24 'abhidhyopadésācca'
- 6. Tait. Up. 11-7.
- 7. VS I-4-26 and 27.
- 8. Br. Up. III-4-70.
- See AS verse 144.
- 10. V\$ I-4-25.
- 11. VS I-4-28.
- 12. AS verse 146. tasmāt kartāpi devaḥ prakṛtirapi bhavet sarvatattvāntarātmā. kartāpi means nimitta-bhūtopi. Prakṛtirapi bhavet means Brahman can become upādāna kārana.
- 13. See AS verse 148
- 14. See RB II-1-15. See also TMK 1-20.
- 15. VS II-1-15
- 16. Ch. Up. VI-1-1
- 17. Br. Up. III-4-7.
- 18. Sub. Up. II
- 19. Ch. Up. VI-3-3.
- 20. AS verse 167
- 21. VS III-2-26.
- 22. VS III-2-27.
- 23. VS III-2-28.
- 24. VS II-3-42
- 25. RB III-2-28.

^{1.} VS I-4-23

This is the meaning provided by the grammarian. See Pātañjali Mahābhāṣya I-4-30 – jani kartuḥ prakṛtiḥ. Madhva does not admit Brahman as upādāna kāraṇa. He interprets this word to mean Visnu

- 26. See section III-(2) for fuller implication of śarīra.
- 27. See Svet. Up. V-2
- 28. VS-II-1-1.
- 29. For further implications of the definition, see R.B. II-1-9. Also, F.V.V. pp50-51.
- 30. VS. II-1-14
- 31. VS II-1-21
- 32. VS II-1-22
- 33. AS verse 168.
- 34. VS I-4-22.
- 35. VS II-1-26.
- 36. VS II-1-27
- 37. VS II-1-28.
- 38. Svet. Up. VI-8.
- 39. VS II-1-32.
- 40. AS verse 173.

CHAPTER SIX

THE THEORY OF COSMIC CREATION

In the first adhyāya of Brahma-sūtra known as Samanvayādhyāya, Bādarāyana establishes by a systematic and methodical examination of the important passages dealing with Brahman, that it is the sole cause of the universe (jagatkāraṇa). In the second adhyāya which is titled Avirodhādhyāya, he attempts to reaffirm on a solid basis this important Vedanta doctrine by a critical examination of the theories of the other schools of thought which were prevalent during his time and which were opposed to the central doctrine enunciated in the preceding adhyāya. The schools which come up for consideration in the order in which it is stated in the Brahma-sūtra, are: Sāmkhya, Yoga, Vaiśesika, the four schools of Buddhism - Vaibhāsika, Sautrāntika, Yogācāra and Mādhyamika, Jaina, Pāśupata, and Pāñcarātra. Of these, the schools of Sāmkhya and Yoga receive special attention since the founders of these systems are Kapila, a reputed Vedic sage and Hiranyagarbha, a Vedic deity. The followers of these schools do not admit Brahman as the cause of the universe. They ascribe the origin of the universe to prakṛti, the primordial cosmic matter, which either independently or through the association of *Īśvara* (in the case of Yoga school) evolves itself into the universe. The schools of Vaisesika, Buddhist and Jaina trace the origin of the universe to the paramāņus or atoms which are infinitesimal and suprasensible reals. The school of Pāsupata upholds that *Īsvara*, named Paśupati, is only the *nimitta kāraṇa* of the universe. As these views are opposed to the Vedānta doctrine of Brahman, they need to be refuted in order to prove the soundness of the Vedānta theory (*svapakṣasthāpanāya parapakāḥ pratikṣepa*). The *Pāñcarātra* school, however, is taken up for consideration for the purpose of clarifying that its teachings are not opposed to Vedānta as claimed by some critics.

The following eight *Adhikaraṇas* of the second *pāda* of the second *adhyāya* are devoted for this purpose.

- 1. Racanā-nupapatty-adhikaraņa
- 2. Mahad-dhīrghādhikaraņa
- 3. Samudāyādhikaraņa
- 4. Upalabdhy-adhikarana
- 5. Sarvathānupapatty-adhikaraņa
- 6. Ekasmin-asambhavādhikaraņa
- 7. Paśupatyādhikaraņa
- 8. Utpatty-asambhavādhikaraņa

The scope of the critical examination is confined to show that the philosophical theories of these schools in general and, in particular, the views advanced by some of them regarding the process of cosmic creation are logically untenable and thereby establish that the Vedānta doctrine of Brahman as the cause of the universe is free from such inconsistencies. In some of the Adhikaraṇas of the third and fourth pāda, Bādarāyaṇa also discusses the ontological status of the evolutes of prakṛti such as viyat or ether and tejas or the element of fire to prove that Brahman is the cause of these evolutes. In this connection the process of the formation of the physical universe by Brahman is also explained. We shall consider all these matters as presented by Vedānta Deśika in the Adhikaraṇa sārāvalī.

I. The Sāmkhya Theory of Cosmic Evolution

This is discussed in the Racanānupapatty-adhikaraṇa. According to the Sāmkhyas, the mūla-prakṛti or the primordial cosmic matter is the cause of the universe. Prakṛti is constituted of three guṇas viz. sattva, rajas and tamas. It is

non-sentient in character (acetana), one, omnipresent (sarvagata) and constantly changing (satata-vikriyā). Prior to its evolution the three gunas remain in a state of equilibrium. When this equilibrium is disturbed, it evolves itself into various modifications in a particular order. The first evolute of prakṛti is known as mahat and from mahat evolves ahanikāra. The ahanikāra is also characterized by the three gunas and accordingly it is of three kinds: sāttvika, rājasa and tāmasa. From sāttvika ahanikāra, in which the sattva element is predominant, the eleven sense organs including the manas are evolved. From the tāmasa ahamkāra, the five tanmātras or subtle elements evolve. From the tanmātras arise the five gross elements – ākāśa, vāyu, tejas, jala and prthivī. Purusa which is distinct from prakrti, is sentient, eternal, all-pervasive and unchanging. Besides purusa and prakrti as the two fundamental ontological principles, the ancient Samkhyas do not admit *Iśvara* or God as a separate Being.1

The origin of the universe is explained on the basis of the evolution of the unmanifest *prakṛti* into manifest universe of its own accord. That is, when the equilibrium of the three *guṇas* is disturbed, it evolves itself into twenty three evolutes including the five physical elements. The physical universe is caused by the combination of the five elements.

Bādarāyaṇa does not accept this theory of cosmic creation. His criticism is mainly directed to point out that the orderly process of evolution of the *prakṛti* into the manifest universe cannot take place without the control and direction of a Sentient Being. The relevant sūtra reads: Racanā-nupatteśca na anumānam pravṛtteśca². It means: prakṛti (which is established on the basis of inference) cannot be the cause of the universe because of the untenability (anupapatty) of cosmic creation (without it being guided by an intelligent Being) and also the need of an intelligent Being for the initiation of the evolutionary activity (pravṛtteśca). The implication of the sūtra is that prakṛti being a nonsentient entity, cannot evolve itself into manifold universe

unless it is guided or controlled by an intelligent Being possessing the knowledge of the object. As Vedānta Deśika explains, we have seen in our ordinary experience that objects such as a piece of cloth and pots are made by persons having knowledge of the objects such as a weaver or potter. In the case of mountains, oceans etc, these are regarded as creations of God on the authority of the Scriptural texts. It is therefore inconceivable how the non-sentient *prakṛti* can evolve itself into the manifold variegated universe without the guidance of an intelligent Being.

The Sāmkhyas cite a few illustrations in defence of their theory. The green grass consumed by a cow is converted into milk. The milk becomes curds. The water particles of the ocean are formed into thick water-bearing clouds. The magnet is found to attract iron. In these cases there seems to be no role of an intelligent person.

But this argument is not tenable, contends Vedānta Deśika. In all these cases, there is the role of a sentient Being which causes such changes (tad akhilaṁ cetana adhiṣṭhitam). This is proved by the Vedāntins on the strength of the Scriptural texts or on the basis of inference by the Vaiśeṣikas.

The Sāmkhyas argue that the presence of the Puruṣa, the eternal sentient individual Self, with prakṛti, can cause the evolution of prakṛti into the universe. This is explained on the analogy of a blind and lame person. A blind person is enabled to move with the help of a lame person. In the same way, with the mere association or presence of the intelligent Puruṣa, the prakṛti can evolve itself into the universe. Even this explanation is unsatisfactory. Puruṣa in the Sāmkhya system is present eternally and it is not possible to account for the initiation of the evolutionary process at a particular point of time on that basis.

There are other inconsistencies in the Sāmkhya theory of cosmic creation. According to the Sāmkhyas, the *prakṛti* comprising of the three *guṇas* is the cause of the creation of the universe, when the equilibrium of the *guṇas* is disturbed. Dissolution of the universe takes place when the same three

guṇas remain in a state of equipoise. But prakṛti comprising of the three guṇas is vibhu or all-pervasive. What is vibhu all the time cannot admit itself the two different states of creation and dissolution (teṣām nityam vibhutve sama-viṣama daśādi kīdṛg vadeyuḥ³).

The Sāmkhyas also account for bondage and release on the basis of the superimposition of the prakṛti on the Puruṣa (anyonyā-adhyāsa) and total dissociation of puruṣa with prakṛti respectively on the analogy of the white crystal and red flower placed close to it. The pure white crystal is mistaken to be red on account of the superimposition of the redness on the crystal and when the flower is taken away, the crystal remains in its pure form. In the same way, puruṣa who is eternally pure and free from bondage is supposed to be bound on account of its conjunction with mind or antaḥkaraṇa which is a product of prakṛti. When puruṣa is dissociated with antaḥkaraṇa and all its functions, it becomes free. This is how bondage and liberation from bondage are accounted for.

This is also an unsatisfactory theory, contends Vedānta Deśika, because both the puruṣa and prakṛti do not possess cetanatva or knowledge as a dharma. Prakṛti is non-sentient in character. Puruṣa, though it is regarded as sentient, is not admitted by the Sāmkhyas as the subject of knowledge. It is nirlepa or untouched by all mental qualities such as jñāna, desire, capacity to function (prayatna). How then such a puruṣa can become associated with bondage and also liberated from it.

Further the Sāmkhyas state that the main function of prakṛti is to cause bondage to the puruṣa in the form of experience of pleasure and pain and also bring liberation for it.⁴

If puruṣa, is nityamukta for the Sāṁkhyas, how can it be subject to bondage and liberation from it? All these teachings, if subjected to logical analysis are found to be inconsistent. Hence the Sāṁkhya theory of *Pradhāna* as the cause of the universe, is not sound.

II. Vaiśeșika Theory of Cosmic Creation

This is examined in the Mahad-dīrgādhikarana. The Vaiśesikas, unlike the Sāmkhyas admit *Īśvara* but they ascribe the origin of the universe to the paramāņus or the atoms which are eternal, partless, infinitesimal and suprasensuous reals. The four gross elements – earth, water, fire and air of which the universe is constituted are not derived from the *prakṛti* but from such atoms. The process of origination of these physical elements takes place as follows. When two atoms, for example, of earth, come together, they form a binary compound known as dvyanuka. Like the primary atoms, it is infinitely small in size and is therefore supersensuous. Three such binaries, suitably adjusted produce a triad known as tryanuka, which is identified with the dust particle we notice in the sun-beam through the window. This is regarded as a visible entity. Its magnitude is finite and all other finite objects are made out of such triads. The large size of an object such as a mountain or the small size of an object such as a mustard seed is due to the combination of a number of tryanukas formed out of the primary atoms. The existence of the atoms is deduced from the known divisibility of perceivable material objects. According to the Vaisesikas the divisibility must terminate at some stage and cannot go on indefinitely. The terminal stage in the process of this division represents paramāņus or the atoms which are the uncaused cause of all that is finite in the universe.

Bādarāyaṇa rejects this theory. The main point of criticism is directed towards the impossibility of the combination of the paramāṇus. The relevant sūtra reads: Mahad-dhīrghavad-vā hṛsva parimaṇḍalābhyām⁵. The word hṛsva means dvyaṇuka and parimaṇḍala means paramāṇus. Mahad-dhīrgha implies tryaṇuka. The general meaning of the sūtra is that the theory of the origination of the universe from the atoms is unsound in the same way as the formation of the dvyaṇukas out of the paramāṇus. By way of elucidation, Vedānta Deśika points out that the very formation of

the dvyanukas by the combination of two primary atoms is inconceivable. Since the atoms are partless (niravaya), the question is asked: When two paramānus come together, do they combine as a whole or only in parts? If they combine as a whole, there would be complete interpenetration. That is, one submerges in the other and consequently the dvyanukas formed out of it is not of bigger magnitude. How then could such dvyanukas produce the things bigger than themselves? If on the contrary, the atoms combine in parts, then the atoms should be admitted to be as possessing parts or sides as in the case of physical objects. We speak of two physical objects coming together only in respect of a side. But such a possibility is ruled out in respect of the atoms which according to the Vaisesikas do not possess any part or spatial property. Thus, if the combination of two paramānus cannot be explained satisfactorily, the theory of paramānus as the material cause of the universe cannot be established.

The theory of Vaiśeṣikas also suffers from another serious defect. How does the original combination or conjunction of two primary atoms take place? It needs some principle which causes the movement of the atoms to come together. For this purpose, the Vaiśesikas posit the adṛṣṭa or the unseen force. Where does it abide and how does it operate? If it abides in the individual soul, it cannot cause motion in the atoms which are outside it. If this be possible, then ātman being nitya should always cause the creation. If on the other hand, it abides in the atoms, then the adṛṣṭa being nonsentient cannot have the capacity of bringing about the combination of the atoms. Besides, adṛṣṭa caused by the deeds of the souls cannot exist in the atoms.

It may be possible to explain the operation of adṛṣṭa by conceiving Īśvara as instrumental in bringing together the atoms. That is, Īśvara, through His samkalpa (will) can cause the combination of atoms as dvyanukas and tryanukas and through them the formation of the universe. But the theory of Īśvara which is formulated on the basis of anumāna or

inference, is defective as stated in the Śāstra-yonitvādhikaraṇa. If Īśvara is admitted as the Supreme Being endowed with omniscience and omnipotence, on the authority of the Upaniṣads, as the Vedāntins do, then it would be possible to account for the creation of the universe through His saṅkalpa. But such a view is not acceptable to the Vaiśeṣikas and hence the theory of paramāṇus as the cause of the universe is unsound (asamañjasa).

III. Buddhist Theories of Cosmic Origin

There are four schools of Buddhism viz. Vaibhāṣika, Sautrāntika, Yogācāra and Mādhyamika. The Vaibhāṣikas and the Sautrāntikas trace the origin of the universe to the paramāṇus which are regarded as momentary in character (kṣaṇika). The Yogācāras and the Mādhyamikas offer different views regarding the nature of physical phenomena. All these theories stand opposed to the Vedānta doctrine of Brahman and universe and hence they are taken up by Bādarāyaṇa for critical examination. The following three adhikaraṇas are exclusively devoted to the consideration of this matter.

- 1) Samudāyādhikarana which discusses the theories of Vaibhāsikas and Sautrāntikas.
- 2) Upalabdhy-adhikarana dealing with Yogācāra theory.
- 3) Sarvathā-anupapatty adhikaraṇa which examines the Mādhyamika theory.

a) Vaibhāşika Theory

The origin of the universe which is traced to the paramāṇus is explained as follows. The four physical elements viz. pṛthivī or earth, ap or water, vāyu or air and tejas or fire which are evident to perceptual experience are regarded as constituted of atoms. Each element possesses certain qualities. The atoms of earth possess qualities of colour, taste, touch and smell. The atoms of water contain qualities of

colour, taste and touch. The atoms of tejas possess the qualities of colour and touch while the atoms of vāyu contain the quality of touch only. When these atoms combine together, they become the aggregates of four physical elements (bhūta). The physical bodies, the sense organs (indriyas) and the objects of the external world are formed by the combination of the aggregates of four physical elements. The Vaibhāṣikas do not admit ātman or soul as a separate entity. The mind called citta and the series of mental ideas serve the purpose of the self through which the knowledge of the external objects arise. All things, both the external objects and the internal ideas are momentary (kṣaṇika) in character.

Bādarāyaṇa rejects this theory as most unsound. If all things exist only for a moment, the very formation of the universe cannot take place out of the aggregates of paramānus and the aggregates of physical and mental atoms of the bodies and other objects.6 paramāņus, according to the Vaibhāsikas originate in the first moment and the same in the next moment combine themselves into an aggregate and in the third moment these become the physical elements such as prthivī out of which the formation of the universe takes place. If the paramānu perishes in the very next moment soon after it comes into existence how then can it cause the prthivi etc out of which the bodies arise? If paramānus are momentary in nature, physical elements constituted of the paramanus and the formation of the universe out of such elements is inconceivable. Even the cognition of the external objects by the citta or mind through sense contacts cannot also be explained if the objects and the buddhi do not have a permanent existence.

b) Sautrāntika Theory

The Sautrāntikas also offer a similar kind of explanation regarding the formation of the universe. The criticisms leveled against the Vaibhāsika regarding the formation of the universe also apply to the Sautrāntikas.

They also maintain that the external object is not directly perceived but it is to be inferred on the basis of the cognition of the objects that takes place. The justification for such a view is that objects, being momentary cannot be present at the time they are seen. If they were present, they would persist for at least two moments. That is, when they served as the cause of perception and when they were actually perceived. If things have only momentary existence, then it is only a past thing that can be perceived. So what is present externally when perception takes place is only the successor in the object series of the member that served as its cause. The previous member leaves its impression on the percipient mind before it disappears and it is from impression (ākāra) that we infer the prior existence of the corresponding object.

This theory is subjected to severe criticism by Vedānta Deśika in the Tattva-muktā-kalāpa. All the arguments advanced by the Sautrantika Buddhists are examined in detail and refuted. The main point of criticism is that it is impossible for an object to transfer its image or impression to jñāna. The Sautrāntika adopts the analogy of the reflection of the face in the mirror in support of its theory. Though we do not see our face, it is perceived when it is reflected in a mirror. This is what is meant by ākāra-samarpaņa or transference of the image. Such an explanation does not hold good in respect of knowledge and object. Jñāna by its nature is devoid of any form (nirākāra). How could there be a reflection of it7! In the case of the mirror, reflection is possible in the glass because it is tainted with mercury. There is no such conditioning factor (upādhi) in respect of jñāna. Besides, jñāna as well as the object, according to the Soutrantika are momentary. By the time the object transfers its image to jñāna, the former would have changed. The object to be reflected and the recipient of the reflection are not of the same temporal order and hence the reflection of the objects is not possible.

It may be possible to explain the transference of the quality of one entity to the other by way of proximity as in

the example of white crystal placed next to the red flower. But this explanation would not hold in respect of knowledge and the object since there is no common feature between the two (dvayamapi ekākāroparaktam na). Only two entities having physical form could be juxtaposed but for the Sautrāntikas both are formless (vyamśe naivābhimukhyam). Besides, all objects are momentary and at the time knowledge arises, the particular momentary object ceases to exist. Hence the ākāra of the object cannot be passed on to knowledge.

c) The Theory of Yogācara

Unlike the Vaibhāṣika and Sautrāntika, this school of Buddhism denies even the existence of the external objects. According to it, knowledge which is described as vijñāna is the sole reality and its content is false. There is neither subject nor object but only a succession of ideas. The specific form which cognition at any particular instant assumes is determined not by an outside object presented to it as the realists believe but by the latent impression (vāsanā) left behind by past experience which in turn goes back to another impression, that again to another experience and so on, indefinitely in a beginningless series. Only these ideas (vijñāna) are real and the external objects have no reality of their own. The latter are just projections of the internal (mental) ideas. Hence they are called vijñānavādin, since apart from the series of mental ideas, nothing really exists. As this doctrine denies the very existence of the external world and also the process of knowing the external objects, it is subjected to a critical examination in a separate adhikarana named as Upalabdhy-adhikarana. The criticism is confined to two important points. First, it is not possible to deny the existence of external objects because our experience reveals that knowledge is always related to a subject and also to an object (na abhāva upalabdheh8). Secondly, the external objects experienced by us are not

similar to the dream objects, that is, the objects experienced in the dream state (vaidharmyācca na svapnādivat⁹).

In the *Tattva-muktā-kalāpa* Vedānta Deśika presents a more detailed criticism against the theory of Yogācāra after examining all the possible arguments advanced by them. We shall take note of the important points of the criticism.

The main point of criticism is that knowledge which manifests as 'I know' is an internal phenomenon, whereas the object which manifests as 'This is an external entity', and the two which are distinct, can never be one and the same. That is 'knowing' and 'being' can never be identical as claimed by the Yogācāra.

Against this, the following argument is put forward by Yogācāra. There is an invariable association between knowledge and its content (sahopalambha niyama). Thought and objects always appear together and neither can appear without the other. It is not therefore correct to assume that they are distinct and they may well be regarded as different phases of one and the same factor.

Vedānta Deśika refutes this argument. The fact that knowledge and object are found together does not establish that knowledge and object are one and the same. There is invariable concomitance or association between smoke and fire but nevertheless it does not follow that they are the same. In fact the very concept of 'invariable association' is meaningful only when two separate entities exist (sahamātiniyamādyanyathaiva atra siddham¹¹).

Another argument is advanced by the Yogācara based on the analogy of the dream where experience takes place without corresponding objects. That is, in dream we experience the objects but the objects experienced do not actually exist. In the same way, though our ordinary experience may refer to external objects, the latter do not really exist. This is rejected on the ground that there is a difference between the dream objects and the objects seen in the waking state. Thus it is stated in the sūtra: vaidharmyācca na svapnādivat¹¹. According to the Viśiṣṭād-

vaitin, even the dream objects are real for the duration of the dream since these are the creations of *Īśvara* as stated in the Upaniṣads. If these are still regarded as non-real it is because these are sublated in the waking experience. But nevertheless, they exist as long as one is dreaming as otherwise there cannot be any experience of it. But the objects of the waking state are not sublated. They do exist all the time as long as they last and as such they are real.

Vedānta Deśika further observes that knowledge which arises only in relation to objects cannot be devoid of content. In the case of perceptual knowledge, perception takes place only when there is sense contact with the objects that exist. Smṛti or memory also occurs with regard to an object or event already experienced. Even illusory cognition presupposes previous experience of an object. Taking the instance of illusion of shell-silver, if shell did not exist, it could not have been mistaken for silver. Thus all our knowledge depends on the existence of objects. The admission of the reality of external objects is therefore absolutely essential for the functioning of knowledge. If knowledge has no relation to any object other than itself, it ceases to be knowledge.

Further, it is a matter of common experience that knowledge is variegated and this diversity is possible because of the differences in their contents. If existence of objects is denied, the diversity of knowledge cannot be explained.

The Vijñānavādin tries to explain the diversity of experience on the basis of the variegated vāsanās, which are in the form of a continuous series like the flowing river from a beginningless time. Vijñāna is also a series of momentary mental processes, and the vāsanās which are associated with them influence vijñāna and thereby cause the diversity of experience.

Such an explanation does not hold good, contends Vedānta Deśika. Vāsanā for a Buddhist is kṣaṇika. That is, it changes every moment. In the series of cognitions, when

the earlier cognition ceases to exist, the $v\bar{a}san\bar{a}$ associated with it is also erased and hence it cannot influence the next momentary cognition. If the series of cognitions is admitted as one continuous cognition, it may be possible to account for the continuation of the $v\bar{a}san\bar{a}$ and its influence on the cognition. Alternatively reality of external objects is to be admitted to account for diversity of experience. Neither is accepted by the $Vij\bar{n}anav\bar{a}din$ and his theory of knowledge is therefore untenable.

d) Mādhyamika Theory

The Mādhyamika Buddhists advance an absolutely different view regarding the nature of the objects of the external world. According to them the objects of the external world do not have real existence. No entity in the universe is of the nature of sat or existent. If something is sat, it should not be sublated and should always exist everywhere in the same form. It cannot be otherwise, since any change in its svarūpa is not possible. Nothing in the universe is of the form of asat. What is asat should not appear to cognition. But it is not so, because at sometime or some place or in some manner it appears to cognition. It cannot be both sat and asat because of the defects pointed out in respect of first two alternatives. Besides, it involves self-contradiction. Nor could it be said that it is devoid of sat and asat because of the same objection stated with regard to the third alternative. These are the four possible modes of predication, and tattva or what is considered to be a real entity cannot be characterized by any of these predications, taken either singly or taken in combination. That is tattva is neither real nor unreal nor real-unreal nor different from both real and unreal but different from all the four alternatives. Thus they describe tattva as 'catuskoti vinirmuktam'12. That is, it is śūnya in the words of Mādhyamika or absolutely indeterminable. If this be the nature of the tattva, then the universe and the objects do not exist as such.

Bādarāyaṇa rejects this doctrine. The adhikaraṇa named as Sarvathā-nupapatty-adhikaraṇa is devoted to this matter.

The relevant sūtra reads: sarvathā-anupapatteśca¹³. It means – "The doctrine of Mādhyamika, that everything in this universe is indeterminable (sarvaśūnya) is totally untenable". The implication of this, as explained by Vedānta Deśika is that it is purely a speculative theory without having any support of the pramāṇas (amānataḥ sveṣṭā vāda). He raises two alternatives. Is this theory established on the basis of admission of the generally accepted pramāṇas? Or is it proved without any pramāṇas. If pramāṇas are accepted, the Mādhyamika cannot prove such a theory. If it is not accepted, then the theory stands defeated and the theory of his opponent would stand justified (tat-prahāṇe paramatam akṣobhyam). That is, if the theory of sarvaśūnyatva is rejected, the reality of the universe accepted by the opponent becomes established.

The Mādhyamika attempts to prove his theory on the basis of the admission of the concept of samvṛti, an illusory principle which makes what is non-existent as existent. Even the postulation of such a concept would not help to prove that everything is śūnya (asat samvṛtiḥ na arthasiddhyai).

Vedānta Deśika points out that it is impossible to conceive tattva as absolutely indeterminable (śūnya). The words śūnya (void) and tuccha (non-existent) which appear to mean total negation (sarvaśūnya) do not imply absolute non-existence. Negation necessarily presupposes its counter correlate. It does not deny total non-existence at any time or at any place. When we say that an object does not exist, it only means that it exists at some other place or at some other time, but not that it is absolutely non-existent like the sky-flower. Absolute non-existence (sarvathā-śūnyatva) is not logically tenable. What does not exist here and now does exist elsewhere and some other time. It is not therefore correct to deny the reality of external objects and also the jñāna, jñātā etc on the basis of śūnya-vāda (nirupādhika nisedhah adrtāt na kalpyah¹4).

One other argument is advanced by the Mādhyamika in support of his theory. An object such as a pot, does not exist prior to its production. Nor does it exist after it is destroyed. What does not exist, either prior to its production or after it is destroyed, ceases to exist. It does not also exist during the middle period like the sky-flower (gagana kusumavat syānna madhye). This argument is untenable, contends Vedānta Deśika. The very fact that the pot is perceived to exist at present, does not prove its non-existence.

An objection is also raised on the basis of the causal relation between the cause and effect. Is the effect produced from the cause that undergoes modification (vikāra) or from one which does not (avikṛtiḥ)?. If it be the former, then it is asked whether or not this modification is produced by some other modification. If this question is pursued, we are condemned to an infinite regress. If it be the latter, then the effect would abide all the time the cause continues.

This is an irrelevant objection, contends Vedānta Deśika. It is well known that the effect is caused by the association of the requisite accessories with the causal substance (sāmagryā kārya siddheḥ). The lump of clay undergoes modification into a pot when only the accessories such as the potter, the wheel and stick are operative. There is therefore no room for the fallacy of infinite regress in respect of kārana.

In the absence of the admission of the valid pramāṇas, it is not possible to prove the theory of the Mādhyamikas viz. everything is śūnya. If on the basis of the concept of samvṛti, an illusory principle postulated by the Mādhyamika, all their theories, though not valid, appear to be valid, then on the basis of the same explanation, it is possible to assert that even the stand adopted by the opponent and also the criticisms offered by them are all valid. Thus, by resorting to the concept of samvṛti, which corresponds to the Advaita concept of māyā, the cosmic principle of illusion, it is not possible to establish the theory of sarva-śūnyatva.

Incidentally Vedanta Desika briefly enumerates the various theories of error and truth. These are: Anyathākhyāti of Naiyāyikas or the theory of mis-apprehension of shell for silver, akhyāti of Mīmāmsakas or the theory of nondiscrimination between shell and silver, viṣayarahita-dhīḥ of some Buddhists or the erroneous knowledge without a content, the theory of cognition of something without an objective basis (anadhisthāna dhiḥ), held by some Buddhists, bāhyārthākārayogah - the transference of the ākāra of the external object on the internal cognition (view of Sautrāntikas), error as different from sat and asat (sadasat itara dhīh) held by Advaitin, contentless cognition (śūnyadhīḥ) of Mādhyamikas, ātmadhīḥ or the cognition itself projecting in a different form held by Yogācāra. These theories advanced by other schools are wrong. The sound and correct theory is that all that is perceptually seen is real including the vision of silver in shell (yathārthakhyāti) as this is in conformity with the Scriptural teaching and the pañcīkarana theory. But in a few exceptional cases where pañcīkarana is not applicable, it is satkhyāti combined with akhyāti¹⁵

iv) Jaina Theory of universe

The Jainas also trace the origin of the universe to the paramāṇus and they do not accept Īśvara as the cause of the universe. Bādarāyana therefore takes it up for critical examination as it is opposed to the Vedānta doctrine. This subject is considered in a separate adhikaraṇa named Ekasmin-asambhavādhikaraṇa. The main criticism is directed to prove the logical untenability of the central theory of sapta-bhangī or the seven-fold description of the nature of all the entities in the universe developed by the Jainas.

According to the Jainas the universe comprises of jīvas and ajīvas but there is no Īśvara. They admit six categories (dravyas) viz. jīva, dharma, adharma, pudgala, kāla and ākāśa. The term pudgala refers to the substance possessing the

qualities of rūpa, rasa, gandha and sparśa. It is of two types, one in the form of paramāņus and the other in the form of the conglomerations of paramāņus. These are air, water, fire, earth and all kinds of material bodies. The universe is formed out of such conglomeration of paramāņus.

Regarding the nature of the objects in the universe, it is not of one uniform character but manifold (anekānta). When we look at a thing from different view points, we arrive at different conclusions. Thus, a jug is a dravya in the sense that it is of the nature of collection of atoms but it is not a dravya like another substance like ākāśa. It is a dravya in one sense and not a dravya in another sense. In the same way, an object looked at from different standpoints could be described as different in character. By adopting such a theory it is concluded that objects are different as well as non-different.

Jainas seek to justify the possibility of different views regarding the nature of an entity from different standpoints on the basis of the *syādvāda*, also named as *saptabhangi* or the seven-fold formula. The word '*syād*' means maybe. The reality, in their opinion is extremely indeterminate in its nature and it is not possible to make any affirmation which is universally and absolutely valid. They conceive of seven possible alternatives in describing the nature of an entity as follows.

- 1. Maybe, is (syād asti)
- 2. Maybe, is not (syād-nāsti)
- 3. Maybe, is and is not (syād asti ca nāsti ca)
- 4. Maybe, is inexpressible (syād avyaktavyam)
- 5. Maybe is and is inexpressible (syād asti ca avyaktavyam)
- 6. Maybe is not and is inexpressible (syād nāsti ca avyaktavyam)
- 7. Maybe is, and is not and is inexpressible. (syād asti ca nāsti ca avyaktavyam)

The Jainas apply the seven-fold formula even to the substance and the qualities which are called paryāyas or

modes. The paryāyas are modifications taking place in the substance and are accidental in character. Since both features – substance and modes are admitted in respect of the same identical object and at the same time, it is possible to speak of coexistence of permanence and change or unity and difference at the same time and in respect of the same object. Judged as an enduring entity, substance is permanent (nitya) and non-different (abhinna) and the same with reference to the various modifications it constantly undergoes is non-permanent and different (bhinna).

This theory is rejected by Bādarāyaṇa on the ground that it is impossible to speak of different characteristics in respect of the same one entity at the same time. The relevant sūtra reads: 'naikasminn-asambhavāt'17. It means, as explained by Rāmānuja, that it is impossible that the contradictory characteristics such as existence and nonexistence are applicable at the same time to one substance. Vedānta Deśika points out that it is a theory riddled with self-contradiction (vyāghāta) since two mutually opposed characteristics cannot be affirmed in respect of one and the same entity at the same time. Sattva means existence or being and asattva means non-existence or non-being. These two are mutually opposed and cannot be affirmed of the same object. It maybe possible to regard an object as being as well as non-being with reference to the limiting conditions (upādhis) such as change of place or change of time or change of form. For example a pot exists at the present time but it does not exist at a later time. Pot exists in a particular place but it does not exist in another place. It exists as pot but it does not exist as another object. The asattva or non-existence can be attributed to an object on the basis of upādhi and this is regarded as sopādhika upādhi, which is logically conceivable. But the affirmation of nonexistence in respect of an object without any reference to upādhi (nirupādhika asatvam) to the same one object and at the same time, as Jainas do on the basis of saptabhangi theory

advanced by them, is logically untenable. This is the point of criticism leveled by Vedānta Deśika against the jaina theory (na ca nirupādhikaḥ kvāpy asatvādiyogaḥ¹²).

Some of the philosophical doctrines of the jainas also suffer from serious defects.

- 1) The jīva is of the size of the body.
- 2) The jīva in the state of *mukti* is *vibhu* though it is associated with a body.
- 3) Mukti is continuous upward movement.
- 4) Dharma and adharma are pervasive like ākāśa.
- 5) The earth is always moving downward.

All these theories are opposed to the Upanisadic teachings and are also logically untenable.

v) The Theory of Pāsupata

The Pāśupatas, the followers of the ancient Śaivite religious sect, account for the origin of the universe through the media of prakṛti presided over by Īśvara (Īśvara adhiṣṭhita prakṛti). Though Īśvara is admitted on the basis of inference as an instrumental cause (nimitta kāraṇa) of the universe, it does not, unlike the Seśvara Sāmkhyas accept the Upaniṣadic teachings as a source of authority for proving the existence of Īśvara. Besides in matters of religious mode of life and practices (ācāra) it follows its own customs which are almost opposed to the accepted Vedic practices¹9. Hence Bādarāyaṇa deals with the Pāśupata theory separately and refutes it after a critical examination. This subject is covered in the adhikaraṇa named Paśupatyadhikaraṇa.

The relevant sūtra states: patyuḥ asāmañjasyāt²o. Its general meaning, as explained by Rāmānuja, is that the theory of Paśupati (which is the name for Rudra), is not acceptable to the Vedāntins since it is full of inconsistency and also opposed to the Vedic teachings. In his commentary on the sūtra, Rāmānuja mentions briefly the various customs observed by the Pāśupatas for the purpose of attainment of higher spiritual goal and shows how these

are opposed to the Vedic teachings on tattva and upāsanā (Veda viruddha tattvopāsanā). As regards the philosophical doctrines which are more important than the religious customs, it is pointed out that the postulation of *Iśvara* for the purpose of accounting for the evolution of the prakrti into the manifest universe suffers from serious defect. *İśvara* is admitted on the basis of inference as the nimitta kārana. That is, *Iśvara*, the Ruler of the *prakrti*, causes the evolution of the universe. If *Iśvara* is the *nimitta kārana* similar to the production of the pot by the potter, He should also possess a body for creating the universe through the media of prakti. If body is admitted, then he would be subject to the punya and pāpa similar to the jīvātman who, with a body, experiences pleasure and pain. If *Īśvara* is without a body, He cannot function as the instrumental cause by presiding over prakrti. Hence the very theory of cosmic creation by Pasupati as a presiding Deity over prakṛti is defective.

vi) The Theory of Pancaratra

Along with the refutation of the rival schools of thought, which are opposed to Vedānta, the theory of the Pāñcarātra school also comes up for consideration. Though this is considered to be in conformity with the Vedanta, yet its examination is justified for the main purpose of removing the doubt about its validity (prāmānya). As indicated in the Vedānta-sūtra, there is a view expressed in the Pāñcarātra literature that the jīva is brought into existence (utpatti) and such a theory is naturally opposed to the Upanisadic texts which declare that jīva is nitya or eternal. It therefore gives room for the doubt whether or not Pañcaratra is authoritative. Bādarāyana therefore seeks to clarify this point and affirm that Pāñcarātra, unlike Pāśupata and other rival schools of thought, is not opposed to the Vedanta. This matter is considered in a separate adhikarana named Utpatty-asambhavādhikaraņa.

The main objection which is raised against Pāñcarātra is

that we come across a stray statement in the Pāñcarātra Samhitā which appears to speak of the origin (utpatti) of jīva. Thus states the Parama-samhitā: paramakāraṇāt parabrahma-bhūtāt vāsudevāt samkarṣaṇo nāma jīvo jāyate, samkarṣaṇāt pradyumna-samjñām mano jāyate, tasmāt aniruddha samjño ahamkāro jāyate. It means: "From Vāsudeva who is the Supreme Brahman and the primary cause, originates the individual soul called Samkarṣaṇa. From Samkarṣaṇa the internal organ called Pradyumna and from Pradyumna, the principle of ahamkāra called Aniruddha is born".

Prima facie, this statement conveys the idea that $j\bar{i}va$ originates from Brahman. But according to the Upaniṣads, the $j\bar{i}va$ is nitya or eternal and it has neither an origin nor end²¹. Hence $P\bar{a}\bar{n}car\bar{a}tra$ cannot be authoritative ($p\bar{a}\bar{n}car\bar{a}tram$ na $pram\bar{a}nam$).

Bādarāyaņa refutes this objection. The concerned statement of the Pāñcarātra Samhitā does not speak of the origin of the jīva. On the contrary, it implies, as explained by Rāmānuja that Vāsudeva, Samkarsana, Pradyumna and Aniruddha referred to in the statement are manifestations (vyūhas) of Parabrahma for the purpose of meditation by the devotees seeking to attain Brahman. Samkarsana is not the name for jīva. Nor is Pradyumna manas. In the same way, Aniruddha cannot be ahamkāra. The association of jīva with Samkarsana, manas with Pradyumna and ahamkara with Aniruddha convey the idea that these three forms of Vasudeva are the presiding deities of these principles respectively. The term jāyate does not literally mean "originates" but on the other hand it implies prādurbhāva or manifestation in the form of vyūha avatāra out of the samkalpa of Vāsudeva.

Further, the very Pāñcarātra Samhitā denies the origin of jīva. Thus it states that jīva is anādi and also ananta or without end (jīvo anādi anantaḥ kathita iti tad-utpatti pakṣo na hīṣṭaḥ²²). All these points are fully explained by Rāmānuja by adequate references to the Pāñcarātra

treatises. Hence it is wrong to assume that Pāñcarātra is opposed to the Upaniṣads. In fact, Vyāsa, the author of Mahābhārata extols Pāñcarātra treatises as the most authoritative texts for knowing the ways and means of attainment of the Supreme Goal²³

VII. The Ontological Status of the Evolutes of Prakṛti

In the preceding sections the theories of the rival schools of thought regarding cosmic creation were critically examined in order to prove the soundness of the Vedanta doctrine of Brahman as the cause of the universe consisting of both the sentient souls (cit) and non-sentient entities (acit). A few objections are raised against this view on the assumption that some of the evolutes such as viyat or ether, vāyu or air and indriyas or sense organs are nitya or eternal and as such Brahman cannot be the cause of them. Bādarāyana takes up this subject for consideration in the Viyadadhikarana, Tejodhikarana and the Prānotpatty-adhikarana included in the second adhyāya. In this connection, he also explains the process of the formation of the physical universe by Brahman. As these matters are related to the theory of Brahman as the creator of the universe we shall examine them in this chapter.

Regarding viyat which is termed in Vedānta as ākāśa or ether, the Vaiśeṣikas maintain the view that it is nitya or eternal and hence it cannot be regarded as kārya or an entity brought into existence by Brahman. The main argument in support of this view is that ākāśa is niravaya dravya, that is, an entity without any parts and hence it cannot be regarded as a product caused by something else. In other words it is nitya. If it were nitya, how can it be claimed that Brahman is the cause of it?

As regards the Upanisadic statements 'ātmanaḥ ākāśa sambhūtaḥ' which speaks of the ākāśa as being caused by Ātman (Brahman) the Vaiśesikas argue that such statements are to be understood in a secondary sense

(gauṇa) on the basis of the same explanation as offered in respect of the origin of jīva in the Pāñcarātra literature.

Bādarāyaṇa refutes this argument. He categorically states that $\bar{a}k\bar{a}\hat{s}a$ is caused by Brahman. The sūtra says 'asti tu' "It ($\bar{a}k\bar{a}\hat{s}a$) has an origin". The basis of this categorical affirmation is that several Scriptural texts clearly mention that $\bar{a}k\bar{a}\hat{s}a$ is caused by Brahman. As against strong scriptural evidence, inferential argument stands sublated.

It may be argued that the Chāndogya passage describing the process of evolution, mentions at first that sat (Brahman) created tejas (tat tejo asṛjata), but it does not refer to the causation of ākāśa, In another text of Bṛhadāraṇyaka, it is stated that both vāyu (air) and antarikṣa (ether) are eternal (amṛta). Hence it is appropriate to adopt a secondary meaning for the word 'utpatti' (sambhūta) mentioned in respect of ākāśa.

This argument is unsound, contends Bādarāyaṇa for the obvious reason that the very Chāndogya Upaniṣad points out that the entire universe which covers all the elements including ākāśa, is ensouled by Brahman (aitadātmyam idam sarvam). Besides, the general statement 'By the knowledge of the one, all other things become known' cannot be justified if ākāśa were not a product of Brahman.

The mention of the creation of tejas as the first element by Brahman in the Taittirīya Upaniṣad does not rule out the origination of ākāśa, as stated in many other texts. The description of vāyu and antarikṣa as amṛta is to be understood in the sense that they exist for a long duration (cirakāla vartitva). Hence there is no justification to regard viyat as eternal (nitya).

As Vedānta Deśika points out, the inferential argument adopted by Vaiśeṣikas on the basis of the premise 'niravaya dravya' is fallacious. Dravya or substance is that which exists and is known by pramāṇas. According to the satkāryavāda, both the cause and effect are dravyas, since effect is only a modified state of the causal substance. What is called 'kārya' or effect such as a pot is not a new product as Vaiśeṣikas

believe. It is the same causal substance viz. clay which has assumed the modified form as pot. If all the five elements are accepted as evolutes of *prakṛti* as evidenced by the Scriptural texts speaking of the process of evolution, only ākāśa cannot be nitya for the mere reason that it is a niravaya dravya. The illustrations cited by the Chāndogya Upaniṣad such as clay and its products fully support the satkāryavāda according to which effects are the modifications of the causal substance.

On the basis of the explanations offered in respect of $\bar{a}k\bar{a}\hat{s}a$, the view that $v\bar{a}yu$ is eternal (nitya) is rejected. $V\bar{a}yu$ too is a $k\bar{a}rya$ or product brought into existence by Brahman. If it were not an entity caused by Brahman, then the knowledge of Brahman would not lead to the knowledge of all that is created by it as stated in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad.

Another issue is raised with regard to the causation of the evolutes by Brahman. According to the Upanisadic passages dealing with the order of evolution, It is stated that agni or fire is caused by vāyu (vayoḥ agniḥ), ap or water is caused by agni (agneḥ apaḥ), pṛthivī is caused by ap (adbhyaḥ pṛthivī) etc.. Accordingly the cause of each element is the preceding one. It cannot therefore be said that Brahman is the cause of all such evolutes.

Bādarāyaṇa does not accept this view. In the Tejodhikaraṇa, which deals with this issue, the implication of these Upaniṣadic statements is explained. The text 'vayoḥ agniḥ' does not mean that vāyu causes agni. On the other hand it implies that Paramātman as the Antaryāmin of vāyu creates agni. This meaning is evident from other texts which state that 'tejo aikṣata' or fire willed to create and 'tā āpa aikṣata' or water willed to create. Since the capacity to will (īkṣaṇa) cannot be attributed to a non-sentient entity, it follows that all such statements are to be interpreted in the sense that Brahman as inherent in those respective elements causes the creation of the subsequent evolute. In a more specific way, the Muṇḍaka mentions in one sweeping

statement that all these things viz. prāṇa, manas, indriyas, khaṁ (ether), vāyu, ap, jyotis and pṛthivī originate from Brahman²⁴. In this text, though the order of creation of the evolutes is not mentioned, it states that Brahman is the cause of all things. This point is to be taken note of wherever the order of evolution is mentioned. That is, the immediate preceding evolute as inherently related to Paramātman as its Antaryāmin is the cause of the succeeding evolute. It is therefore relevant to regard Brahman as the cause of all the evolutes.

Regarding the ontological status of *indriyas* (sense organs), the question is raised whether the *indriyas* designated as *prāṇas* in the Upaniṣad, are created by Brahman. This doubt arises because the Scriptural text says that *prāṇas* equated with *ṛṣis* existed prior to the creation of the universe. Thus states the Śatapatha Brāhmaṇa: Asadvā idam agra āsīt tadāhuḥ, kim tadāsīt iti, ṛṣayo vā va te āgre āsan, tadāhuḥ ke te ṛṣayaḥ, prāṇa vā va ṛṣayaḥ"²⁵—"In the beginning (prior to creation) all this was non-being (asat). What was that they say? Those ṛṣis were indeed that non-being, thus they say. And who were those ṛṣis? The prāṇas indeed were those ṛṣis."

On the basis of this authority, it is contended that *prāṇas* denoted by the term *ṛṣayaḥ* in plural, are not created since they are regarded to have existed even prior to creation.

This matter is discussed in a separate adhikaraṇa of the fourth pāda named Prāṇotpatty-adhikaraṇa. Bādarāyaṇa straightaway rejects this view on the strength of the Upaniṣadic texts which clearly state that prior to the creation only Brahman existed. Thus states the Chāndogya: sadeva saumya idam agra āsīt. The Aitareya Upaniṣad also says: ātmā vā idam eka agra āsīt. Besides, the Muṇḍaka Upaniṣad states that from Brahman originate prāṇa, manas and all indriyas (etasmāt jāyate prāṇo manaḥ sarvendriyāṇi ca). There is no mention as in the case of jīvatman that prāṇas (indriyas) are nitya. The term prāṇa named as ṛṣayaḥ which is stated to have existed prior to creation in the Śatapatha

or it is only a modification of the gross element of vāyu (vāyukriyā). On the strength of the Scriptural text, Bādarāyana points out that prāna is not mere vāyu present in the body (na dehāntar-vāyumātra). The Upaniṣadic text clearly says: From this arises prāṇa, manas, all indriyas, ether, vāyu etc.27 As prāṇa and vāyu are mentioned separately in the same text, the two are not identical. Nor is it a function (kriyā) of vāyu because it is mentioned along with dravyas. Thus says Bādarāyaṇa: na vāyukriye pṛthag upadeśāt28. It is not even an independent tattva (tattvāntara) similar to tejas because in the enumeration of the twenty four tattvas, prāna does not figure. It is therefore assumed that vāyu itself assumes different modifications and prāṇa-vāyu is one such modified form of vāyu. The same prāṇa-vāyu assumes different names such as prāṇa, apāṇa, samāṇa, vyāṇa, udāṇa. Even this prāṇa-vāyu is monadic in character (aṇuśca) since it is stated in the Upanisad that it also moves along with the jīva when it exits from the body after death. Thus says the Upanișad: tam utkrāmantam prāņo anutkrāmati29.

Incidentally Bādarāyana clarifies that prāna or vital breath which is often designated as indriya, is not, strictly speaking, an indriya or sense organ as in the case of the ten sense organs and the mind for the reason that the Upanisad mentions prāna as distinct from the eleven sense organs. Thus says the Upanisad: etasmāt jāyate prāņo manah sarvendriyāni ca. In describing the exit of the jīva from the body after death, the Upanisad mentions separately that prāṇa moves along with the jīva and that other indriyas follow prāņa (prānam anutkrāmantam sarve prāņā anutkrāmanti). Besides, during the state of deep sleep, the indriyas do not function, but prāṇa subsists. According to the theory of evolution of prakrti, the ten sense organs and mind emanate from sāttvika ahamkāra and not prāņa. In fact indriya is defined as that which is the modification of ahamkāra (sāttvika ahamkāra vikṛtitvam) and this definition does not apply to prāṇa. Prāṇa is therefore different from indriyas. One other important point which is brought out

by Bādarāyaṇa is that the function of all *indriyas* and also *prāṇa* (vital breath) is regulated by *jīva* who is the controller of them (*adhiṣthātṛ*). But this power is endowed to *jīva* by *Paramātman*. Similarly the celestial deities such as *agni* which are stated to be the presiding deities of the sense organs including mind, are controlled by Brahman who is the Inner Controller (*Antaryāmin*) of all entities as stated in the *Antaryāmi* Brāhmaṇa.

VIII. The Process of Formation of the Physical Universe

In the preceding adhikaranas Bādarāyana has discussed the issues concerning the ontological status of some of the evolutes of prakrti such as viyat, indriyas and prāna in order to establish that these are also caused by Brahman. As allied to the subject of cosmic creation, another important matter relating to the actual formation of the variegated physical universe needs to be considered. According to the theory of evolution, as admitted by the Upanisads, prakrti as regulated by Brahman evolves itself into the five gross elements through various stages in a particular order. This is regarded as samasti-sṛṣṭi or the creation of the aggregate universe. This represents the first stage of creation. After this stage is reached, the actual creation of the physical universe with all its diversity starts. This is known as vyastisṛṣṭi or the creation of the universe of space and matter with all its diversity. This represents the secondary stage of creation. As stated in the Chandogya Upanisad, the formation of the physical universe is first done by the admixture of different parts of the five elements in certain proportion. This is technically called pañcīkaraņa or quintuplication of the five elements.30

The Chāndogya speaks of the admixture of only three elements viz. ap, tejas and pṛthivī. This is known as trivṛtkaraṇa. As Vedānta Deśika states, trivṛtkaraṇa is not different from pañcīkaraṇa referred to in other Upaniṣadic texts. It is illustrative of pañcīkaraṇa. After completing the pañcīkaraṇa, the rest of the universe with all its diversity is

created out of the five elements ($pa\tilde{n}ca-bh\bar{u}ta$) after mixing them in appropriate proportion.

The question to be considered in this connection is whether the formation of different entities in the universe by assigning them a name and form (nāma-rūpa-vyākaraṇa) is done by Brahman or by Hiraṇyagarbha, also known as Caturmukha-brahmā to whom the task of creation is specially entrusted. This doubt arises because of two reasons. First, the Smṛṭi texts state that Caturmukha-brahmā is the creator of the aggregate universe (vyaṣṭi-nāmādi sṛṣṭā). Secondly, the following statement of the Chāndogya Upaniṣad referring to the anupraveśa and nāma-rūpa vyākaraṇa gives the impression that jīvātman assigns the nāma and rūpa to all entities at the time of creation: anena jīvenātmanā anupraviśya nāmarūpe vyākaravāṇi³¹. Bādarāyaṇa therefore discusses this matter in a separate adhikaraṇa named as saṃjñāmūrti-klrpty-adhikarana.

The following sūtra clarifies the position: samjñāmūrtiklṛptistu trivṛtkurvata upadeśāt32. It means that the assignment of names and forms to the created objects is done by the same (Paramātman) who did the trivṛtkaraṇa or the admixture of these primary elements, because the Scriptural text teaches it accordingly. The passage of the Chandogya Upanisad dealing with the creation of the universe clearly points out that Brahman itself which caused the evolution of prakrti into twenty three evolutes including five gross elements, resolved to enter into the elements (ap, tejas and prthivi) along with the jivatman (jivenātmanā) and thereafter gave names and forms to them. Both these functions namely the entry into the elements and the assignment of names and forms are performed by Paramatman. The possibility of Caturmukha Brahma performing the task of assignment of nāma and rūpa to the created objects does not arise because prior to the creation of the universe, he does not exist. According to the Sruti and Smrti texts, Caturmukha Brahmā was created only after the samasti-sṛṣṭi or the creation of the aggregate universe

upto five gross elements was completed.

Vedānta Deśika points out that the expression 'anena jīvenātmanā' is not to be taken as the identity of jīva and Brahman, as Advaita assumes, because it is so well established in the Upanisads that jīva and Brahman are two separate ontological entities. Hence the statement 'anena jīvenātmanā anupraviśya' is to be understood as P.ahman along with jīva with which it is inseparably related enters into the created objects. The word 'pravisya' with the prefix 'anu' implies that Paramātman causes the jīva to enter and soon after, along with the jīva, He also enters³³. In other words both Paramātman and jīva enter into the created objects and thereafter the created objects are assigned with names and forms. After this is done, the manifold universe of names and forms comes into existence. Thus, Brahman is the cause of both samasti-sṛṣṭi or the creation of the aggregate universe and also vyasti-srsti or the creation of the diversified (variegated) universe with the manifold names and forms.

^{1.} See RB II-2-1 for details of Sāmkhya theory.

^{2.} VS II-2-21.

AS verse 181.

See Sāmkhyakārikā – samsarati badhyate mucyate ca nānāśrayā prakṛtiḥ. Also, puruṣasya darśanārtham kaivalyārtham tathā pradhānasya

^{5.} VS II-2-20

^{6.} See VS II-2-17. samudāya ubhayahetuke'pi tad-aprāptiḥ.

See TMK – IV-27. svacche parasmin chāyā na bhavati, asau rūpásūnye na ca syāt.

^{8.} VS II-2-27.

^{9.} VS II-2-28.

^{10.} TMK - IV-27

^{11.} VS II-2-28.

^{12.} See TMK SS-IV-18. na sannāsanna sad-asanna cāpyanubhayātmakam; catuṣkoṭi vinirmuktam tattvam mādhyamikā viduḥ. See also T.R.V Murthy - Central Philosophy of Buddhism. P 228.See also AS verse 198

^{13.} VS II-2-30.

^{14.} AS verse 198

^{15.} See AS verse 201. prāyo buddhiḥ yathārthā śrutivid-abhimatā kvāpi

- bhedāgrahādi. See also Cintāmani: tathā ca akhyāti-samvalite yathārthakhyāthih trayyanta vidām asmākam abhimata-ityarthah.
- 16. For details of Jaina theory, see RB II-2-31.
- 17. VS- II-2-31.
- 18. AS verse 203.
- 19. See RB II-2-35 for details.
- 20. VS II-2-35
- 21. See Ka. Up. I-2-18. na jäyate mṛyate vā kadācit. Also nityo nityānām.
- 22. AS verse 214.
- 23. See Mahābhārata XII-348-61 idam mahopanişudum caturveda sanıanvitam. See also M.Bh. XII-348: idam śreyam idam brahma idam hitam anuttamam.
- 24. See Mund. Up II-1-3. Etasmāt jāyate prāņo manaḥ sarvendriyāṇi ca. kham vāyur āpaḥ pṛthivī viśvasya dhāriṇī.
- 25. Satapatha Brāhmaņa VI-1-1.
- 26. AS verse 255.
- 27. Mund. Up. II-1-3. See fn.24
- 28. VS. II-4-8
- 29. Br. Up. VI-4-2
- 30. See FVV. Ch.10 p321-322 for details regarding pañcīkaraņa.
- 31. Ch. Up. VI-3-1
- 32. VS II-4-17
- 33. See AS verse 264.

CHAPTER SEVEN

THE DOCTRINE OF JĪVA AND BRAHMAN

Though Brahma-sūtra is primarily concerned with the study of Brahman, the ultimate metaphysical Reality of the Upanisads, it also accords equal importance to the subject of jīvātman. Bādarāyana acknowledges on the authority of the Upanisads that jīvātman is a separate ontological entity as distinct from Brahman. As we have observed in the chapters 2 to 4, several adhikaranas of the first adhyāya dealing with the nature and distinguishing characteristics (dharmas) of Brahman refer to the jivatman as a prima facie theory and affirms that Brahman is distinct from jiva and that the dharmas refered to in the Upanisadic texts are not applicable to jīvātman. Bādarāyana in one of the sūtras specifically states that Brahman is other than the jīva because of the difference between the two (adhikam tu bhedanirdeśāt)1. In the second adhyāya while discussing the issue whether viyat and other evolutes of prakrti are eternal, he brings up the theory of Atman. In this connection, five adhikaranas are exclusively devoted to the discussion of the nature of jīvātman and its relation to Brahman. Again in the third adhyāya dealing with the sādhana or the means of attainment of Brahman, Bādarāyana discusses the theory of transmigration of the jīva and also its condition in the states of waking, dream, deep sleep (susupti) and swoon (murchā). Six adhikaraņas of pāda 1 and four adhikaraņas of pāda 2 of this adhyāya cover these subjects. In the fourth adhyāya which deals mainly with the Supreme Goal to be attained by the jīva, he examines the status of the jīva in the state of mokṣa in six adhikaraṇas. We shall discuss all these matters except the status of jīva in mokṣa, in the present chapter. The nature of jīva in the state of mukti will be considered in the chapter on the Supreme Goal.

I. Jīva as Eternal (nitya).

This is the subject-matter of the Atmadhikarana which is devoted to prove that jīvātman is eternal on the basis of the Scriptural authority and also on rational ground. As explained by Vedanta Desika, the need to affirm the eternality of jīvātman arises because of the doubts arising from a few Scriptural texts which convey the idea that jīva is also subject to origin. The Chandogya Upanisad dealing with sad-vidyā, states that all beings have sat as their source and all that exists is ensouled by sat (Brahman). Prior to creation, if sat alone existed, and if everything in the universe is caused by sat, it would follow that jivas as the effect (kārya) of Brahman are also originated. Besides, a few Scriptural texts explicitly state that jīvas are brought into existence. Thus says the Taittirīya Brāhmana: "Prajāpati (Caturmukha Brahmā) created the jīvas"2. Besides, the general statement in the Chandogya that the knowledge of the one principle (Brahman) leads to the knowledge of all else, would not be justified if jīvas were not the products of Brahman.

In order to refute these views, Bādarāyaṇa introduces the following sūtra which affirms that jīva is eternal: Na ātmā śruteḥ, nityatvācca tabhyaḥ³. It means, according to Rāmānuja, that Ātman (jīvātman) is not subject to origin (utpatti) unlike viyat or ether (referred to in an earlier sūtra) because the Scriptural texts deny the origin of jīva and also that very Scriptural texts declare that jīva is eternal (nityavācca tābhyaḥ). Thus says the Kaṭha Upaniṣad: ajo nityaḥ śāśvato'yaṁ purāṇaḥ⁴ - "unborn, eternal, everlasting, existing from time immemorial". The Śvetāśvatara Upaniṣad also mentions the eternality and plurality of the jīvas: nityo

nityānām cetanaḥ cetanānām eko bahūnām yo vidadhāti kāmān⁵ – "One eternal sentient being (Brahman) fulfills the desires of many eternal sentient beings (jīvas)".

As regards the statements which speak of the origin of the jīva (janana), these have to be understood in the sense that jīvas are associated with the physical body and sense organs. As explained by Rāmānuja, jīvas exist in Brahman in a subtle state at the time of dissolution of the universe. When the creation of the universe takes place, they are associated with the bodies and the sense organs to enable them to function and reap the benefit of karma. In this process the only change that takes place in the jīva is in respect of its jnana which is its essential attribute (dharmabhūta-jñāna). That is, the attributive knowledge which was dormant during the state of dissolution is enabled to function by associating it with the body and the senses. This change effected in the jñāna does not amount to change in the svarūpa of the jīva (svarūpānyathābhāva), unlike in the case of non-sentient entities such as viyat. Jīvātman is therefore nitya as declared by the Scriptural texts.

There is also a rational justification for admitting the nityatva of jīva. If jīva were not eternal, then the results of the meritorious and sinful deeds performed in one's present lifetime would cease at the end of the life (kṛta vipraṇāśa) and there would be no scope for reaping the effects of these good or bad deeds in the next life. In the same way, the effects of good or bad deeds not done previously would have to be experienced in the present life (akṛta abhyāgama). But both these possibilities are opposed to the commonly accepted theory of karma and its influence on the life of the jīvas.

In this connection, Vedānta Deśika mentions briefly the theories of jīva advanced by rival schools of thought viz. Cārvākas, Buddhists, Advaita, Bhāskara and Yādava Prakāśa and rejects them on the ground that these are unsound and also opposed to the teachings of the Scriptural texts.⁶

According to the Cārvākas, the body itself is the soul. This is rejected because without the admission of an intelligent principle as different from the body, it is not possible to explain satisfactorily the knowledge of external objects and the recollection of the experiences of the past. The argument of the Cārvākas that consciousness (caitanya) is produced by the aggregation of the different organs of the body is untenable. If the element of consciousness is not found in each part of the body, it cannot arise from the aggregate of the parts of the body.

Some Buddhists maintain that the series of thoughts (*dhī-santāna*) itself is the self (*yīva*) and it lasts until the dissolution of the universe. Even this is an unsound theory because bondage and release and the attainment of a higher spiritual Goal cannot be satisfactorily explained.⁷

The followers of Advaita Vedānta admit jīva but it is regarded as the Self (Brahman) conditioned by the limiting adjuncts such as antaḥkaraṇas (internal organs) caused by avidyā. During the state of bondage, jīva is associated with avidyā which is beginningless (anādi). It persists until it is liberated (āmokṣa). In view of this, it may be regarded as nitya as declared by the Upaniṣad.

Even this theory is unsound. The persistence of jīvahood (jivabhāva) until the state of total liberation from bondage (āmokṣa-sthāyī jīvabhāvaḥ) cannot be regarded as eternal (nitya). Such a state of jīva is also considered to be apuruṣārtha by some Advaitins. Besides, this theory of jīva stands opposed to the Scriptural texts which explicitly state that jīvas are nitya.

II. Jīva as Jñātā

This is the subject-matter of the $J\bar{n}\bar{a}dhikaraṇa$ which establishes that $j\bar{v}a$ is not merely of the nature of knowledge but also the knowing subject $(j\bar{n}\bar{a}t\bar{a})$. The relevant $s\bar{u}tra$ reads: $j\bar{n}o$ ata eva^8 . It means, as interpreted by Rāmānuja, that this $\bar{a}tman$ (referred to in the earlier $s\bar{u}tra$) is of the nature of $j\bar{n}\bar{a}tr$ (knowing subject) because it is stated so in the Sruti texts.

By way of explaining the fuller implication of the sūtra, Rāmānuja points out that according to the Advaitins the jīvātman is essentially constituted of knowledge (jñānasvarūpa eva). The Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad employs the term vijñāna for Ātman (yo vijñāne tiṣṭhan). The Taittirīya also uses the word vijñāna for ātman (vijñānaṁ yajñaṁ tanute). The Viṣṇu Purāṇa also explicitly states that ātman is jñānasvarūpa. On the basis of these Scriptural and Smṛti texts, it is contended that ātman which is the same as Brahman is of the nature of knowledge. Due to its association with the antaḥkaraṇa or internal organ, it is regarded as jñātā or knower. Jñātṛtva is therefore an adventious dharma of ātman superimposed on it due to avidyā.

There is another view held by the Vaiśeṣikas, according to which jīva which is omnipresent (sarvagata) cannot be of the nature of knowledge since it would amount to the admission of its becoming aware of everything, at all times and everywhere (sarvadā sarvatra upalabdhiprasaṅgaḥ). Besides, in the state of deep sleep, knowledge is not found to be present. It is therefore contended that jñāna as a dharma is an adventious quality of jīva arising as and when the mind and the sense organs are in contact with the objects (upādhija jñātṛtva).

The Vedānta-sūtra, as interpreted by Rāmānuja, rejects both these views as these are defective and not supported by the Scriptural texts. Jīva is stated to be 'jñaḥ' which implies that ātman is only jñātṛ-svarūpa or of the nature of knowing subject. It is neither mere jñāna-svarūpa, as Buddhists and Advaitins believe nor jaḍa-svarūpa or non-sentient in character, as Vaiśeṣikas believe. On the other hand, jīvātman which is of the nature of jñāna is also of the nature of jñāṭrtva. Both these aspects of jīvātman are fully supported by the Upaniṣadic texts.

According to the Scriptural text quoted by Rāmānuja, jīva only knows. Thus it is stated: 'jānātyeva ayam puruṣaḥ' "This puruṣa only knows". The Bṛhadāraṇyaka describes

jīvātman as vijñātā¹³ which means that it is of the nature of knowledge. The Praśna Upaniṣad explicitly states: eṣa hi draṣṭā śrotā ghrātā rasayitā mantā boddhā vijñānātmā puruṣaḥ¹⁴ - "He verily is the one (jīvātman) who is the seer, the hearer, the smeller, the taster, the thinker, the knower (boddhā), the doer, the individual self (puruṣa) who is of the nature of knowledge(vijñānātmā)".

The words boddhā and vijnānātmā employed in this statement affirm both the jnātrtva and jnānatva of jīvātman. On the authority of these texts, it is admitted that jīvātman is of the nature of knowledge and also possesses jnāna as a dharma (jnānatvavat jnātrtvamapi svābhāvikam)

Vedānta Deśika explains the significance of the Scriptural text: 'jānāty-eva ayam puruṣaḥ' quoted by Rāmānuja. The word eva added to jānāti implies that jīvātman is never ajñātā, that is, devoid of knowledge (ātmā kadācidapi ajñātā na bhavati). It implies that jñātṛtva is a permanent dharma (nitya). In other words, its knowledge is nitya, as is evidenced by the statement of Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad 'na vijñātuḥ vijñāteḥ viparilopo vidyate¹5' – "The knowledge (vijñāteḥ) of ātman(vijñātuḥ) is not subject to destruction".¹6 The description of jīva as vijñāna only implies that it is not non-sentient (jaḍa).

Thus it is affirmed that the ātman which is nitya and of jñāna-svarūpa also possesses jñātṛṭva as its dharma.

Against this conclusion an objection is raised. According to some, jīva is regarded as vibhu or all-pervasive. Its description in the Upanisad as mahān ātmā or great self also implies its vibhutva character. If ātmā which is vibhu is of the nature of jñāna and also possesses knowledge as its essential dharma, then it should reveal itself always everywhere. But it is not so.

This objection is not tenable, contends Vedānta Deśika, because jīvātman is not vibhu. On the contrary, it is monadic in character (aṇu), as is evident from the Upaniṣads. Thus says the Muṇḍaka Upaniṣad: 'Eṣo aṇurātmā cetasā veditavyaḥ'¹⁷ – "This ātman which is aṇu is to be known

through mind". Besides Scriptural support, Bādarāyaṇa has advanced several arguments to establish the theory that jīva is aņu by answering the possible objections against it. Several sūtras are devoted to discuss the issue related to the size (parimāṇa) of jīva and affirm that jīva is anu. One of the arguments in support of it is that the exit of the soul from the body after death (utkrānti) and its movement to the higher realms and also its return to this world, as stated in the Upanisads¹⁸, would not be possible if jiva were vibhu (utkrānti gati āgatīnām).19 The Upanisads also speak of the jīvātman in terms of measurement (unmāna) by the selection of comparative instances. Thus says the Svetāśvatara Upanisad: "The individual self is to be known as part of the hundredth part of the tip of a hair divided a hundred times".20 Being anu and located in one's body, it cannot experience everything and at all places. Though it is anu, it can experience the objects nearby and also far off through its jñāna, just as a lamp can illuminate much larger area around it.

Jīva located in the body manifests itself as aham or "I" (ahaṁ iti svenaiva siddhyati²¹). It is self-luminous (svayaṁ prakāśa) as it does not require another knowledge for its manifestation. Even in the state of deep sleep (suṣupti) it reveals itself as 'I', as is evident from the experience which arises in the form 'I slept happily' soon after waking up. But during the state of deep sleep and swoon, the knowledge does not manifest itself fully since its function is restricted due to the absence of objects to be experienced (dhī-saṅkocāt).

The description of jīva as 'mahān ātmā' does not mean that jīva is vibhu. On the other hand, as stated in the Vedānta-sūtra, this statement in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka contextually refers to Paramātman or Brahman who is to be meditated upon by jīvātman. Similarly in the statement of the Śvetāśvatara 'sa ca ānantyāya kalpatc', the term ananta or infinite with reference to jīva means that jñāna which is the essential attribute of jīva (dharma-bhūtajñāna) becomes infinite in the state of mukti. Then the jīvātman becomes an

omniscient being totally free from karma. The term 'sarvagata' used in respect of jīva implies that jīva as a spiritual monad is capable of entering into all sentient beings (sarvacetana antaḥpraveśa sāmarthyam²²).

III. Jīva as Kartā

This is the subject matter of Kartradhikaraṇa which discusses whether or not jīva is kartā or the agent of action. This issue arises because a few Scriptural and Sṃrti texts appear to deny kartrtva for jīva. The Kaṭhopaniṣad mentions that the self (jīvātman) is not the killer (nā'yam hanti²³) and this statement prima facie implies that it is devoid of kartrtva. The Bhagavadgītā also ascribes the act of agency (kartrtva) to the three guṇas of prakṛti and regards jīva as free from it.²⁴ The Gītā also describes that jīva is not subject to any modification and as such it cannot have the kartṛtva which involves change (vikṛti virahataḥ).²⁵

Keeping in mind such possible objections which are untenable, Bādarāyana introduces the following sūtra which affirms that jīva is kartā: Kartā śāstrārtha-vattvāt26. It means: "jīva is the agent of action on account of Scripture becoming meaningful". By way of elucidating the implication of this sūtra, Rāmānuja points out that there are several Scriptural injunctions in the form of commanding an individual to perform good deeds for attaining heaven and prohibiting him from doing evil deeds. All these Sastraic injunctions would be rendered meaningless if an individual soul were not the agent of action. The Vedic commands have no significance in respect of a non-sentient entity such as the gunas of prakrti or even the buddhi (internal organ). They are intended only for those who can understand and follow them. In view of this, it is maintained that jīva is kartā.

This view has the support of the Scriptural texts. The Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad states that jīvātman moves freely within the body by using the sense organs.²⁷ The Taittiriya

text says that jīvātman designated as vijñāna, performs yāga.²⁸ The Praśna Upaniṣad categorically states that the self (jīvātman) is kartā. Kartṛtva is therefore admitted as the intrinsic dharma of jīva, like jñātṛtva.

According to some schools of thought, kartrtva belongs to buddhi or the internal organ and that the self is regarded as kartā either due to its proximity to buddhi or due to the superimposition of dharma of buddhi on the self. This view is untenable, contends Vedānta Deśika. If the self is kartā because of its proximity to buddhi, then buddhi being the same for all individuals, the fruits of the actions of one individual should also be reaped by another since there is no special feature of buddhi which distinguishes one from the other. The theory of superimposition of buddhi and its mental activities on the self is also defective because superimposition cannot take place due to the absence of any similarity between buddhi and the self. Superimposition is possible if there is some similarity between two objects as in the case of the shell and silver. The reflection of the pure self in the buddhi is also ruled out since the self does not possess any form $(r\bar{u}pa)$ to allow for its reflection in the buddhi.

Further, if the self is not admitted to be the agent of action, it cannot also be the *bhoktā* or the enjoyer of the fruits of action. If this capacity to experience the pleasure and pain is ascribed to *buddhi*, it would be opposed to the theory that *jivātman* is *bhoktā*, as maintained by the Sāmkhyas and the Viśiṣtādvaitin. If *jīvātmā* is not *bhoktā*, then the teachings of Vedānta about bondage and liberation from it would be of no value (*bandha mokṣādi śāstram vitathameva*). *Jīvātman* is therefore to be admitted as both the *kartā* and *bhoktā*.

Vedānta Deśika also points out that the admission of jāātrtva, kartṛtva, bhoktṛtva for the self does not affect its immutable character. If an entity transforms itself from one state to another, as in the case of a lump of clay into a pot, then the immutable character of the self becomes affected. No such transformation takes place in respect of the self.

Whatever modification takes place, these apply to its attributive knowledge (dharma-bhūta jñāna) which is distinct from the self and the latter (jīva) remains unaffected by them. Jīva is regarded as jñātā or the knower in the sense that it is the āśraya or substrate for jñāna, which is its essential attribute. All experiences of jīva take place through this knowledge. By being āśraya to jñāna which is subject to modification, the svarūpa of the jīva is not subjected to any change. In the same way, kartrtva and bhoktrtva admitted in respect of jīva do not involve change in it. Jīva is the kartā in the sense that it is the āśraya or the substrate for krti or effort. Effort is caused by a desire (icchā) to do an act. It is therefore a mental modification or an avasthā of jñāna. It is not to be confused with the actual physical activity which follows subsequent to the desire to do an act. By being an āśraya for kṛti caused by a desire, which is a particular state of knowledge, jīva as kartā is not affected by the change.

Likewise, jīva is bhoktā by being the āśraya for bhoga or the experience of pleasure and pain (sukha-duḥkhānubha-vāśraya)²⁹. Pleasure and pain are different states (avasthās) of jñāna. Pleasure is an agreeable disposition of the mind (anukūla-jñāna) and pain is the disagreeable disposition of the mind (pratikūla-jñāna). As jīva is the āśraya for such states of experience, it is regarded as bhokta or enjoyer of pleasure and pain. The change involved in such mental dispositions applies to the attributive knowledge (dharma-bhūtajñāna) and not to the jīva. Such an explanation is logically tenable since in the Viśiṣṭādvaita system, jñāna as a dharma is distinct from jīvātman and the modifications taking place in the dharma do not affect the svarūpa of the dharmī.³⁰

In view of these explanations it is not correct to say that the physical activities related to kartrtva, the mental functions related to $j\bar{n}\bar{a}trtva$, the desire to enjoy the fruits of the deeds $(v\bar{a}ncch\bar{a})$, the capacity to do an act $(pra\hat{s}akana)$ and the effort to be made for these purposes (yatana) do not belong to the $j\bar{v}a^{31}$. All these functions are to be performed in order to fulfill the commands of the $\hat{S}\bar{a}stra$ or

Sacred texts. The dictates of the Śāstra are intended for the good of an individual. The physical body and the sense organs including the intellect are provided as accessories to the jīva for the purpose of observing the commands of the Śāstra. Even the capacity to obey the dictates of the Śāstra is conferred to an individual in accordance with his past karma (śāstra yogyā daśā niyati niyamitā). Vedānta Deśika concludes that the jīvātman is to be admitted as jñātā, kartā and also bhoktā as these are well established by all the pramāṇas (sarvaiḥ pramāṇaiḥ jñātā kartā bhoktā ca bhāti).32

IV The Dependence of Jīvātman on Paramātman.

This is the subject-matter of a separate adhikaraṇa named Parāyattādhikaraṇa. In the preceding sections, it is seen that according to Bādarāyaṇa jīva is jñātā, kartā and bhoktā. In this connection the question arises whether jīva acts on its own independently or its activity is dependent on Paramātman. This is an important issue related to the theory of free will and determinism. If the jīva is not free to act (svatantra) and is dependent on Paramātman, it cannot be regarded as kartā. According to Pāṇini also, kartā is one who is free (svatantraḥ kartā). In the absence of freedom for the jīvas, the Scriptural injunctions commanding to do good deeds and not to do what is prohibited would be of no significance.

To meet these objections, Bādarāyaṇa introduces the following sūtra: parāttu tat śruteḥ³³. It means, as interpreted by Rāmānuja, that the activity of the jīva takes place on account of Paramātman (kartṛtvam asya jīvasya paramātmaṇa eva hetoḥ bhavati), because it is stated so in the Scripture (śruteḥ). The Antaryāmi Brāhmaṇa explicitly states that Paramātman abides in the jīvātman and controls it from within. The Taittirīya Āraṇyaka states specifically that Paramātman enters into all beings and controls them (antaḥ praviṣṭaḥ śāstā janānām sarvātmā).³⁴ The Bhagavadgīta also reiterates that the Lord (Īśvara) resides in the heart of all beings and thereby controls them.³⁵ Lord Kṛṣṇa also states

in the Gīta: sarvasya ca'ham hṛdi sanniviṣṭah mattaḥ smṛti jñānam apohanan ca³6-"I am seated in the hearts of all. From Me, memory, knowledge and their loss arise."

On the authority of these Scriptural and Smrti texts Bādarāyana affirms that kartrtva of jīva is also caused by Paramātman. The question is raised: If Paramātman controls the activity of jīva, can it be kartā? In reply, Vedānta Deśika explains that this dependence of jīva on Paramātman does not affect its kartriva. Jīva is dependent for all its activities on several factors such as karma in the form of punya and pāpa accruing from the deeds of the past, indrivas, kāla (time), prakrti (nature), niyati (unseen potency). But none of these is considered to affect the kartriva of the jiva. In the same way, if Isvara who is the controller of all, as stated in the Scriptural texts, prompts jīva to act, the kartṛtva of jīva should not be affected. There are two types of kartrtva: prayojaka kartrtva, that is, Paramātman impells the jīva to act and prayojya kartrtva or jīva acts being impelled by Īśvara. Jīva is kartā as impelled by Paramātman. This does not affect the capacity of jīva to function as kartā.

As Bādarāyaṇa states, the Divine will operates in response to an effort made by an individual in accordance with his former actions (kṛta prayatnāpekṣa), so that the injunctions and prohibitions of the Śāstras are not rendered futile.³⁷ This also absolves God of the criticism of cruelty and partiality.

There are two kinds of causal factors which influence the actions of individuals. One is general (sādhāraṇa kāraṇa) which is common to all and the second is the special cause (viśeṣa kāraṇa). The rain water, for instance is a common cause for the sprouts, whereas the seeds are the special cause for the sprouts. In the same way, Īśvara serves as the common cause for all the activities of beings at all times, past, present and future. The karma in the form of puṇya and pāpa accruing from the deeds of the past is the special cause for one's action leading to happiness or suffering. Hence Īśvara being the common cause is not responsible

for sukha or duḥkha of an individual. In the Gītā, Lord Himself says that He is equal to all (samo'ham sarva bhuteṣu)³⁸ and that none is hateful or dear to Him. But there are Scriptural statements to the effect that God alone makes one to do evil deeds and He throws them to the hell and that He alone makes one to perform good deeds and uplifts them to a higher realm.³⁹ These statements are applicable only to special individuals. That is, for those who are specially devoted to God and worship Him as the sole refuge, for them God showers His grace and helps them to attain the higher goal. For those who always indulge in evil deeds and do not have any devotion to God, they are being punished by throwing them down. Hence there is no room for criticism that God is cruel or partial in His dispensation of the results of one's good or bad action.

A serious objection is raised against the theory of jīva as kartā. If Īśvara is the main kartā and jīva is reduced to the position of a lump of clay solely dependent on the former, how can jīva be regarded as kartā? If it is not kartā, then it is not also bhoktā. This objection is not tenable, contends Vedānta Deśika. As pointed out earlier *Īśvara* is also kartā as He impels jīva to do an act (prayojaka kartā) and so also jīva is karta as being impelled by Īśvara (tat prayojyatvena kartā). That jīva is kartā is evident to our experience. In the judgements 'I know', 'I do' etc., the entity denoted by 'I' (aham-arthah) is admitted as the agent of mental and physical activities of an individual. This entity is not mere consciousness (cinmātra), nor is it internal organ (ahamkara), since it is non-sentient and as such it cannot have the function of knowing. It is the jīvātman, which as a sentient spiritual entity, is the kartā even though it is dependent on Iśvara. The jīva is capable of acting as the agent of action since it is endowed with knowledge and it is therefore distinct from non-sentient ahamkāra (svecchāpūrva pravṛtteḥ ayam acid-adhikah).40 Even though İśvara functions as kartā out of His will (icchā), He is capable of controlling everything in the universe other than Himself. The kartytva of Iśvara

however is of a different nature than that of jīvātman. Both the sentient jīva and non-sentient beings are dependent on Īśvara for their very svarūpa, existence (sthiti) and activities (pravṛtti). Nevertheless the jīva is kartā. The kartṛtva of Īśvara, jīva and non-sentient entity are comparable to the charioteer (sārathi), the horses that pull the chariot and the chariot itself respectively. The Lord who controls everything is the charioteer. The horses which pull the chariot being controlled by the charioteer is jīvātman and the chariot which moves being pulled by the horses which are controlled by the charioteer is the non-sentient being. Thus the kartṛtva is of a different nature in each case though the process of action (pravṛtti) is common to all the three (sārathyādi krameṇa pratiniyatagatiḥ syāt trayāṇām pravṛttiḥ⁴¹).

Vedānta Deśika further points out that it is not correct to assume that jīva is totally dependent on Iśvara for its action, similar to a non-sentient entity. It has some freedom to act on its own. As Rāmānuja explains in his comment on the Vedānta-sūtra42, a distinction is drawn between the initial action of the individual and the subsequent activity. In all human effort, the individual initially wills to do a thing. To this extent he is free to do what he desires. Based on this initial action, the subsequent activity which follows is approved by Iśvara. By according such an approval, Īśvara prompts the individual to proceed further (Paramātmā tadanumatidanena pravartayati).43 If it were not so, injunctions in this regard would become futile. Even though *Iśvara* gives His approval to the activity initiated by an individual, He does not become the kartā. The actual kartā is the individual himself. To this extent jīva possesses the freedom and *Iśvara* also remains as the controller of all human action. Thus the jīva's freedom is reconciled with the power of *İśvara* as the controller of all actions.

It may be asked whether *Iśvara*, by according His approval to the subsequent activity of the individual, can escape the moral responsibility for the consequences of the act which may either be good or evil. Thus for instance, if

an individual indulges in a sinful act, does not God become a participant in it in so far as He remains neutral and does not prevent the person from doing so? The answer to this is in the negative. In all these cases, the initial action is important and that alone determines the moral responsibility of the individual. God has endowed to each individual the mental faculty to think and act rightly. He has also given the ethical code (Śāstra) as a guide to act in the right way and avoid what is considered to be sinful. To this extent, God is the general cause (sādhāraṇa-hetu) for the activities of all human beings, in the same way as the rain water is a common cause for the growth of plants. An individual is expected to exercise his thinking power and make use of the guidelines in initiating his activity. In this respect he becomes the special cause (viśesa kārana) for the results accruing from them, like the special effort made by one to cultivate the land with the help of rain water for better yield. Neglecting the common factors, if one indulges in sinful activities, God cannot be responsible for the consequences. If God remains neutral by merely according His approval to an act already initiated by an individual, it is due to the fact that the individual who initially acts under the influence of the past karma, should be allowed to reap the consequences of the karma.

V. The Relation of Jīva to Brahman

り、サースというの間の歌音の歌版を一切でも影響を開すて

This is an important subject in Vedānta and it is discussed in a separate adhikaraṇa titled Amśādhikaraṇa. The issue involved is whether jīva is different from Brahman or is it non-different from Brahman. This question arises because several Upaniṣadic texts state that jīva and Brahman are different since the two ontological entities are of different nature. Thus the Kaṭha Upaniṣad states: jñā jñau dvau ajau īśa aniṣau 44- "There are two unborn ones, the omniscient and the ignorant, the one all-powerful and the other powerless". There are also Upaniṣadic texts which convey the idea that jīva and Brahman are non-different. Thus says

the Chāndogya: tat-tvamasi — "Thou art that". The Bṛhadāraṇyaka states: ayamātmā Brahmā — "This Ātman is Brahman" ⁴⁵. In view of these apparently conflicting statements the relation of jīvātman to Brahman needs to be discussed and the correct position explained. Though in connection with the theory of universe in relation to Brahman which is discussed in the Ārambhaṇādhikaraṇa, it is pointed out that the universe which comprises both nonsentient prakṛti and the sentient jīvas, is non-distinct from Brahman (ananya), Bādarāyaṇa takes up separately the subject of jīva's relation to Brahman to remove the doubts arising from the conflicting views advanced by different schools of Vedānta regarding this matter (bahu kumati mata kṣiptaye). ⁴⁶

Bādarāyaṇa explains the relation of jīva to Brahman in terms of 'aṁśa'. The relevant sūtra reads: Aṁśo nānā vyapadeśāt anyathā cā Pi dāśakitavāditvam adhīyata eke.⁴⁷ It means: "Jīva is the aṁśa of Brahman on account of difference and otherwise (non-difference) also; in some (recensions of Vedas) it is spoken of as being of the nature of slaves, fishermen etc.".

Though the term 'amśa' used in the sūtra is intended to explain the nature of the relation of jīva to Brahman and uphold the validity of the texts speaking of both difference and non-difference between jīva and Brahman, its fuller implication has become a subject of controversy among the commentators. Amśa literally means "part" but Brahman being niravaya or partless, it is difficult to conceive how jīva can be a part of Brahman. The Scriptural and Smṛti texts also employ the terms such as pāda, amśa, śakti, tanu or body to describe jīva's relation to Brahman. It is therefore necessary to clarify in what sense the term amśa is used by Bādarāyaṇa. The following are the theories advanced by the other schools of Vedānta to explain how the jīva is an amśa of Brahman. Vedānta Deśika examines them critically and proves that they are defective.

It may be possible

to say that jīva is an amśa of Brahman in the same way as the incarnated divine beings like Rāma, Kṛṣṇa etc. are the amśas of Paravāsudeva. But this explanation is not applicable to jīva since Brahman being niravaya, does not admit in it any amśa. To overcome this difficulty Brahman may be conceived as an aggregate of numerous jīvas (cit samaṣṭiḥ) similar to the jungle of numerous trees, and that each jīva in it is a part similar to each tree in the jungle being a separate tree. But this explanation would go against the Upaniṣadic statement that Brahman wills to become many. What is an aggregate of multiple jīvas cannot be one unitary entity which can become many.

According to another theory, jīva is an amsa of Brahman being conditioned by limiting adjuncts such as the bodies and the antahkaranas in the same way as the one allpervasive ether becomes many when conditioned by several receptacles such as pots. That is, the very Brahman assumes the form of jivas when conditioned by the physical bodies. With the removal of the limiting condition (upādhi), jīva becomes Brahman. This theory known as upādhibrahmavāda is upheld by Bhāskara. This view is also unsound, contends Vedanta Désika. If Brahman is aware that the conditioned self is non-different from it, it would not like to assume the form of jīva since it would result in its own destruction. It cannot be said that Brahman is unaware of it, because as an omniscient Being, it should know the happiness and suffering experienced by each body on account of the past karma, similar to a yogi assuming several bodies is able to know the experiences of each body. But such a possibility cannot be admitted in respect of Iśvara. This theory also suffers from other limitations. Does Brahman as associated with upādhis experience pleasure and pain everywhere in the form of jīva? Or the same Brahman as different from jīvas associated with upādhis experiences pleasure and pain? Or Brahman as undifferentiated, experiences pleasure and pain whenever it is conditioned? Or the very limiting condition (upādhi) such as the body associated with some

other limiting condition experiences pleasure and pain? None of these alternatives is tenable. The first alternative is most unsound since it would amount to the admission of Brahman as associated with $up\bar{a}dhi$ at all the time. Regarding the second, Brahman which is undivided would be subjected to divisibility. If Brahman experiences sukha and duhkha as and when associated with $up\bar{a}dhi$, there would be, at every moment, liberation and bondage. The last option would end up with the admission of $C\bar{a}rv\bar{a}ka$ theory of physical body itself as $j\bar{i}va$. Further the Upaniṣadic texts teaching the attainment of the status of similarity by the $j\bar{i}va$ with Brahman in the state of mukti, would become meaningless.

Some Advaitins maintain that jīvas are reflections of Brahman in the internal organs caused by māyā, similar to the reflections of the moon in waves of water (chāyāmśa Jīvaḥ). As reflections of Brahman in the internal organs, Jīvas are regarded as amsas of Brahman. Vedānta Desika subjects this theory to a critical examination. He raises the following objections. The reflections of the moon in water is to be seen by somebody. In the case of jīvas as reflections of Brahman, who is the seer (drasta)? Is it Brahman itself? Or is it some other non-sentient entity other than Brahman? Is it the very jiva? Is it someone other than these three? It cannot be Brahman because according to the Advaitin, it is not the cogniser. Nor can it be a non-sentient entity since it is also devoid of the capacity to see. Regarding the third alternative, jīva itself cannot be the seer because prior to the existence of jiva as reflection of Brahman, jiva does not exist (klṛpteḥ prāk svātma hāneḥ). That is, unless Brahman is reflected in the antaḥkaraṇa, jīva does not come into existence and how can jīva cognize itself? The last alternative is also not tenable since other than Brahman, jīva and avidyā, nothing else is admitted by the Advaitins.48

Yādava Prakāśa advances a different theory of jīva as a part of Brahman. According to him, Brahman which is sanmātra or of the nature of consciousness, is associated

with three-fold śakti viz. Īśvara-śakti, cit-śakti and acit-śakti. Sat or consciousness is present in all the three. Brahman itself, through the three-fold power it possesses, undergoes changes as God, individual souls and cosmic matter, just as water of the sea turns into waves, foam and bubbles. The individual souls are the transformed principles of cit-śakti of Brahman. Though they are different from Brahman, they are essentially Brahman, as the waves in actuality are non-different from water of the sea.

This theory is also considered defective. Other than the sat, which is the very Brahman, there are no separate entities as jīvas. But the Upaniṣadic texts acknowledge Brahman as different from jīvas and non-sentient acit and that Brahman as the Antaryāmin or Inner controller, is immanent in all.

There is one other theory referred to by Vedānta Deśika which is stated to be advocated by some Vedāntins. This theory is similar to the view of the Madhvas. According to this theory, jīva is considered as an amśa of Brahman in respect of certain common characteristics such as jñāna and ānanda, in the same way as the crown of the Meru mountain which is an amśa of Meru (meroḥ amśaḥ kirīṭa prabhṛtiḥ)49. This view is also considered defective because the crown (kirīṭa) cannot be the amśa or part of the svarūpa of meru mountain in the proper sense of the term. The jīvas and Paramātman are absolutely different and remain so always. In view of it, jīvas cannot be regarded as amśa of Paramātman on the limited basis of some similarity between the two.

What then is the meaning of the term amśa? It is not to be taken as a divisible part of a whole entity since Brahman is indivisible. Nor can it be regarded as an amśa of Paramātman on the analogy of the moon and its reflections in the waves. Nor can it be an amśa in the sense of ether being conditioned by upādhi. Nor is it part of sanmātra Brahman similar to the waves of the ocean. It is to be understood as the integral part of one entity (ekavastu eka

deśatva). To be more specific, it means, as Rāmānuja explains that amsa is an essential attribute (visesana) of a qualified substance (viśistasya ekavastunah viśesanāmśam amśa eva)50. A substance which is a qualified entity is inseparably related to its essential attribute, just as the sun is related to its rays. The essential attribute which is inseparably related to the substance is an amsa of that substance. Such a relationship between the two is known as amsa-amsi bhava or viśesana-viśesya bhāva. In the ontological sense it is called śarīra-śarīri bhāva or the relation of the body to the soul. In the same way jīva is related to Brahman as amsa is to amsī (Brahman). It is in this sense that Bādarāyaṇa employs the term amsa in explaining the relation of jīva to Brahman. This is evident from the fact that amsatva understood in this sense viz. jīva as inseperably related to Brahman, accords validity to the Scriptural texts speaking of both difference (nānā vyapadeśa) and non-difference (anyathā ca) between jīva and Brahman. The individual soul and Brahman are different by virtue of their intrinsic nature like substance and its essential attribute. They can also be non-different or one as Brahman integrally related to the soul, similar to the substance as inherently related to the attribute is one qualified entity (viśista dravya). The Antaryāmi Brāhmaņa fully supports the view that jīvātman in which Paramātman abides as Antaryāmin, is its śarīra or body in the technical sense that it is always supported and controlled by Paramātman. This view is also expressed in the Vedāntasūtra 'Avasthiteh iti kāśakrtsnah', which means that Paramātman abides in jīva. Hence jīva can be taken as amsa of Brahman (tasmāt jīvo višiste bhagavati guņavat tatprakārāmsa uktah)51.

One possible objection that can be raised against this conclusion is that jīvas being part of Brahman, the defects found in the jīvas particularly the experience of happiness and suffering would also be applicable to Paramātman. This possibility is ruled out on the ground that jīvas and Paramātman being different in nature, the defects found in

the jīvas do not apply to Paramätman, just as the changes taking place in the physical body do not affect the jīva. This is also logically justified. According to the epistemology of Viśiṣṭādvaita, the substance and attribute are different and the changes of the attribute do not affect the substance which is only the āśraya or substrate for the attributes.

Nor is there any possibility of all jīvas having the same kind of experience on account of amsatva or the characteristic of being a part of Brahman being common to all. This is due to the fact that jīvas are many and also abide in each body and are different from one another. Besides it is monadic (anu) in nature. The experience of happiness and suffering of one individual which is due to its past karma, is not experienced by the jīva of another individual.

All these difficulties arise in respect of the theories of jīva advanced by Bhāskara, Yādava Prakāśa and the Advaitins, since jīva in respect of its intrinsic nature (svarūpa) is essentially Brahman. As pointed out earlier, it is not possible to account for the variation in the experiences on the basis of upādhis or the limiting adjuncts such as antaḥkaraṇas, either caused by the illusory avidyā in the case of Advaitins or the real factors as in the case of Bhāskara and Yādava Prakāśa. Hence the theory of jīva as amśa of Brahman, as explained by Rāmānuja on the basis of the Scriptural authority and the relevant Vedānta-sūtra, is sound.

VI. The Theory of Transmigration of Jīva

After discussing the nature of jīva as nitya, jñātā, kartā, bhoktā and amśa of Brahman, Bādarāyaṇa deals with another important aspect of jīva entangled with bondage (baddha jīva). The subjects which come up for consideration are: movement of the jīva after the death of a person to the higher realms to enjoy the fruits of karma (deeds), manner of its rebirth, the conditions of jīva during the states of waking, dream, deep sleep (suṣupti) and swoon (mūrchā). The main purpose of considering this matter is to make an individual

seeking mokṣa aware of the afflictions to which a jīva is subjected during the state of bondage and thereby develop a sense of detachment towards transient worldly pleasures (vairāgya) and consequently a craving for the attainment of the eternal Spiritual Goal. This is the reason for including this subject in the first pāda of the third adhyāya, though it is mainly concerned with the sādhana or the ways and means of attaining Brahman. We shall however discuss this matter in the present chapter as it has a direct bearing on the doctrine of jīva.

The theory of the jīva as nitya or devoid of either birth or death implies that it exists even after the death of a person in some form or other and also either in this universe or in some other realms. An important question which arises in this connection is: Does the jīva, which has performed meritorious deeds (iṣṭādhikāri), after it departs from the body, move on to the realm of the moon (candra-loka) along with its subtle body (bhūta-sūkṣma) which comprises five subtle elements, indrivas and prāṇa? The question is relevant because the passage of Chandogya Upanisad dealing with the Pañcagni-vidya describes the process of rebirth of the soul by adopting the metaphors of five fires into which the jīva, conceived as ap or water is offered as oblation. It is not clear from the passage whether or not the jiva departs from the body along with the bhūta-sūksma or the subtle elements to enable it to assume a different body in the realm of the moon.

According to the prima facie view, the disembodied soul does not carry with it the subtle elements. The argument in support of this view is that the soul can assume a body and organs in the realm to which it goes due to the influence of the merit acquired by it in the past life. As it is monadic in size (anu), it is possible for the jīva to move into another realm even without a subtle body (jīvasya anor-gatiḥ). Īśvara can also cause the movement for it as in the case of prāṇa which is made to move upward at the time of death. It is therefore unnecessary to postulate that the jīva, when it moves to a

higher realm after death, carries with it the bhūta-sūkṣma.

Bādarāyaṇa does not accept this theory and affirms on the basis of the proper interpretation of the concerned Upaniṣadic passage that the jīvātman moves to the higher realm along with the subtle elements in order to assume a different body in the other region. The relevant sūtra reads: Tadantara pratipattau ramhati sam-pariṣvaktaḥ praśnanirū-paṇābhyām⁵². It means: Jīva moves, fully enveloped with the subtle elements when it enters into another body as this is evident from the Upaniṣadic statements containing the question and answer given to it.

The fuller implication of the *sūtra* can be understood with reference to the Chāndogya-passage dealing with the rebirth of the soul. In this passage containing a dialogue between Śvetaketu (son of Āruṇi) and Pravāhana Jābāli (king of Pāñcāla), the following five questions are raised:

- 1. How these persons, when they die, go to the different places?
- 2. How they come back to the world?
- 3. How the *svargaloka* (heaven) is not filled by the people going there again and again after death?
- 4. What is the means of access to the divine path (*Devayāna*) and the path leading to the fathers (*Pitṛyāna*)?
- 5. After which round of offering of the libation, the jīva conceived as water (ap), attains the name of puruṣa (vettha yathā pañcamyām āhutyau āpaḥ puruṣa-vacaso bhavanti)?⁵³

Of these, the last question is important as it relates to the manner of the jīva's rebirth after death. In reply to these questions the Upaniṣad describes the process of rebirth in five stages by using the metaphors of five fires (pañcāgni).

At the first stage, the disembodied soul, designated as śraddhā, soon after it reaches the realm of the moon, is offered as oblation to the fire designated as heaven (dyuloka) by the celestial deities. It then assumes a divine and beautiful body (amṛtamayam deham) named as Somarāja to enable it

to enjoy the heavenly pleasures in the realm of the moon. In the second stage, the soul is offered to the fire designated as parjanya (the God of rains) and it then takes the form of rain water. In the third stage, it is made to enter into the physical world which is also metaphorically described as agni. It then becomes mixed up with the food grains. In the fourth stage, the soul is made to enter the body of a man which is also described as agni, through the food consumed by him. It then takes the form of semen. In the fifth and final stage, the soul is made to enter into the womb of a woman, which is described as agni, through the sexual intercourse. It then assumes the designation of puruṣa or human body (purusa vacaso bhavanti).⁵⁴

Thus, according to this passage, the soul described as ap or water and also as śraddhā is offered as oblation successively to the sacrificial fires of heaven, the rain-God, the physical world and the man and at each stage it assumes the respective gross forms as that of the moon (that is, a lustrous body similar to the moon), rain (parjanya), food (anna), semen (retas). The fifth oblation in the form of semen which is offered to the fire conceived as the woman, takes the form of human body (puruṣa). This is the implication of the statement of the Upaniṣad: pañcamyām āhutau āpaḥ puruṣa vacaso bhavanti. This is the direct reply to the fifth question viz. 'vettha yatha pancamyām āpaḥ puruṣa-vacaso bhavanti'55.

Taking into consideration this question and the reply given to it in the passage, it is obvious that according to the Upaniṣad, the jīva designated as āpaḥ and also śraddhā assumes a new body after it enters into the womb of a woman which is metaphorically described as agni by passing through the four earlier stages described as dyuloka or the heaven, parjanya-loka or the realm of the rain-Gods, the physical universe (pṛthivī) as the food (anna) and as the semen of a man through the food consumed by him, and finally into the womb of the woman through sexual intercourse. On the basis of this description, the term 'ap'

mentioned in the Upaniṣad to denote the jīva, implies that jīva is associated with all five subtle elements and also indriyas including prāṇa. According to the Pañcīkaraṇa theory, all objects in the universe are constituted of all five elements and hence the mention of 'ap' is illustrative of the other four elements.

Separately, the Upaniṣad states that when the jīva exits from the body at the time of death, the prāṇa along with the indriyas follow it (prāṇam anutkrāmantam sarve prāṇā anutkrāmanti). The term śraddhā employed in the Upaniṣad in place of āpa as oblation to be offered to the fire (designated as parjanya), also denotes jīva along with its subtle elements. Hence Bādarāyaṇa affirms that jīva when it leaves the body moves into the realm of the moon along with the bhūta-sūkṣma (ramhati sampariṣvaktaḥ). The sampariṣvaktaḥ).

In connection with the movement of the jīva into the realm of the moon and its return to the physical world to be reborn as puruṣa, the following issues are raised:

- 1) Does the jīva return to the earth after it has fully experienced the effects of all the good deeds performed earlier or does it have the residue of the puṇya karmas yet to be experienced?
- Do all persons, that is, those who have performed the prescribed deeds and also those who do not observe the prescribed deeds go to the realm of the moon?
- 3) When the soul descends from the realm of the moon to the earth through the ākāśa or ether, does it assume the form of ākāśa or mere semblance of it?
- 4) How long do the souls remain in ākāśa?
- 5) In what form does the soul abide in the food grains, plants, trees etc before it enters the human body?

As these questions have a bearing on the theory of transmigration of the soul, Bādarāyaṇa attempts to clarify them in the following four adhikaraṇas. 1. Kṛtātyādhikaraṇa

- Aniṣṭādikāryadhikaraṇa
 Tatsvābhāvyāpattyadhikaraṇa
 Nāticirādy-adhikaraṇa. We shall take note of the important
- points without going into the details.

Regarding the first question, it is stated in the Chandogya Upanisad that only the householders who have performed the meritorious deeds such as yajña and other humanitarian services go to the realm of the moon to reap the benefits of their deeds.⁵⁸ It is also pointed out that after having enjoyed them completely (yāvat sampātam usitvā), they return to the earth through the same path as they traversed to the higher realm. Thus says the Upanisad: Tasmin yavat sampatam usitvā athaitam-eva adhvānam punah nivartante⁵⁹ - "They remain in the realm of moon till the merit of their karma lasts and after having enjoyed it, they return through the same path they ascended." On the basis of these teachings it is maintained that jīva would have enjoyed the fruits of good karma in the realm of the moon and returned to the earth without any residual karma, to be reborn. This view is also corroborated by the statement of Brhadaranyaka Upanisad which says that after having experienced all karma, the soul returns to the mundane existence (prāpyāntam karmanah tasya yatkincit iha karoti ayam; tasmāt lokāt punar-etyasmai lokāya karmane⁶⁰). This is the prima facie view.

Bādarāyaṇa does not accept this view. The relevant sūtra reads: Kṛtātyaye anuśayavān-dṛṣṭa-smṛtibhyām yathā etamanevam ca 61.

It means: "After having experienced the fruits of the good deeds, jīva returns to the earth with a residue of karma. It is stated so in the Scriptural and Smṛṭi texts. When it returns, it traverses either through the same pathway or some other pathway also."

In elucidating the implication of this sūtra, Vedānta Deśika points out that if the soul in the realm of the moon would have exhausted all the effects of the past deeds, then its rebirth as individuals with good or bad life and higher or lower status cannot be explained. The Scriptural text

also says: tadya iha ramaṇīya caraṇa abhyāśo ha yatte ramaṇīyam yonim āpadyeran brāhmaṇa yonim kṣatriya yonim vaiśya yonim vā atha ya iha kapūya caraṇa abhyāśo ha yatte kapūyam yonim āpadyeran svayonim vā sūkara yonim vā caṇḍāla yonim vā.62

"Those whose conduct has been good here will soon get birth such as a *Brāhmaṇa*, *Kṣatriya* or *Vaiśya*. But those whose conduct is evil, will be born in evil births such as the birth of a dog or a pig or the birth of a lowest caste. "

Hence it is concluded that the souls which have gone to the realm of the moon do return to the earth with residual karma to be yet experienced in the next life.

The author of the sūtra clarifies by quoting Bādari's view that the term caraṇa used in the Upaniṣad does not merely mean ācāra or conduct but it also implies both puṇya or merit and pāpa or evil (sukṛta duṣkṛte eva iti tu Bādari).⁶³

ii) Regarding the second question - whether the individuals who have not performed the meritorious deeds go to the realm of the moon - the prima facie view is that those who have not done good deeds also go to the realm of the moon. In support of it, a few Scriptural and Smṛti texts are quoted. The Kauṣītikī Upaniṣad says: ye vai ca asmāt lokāt prayānti candramasameva te sarve gacchanti⁶⁴ - "All those who depart from this world after death go only to the realm of the moon". The word 'sarve' or 'all' would cover even the sinners who first go to the world of Yama. After undergoing punishment there, they will go to the realm of the moon.

Bādarāyaṇa does not accept this view. The Upaniṣads have laid down two separate paths viz arcirādi mārga and dhūmra-mārga intended for two different categories of persons viz., those who have observed prescribed meditation on Brahman for attainment of mokṣa and those who have performed prescribed deeds for other higher benefits. The former category of persons do not go to the realm of the moon. It is only the latter category of persons who aspire for heaven and other material benefits, go to

the candraloka. It is not therefore correct to say that even the persons who have not performed the good deeds (aniṣṭādhikārī), go to the realm of the moon after death.

Further it is also stated that the persons other than the two categories - those who observe prescribed meditation (vidyā) and those who perform good karma, do not have to go to the realm of the moon. These are the sinners who take rebirth even without going through the process of five stages, as pointed out in the Pañcāgni-vidyā. They are born in other forms such as animals, birds, insects, plants etc. The Chandogya text states that there are three other ways in which living beings come into existence: Teṣām khalu eṣām bhūtānām trīnyeva bījam bhavanti andajam jīvajam udbhijjam⁶⁵ "There are only three origins for all beings: those born of eggs, those born of creatures (womb) and those born of seeds (plants). Birds and reptiles are born of eggs. Animals and human beings are born through wombs. Plants and trees are born of seeds. In all these cases there is no need for the souls to pass through the five stages, as stated in the Pañcāgni-vidyā. It is only the individuals who have performed the meritorious deeds (iṣṭādhikārī) that go to the realm of the moon and they are reborn through the media of clouds, rain, food grains and semen of purusa and finally through the entry into the womb of a woman.

iii) We now come to the third question. During the descent of the soul from the realm of the moon, the soul is stated to go to ākāśa (ether). From ākāśa to vāyu, then it becomes dhūma or smoke, then it becomes cloud and thereafter it falls on earth as rain. After having fallen on earth, they enter paddy, corn, plants, seeds etc. It is indeed very difficult and may even take a long time to come out of it. It takes birth in the form of human being only through one who has eaten that food grain and whenever he ejects it through his semen into the generative organ of the woman.

The relevant passage reads:

Tasmin yāvat sampātam usitvā athaitam eva adhvānam punar-nivartante, yathaitam ākāsam, ākāsād vāyum, vāyur-

bhūtvā dhumo bhavati, dhumo bhūtva abhram bhavati.66

Abhram bhūtvā megho bhavati megho bhūtvā pravarṣati, tai ha vrīhi yavā oṣadhi-vanaspatayaḥ tila māṣa iti jāyante; ato vai khalu durniṣprapataram, yo yo hy-annam atto yo retaḥ siñcati tad bhūya eva bhavati.⁶⁷

With reference to this passage, third question is asked: When the jīva on its descent to earth enters ākāśa does it become ākāśa or does it become similar to it? The answer given by Bādarāyaṇa is that it assumes similarity to ākāśa (sādṛśya). That is, it gets united with ākāśa and hence it is regarded as similar to ākāśa (tat-saṃsarga-kṛta tad-sādṛśyāpatty abhiprāyam).

The next question is: How long the jīva stays in ākāśa? The answer is that it does not stay there for too long (nāticireṇa) because in the subsequent sentence referring to its entry into the food grains, it is said that it is indeed very difficult to get out of them (dur-nisprapataram).

Regarding the question relating to the manner in which the soul remains in the food grains before it enters into the human body in the form of retas (semen), Bādarāyaṇa states that it becomes stuck to (associated with) the jīva which is already inherent in the grain (anyādhisthite)68, in the same way as it becomes closely associated with (samsthita) ākāśa, clouds etc. Its implication is that it is born as the food grain (assume the form of grain), since it does not have to experience any sukha and duhkha at this stage. When the food grain associated with the jīva is consumed by a human being and transformed into semen, and subsequently when the semen is transmitted to the sexual organ of a woman, it does not have the scope to experience the effects of karma. As stated earlier, the purpose of mentioning all these details of the process of rebirth is to create a sense of detachment towards the life of a jīva during the state of bondage and develop in the individual the craving for escape from bondage and also aspiration for the attainment of the eternal Spiritual Goal.

VII. Four States of Jīva in Bondage

After discussing the issues relating to the rebirth of the soul, Bādarāyana presents the conditions of jiva during the states of dream, deep sleep and swoon. The following adhikaranas in the second pāda of the third adhyāya deal with this subject:1. Sandhyādhikaraņa 2. Tadabhāvādhikaraņa 3. Karmānusmṛtyādhikaraṇa 4. Mugdhādhikaraṇa. As pointed out earlier, the objective of taking up this matter in the Sādhana pāda is to bring to light how the jīva during the state of bondage is subject to various afflictions, whereas Paramātman is free from all such defects (nirdoṣa). This knowledge would be useful to the aspirant for moksa, for cultivating vairāgya or non-attachment to worldly life and develop a deep craving $(trsn\bar{a})$ for the attainment of Paramātman who is the Supreme Goal.⁶⁹ As will be seen presently, in all these states Paramatman causes for the jiva the experience of the dream objects, the sound sleep and the unconscious condition respectively because jīva, though it is kartā and bhoktā, is dependent on Paramātman. This awareness of jīva's dependence on Paramātman is also useful to realize the greatness (māhātmya) of Brahman who is the sole object of upāsanā. This is the justification for discussing the different conditions (avasthās) of jīva in the second pāda of Sādhanādhyāya prior to the discussion of the twofold nature of Brahman as free from defects and also endowed with numerous auspicious attributes (nirasta nikhila dosah ananta kalyāna guna viśistah).

a) State of dream

This subject is considered in the Sandhyādhikaraṇa. The word sandhyā refers to the state of dream since it occurs in between the waking state and the dreamless state. The question which comes up for consideration is whether the objects experienced in dream are created by jīva or Paramātman. The prima facie view is that these are created by the jīva because it is so stated in the Upaniṣad. The Bṛhadāraṇyaka

Upaniṣad states: na tatra rathayogāḥ na panthāno bhavati...atha ratha rathayogaṁ panthāḥ srjate...sa hi kartā⁷⁰ "There are no chariots in the state of dream, no horses, no roads; then he creates chariots, horses and roads He is the creator". In the statement 'sa hi srjate' the word 'sa' is taken as jīva since it experiences the dream objects. Since jīva is stated to possess the power to create objects at its will (satyasaṁkalpa), as in the case of Īśvara, it is possible to explain the creation of dream objects by jīva. The Kaṭhopaniṣad mentions that puruṣa (jīva) can create objects in accordance with its desire.⁷¹

Bādarāyaṇa does not accept this view. Jīva does not have the capacity to create dream objects by its will. Though satya-samkalpatva is the intrinsic nature of jīva, according to the Upanisad, this capacity is eclipsed by the karma during the state of bondage and it becomes manifest only when it is fully liberated from bondage. Hence jiva cannot create the dream objects. Only Paramatman, who is endowed with unchecked freedom and power to create anything by will, causes the various dream objects to be experienced by the individuals concerned. These are regarded as mere māyā (māyāmātra) in the sense that these are wondrous creations (āścaryarūpa sṛṣṭi) of Paramātman. Māyā does not imply, as Advaitins claim, the illusory appearance. If jiva did possess this capacity then it would not have created for itself undesirable objects or events (anabhimate samutpādanādeḥ ayogāt). Besides, it is believed on the strength of Scriptural texts that the dreams are portenders (sūcaka) of auspicious and inauspicious events for a person. Hence it is appropriate to admit that the dream experiences of jīva are caused by Paramātman.

b) State of sușupti

Suṣupti is a state of deep sleep in which there is no experience of dream (svapnānubhavaḥ). In other words, it is dreamless deep sleep. According to the Upaniṣads, this occurs when the jīva is resting in the subtle arteries named hitā nāḍi

radiating from the heart and also in the nāḍi called the purītat. It also happens when jīva is resting in Paramātman who abides in the heart (hārdam brahma). The Upaniṣadic texts refer to three places as the resting ground for the jīva during the state of suṣupti. Thus says the Chāndogya: Tad yatraitat suptaḥ samastaḥ samprasannaḥ svapnam na vijānāti, āsu tadā nāḍiṣu sṛpto bhavati. ...tejasā hi tadā saṁpanno bhavati⁷² "The jīva during deep sleep withdraws all the senses and in a state of tranquility it does not see any dream and it then becomes united with tejas (Brahman)".

The Bṛhadāraṇyaka describes suṣupti as follows: atha yadā suṣupto bhavati yadā na kasyacana veda, hitā nāma nāḍyo dvāsaptati-sahasrāṇi hṛdayāt purītat abhipratiṣṭhante; tābhiḥ pratyavasṛpya purītati śete.⁷³

"When the jiva is in deep sleep and is not aware of anything, there are 72000 nāḍis called hitā which radiate from the heart towards the purītat. Through them it moves forth and rests in the purīta nāḍi". The Chāndogya elsewhere states that when a person goes to deep sleep, the jīva is united with sat (Brahman) (yatra etat puruṣaḥ svapiti nāma, satā somya tadā sampanno bhavati.74

Thus three different places are mentioned in the Upanișads. The question arises: Where does the jīva rest during the state of susupti? According to the prima facie view it has to be one of the three since jīva cannot repose in all three places at the same time. Bādarāyaṇa clarifies the position. If any one of the three places is accepted as the reposing ground, then the other two mentioned in the Upanisad stand rejected. This is not appropriate as it would amount to the rejection of what is stated in the Upanisad. Hence all the three places together have to be accepted as the resting place for jīva during susupti. Such an explanation is plausible on the analogy of a person sleeping on a bed spread over a cot which is located in a mansion (prāsāda khatva paryanka-nyāya). The nādis and the purītat correspond to the mansion and the cot respectively, whereas the bed corresponds to the Paramatman. Though the

mansion, cot and bed are different, the three together serve the common purpose of providing the resting place. On the basis of this explanation, it is affirmed by Bādarāyaṇa that sat or Brahman is the actual resting place for jīva. That is, during deep sleep, jīva reposes in Brahman abiding in the heart and it does not therefore experience any dream at this time (ato brahmaiva sākṣāt suṣupti sthānam). This conclusion becomes confirmed by the Chāndogya text which states that jīva having come back from sat (Brahman) does not know that it has returned from it (satā āgamya na viduḥ satā āgacchāmahe⁷⁵). This fact that the jīva returns to its normal state reveals that the state of suṣupti is a transitory state for jīva when it is temporarily united with Brahman and it does not imply that jīva becomes identical with Brahman, as Advaitins claim.

Further the same jīva which enjoyed the sound dreamless sleep comes back to its normal waking state (yaḥ suptaḥ sa eva uttiṣṭhati). This is evident from the fact that the same person recollects that he slept well. The jīva has yet to experience the punya and pāpa of the previous life prior to its attaining mokṣa. The Upanisadic texts also state with reference to the jīva experiencing suṣupti: "Whatever creatures they were here, whether a lion, or tiger or wolf etc, they become the same again." Further if one who experiences suṣupti is liberated, the Vedānta enjoining the observation of prescribed sādhana for attaining liberation would be rendered futile. The statement that jīva is united with Brahman is only intended to convey that jīva which is subjected to afflictions during waking state gets fully rested in suṣupti for a while.

c) State of swoon

This is also a state to which jīva is subjected. It is described in the Vedānta-sūtra as 'ardha sampatti' which means "half dead". That is, it is neither a state of waking nor dream, since there is no consciousness in this state. It is not even suṣupti because the state of mūrcchā can also be caused by a

head injury. Nor is it total death since there is life in the body and there is also the possibility of one waking up from the state of unconsciousness. Death is total cessation of the functioning of all organs and $pr\bar{a}na$. Hence it is regarded as a state of half-death ($mugdh\bar{a}vasth\bar{a}$) to which a $j\bar{v}va$ is sometimes liable.

- 2. Tait. Br. I-1-10. Prajāpatiķ prajā asrjata
- VS II-3-18
- 4. Ka. Up. I-2-18
- 5. Svet. Up. VI-13
- 6. See AS verse 228
- 7. See FVV. pp196-7
- 8. VS II-3-19
- 9. The word jna in the sutra is interpreted as knowing subject on the authority of Pāṇini-sūtra. See Pāṇini-sūtra III-1-35. Igupadhjāaprikara jānātiti jūaḥ jīvaḥ.
- 10. Br. Up. V-7-22
- 11. Tait. Up. II-5-1
- 12. VP. I-2-6 jñānasvarūpam atyatanirmalam paramārthatah
- 13. Br. Up. VI-3-30
- 14. Praśna Up. IV-9.
- 15. Br. Up. VI-3-30
- See AS verse 231. Jñāna alopādi vākyānuguņa vişayatām yāti asau evakāraḥ
- 17. Mund. Up II-1-9
- Br. Up IV-4-2 Eşa ātmā nişkrāmati śarīra deśebhyaḥ. Also Kau. Up. Asmāt lokāt prayānti candramasa eva te sarve gacchanti, tasmāt lokāt punareti.
- 19. VS II-2-20
- 20. See Svet. Up. V-9
- 21. See TMK II-5. See also FVV pp193-94
- 22. AS verse 232
- 23. Kaṭha. Up. I-2-19
- 24. See BG. III-27. Prakṛteḥ kriyamāṇāni guṇaih. karmāṇi sarvasaḥ, ahamkāra vimūḍhātmā kartā'ham ity manyate. See also BG. XIII-20. Kārya kāraṇa kartṛtve hetuḥ prakṛtirucyate
- 25. BG. II-24. Acchedyo'yam adāhyo'yam
- 26. VS II-3-33 See also AS.verse 233
- 27. Br. Up. IV-1-18 Evamaiveşa etan pranan grahîtva sve sarire yatha kaman parivartate

- 28. Tait. Up. II-5 Vijnānam yajnam kurute
- 29. See RB on BG. XIII-20
- 30. See FVV Chapter 6. pp198-99
- 31. See AS verse 235. Vyāpāra jūāna vāncchā prašakana yatana ayogayuktistu mandā
- 32. See AS verse 235
- 33. VS II-3-41
- 34. Tait. Āraņyaka. III-11-10
- 35. BG. XVIII-61
- 36. BG. XV-15
- 37. See VS I-3-41. Kṛta prayatnāpekṣastu vihita-pratiṣiddha avaiyarthyādibhyah
- 38. BG. IX-29
- See Kau. Up. III-6. Eşa eva asādhu karma kārayati tam yam-adho ninīṣati, esa eva sādhu karma kārayati tam yamebhyo lokebhya unninīṣati
- 40. *See* AS verse 240
- 41. See AS verse 240.
- 42. VS II-3-41. Krta prayatnāpekşastu vihita-pratisiddhavaiyarthyādibhyah
- 43. RB. II-3-41
- 44. Ka. Up. I-9
- 45. Br. Up.II-4-6
- 46. See AS. Verse 244
- 47. VS II-3-42
- 48. See AS. Verse 247
- 49. See AS. Verse 249
- 50. RB. II-3-42
- 51. See AS verse 249
- 52. VS III-1-1
- 53. See Ch. Up. V-3-3
- 54. *Ibid*
- 55. Ch. Up. V-9-1
- 56. Br. Up. VI-4-2
- 57. VS III-1-1
- 58. Ch. Up. V-1-3
- 59. Ch. Up. V-10-5
- 60. Br. Up. VI-4-6
- 61. VS III-1-8
- 62. Ch. Up. V-10-7
- 63. VS III-1-11
- 64. Kau. Up. I-3
- 65. Ch. Up. VI-3-1
- 66. *Ibid* V-10-5
- 67. Ch. Up. V-10-8
- 68. VS III-1-24. Anyādhiştite pūrvavad abhilāpāt

- 69. See AS verse 289
- 70. Br. Up. VI-3-10
- 71. Katha Up. II-5-8. Ya eşu supteşu jāgrati kāmam kāmam puruso nirmimāņaļ
- 72. Ch. Up. VIII-6-3
- 73. Br. Up. IV-1-19
- 74. Ch. Up. VI-8-1
- 75. Ch. Up. VI-10-2

CHAPTER EIGHT

THE DOCTRINE OF SĀDHANĀ

The Vedanta is regarded as mokṣa-śāstra since its main objective is to teach the ways and means of attainment of Brahman which is the Supreme Goal (Parama-puruṣārtha). Thus says the Taittirīya Upanisad: "The knower of Brahman (brahmavit) attains the highest Goal (āpnoti Param). Bādarāyaṇa, therefore, accords special attention to this subject. The entire third adhyāya of Brahma-sūtra, which is titled Sādhanādhyāya, is devoted to the discussion of the sādhana. Nearly fifty-five adhikaraņas included in the four pādas of this adhyāya and also six adhikaraņas of the first pāda of the fourth adhyāya deal with different aspects of sādhana viz., 1) Brahman as the worthy object of meditation, 2) the nature of sādhana, 3) different types of vidyā or upāsanā, 4) karma as subordinate means to vidyā, 5) the components and other pre-requisites of upāsanā. We shall discuss all these matters in the present chapter as presented in the Adhikarana-sārāvalī.

I. Brahman as the Object of Meditation

a. Brahman as Ubhayalinga

According to Bādarāyaṇa, vidyā, also named as upāsanā or unceasing meditation on Brahman, is the direct means for the attainment of the Supreme Goal. Thus it is stated in the sūtra: Puruṣārtho ataḥ śabdāt iti Bādarāyaṇah¹. It means that in the opinion of Bādarāyaṇa, the Supreme Goal is attained

only by means of vidyā (the word atah in the sūtra being read as vidyātah in the context of the earlier pāda dealing with vidyā), because it is so declared by the Scriptural texts ($\dot{s}abd\bar{a}t$). The fuller implications of the $s\bar{u}tra$ as well as the nature and other details about vidyā are discussed later. Prior to it, Bādarāyaṇa takes up an important subject dealing with the two-fold character of Brahman described as ubhayalinga, that is, Brahman as totally free from all defects (nirasta-nikhila dosatva) and Brahman as endowed with numerous auspicious attributes (samasta-kalyāṇagunākaratva). Though he has presented in the first adhyāya, the nature and distinguishing characteristics of Brahman by methodically examining all the relevant Upanișadic texts, he brings up the subject of two-fold character of Brahman separately in the Sādhanādhyāya for two reasons. First, it was pointed out in the preceding adhikaranas of pāda 1 and 2 that jīva abiding in the physical body is subject to various afflictions. In this connection, the question arises: whether Paramātman who also abides in the bodies of individuals and also in the non-sentient material entities as their Antaryāmin would be affected by the defects found in them? If He is affected, would such a Paramātman be the worthy object of meditation for the attainment of the Supreme Goal? In order to remove this doubt and establish that Paramātman is the worthy object of meditation, it becomes necessary to prove on the basis of the Scriptural texts that Brahman is untouched by afflictions and other defects (nirdoṣa) and also that it is endowed with numerous auspicious attributes (kalyāna gunas). This knowledge about Brahman as ubhayalinga is essential for meditation since it generates in the upāsaka a craving to attain it (prāpya tṛṣṇā).

The second important reason for bringing up this subject of Brahman as *ubhayalinga*, is to refute the theory of Brahman as *nirguṇa* or devoid of all attributes as conceived by Advaita Vedānta. According to Vedānta Deśika, the concept of Brahman as *nirguṇa* is itself defective. Such a

Brahman cannot be the object of meditation for attaining the purusārtha².

Keeping all these points in mind, Bādarāyaṇa introduces the following sūtra in the Sādhanādhyāya: Na sthānato'pi parasya ubhayaliṅgam sarvatra hi³.

The word sthanatah along with the negative particle na means, in the context of preceding adhikaranas dealing with the different states of jīva, that Paramātman (Para) is not touched by the defects found in the bodies of jivas in spite of its immanence in the jīvas and other entities as Antaryāmin. The reason for this is provided in the next two words of the sūtra "ubhayalingam sarvatra hi" which mean that in all Scriptural and Smrti texts (sarvatra), Brahman is described as possessing two-fold character (ubhayalingam), that is, as essentially free from all defects (nirasta-nikhiladosah) and also endowed with auspicious attributes (kalyāna-gunātmaka). Thus says the Chāndogya Upaniṣad: Eşa ātmā apahatapāpmā vijaro vimṛtyuḥ viśoko vijighatso apipāsah satyakāmah satyasamkalpah4 - "Brahman is free from evil, free from old age, free from death, free from grief, free from hunger, free from thirst, whose desires are selffulfilled, and whose desires are not obstructed". In the above statement the two-fold character of Brahman is explicitly mentioned. There are many other Upanisadic texts referring to either of these aspects of Brahman and these are quoted by Rāmānuja in his commentary on subsequent sūtras of this adhikarana. The Visnupurāna also reiterates the same truth5.

By way of elucidation, it is pointed out that karma of an individual self is the cause for experiencing either sukha or happiness or duḥkha or suffering by jīva. Hence jīva during the state of its bondage is subjected to afflictions. In the case of Paramātman, He is free from karma and hence in spite of His immanence in jīvas, He remains unaffected by the afflictions. The description of Brahman as apahatapāpmā implies that it is free from both puṇya and pāpa. The Muṇḍaka Upaniṣad ⁶ by citing the classic illustration of two birds

sitting on the same tree, one eating the fruit and the other sitting passively, clearly conveys that jīva experiences the fruit of karma, whereas Paramātman remains passive without experiencing the effects of karma. More importantly the Antaryāmī Brāhmaṇa, while describing how Paramātman abides in non-sentient entities such as pṛthivī, ap, etc., and also in the jīvātman, states that He is your Self, the Antaryāmin (Inner controller) and also amṛta (sa ta ātmā antaryāmyamṛtaḥ). The word amṛta which is repeated in each statement implies that Paramātman, though abiding in the body of an individual and other material entities, is totally untouched by the defects.

An objection may be raised against this view. If Paramātman by virtue of His being apahatapāpmā is not affected by the afflictions of the physical bodies in which He is immanent, how then jīva, which is also described as apahatapāpmā by the Chāndogya Upaniṣad becomes affected by afflictions by abiding in the physical body? The answer to this is that though jīva in respect of its essential nature is free from evil (apahatapāpmā), this quality of jīva is eclipsed during the state of bondage due to karma. Only when it is totally liberated from bondage and attains the state of mukti, its apahatapāpmatva becomes fully manifest. But Paramātman, unlike jīvātman remains all the time free from evil as He is not subject to karma. Hence He remains untouched by defects at all time despite His immanence in the jīvas and other material objects.

A major objection is raised against the theory of Brahman as *ubhayalinga*. The Upanisads describe Brahman in two ways. Some texts speak of Brahman as possessing qualities. On the contrary, some texts state that Brahman is devoid of qualities. As these two kinds of statements are mutually opposed, Brahman cannot be conceived as devoid of qualities and also possessing qualities. To overcome this conflict, Brahman is to be admitted as *nirviśeṣa* or devoid of all characteristics (*samasta-viśeṣarahitam nirvikalpakameva brahma pratipattavyam*).⁷ The reason advanced in support

of it is that a large number of Upaniṣadic texts describe Brahman as devoid of all determinations. This is the argument advanced by Śaṁkara. There is also a logical justification for adopting this explanation. According to the *Apaccheda-nyāya*⁸ or the principle of what is later being of greater force than the earlier, *nirguṇa śrutis* are more valid than the *saguṇa śrutis*. That is, the texts which deny all qualities are of greater validity than the texts which refer to qualities because denial presupposes that which is to be denied.

This objection is ruled out by Vedānta Deśika. It is true that there is apparent conflict between saguna śrutis and nirguna śrutis. But it is possible to reconcile this apparent conflict by adopting the Mīmāmsā principle known as utsarga-apavāda nyāya. According to this principle, the negative texts can be interpreted in accordance with the affirmative texts. Thus for instance, there is a general Scriptural statement which enjoins that animals should not be injured, while another statement points out that a particular animal named chāga or goat is to be offered for a specific sacrifice. The conflict between these two statements is overcome by interpreting the general statement to mean that the animal other than those enjoined in the Scriptural text for sacrificial purposes should not be injured. The same logic holds good in respect of saguna and nirguna texts. If some texts affirm that Brahman possesses qualities, while others deny the same such as niṣkalam, niṣkriyam, śāntam niravadyam and niranjanam, the latter (nirguna śrutis) should be understood to mean the denial of the qualities other than those mentioned in the saguna śrutis. (vihita vyatirikta guna nisedhah). In other words, the implication of the negative texts is that Brahman is devoid of such inauspicious attributes as vikāra (change), karma etc., but not that it is devoid of all characteristics. Such an interpretation, though it restricts the import of the negative texts to some extent, maintains the validity of both the saguna and nirguna texts. Further, the apaccheda nyāya is

applicable where the two texts which are not always opposed to each other follow as the earlier and later (aniyata virodha paurvāparyehy-apaccheda nyāyah).10 In the case of saguna and nirguna śrutis, these are always opposed to each other (nitya virodha). Hence it is not appropriate to overcome the conflict by resorting to this principle. On the other hand it is more relevant to take recourse to the principle adopted in the upakrama adhikarana of Mīmāmsā, that is, the principle of what is stated at the commencement of the passage stands valid rather than what is said later. Thus, when the apparent conflict between the saguna vākyas and nirguna vākyas can be easily resolved without according lesser validity to the saguna śrutis, it is not appropriate to maintain that the nirguna śrutis alone are authoritative and on that basis, maintain that Brahman is to be conceived only as devoid of all attributes11.

It is argued that Brahman, according to the Upaniṣad, is of the nature of knowledge (jñāna-svarūpa). Thus states the Taittirīya: "Satyam jñānam anantam brahma"- "Brahman is truth, knowledge and infinite". Brahman as jñāna-svarūpa cannot also be the substrate for jñāna as its dharma. In view of it, the description of Brahman as qualified with attributes such as sarvajñatva, satyasamkalpatva etc., is not valid.

This argument is also untenable, contends Vedānta Deśika. Just as the statement which describes Brahman as jñāna is valid, the texts which speak of the guṇas of Brahman are also equally valid. The fact that Brahman is jñāna-svarūpa does not rule out that Brahman is also endowed with sarvajñatva or other attributes. In fact, the Upaniṣad explicitly points out that the knowledge and power possessed by Brahman are manifold and constitutes its intrinsic nature (parāsya śaktiḥ vividhaiva śrūyate, svābhāvikī jñāna-bala-kriyā ca). We have to admit the validity of both the texts.

The *Smrti* texts also affirm that Brahman is free from all defects and also possesses infinite auspicious attributes. They cite the example of the sun and its reflection in the water in

support of the theory that Brahman, though is immanent in all entities in the universe, is untouched by the defects found in them. Just as the defects found in the waves of the water do not affect the sun, in the same way defects found in the objects in which Brahman is immanent, do not affect it. One other illustration is cited by the author of the sūtra to defend the theory of Brahman remaining unaffected by the defects. Ākāśa or ether is one and is also all-pervasive. It is found to be present in several receptacles such as pots of different sizes. The defects caused to the akasa due to its being conditioned by the pots of small or large sizes do not affect in any way the all-pervasive ākāśa. In this example, unlike the sun and its reflection in the waves, ākāśa is physically present in the conditioning entities. In the same way, Brahman which is in all the entities in the universe is not touched by the defects found in the objects.

A serious objection is raised against the theory of Brahman as ubhayalinga. According to an important passage of Bṛhadāraṇyaka¹³ describing Brahman as having two forms, viz., mūrta and amūrta or gross and subtle, and the negation of the same by the words 'neti neti; or 'not this not this', implies that Brahman is nirviśeṣa, that is, devoid of all forms. How then Brahman be regarded as qualified with attributes? This is the view advanced by Śamkara in interpreting the Vedānta sūtra which reads: prakṛtaitāvattvam hi pratiṣedhati tato bravīti ca bhūyaḥ¹⁴. It means, according to Śamkara, that the Upaniṣadic text, 'neti neti' (not this, not this) negates in respect of Brahman the predication of the two forms mentioned in the earlier part of the passage and this is supported by what is said later on about Brahman.

The sūtra relating to this matter is regarded as a separate adhikaraņa by Śamkara named Prakṛtaitāvattvādhikaraṇa. But according to Rāmānuja, it is part of the Ubhayaliṅgādhikaraṇa since it supports the theory of Brahman as ubhayaliṅga. The argument advanced by Śamkara is refuted by Rāmānuja. The wording of the sūtra,

as properly understood, does not deny the distinctive characteristics of the two modes (mūrta and amūrta forms) declared previously because that would be senseless to teach them first and finally deny the same. There is no indication in the Upanisadic passage dealing with this matter to suggest that these are falsely imposed on Brahman. On the contrary, it merely denies the prakṛtaitāvattvam or the limited nature of Brahman as previously stated. In other words, it denies that Brahman possesses only this much of qualification as described previously. The word 'iti' or 'so' which refers to that limited nature of the phrase 'na iti' (not so), therefore, means that Brahman is not to be distinguished only by the previously stated modes (na iti na iti - naivam naivam, ukta prakāra mātram na bhavati brahma). This explanation is confirmed by the fact that subsequent to the expression 'neti neti', significant positive statements are made about Brahman. Thus states the Upanisad: na hy etasmāt iti nety-anyat param asti: atha nāmadheyam, satyasya satyami15. It means, according to Rāmānuja, there is nothing higher or greater than Brahman referred to earlier as implied by the words anyat or para in the text. In other words, no other Being which is more glorious both in respect of svarūpa and gunas, ever exists. This is indicated by the designation (nāmadheya) of Brahman as satyasya satyam, which means the Reality of the reals. Satya, according to the Upanișad, is prana which denotes the jīva. Brahman is more real than the jivas since the former is never subject to any change, while the jīva becomes subject to change during the state of bondage to the extent that its jñāna undergoes modification. The positive statement made in the Upanisad subsequent to the negation as neti neti, emphasizes this glory of Brahman. This is conveyed by the words in the sūtra 'tato bravīti bhūyah'16. Thus it follows that this particular sūtra does not prove that Brahman is nirviśesa but on the contrary, it affirms that it is savisesa or endowed with characteristics. Vedānta Deśika concludes that Brahman is ubhayalinga that is, it is free from all defects and that it is also qualified by numerous auspicious attributes and that this is the well established theory of Vedānta. (tasmāt brahma dvilingam dvividhā vibhavam ityeva Vedānta pakṣaḥ)¹⁷. Brahman is therefore the worthy object of meditation or vidyā which is the direct means to attain the Supreme Goal, as stated by Bādarāyaṇa in the Vedānta-sūtra (vidyātaḥ puruṣārthaḥ).

b) Brahman as the Supreme Reality

Bādarāyaṇa provides two additional reasons for establishing that Brahman is the worthy object of meditation and attainment (prāpya). These are: 1) Brahman is the Supreme Reality (para-tattva) which implies that there is no higher Reality than Brahman. 2) Brahman bestows all the desired goals (puruṣārtha) including mokṣa to those who worship Him. Both these points are important to justify the need of seeking Brahman only as the object meditation. Two separate adhikaraṇas named Parādhikaraṇa and Phalādhikaraṇa are devoted to the discussion of these matters.

The need to prove that Brahman is the highest Reality arises because there is a theory, which seems to have existed during the time of Bādarāyaṇa named Vyomātīta-vāda, which claims that there is a Reality which is higher than Brahman. The basis for this theory is that a few stray Scriptural texts which describe Brahman in terms such as setu or bridge unmāna or having dimension, sambandha or connection to something else to be attained and bheda or existence of a different higher entity. Bādarāyaṇa mentions these points, as prima facic view, in the following sūtra: Param atah setu unmāna sambandha bheda vyapadešebhyah¹⁸.

The word setu generally means bridge intended to cross from one side to the other side of the river (kulāntara prāpti hetuḥ). Thus says the Chāndogya: atha ya ātmā sa setuḥ vidhṛtiḥ eṣām lokānām asambhedāya¹٩. It also states that after crossing this, one becomes free from bondage. These statements convey the idea that there is something higher

than Brahman to be attained. The word unmana means that which is limited by dimension. The Chāndogya describes Brahman as having four parts (catuspād-brahma).20 Such a description of Brahman implies that there exists a higher Reality devoid of all limitations. Sambandha means connection or relationship. The description of Brahman by the Mundaka that it is the bridge to immortality (amrtasya esa setuh)21 indicates that Brahman serves as the means to attain something higher. The word bheda mentioned in the sūtra means difference, that is, the distinction is drawn between two entities described as para (high) and parāt para (higher than para). Thus states the Mundaka: parāt param purusam upaiti22. The Śvetāśvatara also says: tato yaduttarataram tad arūpam anāmayam23. Considering all these statements, it is contended that there is a higher Reality to be attained other than Brahman. Hence it is contended that Brahman cannot be regarded as the only object of meditation for the attainment of the Supreme Goal.

Bādarāyaṇa rejects all these arguments. The description of Brahman as setu does not imply that it is the causeway like a bridge to reach the other shore. The word setu derived from the root verb sinoti or that which holds together, means with reference to Brahman that it has the capacity to hold together all the sentient and non-sentient entities in the universe under its control in their respective places without their becoming mixed up (badhnāti svasmin sarvam cid-acidvastujātam asamkīrṇam).²⁴ The same Upaniṣadic text describing Brahman as setu uses the expression 'eṣām lokānām asambhedāya'²⁵ which means that Brahman as setu prevents the various entities of the universe getting mixed up.

The description of Brahman as catuṣpāt implying the dimensional limitation, is intended to provide a concrete form for Brahman for the purpose of easy comprehension to enable the upāsaka to meditate upon it (budhyarthaḥ pādavat).²⁶ Though Brahman is vibhu or all-pervasive and infinite, it is conceived as limited by associating it with a limiting adjunct (upādhi) for purposes of easy meditation (upāsanārtham).

The description of Brahman as the bridge to amṛta or moksa, is not inappropriate since Brahman, according to Vedānta, is both prāpaka or means and also prāpya or goal to be attained (upapatteśca). 27 The Mundakopanisad states that whomsoever He (Paramātma) chooses, only that individual can attain Paramātmā (yamaiva esa vrnute tena labhyah). This statement, as we have explained earlier, conveys the idea that Paramatman serves as the means (upāya) for attaining Him. Even though meditation (upāsanā) is laid down as the sādhana to attain Paramātman, moksa is conferred on the individual by the grace of God in response to the observance of devoted meditation upon Him. Paramātman is therefore regarded as Siddhopāya; that is, the ever-existing God is Himself the principal cause for attaining Him out of His grace. Bhakti-yoga or upāsanā is the Sādhyopāya, since this serves as means to earn His grace.

Regarding the Scriptural statements which appear to indicate the exstence of a principle other than what is regarded as para, it is pointed out that these very texts deny the existence of Reality other than Brahman (tathā anyapratiṣedhāt)²⁸. Since everything is pervaded by Brahman, the question of the existence of a Reality other than Brahman does not arise. The Śvetāśvatara says: Tenedam pūrṇam puruṣeṇa sarvam²⁹ - "All this is fully pervaded by that puruṣa (Brahman). The Muṇḍaka states: nityam vibhum sarvagatam susūkṣmam yat bhūtayonim paripaśyanti dhīrāḥ³o - "It is eternal, all-pervasive, omnipresent, very subtle, the cause of the universe". It is therefore affirmed that Brahman is the highest Reality and it is to be sought for by the aspirant for mokṣa through the means of unceasing meditation.

c) Brahman as the Bestower of Mokşa

Brahman is not only the highest Reality to be sought for but it is also the bestower of the fruit of the *upāsanā* (*phala*) which in the context of the *Brahma-vidyā* stands for *mokṣa*. Thus states the *sūtra*: *phalam ataḥ upapatteḥ*³¹. It means: It

stands to reason that the desired goals are obtained from Brahman. The need to emphasise this point arises because *Paramātman* (Brahman) who is to be meditated upon should be capable of conferring the desired fruit. That is, *puruṣārtha* or the Supreme Goal for which *vidyā* or meditation is enjoined in the Upaniṣad is to be bestowed directly by *Paramātman*. If some one else or some other principle were to confer the fruit, there would be no justification for meditating on Brahman.

There is a view which is advanced by Jaimini that karma or the deeds such as $y\bar{a}ga$ performed by an individual for the attainment of heaven etc., confer the fruits. According to the Mīmāmsaka though the $y\bar{a}ga$ does not give the desired fruit soon after it is performed, it confers the result later on at the appropriate time through an unseen potency named $ap\bar{u}rva$ in the form of punya or merit secured by the performance of the $y\bar{a}ga$.

Bādarāyaṇa rejects this theory. Neither the yāga nor this apūrva generated by it can directly confer the fruit, since these are non-sentient in character. It is therefore appropriate to admit that Paramātman Himself who is worshipped through the sacrifice and who is meditated upon with devotion by the upāsaka for attainment of mokṣa, bestows the desired results. According to the Vedanta, even if other celestial deities are worshipped by means of prescribed rituals, the one who bestows the desired fruit is Paramātman who is the indwelling Self (antarātmā) of these deities. The Scriptural texts explicitly state that Paramātman is the bestower of the desired fruit. The Taittirīya text says: eşa eva ānandayāti. This very Ānandamaya ātmā (Brahman) confers bliss (ananda) to the seekers of moksa. Thus, it is concluded that Brahman being the Supreme Reality and also the sole benefactor (phalaprada) is worthy of meditation.

II. The Theory of Brahma-vidyā

As pointed out earlier, vidyā is the direct sādhana for the attainment of the Supreme Goal (vidyātaḥ puruṣārthaḥ). The

term vidyā employed in the Upaniṣads and the Brahmasūtra, stands for upāsanā or unceasing meditation on Brahman. The Upanisads refer to several vidyās as the sādhana for the attainment of Brahman. These are described differently, that is, with different names and different attributes (gunas) with which Brahman is to be meditated upon. Thus for instance, the meditation on Sat (Brahman) conceived as the source of the universe, which is imparted by Uddālaka to Svetaketu in the Chāndogya Upanisad, is named sad-vidyā. The meditation on Brahman as daharākāśa or the subtle space abiding within the heart of an individual along with the eight attributes viz., apahatapāpmā, vijaraḥ, vimṛtyuḥ, viśokah, vijighatsah, apīpāsah, satyakāmah, satyasankalpah, is titled Dahara-vidyā. The meditation on Brahman as infinitely great (bhūmā) is known as Bhūmā-vidyā. The meditation on Brahman conceived as the cause of the creation, sustenance and dissolution of the universe (tajjalān) which is taught by sage Sandilya in the Chandogya Upanișad, is named Śāṇḍilya-vidyā. Brahman as ānandamaya or infinitely blissful, which is to be meditated upon, is known by the name of Anandamaya vidyā. The commentators on the Brahma-sūtras have acknowledged thirty-two such vidyās which are taught in different Upanisads for attaining Brahman. Hence these are called Brahma-vidyās. A list of these as acknowledged by Vedanta Desika in the Adhikaranasārāvalī is given in the appendix II along with the references to the respective passages of the Upanisads and also the names of the adhikaranas in which these are dealt with.

Bādarāyaṇa does not present the details of these vidyās. However the sūtras imply the Upaniṣadic texts dealing with them, as is evident from the viṣaya-vākyas or the Upaniṣadic texts concerned with the subject-matter of the sūtras. He, however, discusses certain issues relating to the different vidyās. The following are some of the important issues which are related to the vidyās:

1) Are these various *vidyās* different (*nānā*) or non-different?

- 2) If they are different, do the *vidyās* taken together are to be observed as *sādhana* for attaining Brahman? Or do they serve as alternative means to attain the same Goal?
- 3) If the same vidyā is mentioned in two different Upaniṣads such as Dahara-vidyā and Vaiśvānara-vidyā with varying description in terms of the guṇas with which Brahman is to be meditated, do they constitute different vidyās?
- 4) If Brahman which is qualified with numerous guṇas is to be meditated upon along with its guṇas, which are the gunas to be included (upasamhārya) and which are the guṇas to be excluded (anupasamhārya) for the purpose of meditation?
- 5) If only limited number of guṇas are to be contemplated along with Brahman, as laid down in the Upaniṣadic passages dealing with a particular vidyā, would Brahman which is the object of attainment be realized in its complete form?
- 6) In respect of some vidyās certain religious observances such as śirovrta, udgīthopāsanā etc., are also prescribed as part of the observance of upāsanā. Are these religious observances to be followed in respect of all the Brahma-vidyās?

Bādarāyaṇa attempts to clarify these questions since it is necessary to know precisely the nature (svarūpa) of the vidyās to be pursued for the attainment of the spiritual Goal. The entire third pāda of the Sādhanādhyāya, which is titled Guṇopasamhāra pāda, comprising as many as 26 adhikaraṇas, is devoted to this matter. Some of the details of these discussions do not have much philosophical importance. It is also difficult to comprehend them since the observance of these vidyās are not in vogue. We shall therefore leave out the details and take note of the important points which are relevant for understanding the nature of the sādhana.

The first and most important question to be considered is whether the *vidyās* such as *Sadvidyā*, *Dahara-vidyā*, *Upakosala-vidyā*, *Sāṇḍilya-vidyā* etc., are different (*nānā*)? Bādarāyaṇa states that they are different.³²

According to the prima facie view, the *vidyās* are not different because they are all intended to attain the same Brahman as the goal and they are all designated as *Brahmavidyā*. Even the terms used for enjoining the meditation such as *dhyāyīta*, *upāsīta*, etc., have the same import.

This view is not accepted by Bādarāyana. Thus it is stated in the sūtra: Nānā śabdādibhedāt.33 The various vidyās enjoined in the Upanisads are different (nānā) because the śabda or the Scriptural statements in the form of injunctions and rūpa or description of each vidyā in terms of the gunas with which Brahman is to be meditated upon vary. The word ādi in the sūtra implies, rūpa or description, ākhyā or designation and other factors. The Mīmāmsakas have adopted four principles to determine the difference or nondifference between ritualistic deeds mentioned in the different śākhās of the Vedas. These are: a) codanā or the injunctive statement enjoining the performance of a sacrifice; b) samyoga or the connection of the sacrifice with the goal to be attained; c) rūpa or the detailed description of the sacrifice and d) ākhyā or the name adopted for the sacrifice.34 On the basis of these principles, Bādarāyaṇa also maintains the view that the various vidyās enjoined in the Upanisads are different $(n\bar{a}n\bar{a})$. The reason for adopting this view is contained in the words 'sabdadi bhedat' in the sutra. Śabdabheda means Scriptural statements in the form of injunctions (codanā) such as vidyāt, dhyāyīta, upāsīta etc. which are different. The names adopted for the vidyās (ākhyā) such as Dahara-vidyā, Sadvidyā are different. Rūpa or description of these vidyās in terms of the gunas with which Brahman is to be meditated also differs. The śabdabheda along with rūpa-bheda mainly differentiate one vidyā from the other.

As Vedānta Deśika explains, though Bādarāyaṇa has mentioned śabda-bheda as the main criterion for regarding

the vidyās as different, rūpa-blieda is to be accorded greater importance (Śabdasya bhedastu ayam upacarito rūpa-bheda drāḍhamne). The Another reason for mentioning śabda-bheda in the sūtra is to emphasise that vidyā or upāsanā is enjoined as the means to attain Brahman and thereby refute the wrong view of Advaitin, that jñāna or direct realization of Brahman as means to mokṣa is not enjoined (avidheya jñāna).

If all vidyās are different, the next question arises whether these vidyās taken together (samuccaya) are to be observed for attaining Brahman or do they serve as alternative means for this purpose? This doubt arises because in the case of svarga or heaven as the goal of attainment, the same individual is found to observe several rituals for the purpose of enjoying greater benefits in heaven. In the same way, it is possible that one can practise several vidyās together to enjoy the bliss of Brahman in greater measure. (Brahmānubhave-bhūyastvāpekṣayā samuccayopi sambhavati).

Bādarāyana does not accept this view. The relevant sūtra reads: vikalpa aviśista phalatvāt. 36 The different vidyās are regarded as the alternative means to attain Brahman (vikalpah) because the nature of the attainment is the same for all the vidyās (avišista phalatvāt). That is, the enjoyment of the infinite bliss of Brahman (atisaya brahmanandānubhava) is the Supreme Goal of the vidyās. The Upaniṣadic texts support it. The Taittiriya says: sa eko brahmana anandah śrotriyasya ca akāmahatasya) - "The liberated jīva who is steadfast in Brahman enjoys that infinite ananda of Brahman." Mundaka says: niranjanah paramam samyam upaiti. - "The jīva, soon after it is liberated from bondage attains equal status with Brahman." The sāmyatva or equality is in respect of enjoyment of bliss both by Brahman and jīva, as stated by Bādarāyana (bhogamātra sāmyāt). Hence it is justified to regard these vidyās as alternative means to attain Brahman.

The third question to be considered is: whether the same vidyā mentioned in different śākhās of the Upaniṣads with some varying description in terms of guṇas with which

Brahman is to be meditated upon, is to be treated as different or as one? The Dahara-vidyā, for instance, is mentioned both in the Chāndogya and Taittirīya Upanisad. In the Chāndogya, it is enjoined that the meditation on Brahman is to be observed along with eight attributes such as apahata pāpmatva, satyakāmatva, satyasamkalpatva etc. The same vidyū is also mentioned in a general way in the Taittirīya by briefly stating that the dahara-ākāśa or the subtle space (denoting Brahman) is to be meditated upon along with what it contains (tasmin yadantah tad-upāsitavyam). The Taittirīya text does not mention the eight guṇas referred to in the Chāndogya. In the same way, the Vaiśvānara vidyā is referred to in two Upanisads belonging to different śākhas. In both these places, meditation on Vaiśvānara as Brahman is enjoined for attaining the same goal. The question arises whether the vidyā referred to in more than one place is the same or different. Bādarāyaņa replies that they constitute the same upāsanā. The relevant sūtra reads; sarva vedānta pratyayam codanadyaviśeṣāt.37 It means that the vidyas taught in all the Upanisads is one. The reason advanced in support of it is that there is no difference in the codanā or the words enjoining it (vidhāyaka-vākya). The word ādi implies that there is also no difference in respect of the designation of the vidyā (nāmadheya), the nature of the goal to be attained (phala) and the description of the object of meditation (rūpa). Another point which is brought out in this connection is that the gunas which are mentioned in respect of a vidyā in one place are to be included in respect of the vidyā enjoined in another Upanisad, if both the vidyās are the same. Taking the example of Dahara-vidyā, the eight gunas mentioned in the Chandogya in respect of Daharavidyā are also to be included in respect of the Dahara-vidyā mentioned in the Taittirīya Upaniṣad. This principle holds good in respect of other vidyās such as Vaiśvānara-vidyā which is referred to in more than one Upanisad. The inclusion of the gunas enumerated at one place in respect of a vidyā stated in another Upanisad, where these are not

mentioned, is called guṇopasaṁhāra. In the third pāda of Sādhanādhyāya, Bādarāyaṇa discusses a few other vidyās such as Prāṇa-vidyā, Puruṣa-vidyā, Śāṇḍilya-vidyā, Uṣasṭikahola-vidyā and Udgītha-vidyā. These are some of the vidyās which are mentioned in more than one Upaniṣad and it therefore becomes necessary to clarify whether they are separate or not. Wherever they are found to be not different vidyās, the guṇas with which Brahman is to be meditated have to be included in respect of the same vidyā enjoined elsewhere (upasaṁhāra).

The next important question which is considered by Bādarāyana in the Gunopasamhāra pāda is: Which are the gunas to be contemplated along with Brahman while observing the meditation upon it? The question is relevant because the gunas of Brahman are numerically infinite (ananta). It is impossible for a upāsaka to contemplate on all of them. It is only practicable to meditate on Brahman as qualified with a limited number of gunas. If only a limited number of gunas are to be contemplated along with Brahman, would Brahman which is the object of attainment be realized in its complete form? According to the tatkratu nyāya38, in whatever form an individual observes meditation, the object of attainment is also in the same form. If Brahman is meditated as qualified with a few attributes, then the Brahman realized through such a meditation cannot be regarded as Brahman in its comprehensive form (prāptih amsatah syāt).

Vedānta Deśika does not accept this argument. He contends that the tatkratu-nyāya is not applicable in the case of meditation on Brahman, because the Upaniṣadic texts categorically state that an individual who resorts to meditation on Brahman as qualified with attributes as stated in the passage dealing with Brahma-vidyā, attains a status equal to that of Brahman soon after he is liberated from bondage. Thus says the Muṇḍaka: Nirañjanaḥ paramam sāmyam upaiti. On the authority of the Scriptural texts, it is maintained that a person who meditates on Brahman

attains Brahman in its full form, that is, as qualified with all the attributes including those which are not contemplated during the meditation. Whatever be the mode of meditation $(vidy\bar{a})$, the attainment of the goal by means of it is the same for all the $vidy\bar{a}s$ enjoined in the Upanisads. The $tatkratu-ny\bar{a}ya$ is to be understood in this restricted sense in respect of $vidy\bar{a}^{39}$.

Regarding the gunas with which Brahman is to be meditated upon, Bādarāyaṇa states that the distinguishing guṇas of Brahman such as ānanda which are inseparably related to Brahman and which are essential for comprehending Brahman are to be necessarily contemplated along with Brahman in respect of all vidyās. These are ānanda, satya, jñāna and ananta. As will be pointed out presently, amalatva is also to be added to these four attributes. The relevant sūtra reads: Ānandādayaḥ pradhānasya. Its meaning, as interpreted by Rāmānuja, is that the guṇas such as ānanda is non-different (inseparable) from the pradhāna, that is, Brahman which is the guṇā and hence these are to be contemplated along with Brahman in all the vidyās.

By way of elucidation, Vedanta Desika points out that there are two types of dharmas or attributes belonging to an object. One is called svarūpa-nirūpaka dharma or essential attributes by means of which alone the nature of an object is comprehended. The second type of dharmas is known as nirūpita svarūpa višesanas, that is, the secondary qualities which become evident only after the svarūpa of the object is known. Taking the instance of a cow, gotva is an essential attribute of cow through which the cow as different from other animals is identified. The qualities such as its form, colour, etc., are secondary qualities through which we come to know more about the cow. In the same way, Brahmasvarūpa can only be comprehended through its distinguishing characteristics such as satyatva, jñānatva, anantatva and anandatva, as stated in the Upanisad. The gunas such as omniscience, omnipotence, compassionate etc., are the secondary qualities which can be known only after Brahma-svarūpa is comprehended. For the purpose of meditation on Brahman, the essential qualities which are inseparable from Brahman and which are useful to know what Brahman is, have to be necessarily contemplated at the time of meditation. Along with these, such other gunas as are mentioned separately in respect of each vidyā are to be contemplated. Thus, for instance, while observing the Daharavidyā, which is enjoined in the Taittirīya Upaniṣad, Brahman is to be meditated upon as qualified with eight guņas such as apahatapāpmā, satyasamkalpa, etc. In addition to it, the five essential attributes such as ananda have also to be contemplated during meditation on Brahman. The description of Brahman in the Taittirīya passage enjoining meditation on Brahman as anandamaya, we come across description of Brahman as possessing qualities such as priya or joy, modah or happiness, pramoda or enjoyment etc., which are metaphorically stated as siras or head, paksah or sides and puccha or tail respectively for the purpose of easy comprehension of Brahman in physical form. But these do not constitute the essential qualities of Brahman and hence they are to be excluded from the purview of the meditation.

We come across two vidyās taught in the Brhadāranyaka and Mundakopanisad which are designated as Gargiaksaravidyā and Aksara-paravidyā respectively. Both these vidyās enjoin the meditation on akṣara as Brahman. Akṣara is described in negative terms. Thus says the Bṛhadāraṇyaka: "It is neither gross nor subtle, neither short nor long, neither red nor adhesive. It is neither shadow nor darkness, neither air nor space, It is unattached, without taste, without smell, without eyes, without ears, without organ of speech, without mind, without radiance, without breath, without mouth, without measure, having no interior or exterior. It does not eat anything, nor is it eaten by anyone".41 The Mundaka Upanisad describes aksara as follows: "That which is imperceivable, ungraspable, without hands or feet, which is eternal, all-pervading, omnipresent, exceedingly subtle, that is the imperishable (avyayam) which the wise perceive as the source of beings (bhūtayoni).42 The question to be considered is: Whether the meditation on Brahman as akṣara (Akṣara-vidyā) requires the contemplation of these negative qualities (nisedha guṇas), along with four essential attributes referred to in the Anandadyadhikarana? Badarayana categorically states that the negative qualities such as asthūlatva attributed to akṣara should be necessarily included among the other essential attributes such as ananda with which Brahman is to be meditated upon. The relevant sūtra reads: akṣara dhiyām tu avarodhaḥ sāmānya tadbhāvābhyām aupasadavat taduktam.43 It means: The negative qualities attributed to Brahman are to be included in the meditation on it, since Brahman is the object of meditation in all vidyās and so also these negative qualities which are useful to know its nature exist in it. (sarveşu upāsaneşu upāsyasya aksarasya brahmaņah samānatvāt asthūlatvādīnām tatsvarūpa pratītau bhāvācca).44 According to Rāmānuja, description of Brahman with the negative qualities conveys the essential nature of Brahman as devoid of all physical qualities. In other words, the negation of such physical qualities as found in material objects in respect of Brahman establishes that Brahman is absolutely free from all defilements (heyapratyanīka). Heyapratyanīkatva itself therefore constitutes the essential nature of Brahman similar to satyatva, jñānatva and anantatva. Hence Bādarāyana takes the view that Brahman is to be meditated upon in all vidyās as qualified by amalatva, which is synonymous with heyapratyanīkatva, along with other four essential attributes viz., satyatva, jñānatva, anantatva and ānandatva. These five qualities establish that Brahman is different both from all the sentient beings and also non-sentient entities (sakala cidacid vilaksana).

A few other allied issues also come up for discussion in the *Guṇopasamhāra pāda*. One of them is whether the meditation on Brahman also involves the contemplation of *jīvātman*. If so, in what form *jīvātman* is to be meditated upon? Is *jīvātman* to be meditated in its embodied state as

kartā, bhoktā, etc., or in its true form as qualified with its essential attributes such as apahatapāpmā, satyasamkalpa etc. Bādarāyaṇa states that the meditation on jīvātman which is part of the meditation on Brahman is to be contemplated in its true form. The relevant sūtra reads: vyatirekastadbhāva-bhāvitvāt na tu upalabdhivat. Jīvātman is to be meditated in that form as different from that form in the state of bondage (vyatirekaḥ), since the attainment is in accordance with the form of meditation, just as in the case of meditation upon Brahman.

Other minor issues relate to the observance of certain religious ceremonies such as *śirovratra* or carrying a pot of fire on the head, recitation of certain prayers at the commencement of the Upaniṣad dealing with *vidyā*.

The question arises whether these constitute the subsidiary means to main *upāsanā* and if so, would it have to be observed in respect of the practice of all the *upāsanās* for *mokṣa*. Bādarāyaṇa clarifies that these requirements are not the *aṅga* or subsidiary means to the *upāsanā* and hence they need not be observed in respect of any *Brahma-vidyā*.

III. Karma as Subsidiary Means to Vidyā

In the preceding section we have discussed the general issues relating to the *Brahma-vidyā* or the meditation on Brahman. As the Upaniṣads mention several *vidyās* each with varying description of the *guṇas* to be associated with Brahman, it became necessary for Bādarāyaṇa to discuss these issues and establish that all *vidyās* enjoined in the Upaniṣads, though they are different (*nānā*), serve as alternative *sādhanas* for attaining the same Goal viz., Brahman.

Before explaining the nature of vidyā (vidyā-svarūpa), Bādarāyaṇa takes up another important matter concerning the role of karma or the observance of the prescribed deeds in relation to the vidyā or upasanā. This subject has assumed special importance in Vedānta since according to Jaimini, the exponent of Pūrva-mīmāmsā, vidyā is subordinate aid

(aṅga) to karma or the performance of prescribed deeds. Bādarāyaṇa therefore discusses in detail the place of karma in the sādhana for mokṣa. The major part of the fourth pāda of Sādhanādhyāya which is called Aṅgapāda is devoted to this matter. It establishes after critically examining the views of the Pūrva-mīmāmsaka, that the performance of the prescribed deeds is a necessary aid (aṅga) to vidyā.

The Puruṣārthādhikaraṇa mainly deals with this subject. The main sūtra reads: Purusārtho atah śabdāt iti Bādarāyaṇaḥ46. The word ataḥ in the sūtra in the context of the earlier pāda dealing with the vidyās, is to be read as vidyātah, that is, through vidyā. The total meaning of the sūtra is that in the opinion of Bādarāyaṇa, the Supreme Goal is attained only through the means of vidyā, since it is so declared in the Scriptural texts (śabdāt). As is evident from the subsequent sūtras of this adhikaraṇa, the implication of the sūtra is that karma cannot be direct sādhana to mokṣa but it is vidyā aided by karma that constitutes the sādhana. This view is fully supported by the Upanisads. Thus says the Taittiriya Upanisad: "The knower of Brahman attains the highest." The Mundaka states: "He who knows Brahman becomes (similar to) Brahman."47 The Śvetāśvatara says: "There is no other means than knowing Brahman to overcome bondage."48 In all such statements, vedana which denotes vidyā, is the direct means to mokṣa. The fact that Bādarāyaṇa mentions his own name in the sūtra confirms that this is the correct theory according to Vedanta.

The Mīmāmsakas maintain that karma is the means to liberation whereas vidyā enjoined in the Upaniṣads is a subsidiary aid to it. The main reason advanced in support of it is that jīvā is kartā or the agent of karma and it is therefore more important to know about the nature of jīvātman. The Upaniṣadic texts which speak of the knowledge of Brahman as the means to attain the Supreme Goal are intended to provide the knowledge of jīvātman. Such a knowledge serves as a purificatory act (saṃskāra) for the jīvā which is actually the kartā of the rites. (kratuṣu kartuḥ jīvātmā). According to

this view, jīva and Brahman are non-different and the references made to Brahman in the Upaniṣads imply jīvātman. The texts which speak about jñāna as the means to puruṣārtha are to be treated as arthavādas or the glorificatory statements about the goal to be attained. Hence vidyā is aṅga or subsidiary aid to karma.

Bādarāyaṇa rejects this theory because vidyā referred to in the Upaniṣads is not concerned with jīvātman, in which case its knowledge would have been useful to karma. But on the other hand, it relates to Brahman which is different from jīvā, as stated in several Upaniṣadic texts and also Vedānta-sūtras. Bādarāyaṇa, therefore reaffirms that purusārtha is attained only by means of vidyā.

A few other arguments are advanced in support of the view that $vidy\bar{a}$ is anga to karma. In the $\bar{l} \pm \bar{s} \bar{a} v \bar{a} sya$ Upaniṣad, it is stated that one should live for hundred years (till the end of life) by performing karma. This is taken to imply that performance of karma is of greater significance and that $vidy\bar{a}$ is subordinate to karma.

This is not correct, contends Vedānta Deśika. What is implied by this statement is that the person observing *Brahma-vidyā* should also perform the prescribed deeds as an aid to *vidyā*.

Another argument against the theory of Bādarāyaṇa is that in the $Brhad\bar{a}ranyaka$ Upaniṣad it is stated that both $vidy\bar{a}$ and karma follow the $up\bar{a}saka$. ($Vidy\bar{a}$ - $karman\bar{i}samanv\bar{a}rabhete^{50}$). The mention of both $vidy\bar{a}$ and karma is taken to imply that $vidy\bar{a}$ is anga to karma.

This argument is also untenable. The mere mention of both vidyā and karma together does not determine that karma is the principal means (aṅgī) whereas vidyā is subordinate means (aṅga). If we go by other Scriptural texts, it is obvious that karma is the aṅga, whereas vidyā is the angī or principal means to the Supreme Goal. Thus says the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad: tametaṁ vedānuvacanena brāhmaṇā vividiṣanti yajñena dānena tapasā anāśakena⁵¹ - "Brahmins desire to know Brahman by means of recitation of Vedas, yajña, dāna, tapas,

fasting etc." Another text says: kaṣāye karmabhiḥ pakve tato jñānam pravartate⁵² - "Brahmajñāna</sup> arises only after the afflictions which cause bondage are eradicated by the performance of karma". The Gītā also points out that even jñānīs such as Janaka attained perfection through the performance of deeds (karmaṇaiva hi samsiddhim āsthitāḥ janakādayaḥ).⁵³ Considering all these statements, it is concluded that Brahma-vidyā cannot serve as an aid to karma (vidyā makhādeḥ aṅgam na)⁵⁴. On the contrary, karma is the subsidiary aid to vidyā.

In this connection an important issue is raised. According to the Chandogya Upanisad, there are three categories of persons: a) the grhastha or the householders who perform yajña, dāna and adhyayana; b) the sannyāsīns or those who have renounced the life of a grhastha and engaged in tapas and also the parivrājakas living in the forest who also perform tapas; c) the brahmacārins or those who live in the hermit of a preceptor for learning Vedas. The three categories of persons are described by the Chandogya as trayo-dharmaskandhas or persons belonging to three āśramas or stages of life55. All of them are stated to observe strict celibacy (ūrdhvaretas). Of these the sannyāsīns and brahmacārins are not eligible for the performance of the rites which need the lighting of the sacrificial fire (agnīndhana). In respect of these individuals karma cannot be the anga to vidyā. In the absence of karma as anga, even Brahma-vidyā cannot be pursued by them.

Bādarāyaṇa does not accept this view. The *Chāndogya* Upaniṣad mentions that these individuals are engaged in the meditation on Brahman and that they also attain immortality (*brahmasanistho amṛtatvameti*). Those who pursue meditation on Brahman are required to do the prescribed *karma*. It is true that they may not be eligible for performing the rituals which need the litting of the sacrificial fire (*agnīndhanādy-anapekṣā*)⁵⁶. However, they are required to do only such *karmas* as are laid down for that particular *āśrama*; as subsidiary aid to *vidyā* (*kevala svāśrama vihita karmāpekṣā*).

But this exceptional condition does not apply to the grhasthas since they are eligible to perform the rites by litting the sacrificial fire. They are therefore required to observe yajña, dāna, tapas etc., as aid to vidyā. The relevant sūtra reads: sarvāpekṣā ca yajñādi śruteh aśvavat.57 It means that there is need of all rituals on account of the Scriptural statement regarding the performance of sacrifice and the rest, as in the example of a horse. The Sruti referred to in the sūtra is the Brhadāranyaka text which states: Tametam vedānuvacanena brāhmanā vividisanti yajnena dānena tapasā anāśakena.58 "The seekers of Brahman desire to know Him (Brahman) by the study of the Veda, by sacrifice, by charity and fasting." Though the word 'vividisanti' in the Upanisad literally means 'desire to know', it is generally understood as vedana or knowledge of Brahman. Yajña, dāna, tapas etc., which are prescribed by the Upanisad constitute the prerequisites for knowing Brahman. As will be explained later, the term vedana stands for vidyā or upāsanā (unceasing meditation on Brahman culminating in clear vision of Brahman). Karma such as yajña, dāna, tapas etc., prescribed by the Upanisads serve as aid to vidyā and these have to be necessarily observed by the upāsaka until he attains liberation. This is explained by the analogy of the horse. A horse which is intended for the purpose of going from one place to another is to be used along with the requisite accessories such as saddle, bridle etc., until one reaches the destination. In the same way, performance of the prescribed rituals are to be observed as accessories to vidyā until one attains the moksa.

Besides the performance of the prescribed rituals, Bādarāyaṇa lays down another set of accessories for the householders as aid to vidyā. These are in the form of development of virtues such as śama or tranquility, dama or control of senses, uparati or inner satisfaction, titikṣu or patience and samāhitatva or equanimity. The relevant sūtra reads: Śamadamādy-upetas-syāt-tathāpi tu tadvidheḥ tadaṅgataya teṣām-api avaśyānuṣṭheyatvāt.⁵⁹ It means: A

householder should be equipped with śama, dama etc., because they are enjoined and that they should be practised as auxiliaries to vidyā. It is not correct to argue that the observance of the yajña etc., involves the use of the mind and indriyas and as such they would be a hindrance to the development of calmness for the person engaged in upāsanā. The operation of mind and sense organs for the purpose of performing the prescribed deeds does not affect the mental equanimity since the prescribed ritualistic activities are undertaken as worship of Paramātman (paramapuruṣa ārādhanā). It therefore helps to acquire śama, dama etc., by the upāsaka.

Incidentally, Bādarāyaṇa points out that the control of the food (āhāra niyama) is also equally important for the upāsaka. He is not required to accept all kinds of food except in special circumstance such as at the time of losing one's prāṇa (prāṇātyaye). This is evident from the episode of Uṣasti in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad, who is stated to have accepted the cooked beans meant for the horses offered by the horseman for the sake of sustaining his prāṇa.⁶⁰

In addition to the development of virtues such as śama, dama etc., Bādarāyaṇa prescribes other mental qualities such as pāṇḍitya, mauna, bālya, as accessories to vidyā on the authority of the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad. Thus it states: tasmāt brahmaṇaḥ pāṇḍityaṁ nirvidya bālyena tisṭhāset. bālyaṁ ca pāṇḍityaṁ ca nirvidya atha muniḥ.61 This subject is discussed in two separate adhikaraṇas: Sahakāryantaravidhyadhikaraṇa and Anāviṣkārādhikaraṇa. The important point to be noted is the implication of the terms pāṇḍitya, mauna and bālyatva. Mauna signifies the acquisition of the capacity to reflect repeatedly the object of meditation (upāsanā ālambanasya punaḥ punaḥ saṁsīlanam). Bālyatva refers to childlike innocence without manifesting externally his greatness as a Brahma-jñānī (anāviṣkurvan). Pāṇḍitya means deep knowledge about Brahman.

It was pointed out earlier that the performance of karma such as yajña, dāna, etc., is an aid to Brahma-vidyā. That is,

these have to be observed by those who undertake meditation on Brahman. The question arises whether these have also to be observed by others such as the grhasthas who are not the seekers of moksa? Bādarāyana replies that these have to be observed even by the persons belonging to the grhasthāśrama or the stage of householders, since these karmas are also enjoined for them. The relevant sūtra reads: vihitatvācca āśrama karmāpi.62 It means: The performance of Agnihotra and other nitya and naimittika karmas is applicable even to persons belonging to that stage of life (grhasthāśrama) because these are enjoined by Scripture for them also. The same type of karma can serve the purpose of attaining other desired results such as svarga and also moksa, depending on the motive with which it is performed. (viniyoga prthaktva). In the case of the mumuksu or the aspirant for mokṣa, yajña, dāna, etc., serve as accessories (sahakāri) to vidyā. In the case of non-mumukṣu who is leading the life of a grhastha, these serve as āśrama karma, that is, as obligatory deeds to be observed by the grhastha.

There are certain types of individuals who do not fall under the categories of the four āśramas. These are the persons who are not either married or those who after marriage have become widowers. These are regarded as nirāśramī or one not belonging to any of the four stages of life. They are not eligible, according to the Dharmaśāstra, for the performance of rituals prescribed for the four āśramas. The question arises whether these persons are permitted to observe Brahma-vidyā. Bādarāyana states that such persons are also eligible for Brahma-vidyā as this is evident from the episodes of Vedic and purānic personalities such as Raikva, Bhīsma, Samvartaka, etc. However, persons who have thrown out of a particular āśrama for having committed sinful acts are forbidden from pursuing Brahmavidyā since the observance of vidyā by such persons is prohibited by the śāstra.

Before concluding the discussion about the nature of karma as anga or subsidiary means to upāsanā and also other

accessories needed for it, Bādarāyaṇa considers the question whether or not upāsanā observed either for achieving desired goals such as heavenly bliss or mokṣa, leads to the attainment of it. Two separate adhikaraṇas named Aihikādhikaraṇa and Muktiphalādhikaraṇa are devoted for this purpose. There are two types of Brahmopāsanā - one observed for the purpose of attaining benefits other than mokṣa such as heavenly bliss, wealth etc., and the other done purely for attaining mokṣa. Bādarāyaṇa states that in either case, if there are no obstacles in the form of strong prārabdha karma, the goal is attained soon after completing meditation. Otherwise, there would be delay.

IV. The Nature of Vidyā (Upāsanā)

In the Sādhanādhyāya Bādarāyaṇa has discussed the following three important matters relating to the Brahmavidyā or upāsanā on Brahman which is the direct sādhana to moksa. 1) Brahman is the worthy object of meditation as it is free from all defects and also endowed with infinite auspicious attributes. Brahman is also the highest Reality and the bestower of the desired goal. 2) For the purpose of attainment of Brahman, which is the Supreme Goal, one of the thirty-two vidyās or modes of meditation as laid down by the Upasnisads is to be adopted. In the observance of the upāsanā on Brahman, the upāsaka has to contemplate on such attributes (gunas) as are prescribed by the Upanisads in respect of the vidyās along with five essential attributes viz., satya, jñāna, ananta, ānanda and amala. 3) The upāsanā as aided by karma or the performance of the prescribed rituals according to one's āśrama is mandatory. After having dealt with all these matters in the adhikaranas of third and fourth pāda of Sādhanādhyāya, Bādarāyaṇa proceeds to discuss the svarūpa or the nature of vidyā. This topic is covered in the first pāda of the fourth adhyāya, which is titled Phalādhyāya. In the earlier adhikarana named Puruṣārthādhikaraṇa Bādarāyaṇa merely mentions that the Supreme Goal is attained only by means of vidyā (vidyātaḥ puruṣārthaḥ). But the nature of the vidyā was not fully explained. The details about the nature of the vidyā are therefore presented in the first pāda of Phalādhyāya. Another reason for presenting this matter in the Phalādhyāya is that the vidyā or upāsanā as enunciated in the Upaniṣad is invariably connected with the goal to be attained. (Brahmopāsanāya mukty-avinābhūtam). As will be explained presently, the observance of upāsanā or the unceasing meditation on Brahman as the direct sādhana to mokṣa till the end of own's life (yāvadāyuṣam) is sure to culminate in the attainment of Brahman.

The first question to be considered is whether $vidy\bar{a}$ stands for mere knowledge $(j\bar{n}\bar{a}na)$ of Brahman, that is, the direct realization of Brahman $(s\bar{a}ks\bar{a}tk\bar{a}ra)$, as Śamkara interprets, or does it refer to $up\bar{a}san\bar{a}$ or unceasing meditation culminating in the clear vision of Brahman $(up\bar{a}san\bar{a}tmaka\ j\bar{n}\bar{a}na)$, as Rāmānuja maintains?

Prima facie, the Upaniṣadic texts lend support to the view that vedana or knowledge is the direct means to attain Brahman. Thus says the Taittirīya: Brahmavid āpnoti param-"The knower of Brahman attains the highest". The Muṇḍaka states: 'Brahmaveda brahmaiva bhavati' - "He who knows Brahman becomes (similar to) Brahman". The Upaniṣads also mention dhyāna, upāsanā, nididhyāsana and dhruvāsmṛti as the means to attain Brahman. These terms convey the idea that upāsanā or unceasing meditation on Brahman is the direct means to mokṣa. If vidyā stands for jñāna as the sādhana for mokṣa, it does not have to be repeatedly practised. There is also no mention in the Upaniṣad that it is to be observed repeatedly. When once jñāna arises, jīva is liberated from bondage. If on the other hand, vidyā means upāsanā it is to be repeatedly practised until the goal is attained.

Bādarāyana therefore first discusses this issue before enunciating the nature of the sādhana in the Āvṛṭyadhikaraṇa. The relevant sūtra reads: āvṛṭṭih asakṛṭ upadeśāt.63 Āvṛṭṭiḥ means repeated observance and asakṛṭ means more than once. From this it follows that whatever

be the *sādhana* for *mokṣa*, it is to be observed repeatedly and continuously until the goal is achieved.

Now comes the main question whether *vedana* and *upāsanā* mean the same or do they refer to different disciplines? The answer is that the two terms are synonyms and refer to the same *sādhana* as this is evident from the Upaniṣadic teachings. This is what is meant by the word 'upadeśāt' in the *sūtra*.

By way of elucidating this point, Rāmānuja points out that the Upanisads employ the terms vedana and upāsanā as interchangeable words. In the Chandogya Upanisad discussing the manner of doing upāsanā on Brahman, the passage commences with the statement 'mano brahmeti upāsīta' using the expression upāsīta. While concluding this passage it is stated: 'ya evain veda' 64. The term veda is used here in place of upāsīta mentioned at the commencement. Taking into consideration the context of the passage, veda mentioned in the concluding statement means the same as upāsīta used at the beginning. In another passage of the Chāndogya referring to the greatness of sage Raikva, the opening sentence states 'yastad-veda yat sa veda', meaning what Raikva knew, that is to be known. While concluding this narration, it is stated 'whatever devatā you meditate upon (tvain upāsate)65, tell me in detail about the same deity'. In this passage, unlike the previous one, the term veda is used at the beginning and at the end the word upāsīta is employed. If we take into consideration both the passages it is obvious that according to the Upanisads, vedana and upāsanā bear the same meaning.66 Veda or vedana employed in the Upanișad therefore denotes upāsanā.

The Upanisads also employ the terms dhyāna and nididhyāsana as means to mokṣa. Thus says the Muṇḍaka: tatastu tam paśyati niṣkalam dhyāyamānaḥ ⁶⁷- "He who engages himself in meditation sees Him (Paramātman) who is free from parts". The Bṛhadāraṇyaka states: 'ātmā va are draṣṭavyaḥ śrotavyo mantavyo nididhyāsitayah' -"Verily the self (Brahman) is to be seen, to be heard, to be reflected and

to be meditated upon". As the terms dhyana and nididhyāsana are used in the same context as vedana, suggesting that these are the direct means to attain Brahman, these terms should bear the same meaning as vedana. Otherwise it would amount to the admission of different means to moksa, which is not philosophically acceptable. The term dhyāna is derived from the root word 'dhyai cintāyām'. Cintana means concentrated contemplation in the form of uninterrupted remembrance of the object of meditation similar to the unbroken flow of oil poured out of a vessel (tailadhārāvat avicchinna smrti-santati). This idea is conveyed in the expression 'dhruvānusmṛti or unceasing meditation which is mentioned in the same Chandogya, as the means to moksa. Thus says the Upanisad: Sattva śuddhau dhruvāsmrtih, smrti lambhe sarvagranthīnām vipramoksah.68 The Upanisad also uses the expression darśana or sākṣātkāra as the means to moksa. The term darsana bears the same meaning as vedana. Thus it is stated in the Kathopanisad. 'Nicāyya tam mṛtyumukhād pramucyate'.69 The term nicāyya derived from the root word cayr darsane means darsana or sākṣātkāra. Thus it follows that the terms vedana, dhyāna, upāsanā, dhruvāsmrti and daršana are synonymous.

Rāmānuja further points out that the term bhakti or bhaktiyoga employed in the Gītā is also synonymous with upāsanā.
Though the term bhakti is not used in the Upaniṣad, it is
implied in the statement of Muṇḍaka Upaniṣad, which is
further elucidated in the Bhagavad-gītā. Thus says the
Muṇḍaka: Nāyam ātmā pravacanena labhyo na medhayā na
bahunā śrutena; yamaiva eṣa vṛṇute tena labhyaḥ tasyaiṣa ātmā
vivṛnute tanūm svām²o- "This Self (Brahman) cannot be
attained by the study of Vedas, nor by meditation nor
through much hearing. He is to be attained only by one
whom the Self (Paramātman) chooses. To such a person,
the Self (Paramātman) reveals His true form". The implication
of this statement, as explained by Rāmānuja, is that one
who is dearest to God is chosen by Him (priyatama eva hi
varanīyo bhavati). Who is the dearest to God? The Bhagavad-

gītā provides the answer as to who is regarded as the dearest. Thus says the Gītā: "To those who crave for eternal union with Me and meditate on Me, I bestow to them with love, that clear vision (of Paramātman) by which they attain Me."71 It also says: "One who is most devoted to God is the one who is dearest to Me". By way of elucidating the statement of the Mundaka Upanisad, the Gītā points out that there is no other way of attaining God except by ananya bliakti or intense loving meditation on God. Thus it is stated: "Nāham vedair na tapasā na dānena na ce'jyayā...bhaktyā tu ananyayā śakya aham evam vidho Arjuna: jñātum drastum ca tattvena pravestum ca parantapa.72 The term bhakti is derived from the root word bhaj which means sevā or meditation (bhaj sevāyām). In common usage, it is understood in the sense of love towards the respected or elderly person (mahanīya viṣaye prītiḥ). Prīti or love is a state of knowledge, a mental disposition. Bhakti with reference to God, therefore means unceasing meditation with intense love for the Supreme Being (snehapūrvam anudhyānam bhaktirityabhidhīyate).73 According to Nighantu (glossary of Vedic terms), the terms sevā, bhakti and upāsti bear the same meaning.74 Bhakti is therefore synonymous with upāsanā, dhyāna and dhruvāsmṛti. As pointed out earlier, when several terms are employed in the same context as the means to moksa, these cannot be taken as different means since the Goal to be attained is the same. Nor can they be regarded as alternative sādhanas. Nididhyāsana which denotes upāsanā or the steadfast meditation is a rigorous discipline, whereas jñāna or darśana which denotes direct realization is an easy path to moksa. The option between these two disciplines is therefore untenable. In such a circumstance, the Mīmāmsā principle of interpretation is to be adopted to resolve the apparent conflicting statements regarding sādhana to mokṣa. According to this principle, when two or more terms are used in the Vedic texts in the same context, the general terms are understood in the sense of the specific term, as in the case of chāga and paśu. Paśu is a general term which

refers to any kind of animal. But it is ascertained by subsequent specification that it bears the meaning of *chāga* or goat, which is a specific term. Accordingly, in the present context, jñāna, vedana, darśana, dhyāna, upāsanā and dhruvāsmṛti are treated as general terms and they all denote Bhakti or Bhakti-yoga which is a specific term. Rāmānuja therefore comes to the conclusion that upāsanā or bhakti as denoted by the word vidyā used in the Vedānta-sūtra is the direct means to mokṣa. The vedana implied in the sūtra which is the same as upāsanā in the Upaniṣad and bhakti-yoga in the Gītā is to be observed repeatedly and continuously until the goal is achieved, as stated in the sūtra 'asakṛt āvṛttiḥ'.

This view is also supported by the Smrti texts as stated in the subsequent sūtra reading 'Lingācca'75. Linga denotes Smṛti texts. It means that even Smṛti texts support the view that vedana or upāsanā is to be repeatedly and continuously practised. While commenting on this sūtra, Rāmānuja quotes the following verse from Vișnupurāna. Tadrūpapratyaye caikā santatiśca anyanispṛhā; tad-dhyānam prathamaih ṣaḍbhiḥ angaih niṣpādyate tathā.76 It means that dhyāna on Paramātman is the concentrated and uninterrupted series of recollection of the object of meditation and it is to be accomplished with the aid of first six yogāngas. That is, before embarking on dhyana, dharana or concentration on the object of contemplation is needed. This is the sixth limb of Yoga discipline laid down by Pātañjali. Dhāraṇa invariably presupposes the mental purity by way of cultivation of ethical virtues (yama) and observance of religious duties (niyamas); a steady posture (āsana), control of breath (prāṇāyāma) and control of sense organs (pratyāhāra). Thus according to the Vedānta-sūtra, as interpreted by Rāmānuja, dhyāna or upāsanā on Brahman involves the observance of the yogāngas. Thus it is a rigorous religious discipline. It is not mere bhakti or loving devotion to God as is generally understood. Bhakti or devotion to God is no doubt needed to undertake upāsanā, but when bhakti is adopted as sādhana to mokṣa, it involves the eightfold psycho-religious discipline. Though Bādarāyaṇa does not employ the term aṣṭāṅga-yoga, some of the components of the yoga-discipline are mentioned by him in the sūtras. The sūtra 'dhyānācca'⁷⁷ implies that unceasing meditation requires the concentration of mind. Bādarāyaṇa also specifically states that steadiness of mind and body (acalatvam ca)⁷⁸ and the selection of suitable place and proper environment⁷⁹ are very important for the practice of dhyāna-yoga. The sutra reading: 'Smaranti ca'⁸⁰ refers to the other details about the yogāṅgas mentioned in the Bhagavad-gīta⁸¹.

As stated in the earlier section dealing with karma in relation to vidyā, the scrupulous observance of the prescribed karmas according to one's āśrama or the stage of life and the cultivation of śama, dama, etc. as ethical virtues are equally important since these constitute the subsidiary aid to upāṣanā.

More important than the compliance with the yoga-discipline, the *upāsanā* is to be practised until the end of one's life. Thus says the *sūtra*: *āprayāṇāt tatrāpi hi dṛṣṭam*.⁸² This confirms that *vedana* or *vidyā* is not merely the direct knowledge of Brahman, as Ādvaitin maintains, but, on the contrary, it denotes *upāsanā* as a rigorous discipline to be practised continuously until one attains the Supreme Goal.

Bādarāyaṇa also discusses another important issue relating to the *upāsanā* viz., the manner in which the individual who is the *upāsaka* should meditate on Brahman, which is the *upāsya* or the object of meditation. The question to be considered is whether the *upāsaka* should meditate on Brahman as different from him or as non-different from him, that is, as his Ātman (Inner Self). This issue is examined in a separate adhikaraṇa named Ātmatvopāsanādhikaraṇa. The relevant sūtra reads: 'Ātmeti-tu-upagacchanti grāhayanti ca'83. It means, as explained by Rāmānuja, that the *upāsaka* should meditate on Brahman as its Inner Self (Ātmetyeva). By way of elucidation, he points out that just as jīva of *upāsaka* stands as the self for the body, in the same way,

Brahman is the Ātman for his jīva. Why should he meditate in this way? The reason is that the Sacred texts teach that Brahman is the Ātman in the sense that it is the Inner Self or Antaryāmin of jīva. Thus says the Upanisad: 'tvam vā ahamasmi bhagavo devate aham vai tvamasi' - "O worshipful Deity, I am indeed Thou and Thou art indeed I". The term "I" ultimately denotes the Paramatman and hence the two terms 'I' and 'Thou' mean the same.

An objection is raised against this view. In the earlier adhyāyas it is specifically stated that jīva is absolutely different from Brahman (atyanta bhinnah) and that Brahman is vibhu or all-pervasive whereas jīva is aņu or monodic in nature. It would not therefore be appropriate to meditate on Brahman as non-different from Brahman. Besides the upāsanā is intended for the attainment of mokṣa and meditation on jīva as Brahman in a wrong manner would not help to achieve the desired goal.

In reply to this objection Vedanta Desika points out that Bādarāyana does not advocate that jīva and Brahman are essentially identical (svarūpaikya). Nor does he suggest that jīva is to be meditated upon (conceived as Brahman), similar to the upāsanā on udgītha or the syllable 'aum' conceived as Brahman. If he accepted either of these views, the objection raised above would be valid. But it is not so. What is actually required for the purpose of meditation on Brahman is that upāsaka should contemplate during upāsanā that Brahman is his Antaryāmin in the form 'Aham brahmāsmi' - "I am Brahman". The primary import of the term 'aham' is Paramātman who is the antarātmā of jīva (svātmāntarātmani aham-iti vacaso'pi atra mukhya pravrtteh).84 This interpretation is justified both logically and philosophically. In the judgements 'I am manusya (human being), I am deva (celestial being), the terms manusyatva, devatva, etc., refer to the physical body (dehavācī) and yet they are applicable in the primary sense to the jīvātman to which the body actually belongs. In the same way, the term aham denoting the jīva is applicable to Paramātman, who is its antarātmā.

Hence it is not inappropriate to meditate on Brahman in the form 'Aham brahmāsmi', that is: 'I' as jīvātman is having Brahman as my Antaryāmin (aham brahmātmakosmi). This does not amount to the contemplation of Brahman as identical with jīva, as contended by Advaitin, for the reason that jīva and Brahman by virtue of their intrinsic nature are of different character, as evidenced by numerous Scriptural texts and also the Vedanta-sūtras. The Scriptural texts also declare that Brahman is immanent in the jīvas as Antaryāmin. Thus says the Brhadāranyaka: ya ātmani tisthan, ātmano antaro yam ātmā na veda, yasyātmā śarīram, ya ātmānam antaro yamayati, sa ta ātmā antaryāmy amrtah. 85 The Chāndogya states: Sanmūlāh somya, imāh sarvāh prajāh sadāyatanāh sat-pratisthitāh, aitadatmyam idam sarvam.86 All these texts convey that Brahman is the Atman of all entities in the universe including the jīvas. It is therefore fully justified to say, as the Upanisad states, that I (jīva) am Thou (Paramātman) and that Thou art I (jīva).

In all such statements where two terms are expressed in the same *vibhakti* (samāna adhikaraṇa) by equating two entities such as Brahman and jīva, as in the texts 'tat-tvamasi' 'aham-brahmāsmi', these have to be taken in the sense that Brahman is the Antaryāmin of jīva and as such the two are one as inherently related as body to the soul. This explanation is fully justified on the basis of the principle of sāmānādhikaraṇya adopted by the grammarian.⁸⁷

^{1.} VS III-4-1

^{2.} See AS verse 304

^{3.} VS III-2-II

^{4.} Ch. Up VIII-1-5

V.P VÎ-5-84 & 85 Samasta kalyāṇa guṇātmakośau...
 Tejobalaiśvarya mahāvabodha suvīrya śaktyādi guṇaikarāśiḥ; Paraḥ parāṇam sakalā na yatra kleśadayaḥ santi parāvareśe

Mund Up. III-1-1 Dvā suparņā sayujā sakhāya samānam vṛkṣam pariṣasvājate; tayor-anyaḥ pippalam svādvatti anaśnan anyo abhicakāśiti

^{7.} See S.B.III-2-11

Apaccheda-nyāya is the principle of the later substating the earlier.
 It is so called since it is formulated in the pūrva-mīmāmsā in

- connection with the expiatory rites consequent on different priests letting go (apaccheda) their hold of the tucked up waist cloth of the priest in front while going round the sacrificial fire.
- 9. Śvet.Up. VI-19
- See Satadūṣaṇī, vāda.52. See also FVV pp230-31.
- 11. See AS verse 307
- 12. Svet. Up. VI-8
- 13. Br. Up. IV-3-1 See Philosophy of the Upanisads. pp 61-62
- 14. VS III-2-21
- 15. See Br. Up. IV 3 6
- 16. See RB. III-2-21. See also the Philosophy of the Vedānta-sūtra. pp 63-64.
- 17. See ASverse 309
- 18. VS III-2-30
- 19. Ch. Up. VIII-4-1
- 20. Ch. Up. III-8-2
- 21. Mu. Up. II-2-5
- 22. Mu. Up. III-2-8
- 23. Svet. Up. III-10
- 24. See RB.III-2-31
- 25. Ch. Up. VIII-4-1
- 26. VS III-2-32
- 27. VS III-2-34
- 28. VS III-2-35
- 29. Svet. Up. III-9
- 30. Mu. Up. I-1-6
- 31. VS III-3-37
- 32. VS III-3-56
- 33. VS III-3-56
- 34. See Mīmāṁsā sūtra II-4-9 ekam vā saṁyoga rūpa codanākhyā viśeṣāt
- See AS verse 384
- 36. VS III-3-57
- 37. VS III-3-1
- 38. See.Ch. Up. III-14-1 Yathākratuḥ asmin loke puruṣo bhavati tathetaḥ pretya bhavati.
- 39. AS verse 325 Taireva dharmaih tad-itara sahitaih pūrnakāmasya param prāpyam brahmaiva na anyat kimapi phalam
- 40. VS III-3-11
- 41. Br. Up. V-8-8. See also chapter 3, section IX
- 42. Mu. Up. I-I-5 See also chapter 3, section V
- 43. VS III-3-33
- 44. See RB. III-3-33
- 45. VS III-3-52
- 46. VS III-4-1
- 47. Mu. Up. .. Brahma veda brahmaiva bhavati

- 48. Švet. Up. Tamevā viditvā atimṛtyum-eti nānyah panthā vidyate ayanāya
- 49. Iśa. Up. 2 Kurvannevaha karmāņi jijīviset śatam samaḥ
- 50. Br. Up. VI-4-2
- 51. Br. Up. VI-4-22
- 52. B.G. III-20
- 53. AS verse 399
- 54. See Ch. Up. II-23-1
- 55. See VS. III-4-25
- 56. VS III-4-26
- 57. Br. Up. VI-4-22
- 58. VS III-4-27
- 59. See Ch. Up. I-10-3
- 60. Br. Up. V-5-1
- 61. VS III-4-32
- 62. VS IV -1-1
- 63. See Ch. Up. III-18-1 to 3
- 64. Ibid IV-1-4 & IV-1-2
- 65. See RB I-1-1 vidyupāsyayoḥ vyatirekeṇa upakrama upasamhārāt. See also SB.IV-I-I
- 66. Mu. Up. III-1-8
- 67. Ch. Up. VII-26-2
- 68. Katha Up. III-15
- 69. Mu. Up. V-2-3
- 70. BG X-10 Teşām satatayuktānām bhajatām prītipūrvakam dadāmi buddhi-yogam tam yena mām upayānti te
- 71. Ibid XI-53 & 54
- 72. See Śrutaprakāśikā on RB I-1-1
- 73. Ibid, Sevā bhaktirupāsti iti naighantukokteh
- 74. VS IV-1-2
- 75. VP VI-7-91
- 76. VS IV-1-8
- 77. VS IV-1-9
- 78. VS IV-1-11 Yatraikāgratā tatra avišṣāt
- 79. VS IV-1-10
- 80. BG VI -11 & 12
- 81. VS IV-1-12
- 82. VS IV-1-3
- 83. AS verse 441
- 84. Br. Up. V-7-22
- 85. Ch. Up. VI-8-6
- 86. See Mahābhāṣyā on Pāṇini sūtra: Bhinnapravṛtti nimittānām sabdānām ekasmin arthe sāmānadhikaraṇyam. See also AV. Chapter 1

CHAPTER NINE

THE DOCTRINE OF PARAMA PURUSĀRTHA

The fourth adhyāya of the Brahma-Sūtra which is titled Phalādhyāya is devoted to the discussion of the nature of the Supreme Goal (Parama Purusārtha) which is to be attained by the aspirant for moksa after duly observing the prescribed upāsanā or meditation on Brahman. In the previous chapter, we have discussed in detail, all aspects of the sadhana as enunciated by Badarayana on the authority of the Upanisads. In the present chapter we shall deal with the nature of phala or the goal to be attained by upāsanā. This will comprise the following four theories, which have a bearing on moksa, the Supreme Goal. i) The liberation of jīva from bondage caused by karma in the form of punya and pāpa. ii) Utkrānti or the exit of the jīva from the body after liberation. iii) Arcirādi-mārga or the path through which the liberated jīva marches to the abode of Brahman and iv) The status of jīva in the state of mukti. These are the topics which are covered in the last five adhikaraņas of first pāda named Āvṛttipāda, eleven adhikaranas of second pāda named Utkrāntipāda, the five adhikaranas of third pāda named Gatipāda and six adhikaranas of the fourth pada named Muktipada. As moksa is attained only after the death of the upāsaka, it is considered relevant to discuss these subjects in the Phalādhyāya.

I. The Nature of Liberation of the Jīva from bondage

As will be explained later, mokṣa or liberation of the jīva from bondage leading to the attainment of a status equal to

that of Brahman, constitutes the Supreme Goal. Mukti is possible when the individual becomes totally free from karma in the form of both puṇya and pāpa. Bādarāyaṇa first discusses how the upāsanā or the unceasing meditation on Brahman observed by the aspirant for mokṣa until the end of the life, helps to liberate the soul from bondage. Bondage is caused by karma in the form of puṇya and pāpa. The karma which is also known as avidyā is beginningless (anādi). Normally it is to be overcome only by experiencing it fully. A Smṛti text also says that karma cannot be totally eradicated until it is fully experienced through several epochs (nābhuktam kṣīyate karma kalpakoṭi śatairapi¹). If this is the case, how is it possible to get rid of it by the mere observance of upāsanā.

Bādarāyana states that the Brahma-vidyā has the power to put an end to all the sins (pāpa) committed prior to the embarkation on upāsanā and also the sins committed subsequent to the commencement of the upāsanā. The relevant sūtra reads: Tad-adhigame uttara-pūrvāghayor aślesa vināśau; tadvyapadeśāt². The word tad-adhigame means according to Rāmānuja, after the upāsaka has reached a state of perfection in the practice of upāsanā, resulting in a clearer vision of Brahman (darśana-samānākāra jñāna). Uttarāgha means the sins committed after the commencement of the upāsanā. Purvāgha refers to the sins committed prior to the commencement of the meditation. Aślesa means non-attachment, that is, not being affected (This applies to uttarāgha). Vināśa means destruction (This applies to purvāgha). The total meaning of the sūtra is: "When the meditation on Brahman is completed by an individual, the sins committed by him in the past (prior to it) are destroyed and the sins committed subsequent to its commencement do not cling to him. The reason for advancing this view is that the Upanisadic texts state accordingly (tad-vyapadeśāt). Thus says the Chāndogya: Tad-yathā puşkara-palāśa āpo na ślisyante evam vidi pāpam karma na ślisyate3-"Just as the water on the lotus leaf does not stick to it, so also the evil deeds do not touch the Brahman-knower". Another text says: Tad yathā-iṣīka tūlam agnau protam pradūyeta evam hāsya sarve pāpmānaḥ pradūyante 4 — "Just as the cotton-like fibre thrown into the fire, gets totally burnt, in the same way, all the sins of the upāsaka are burnt". On the authority of these Scriptural texts, it is maintained that the upāsaka who has had the clearer vision of Brahman through the unceasing and devoted meditation on Brahman is not touched by the effects of the past deeds and so also by the sinful deeds committed subsequent to the commencement of the upāsanā.

By way of clarification, Vedānta Deśika points out that the Scriptural texts convey that Brahmopāsanā is efficacious enough to remove the effects of the past deeds and also those arising subsequent to the upāsanā. This is possible because the meditation on Paramātman (Brahman) itself constitutes the prāyaścitta or expiatory rites for the removal of all the sins committed by the upāsaka (tādṛg vidyaiva tanniṣkṛtiḥ⁵). The devoted meditation on Brahman is prescribed as a prāyaścitta in order to overcome all karmas (prāyaścitta-krameṇa parabhajanaṁ coditam karma-śāntyai⁶). In so far as it is capable of removing all obstacles including karma in the form of puṇya and pāpa, Brahma-vidyā is regarded as a prāyaścitta for all sins. The Gītā also says that self-knowledge in the form of fire (jñānāgni) burns all the karmas (jñānāgniḥ sarvakarmāṇi bhasmasāt kurute).

Regarding the *Smṛti* text which states that the effects of the sinful deeds have to be overcome only by experiencing them, it is intended to emphasize the need of observing appropriate expiatory rites (*prāyaścitta*) to overcome their strong ill-effects. This is the general rule and it does not apply to *upāṣanā* which has the power to eradicate the sins of the past. The Scriptural texts speaking of the eradication of the sins by *Brahmopāṣanā* are not therefore to be taken as glorifactory statements, as the critic observes.

The Upaniṣadic text says that Brahma-vidyā takes away all sins (sarve pāpmānaḥ pradūyante⁷). The word pāpmānaḥ expressed in plural is intended to mean both sin as well as

merit (puṇya). Though the word puṇya is not mentioned in the Śruti, it becomes included in the word pāpma, because for an aspirant to mokṣa, even puṇya has the same effect as pāpa, in so far as it stands in the way of attainment of mokṣa. The Upaniṣad itself mentions specifically both sukṛta and duṣkṛta are to be cast off. After mentioning both sukṛta and duṣkṛta, the text says in one sweeping statement 'na sukṛtam na duṣkrtam sarve pāpmānaḥ'. Therefore Brahma-vidyā destroys not only all the sins but all the puṇyas too accumulated by the upāsaka. On the basis of this text, the author of the sūtra says: itarasyāpi evam asaṁśleṣaḥ pāte tu³. It means: "Regarding the others (puṇya) there is likewise non-clinging and destruction of (previous puṇya), soon after the fall of the body".

Vedānta Deśika explains the fuller implication of the term agha-vināśa or the destruction of the sins. The Katha Upanisad says that unless one is free from all sins, one will not be able to achieve moksa (nā virato duścaritāt9). If punya and pāpa do not affect the Brahma-jñanī, why should he get rid of them totally for attaining moksa? In reply, it is pointed out that pāpa is of two kinds. One which is committed intentionally and the other which is committed unintentionally. What is done intentionally needs to be overcome by suitable expiatory rituals. Only that which is committed unintentionally does not affect the Brahma-jñānī because his upāsanā on Brahman is capable of counteracting it. The Katha Upanisad refers to the need of overcoming the sins committed intentionally.10 In the same way it is to be understood that only punya acquired by a Brahma-jñānī unintentionally, will not bear any result for him. This is the significance of the statement that Brahma-jñānī is not affected by punya and pāpa.

As regards the agha aśleṣa or the non-clinging of the sins committed after the commencement of the upāsanā, Vedānta Deśika clarifies that the power of the karma to bear its fruit is arrested by Paramātman (karmaśakteḥ anudaya aśleṣaḥ). If it gives the result, it is prevented from doing so (uadaye

tannivṛttiḥ vināśaḥ). This explanation is justified because according to the Viśiṣṭādvaita, the pleasure and displeasure of the Supreme Lord stand for puṇya and pāpa respectively (śaktiḥ sa ca praṇetuḥ taducita phalakṛt nigraha anugrāhatmā)¹¹.

Vedānta Deśika also points out that a Brahmu-vit does not generally commit any sins intentionally since he is always cautious in his actions and avoids sinful acts (sarvadā sāvadhānā brahmavid-dhīpūrvam uttarāgham na srjati). If by accident he commits a sin, he gets rid of it by appropriate expiatory rite. Alternatively he will overcome it by experiencing the ill-effects of it by undergoing the light punishment inflicted on him by God as a remedy for the sin committed by the upāsaka. In any case, a brahma-niṣṭha is sure to attain moksa at the end of the life when his prārabdha karma comes to an end. The Chāndogya states: . Tasya tāvadeva ciram yāvan na vimoksye atha sampatsye12-"For him, there is delay only so long as he is not released from the body. Thereafter he attains mokṣa". As long as the jīva is embodied due to the karma, he cannot attain mokṣa. Whenever the prārabdha-karma, that is the karma which has begun to bear its effect ceases, the upāsaka attains moksa soon after he is freed from the association of the body caused by the karma. This may take place either at the end of the present life or in a subsequent life as and when the prārabdha karma comes to an end¹³.

II. The Theory of Exit of the Jīva from the Body (utkrānti)

In the preceding section we have considered how the individual who embarks on *upāsanā* for the attainment of *mokṣa* becomes free from *karma* in the form of both *puṅya* and *pāpa* acquired prior to the *upāsanā* and also subsequent to its commencement, because the *upāsanā* itself, being a *prāyaścitta*, has the efficacy to eradicate it. In the second *pada* of the *Phalādhyāya* named *utkrānti-pāda*, Bādarāyaṇa

explains how the jīva of the upāsaka, soon after the death, exits from the body. This is called utkrānti and it also constitutes another important aspect of the phala or fruit of the upāsanā. It is therefore considered relevant to deal with this subject in the Phalādhyāya. Another important reason for taking up this matter in this context is to set aside the wrong theories of the Sāmkhyas that the jīva is nitya-mukta or eternally free and also of the Māyāvādins who advocate the theory of jīvan-mukti or that the Brahma-vit is mukta even though he is embodied. The eleven adhikaraṇas included in the second pāda of this adhyāya discuss how the jīva along with the indriyas, manas and prāṇa exit from the body through the mūrdhanya nāḍi and move to the higher abode through the arcirādi mārga. We shall take note of the important points as presented in the Adhikaraṇa-sārāvalī.

The Chandogya Upaniṣad dealing with the exit of the soul at the time of death states: Asya somya puruṣasya prayato vāk manasi sampadyate, manaḥ prāṇe, prāṇaḥ tejasi, tejaḥ parasyām devatāyām¹⁴.

"When a person (puruṣa) dies, his speech merges in the mind, the mind in the vital breath (prāṇa), the prāṇa in the fire (tejas) and tejas in the Supreme Being."

With regard to the statement 'vāk manasi sampadyate' in the above passage, the question arises whether the very sense organ of speech itself (vāg-indriya) merges in the mind or only the function of speech (vāg-vṛtti) merges in it. According to the prima facie view, only the function of the vāg-indriya becomes merged in the mind. The reason for taking this view is that the absorption of the cognitive organs in the mind is not at all possible (asambhavah). Besides, in the process of dissolution, the effect is absorbed in its causal substance and since the sense organ of speech is not caused by the mind, it cannot merge in the mind. Hence it is to be admitted that only its function of speech is absorbed in the mind. This is possible because the function of speech is dependent on the mind.

Bādarāyaṇa does not accept this view. The very sense organ of speech (vāg-indriya) becomes merged in the mind

at the time of the death of a person. The relevant *sūtra* reads: Vāg-manasi darśanāt śabdācca.15 It means that the organ of speech gets merged in the mind, because it is evident to our perceptual experience and also supported by the Scriptural text. We find that when the vāg-indriya ceases to function, the mind is found to be still working. Besides, the Upanisadic text speaks of the merging of the vag-indriya in the mind. It does not specifically mention that the function of vag-indriya gets absorbed in the mind. It is also not known that with the cessation of the function of speech, the vāg-indriya ceases to exist. It is therefore to be admitted that the sense-organ of speech itself becomes merged in the mind. The word 'sampadyate' is to be understood as becoming united with the mind (sam-yujyate) and not that it is dissolved in the mind (līyate). As Vedānta Deśika explains, sampattih is to be interpreted as samslesa. The word vāk mentioned in the sūtra also includes all other sense organs. That is, as in the case of vāg-indriya, all other senses are also united with the mind. This is made evident from the following statement of the Prasna Upanisad: Tasmāt upašānta tejah punarbhavam indriyaih manasi sampadyamānaih16 - " When the heat of the body is extinguished (soon after death), the soul along with the mind with which all sense organs are united, gets into the vital breath for taking another birth. In this statement, it is specifically mentioned that all indrivas are united with the mind (indriyaiḥ manasi sampadyamānaiḥ).

In the next stage, the mind, with which all *indriyas* are united, gets merged in the *prāṇa* or the vital breath. Thus says the Upaniṣad: *manaḥ prāṇa*. Accordingly, Bādarāyaṇa states: *Tan-manaḥ prāṇa uttarāt*.¹⁷ It means – "The mind is united with the vital breath because of the Upaniṣadic statement to this effect".

Here also the question arises whether manas is merged in prāṇa or it becomes merely united with prāṇa? The reason for this doubt is that the Upaniṣad describes prāṇa as constituted of ap or water (āpomayaḥ prāṇaḥ). It implies that ap is the cause of prāṇa. In view of it, it is relevant to regard

that manas is dissolved in prāṇa, which is its causal substance. Manas is also described in the Upaniṣad as annamaya which signifies that it is caused by pṛthivī, the word anna or food being taken as pṛthivī. Hence it is appropriate to accept that mind as associated with indriyas gets absorbed in the prāna.

Bādarāyaṇa does not accept this argument. The expressions āpomayaḥ and annamayah in respect of prāṇa and manas respectively do not imply that prāṇa is caused by ap and mind by anna or pṛthivī. The affix 'mayaṭ' added to these words signify that prāṇa and manas are nourished by water and food respectively. It does not mean that water is the cause of prāṇa and so also pṛthivī (food) is the cause of the mind. The word saṃpadyate employed in the statement cannot therefore be taken to mean as līyate but on the contrary, as in the case of vāk and manas, it means they become united (saṃbandha or saṃsleṣa¹8).

In the next stage the prāṇa which is associated with the mind and the sense organs, becomes united with tejas. Thus says the Upaniṣad: Prāṇaḥ tejasi. The question to be considered is, what does the term tejas stand for? Does it refer to the mere element of tejas (fire) or does it denote the jīvātman associated with the five other elements? If we go by the text of the Upaniṣad, prāṇa becomes united with tejas or element of fire. It would not be appropriate to introduce the principle of jīva and interpret the text to mean 'prāṇa as associated with the jīva becomes united with tejas'. This is the prima facie view.

Bādarāyaṇa does not accept it. According to him, prāṇa as associated with jīva becomes united with tejas. The relevant sūtra reads: So adhyakṣe tad-upagamādibhyaḥ¹٩. It means that prāṇa becomes united with jīva (adhyakṣe) which is the Lord of all sense organs (karaṇādhipa) because it is stated in the Upaniṣad that the prāṇa follows the jīva (prāṇasya jivopagama). Thus says the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad: Evam eva imam ātmānam antakāle sarve prāṇā abhisamāyanti ²⁰ – "In the same way, all the prāṇas proceed

towards the jīvātman at the time of death." The Upanişad also describes that all the pranas move with the jiva at the time of death as the faithful followers of the king follow him during his return after victory even though they are not ordered to do so". In another text of Brhadaranyaka, it is clearly stated that prana follows the jīva when it exits from the body (tam utkrāmantam prāno anutkrāmati²¹). There are sufficient number of Upanisadic statements which point out that there is close connection between prana and jīva. It is therefore appropriate to say that prāṇa is first united with jīva and then jīva along with prāna becomes united with tejas. Even though jīva is not mentioned in the Upanisad, it is to be admitted as related to prāṇa. This is justified on the analogy of the statement: "The river Yamunā enters the ocean". The river Yamunā first joins the river Ganga and Ganga united with Yamuna reaches the ocean. Nevertheless we say that Yamunā enters the ocean. In the same way it is not inappropriate to say that prāṇa as associated with jīva is united with tejas.

The word tejas mentioned in the Upanisadic text (prāṇaḥ tejasi) refers not merely to tejas but all other elements because the physical body with which jīva is associated consists of all the five elements. In view of it, jīva is described in the Upanișad as prthivīmaya, āpomaya, tejomaya etc. Bādarāyaņa therefore states that prana along with jīva is united with all the five elements. The relevant sūtra reads: Bhūtesu tat śruteh22. Another reason for this view is that no single element by itself is capable of producing an effect. Only when all the five elements are combined together in different proportion, they are capable of producing the effect. This is supported by the theory of pancikarana or quintuplication taught in the Upanisads. As explained in Chapter 6, the creation of the manifold universe (vyasti-srsti) takes place only when all the five elements are mixed in certain proportion. Thus it is maintained that during the time of exit of the soul from the body, jīva as associated with the subtle body which comprises the five subtle elements,

indriyas including *manas* and *prāṇa* moves out on its onward march to higher realms.

In connection with the theory of utkrānti, an important issue comes up for consideration. The question is raised whether the utkrānti described in the Upanisads is applicable to both kinds of persons - those who have realized Brahman through meditation (vidusa) and those who have not undertaken the upāsanā to attain Brahman (avidusa). The reason for this doubt is the following statement of the Katha Upanisad which conveys the impression that the knower of Brahman attains Brahman here itself: Yadā sarve pramucyante kāmā ye asya hṛdi sthitāh; atha martyo amrto bhavati atra Brahma samaśnute23- "When all the desires that persist in the heart have been abandoned by an individual, that mortal becomes immortal and enjoys Brahman here". Another text says: Tamevam vidvān amṛta iha bhavati - "He who knows Brahman becomes immortal here itself". On the basis of such statements it is argued that utkrānti is not required for the persons who have realized Brahman²⁴. Bādarāyana clarifies this doubt. He points out that the utkrānti is common for both the upāṣaka and non-upāsaka upto the point of entering into the mūrdhanya-nādi, also called the susumnā nādi or the main artery leading from the heart to the crown of the head. The relevant sūtra reads: Samānā ca āsrtyupakramādamṛtatvam ca anupoṣya²⁵. The word sṛtiḥ means the path named as arcirādi mārga through which the jīva traverses to the higher abode. Upakrama means the entry into the mūrdhanya-nādi through which the jīva exits from the body. Asrtyupakramāt therefore means prior to the entry into the mūrdhanya-nādi. The meaning of the sūtra is that prior to the entry into the mūrdhanya-nāḍi, the utkrānti is common to both the upāsaka and the non-upāsaka. Regarding the attainment of immortality and enjoyment of Brahman here itself stated in the Upanisad, it is pointed out that this refers to the enjoyment of Brahman during the observance of the upāsanā. The word amṛtatva does not mean the attainment

of mokṣa, because the upāsaka is still embodied. The Chandogya clearly states that as long as one is associated with the body, mokṣa is not attained (tasya tāvadeva ciram yāvan na vimokṣye²6). As will be pointed out later, the attainment of mokṣa takes place only after the jīva traverses through the arcirādi mārga and gets rid of the sūksma śarīra or the subtle body with which it exits from the body and moves to the higher abode. Hence the word amrtatva referred to in the Upanisadic text is to be taken in a figurative sense (upacāra). It is to be understood in the sense that the sins committed by the upāsaka in the past are eradicated while the sins committed after the commencement of the upāsanā do not affect him due to the efficacy of the upāsanā. This is what is implied by the words 'amṛtatvam anupoṣya' in the sūtra. It means that the upāsaka enjoys amrtatva without getting rid of the body and the sense organs.

It may be argued that the *utkrānti* mentioned in the Upaniṣad is to be taken as applicable to the person who meditates on *Saguṇa* Brahman, while those who have had direct realization of Brahman (ātmaikya jñāna) do not need *utkrānti* since they have become *mukta* or free from bondage soon after the cessation of *avidyā*. Even though he is embodied, he is regarded as *mukta*. This state of the *Brahmavit* is regarded as *jīvan-mukti*.

This theory is unsound, contends Vedānta Deśika. In the first place, the concept of Nirguṇa Brahman as distinct from Saguṇa Brahman is not warranted by the pramāṇas including the Scriptural texts (kutracit mānahāneḥ). Secondly, the theory of jīvan-mukti which upholds that Brahmavit is a mukta even though he is embodied, is a self-contradiction, similar to the concept of a barren woman's son (mātā-vandhyā). If one becomes totally liberated from bondage due to the removal of avidyā after attaining direct knowledge of Brahman, he should not again experience any afflictions but in actual life we find that even the Brahmavit who is associated with the body is subjected to physical suffering. It may be argued that with the cessation of avidyā, which is

the cause of bondage, the jīva is totally liberated from bondage soon after separation from the body consequent to the death and there would be no need for it to assume a subtle body for the purpose of movement to the higher abodes, since it is possible to explain the movement of the jīva on the basis of its being monadic in size (anutva). If jīva needs a body to hold conversation with the celestial deities in the realm of the moon as stated in the Upaniṣad, even this can be made possible for the jīva by its assuming a different body by its will for this purpose. Hence the need of utkrānti for the jīva and also the necessity of a subtle body for the purpose of movement to higher realms are unjustified.

Vedānta Deśika refutes this argument. The total eradication of avidyā, which is the cause of bondage requires the exit of the jiva from the body and also its movement through the arcirādi mārga to the higher abode (kṛtsnāvidyā nivrttih parapada gamana āpekṣini²⁷). Though soon after the death, the gross physical body is cast off, the jīva is still associated with the subtle body with which it exits through the susumnā nādi and then moves forward through the arcirādi-mārga to the Brahma-loka as evidenced by the Upanisadic texts. It casts off the subtle body only after it attains the Brahma-loka. As long as the subtle body exists, avidyā also persists. Hence the mukti or the moksa proper is attained by the jīva only after it traverses through the arcirādi mārga and reaches Brahma-loka. This point is also implied in the sūtra which reads: Tad āpīteh samsāra vyapdeśāt28-"The samsāra or bondage continues till the final dissolution of the subtle body and the attainment of Brahman."29 As will be pointed out later, the jīva being enveloped with the subtle body exits from the body and attains Brahman only after reaching Brahma-loka through the arcirādi-mārga, as evidenced by the Upanisads.

In the final stage of *utkrānti*, the *jīva* associated with the subtle sense organs, mind, *prāṇa* as well as the subtle elements becomes united with the Supreme Deity

(paradevatā). Thus says the Chāndogya Upaniṣad: Vāk manasi sampadyate, manah prāne, prānah tejasi, tejah parasyām devatāyām. 30 As explained earlier, the implication of the merging of jīva with paradevatā is that the jīva becomes united with paradevatā. In this connection the question arises: Do the subtle elements with which the jīva is associated, become united with the Supreme Deity who exists in His own Abode or the Paramātman who abides in the body as the Antaryāmin? What is the purpose of the jīva associated with the subtle elements being united with the Supreme Deity? Regarding the first question it is answered that jīva associated with the elements is united with the Paramātman who is immanent in the body as the Antaryāmin, since the attainment of Paramātman in the higher Abode cannot take place while jīva is still associated with the body. Hence the union of jīva with Paramātman at this stage is with the Paramātman abiding in one's body as Antaryamin. The purpose of this union with Paramatman within the body is for securing some temporary relief from the afflictions to which the jīva was subjected during the state of bondage. This temporary union with paradevatā is not intended for the jīva to reap the benefits of the upāsanā. The Upanisadic text merely states that tejas implying jīva with elements, is united with the paradevatā. The sūtra also says: Tāni pare tathā hy āha.31 It means - "These subtle elements associated with the jiva become united with the Supreme Deity. The Scripture also says so".

The word sampadyate is to be added to the statement 'tejah parasyām devatāyām'. The meaning offered earlier for the word sampadyate is to be adopted here also. It means that the jīva associated with tejas (subtle elements) gets absorbed in the Supreme Deity in such a way that the two entities cannot be differentiated (avibhāga). Thus states the sūtra: Avibhāgo vacanāt.³² It means – "When the jīva is united with Paramātman at the time of death, the two cannot be differentiated". It does not imply, that it is dissolved in its causal substance but on the contrary, it means that it

becomes united with it in such a way that the two entities become indistinguishable.

After describing the process of dissolution of the body, Bādarāyana explains on the authority of the Upanisads how the jīva is enabled to move out of the body along with its sūkṣma śarīra through the mūrdhanya-nādi or the main artery radiating from the heart to the crown of the head. It is pointed out that Paramātman who is propitiated by the devoted upāsanā, out of His grace illumines the nāḍi in front of the heart to enable the jiva to come out of the heart and enter the mūrdhanya-nādi. The relevant sūtra reads: Tadokogra įvalanam tat prakāśita-dvāro vidyā-sāmarthyāt tatseṣagaty-anusmṛti-yogācca hārdā-nugṛhītah śatādhikāyā33. The word 'oka' means the heart in which the jīva is present. Agre means front part of the heart. Ivalana means illumination. This illumination is caused by Paramātman in response to the devoted upāsanā performed by the upāsaka and also his constant contemplation on the arcirādi mārga as part of an aid to upāsanā (tat-seṣagati anusmṛti yogāt). The Upanisad states that there are 101 nādis radiating from the heart (śatādhikāyā). The particular nādi which radiates to the crown of the head, which is called susumnā-nādi, is illumined by Paramātman abiding in the heart out of His grace (hārdānugrhīta). The jīva is then enabled to exit through this nadi and take its onward march to the higher abode through the arcirādi mārga.

The reason for offering this detailed explanation in the $s\bar{u}tra$ is to meet the objection that it may not be possible for the $j\bar{v}a$ to locate the main artery going upward to the crown of the head, amongst several other subtle arteries (na bhavati suśaka mukti nādi vivektum). This is made possible, says Bādarāyaṇa, because of the special grace showered on the $up\bar{a}saka$ by $Param\bar{a}tman$ in response to the devoted meditation on Him. $Param\bar{a}tman$ illumines the main artery to enable the $j\bar{v}va$ to know it ($vidy\bar{a}sampr\bar{i}tah\bar{a}rdapr\bar{a}sadanamahas\bar{a}$). This point is supported by the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad: Tasyaha etasyahṛdayam pradyotate, tena

pradyotena eṣa ātmā niṣkrāmati³⁴ – "The opening of the main artery of the heart of the upāsaka is illumined; through this opening which is illumined the jīva moves out of the heart to the suṣumnā-nāḍi also named mūrdhanya-nāḍi. From this description it is obvious that the entry to the mūrdhanya-nāḍi is possible only for the viduṣa, that is, for the one who observes upāsanā for the attainment of Paramūtman. Those who do not observe upāsanā, will exit from the body through the other arteries.

Vedānta Deśika presents an apt description of the exit of mumukṣu from the body after death in the following words: "The Supreme Lord associated with Goddess Lakṣmī, who is the protector of all the seven worlds, who resides in the center of the heart (hārdā), reveals to the upāsaka at the time of departure from the body, the opening of the suṣumnā nāḍi which radiates from the bottom of the navel to the crown of the head and pushes out the jīva through it to reach the highest abode, similar to the shooting of an arrow³⁵.

After the jīva of the upāsaka exits from the body through the susumnā-nādi, it proceeds to the realm of the sun following the course of its rays. Thus states the Chandogya Upanișad: Atha yatra etasmāt śarīrāt utkrāmati, atha etaireva raşmibhih ūrdhvam ākramate36. Generally the rays of the sun are present during the day time. The question arises: What would happen to the jīva of the upāsaka who dies in the night since the rays of the sun are not found in the night? It is pointed out in reply that during the night, the sun's rays are present, even though they are not visible to us due to darkness. The presence of the rays is inferred on the basis of the fact that heat radiated by the sun persists even in the night. Even during autumn season or on cloudy days, we do not see either the sun or its rays, yet we admit the presence of the sun. The statement of the Upanisad regarding the onward march of the jīva through the rays of the sun is justified. On the basis of this, the sūtra also states: Raşmy-anusārī37- "The jīva proceeds upward following the course of the rays of the sun".



Incidentally the question arises whether the upāsaka who dies in the night attains Brahman because a Smrti text condemns death in the night and speaks highly about death in the day time.³⁸ This gives the impression that the upāsaka who dies in the night does not go to the higher Abode. Bādarāyaṇa does not accept this argument. It is not correct to say that the upāsaka who dies in the night does not attain Brahman. What holds the upāsaka from the attainment of moksa is the association of the soul with the body caused by the prārabdha-karma. This is evidenced by the Chāndogya Upanișad: Tasya tāvadeva ciram yāvan na vimokṣye, atha sampatsyate 39 - "For the vidvān, there is delay only as long as the body (caused by prārabdha-karma) lasts; thereafter he attains mokṣa." Once the upāsaka becomes free from the karma, as a result of the upāsanā, he is sure to attain mokṣa. Hence the death of the vidvān even in the night does not affect his attainment of Brahman. This is the implication of the Vedānta-sūtra: Niśi na iti cet, na, sambandhasya yāvad deha bhāvitāt, daršayati ca.40

"If it is contended that the person who dies in the night does not attain *mokṣa*, it is replied that it is not correct, because the connection of the *upāsaka* with *karma* lasts as long as the body remains. The Scripture also says so."

For the same reason as advanced in respect of death during the night, the *upāsaka* attains Brahman even if he dies during the half-period when the sun moves southward (*dakṣiṇāyana*). There is a stray statement in the Upaniṣad that a person who dies in *dakṣiṇāyana* goes to the realm of the moon: atha yo dakṣiṇe pramīyate pitṛṇāmeva mahimānam gatvā, candramasa sāyujyam gacchati⁴¹. This view is set aside. The period of death is immaterial. What is needed for the attainment of mokṣa is the total cessation of karma which includes the body of the jīva. When once the upāsaka is totally liberated from it, he is sure to attain mokṣa.

III. The Theory of Arciradi Marga

In the previous section, we have considered the theory of *utkrānti* or the exit of the *jīva* from the body. It is seen how Bādarāyaṇa explains on the basis of the Chāndogya Upaniṣad that the *jīva* withdraws itself from the gross state of the physical body to the subtle state and ascends to the highest realm through the path of *arcirādi*. The *saṃpatti* or dissolution of the body is not conceived as its destruction (*laya*) but a gradual process of involution which is effected by the indwelling *Paramātman*. The final exit of the *jīva* from the body takes place through the *suṣumnā-nāḍi*, the main artery that radiates from the heart to the crown of the head.

After the utkrānti the ascent of the jīvātman commences through the different realms (lokas) ruled by the celestial beings. This pathway through which the jīva traverses to the highest abode of Paramātman is called arcirādi-mārga, since arcis or light (fire) is the first realm to which the jīva goes through the rays of the sun soon after its exit from the body. The Upaniṣads give an account of this pathway ruled by various celestial deities. There are a few conflicting statements regarding the pathway to mokṣa. Bādarāyaṇa therefore discusses this matter and presents the correct theory of arcirādi-mārga in the five adhikaraṇas included in the third pāda named gatipāda of the fourth adhyāya. As pointed out earlier, the subject of gati or the pathway to mokṣa is another aspect of the phala or the goal to be attained by means of upāsanā and hence it is included in this adhyāya.

The first question which comes up for consideration is whether there is only one pathway for the liberated jīva to attain Brahma-loka or there are other routes. The Chāndogya states: Atha...arciṣameva abhisambhavanti arciṣo ahaḥ, ahnā āpūryamāṇapakṣam, āpūryamāṇa pakṣāt yān ṣadudangeti māsāmstān, māsebhyaḥ samvatsaram, samvatsarāt ādityam, ādityāt candramasam, candramaso vidyutam, tatpuruṣo amānavaḥ, sa etān brahma gamayati eṣa devapatho brahmapathah.42

"They (the Brahman-knowers) attain the light or fire (arcis), from the light the day, from the day the bright fortnight of lunar month (śuklapakṣa), from the bright fortnight to the bright half of the year when the sun travels northward (uttarāyaṇa), from the half-year period to the year (samvatsara), from the year to the sun, from the sun to the moon, from the moon to the lightning, (from there) to the celestial puruṣa (amānavaḥ), who leads them to Brahman". This is the devapatha or Divine path and this is also the Brahmapatha or the path that leads to Brahman."

The Kauṣītikī Upaniṣad, on the other hand, describes the path in a different way: Sa etaṁ devayānaṁ panthānam āpadya agnilokaṁ āgacchati, sa vāyulokaṁ, sa varuṇalokaṁ, sa ādityalokaṁ, sa indralokaṁ, sa prajāpatilokaṁ, sa brahmalokaṁ⁴³—"After attaining the Divine path, the man of vidyā comes to the realm of agni, then he comes to the realm of vāyu, he comes to the realm of varuṇa, he comes to the realm of the sun, he comes to the realm of Indra, he comes to the realm of Prajāpati (Brahmā); he then comes to the world of Brahman."

The Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad describes the pathway in a different manner. It mentions only the following areas in this order: arcis, ahas, śukla-pakṣa, uttarāyaṇa, devaloka, Āditya and Vaidyuta (amānava puruṣa)⁴⁴.

In view of these varying accounts of the pathway to *Brahma-loka*, it cannot be conclusively established that there is only one pathway to *mokṣa* (*na vyavasthā arcirādeḥ*). These may also be regarded as alternative paths.

Bādarāyaṇa does not accept this view. He states that the liberated jīvas attain Brahman only through the same pathway which commences with arcis because this is well established in the Upaniṣads. The sūtra reads: Arcirādinā tatprathīteḥ⁴⁵. It means that all Upaniṣads state that the path to mokṣa is one and it begins with arcis or the light. The upāsaka therefore goes to Brahma-loka only through this pathway. The names of the celestial deities ruling these areas such as agni, āditya etc are common in respect of the

descriptions offered by different Upaniṣads. If there are a few omissions as is found in the statements of the different Upaniṣads, these have to be added on the basis of the Mīmāmsa principle of *upasaṃhāra* or inclusion of the *guṇas* of Brahman adopted in connection with the meditation on Brahman along with the *guṇas* in the *guṇopasaṃhāra* pāda of the third *adhyāya*⁴⁶.

Regarding the order in which the celestial deities are mentioned in the Upanisads, there are a few points of difference. Bādarāyana clarifies these. In the Chāndogya it is stated that jīva proceeds from the half-year to samvatsara (year) and from the year to the sun (āditya). In the Brhadaranyaka Upanisad it is mentioned that from the halfyear it goes to devaloka and from devaloka to the sun. In another text, vāyu is introduced between the year and the sun. Vāyu is thus an additional principle. The question is whether vāyuloka is different from devaloka mentioned in the Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad. Bādarāyana points out that the devaloka itself refers to vāyu without any specification. Therefore vāyu is taken to imply devaloka and it is to be included between samvatsara and āditya. The sūtra reads: 'Vāyum abdād-aviśeṣa viśeṣābhyām'47- "From the year to vāyu, on account of non-specification and specification".

That $v\bar{a}yu$ in one place is mentioned as a general term and in another place with specific description in terms of its function. But both the terms refer to one entity viz. $v\bar{a}yuloka$ and this is included in between samvatsara and $\bar{a}ditya$.

Similarly the word varuṇa who is the deity ruling the rains (parjanya) is to be added after vidyut or lightning since the two are connected together. Thus it is stated in the sūtra: Taṭito adhi varuṇaḥ sambandhāt 48 — "Varuṇa is to be placed after lightning because of the connection between the two". That is, it is to be associated with vidyut (lightning) because varuṇa is the presiding deity of water contained in the clouds.

After reconciling all these conflicting statements, Vedānta Dešika enunciates the path of the celestial deities in the following order: jyotis or fire, ahas or the day, śuklapakṣa or the bright fortnight of the lunar month, uttarāyaṇa or the bright half of the year when the sun travels northward, samvatsara or the year, vāyu or air, āditya or sun, candra or moon and vidyut or lightning accompanied by Varuṇa, Indra and Prajāpati.

It is also pointed out that the light (fire), day, month, year etc do not refer to the physical entities but they refer to the deities presiding over them. They are known as ativahikas or those who serve as guides enroute to the Abode of Paramātman, known as paramapada.

These deities are commanded by Paramātman to serve as guides to the jīva proceeding to mokṣa. Thus states the sūtra: Ātivahikas-tallingāt.⁴⁹ Ātivāhanam means leading or guiding the persons who are going in the pathway (ativahanam ganṭṛṇām gamayitṛttvam). These are therefore, not places of enjoyment (bhoga-sthāna) nor do they serve as identity marks enroute. They are the escorting deities similar to the Amānava-puruṣa or the presiding deity of vidyut (lightning) who leads the jīvas to the abode of Brahman. The Chāndogya specifically states that the Amānava-puruṣa leads the jīva to Brahma-loka (puruṣo amānavaḥ sa enām brahma gamayati). The same function of guiding the jīvas is also performed by other celestial deities.

IV. The Goal of Attainment by Jīva

In the preceding section it was pointed out that the liberated jīva after its exit from the body traverses through the Divine pathway being guided by the celestial deities. In its final stage of the march, the jīva is escorted to the Brahma-loka by the Amānava-puruṣa. Thus it is stated in the Chāndogya: Tat puruṣo amānavaḥ sa enāṅ brahma gamayati⁵⁰. "The amānava-puruṣa leads the jīva to Brahma". The proper implication of this statement which indicates the final goal of attainment needs to be understood. The issue involved here is whether the term Brahma mentioned in the statement denotes the Brahman who is the Supreme Being

or the Caturmukha-Brahmā, also named as Hiraṇyagarbha, a lower deity entrusted with the task of actual creation of the universe.

With reference to the jīvas who are led by the celestial deities, the question assumes the following form: Do the escorting deities (ātivahikas) lead those jīvas who meditate upon Brahman or those who meditate on the Caturmukha-Brahmā or those who meditate on the Individual self itself (jīvātmā) conceived as inherently related to Brahman (Brahmātmakatā)? The third alternative is relevant because, according to the Chandogya Upanisad dealing with Pañcāgni-vidyā, those who meditate on the pure jīvātman as inherently related to Brahman also traverse through arcirādi-mārga. This is an important issue relating to the nature of the Supreme Goal and it is therefore discussed by Bādarāyana in a separate adhikarana titled Kāryādhikarana. There are two conflicting views regarding this matter advanced by ancient ācāryas, Bādari and Jaimini. Bādarāyana critically examines them and presents his own view which is in conformity with the Upanisadic teachings.

According to Bādari, the ātivahikas lead only those who meditate on Hiranyagarbha who is designated as Brahmā. This view with supporting arguments is expressed by Bādarāyana himself in five sūtras. The main sūtra in which the name of Bādari is mentioned, reads: Kāryam bādari asya gaty-upapatteh⁵¹. The term $k\bar{a}rya$ in this $s\bar{u}tra$ is taken to mean Hiranyagarbha, a lower deity, also named as Caturmukha-Brahmā. The sūtra, as interpreted by both Samkara and Rāmānuja, means that those who meditate on kārya-brahma (Hiranyagarbha) are led by the ātivahikas because the movement of the liberated jīva through the arcirādi mārga (asya gatih) is conceivable only in respect of them. By way of elucidation, it is pointed out that the Supreme Brahman is infinite (vibhu) and also all-pervasive and it does not therefore stand to reason that the individual who meditates upon it is required to go to another realm to attain it. That is, Brahman being omnipresent, is already realized in this world by means of meditation and there is no need to traverse through the arcirādi mārga to attain it in a higher realm. The same view is also held by Śamkara who holds the theory of two Brahmans – saguṇa and nirguṇa. According to him, nirguṇa Brahman which is the higher Brahman, is infinite and all-pervasive (sarvagata) and it cannot be regarded to have a location (pradeśa) or an abode of its own. Hence the kāryam in the sūtra is taken as the lower Brahman or Saguṇa Brahman designated as Hiraṇyagarbha. He has a realm of his own known as Brahmaloka to which the liberated souls are led through the arcirādimārga by the ātivahikas.

An objection is raised against this explanation. The word Brahma in the neuter gender generally signifies the higher Brahman. If Brahman is to mean Hiranyagarbha, the text should have stated 'brahmāṇam gamayati'. But it is not so. Hence the term Brahma cannot be taken as Hiranyagarbha. In reply to this objection, it is pointed out that there is close proximity of Brahmā as Hiranyagarbha to the Supreme Brahman, since the former, according to the Upaniṣads was the very first principle created by Brahman (yo brahmāṇam vidadhāti pūrvam). In view of it, Brahma in a secondary sense can be taken as Caturmukha-Brahmā (sāmīpyāt tu tad vyapadeśaḥ).⁵²

There is another objection against the theory of Bādari. According to the Upaniṣads, those liberated souls which traverse through the arcirādi-mārga do not return to the mundane existence to be reborn. The realm of Caturmukha-Brahmā along with its ruler is subjected to dissolution at the end of certain number of yugas. The jīvas which have gone to that realm would also be subject to dissolution and as such the immortality (amṛtatva) attained by meditation on Hiranyagarbha would also be affected.

Bādari himself replies to this objection. As and when dissolution of this realm takes place, Caturmukha-Brahma along with all the jīvas residing in that realm attains Brahman as a result of the meditation observed by

Caturmukha-Brahmā and the jīvas. The relevant sūtra reads: Kāryātyaye tad adhyakṣeṇa saha ataḥ param abhidhānāt⁵³—"When the destruction of the realm of Caturmukha-Brahmā takes place, the jīvas along with the ruler of Brahma-loka attains the Supreme Brahman. This is supported by the Śruti as well as the Smṛti texts". The Taittirīya Nārāyaṇa Upaniṣad states: Te brahmaloke tu parāntakāle parāmṛtāt parimucyanti sarve ⁵⁴—"All of them who reside in the world of the four-faced Brahmā are released at the end of the life of Brahmā by virtue of their meditation on Brahman".

This is also supported by the following Smṛti text: Brahmaṇā saha te sarve samprāpte prati-samcare; parasya ante kṛtātmānaḥ praviśanti param padam.⁵⁵

"When the time of dissolution of all the worlds comes at the end of the life of Brahmā, all those who had observed bhakti-yoga and those who were living in his world, attain Para-Brahman which is the Supreme Goal, along with the four-faced Brahmā".

The above explanation would amount to the admission of mukti in two stages. This is called krama-mukti which is also accepted by Samkara. Those who meditate on saguna Brahman attain first the Brahma-loka, the realm of Hiranyagarabha through the arcirādi mārga, as stated in the Upanisad. But the attainment of this realm does not represent the proper moksa. The moksa proper, according to Samkara, is the realization of the identity of jīva with nirguna Brahman. This can be attained as and when an individual obtains the ātmaikya-jñāna. Such an individual does not have to pass through arcirādi mārga, nor does he have the utkrānti or exit of the jīva from the body. With the direct realization of the absolute identity of jīvātman and Brahman, he becomes liberated from bondage straightaway. Those individuals who are not qualified to attain direct realization of Brahman are required to observe the upāsanā on Saguna Brahman and obtain the moksa proper after attaining the Brahma-loka of Caturmukha-Brahmā.56

Vedānta Deśika summarily rejects this theory on the ground that several Scriptural texts establish that there is a

Supreme Abode of Viṣṇu (Brahman) and that the *upāsaka* who meditates on Brahman attains it by traversing through the *arcirādi-mārga* and enjoys the bliss of Brahman. The Kaṭha Upaniṣad explicitly states: *So'dhvanaḥ param āpnoti tad-viṣṇoḥ paramaṁ padam'*. Against such a strong Scriptural authority, the theory of Bādari cannot be sustained. As will be seen presently, Jaimini also rejects it.

According to sage Jaimini, only those who have meditated upon Brahman are led by the ativahakas direct to the Supreme Brahman. The main reason for holding this view is that in the Upanisadic statement 'Tat puruso amānavah enān brahma gamayati', the term brahma denotes the Supreme Brahman. Thus it is stated by Bādarāyana in the sūtra: Param jaiminih mukhyatvāt.57 By way of elucidation, Vedanta Desika points out that the Scriptural texts reveal that the arcirādi mārga through which the liberated jīva is escorted by the ātivāhakas leads to the Divine Abode designated as paramapada or paramamdhāma (asau arcirādi mārgah paramam dhāma gamayati). The word dhāma also means the Paramapurusa or the Supreme Being as implied by the statement 'tad-visnoh paramam padam'. Further, only after the jiva attains Brahman by traversing through the arcirādi mārga, it becomes totally liberated from karma and manifests itself in its true nature. This is made evident by the Chandogya Upanișad which states: Eșa samprasādah asmāt śarīrāt samutthāya paramjyotir upasampadya svena rūpeņa abhinispadyate58 "This serene being (jīvātman) having risen from the body and having attained the Supreme Light (Brahman) manifests itself in its own nature". The implication of this statement is that the jīva, after it has traversed through the arcirādi-mārga and reached Brahman in its higher abode, gets rid of the karma which had eclipsed its true nature and then manifests itself in its true nature. Keeping in mind this Scriptural text, Bādarāyaṇa states in the sūtra: Darśanācca⁵⁹ which supports the view advanced by Jaimini. The Chandogya also specifically states that the jīva obtains the realm of Brahman

after it gets rid of karma totally (dhūtvā śarīraṁ akṛtam kṛtātmā brahmalokam abhisambhavāmi)60—"I, the jīva, cast off the body and then as well-blessed soul, attain the realm of Brahman".

Bādarāyana does not accept both the theories of Bādari and Jaimini, since he considers them as defective. He offers his own view on this subject. The crucial sūtra relating to it reads: Apratīkālambanān nayati iti bādarāyana ubhayathā ca doṣāt tatkratuśca61. The word pratīka in the context of upāsanā means the sentient and non-sentient entities which are caused by Brahman. Tad-ālambana means making use of them as objects of meditation by conceiving the same as symbol of Brahman. Apratīka ālambanān therefore means those individuals who do not meditate on such symbols. The total meaning of the sūtra is: "In the opinion of Bādarāyana, persons other than those who meditate upon the symbols as Brahman are led by the celestial deities to Brahman, because the two views (advanced by Bādari and Jaimini) are defective. Besides, this view (of Bādarāyana) conforms to the principle of tat-kratu nyāya.

The fuller implications of the sūtra are brought out by Rāmānuja. He explains how the theories of Bādari and Jaimini are defective and how Bādarāyana's view is different from that of Jaimini. It is not correct to say that the celestial deities lead only those who have meditated upon kārya-brahmā (Hiranya-garbha), as Bādari believes. Nor can it be said, as Jaimini contends, that those who meditate only upon Para-Brahma are led by the ātivahikas. It is also not correct to maintain that those who meditate on symbols of Brahman are escorted by the celestial deities. On the contrary, the ātivahikas escort those who have meditated upon the Para-Brahman and also those who have meditated on their own ātmā (jīvātmā) as dissociated with the body (that is, in its natural form) but as inherently related to Brahman (Brahmātmaka). This is the significance of the statement of Bādarāyana in the sūtra.

The reason for upholding this view is contained in the words of the sūtra: Ubhayathā ca doṣāt. The view of Bādari

which restricts it to upāsakas on kārya-brahmā stands opposed to the Upanisadic texts which explicitly state that soon after the jīva departs from the body, it reaches Brahman (and not Hiranyagarbha). The text reads: Eşa samprasādaḥ asmāt śarīrāt samutthāya param jyotir upasampadya.62 Param jyotis means Brahman, whom the jīva attains after departing from the body. If on the other hand, the movement of the jīva escorted by the celestial deities is restricted to those who meditate only upon Brahman, as Jaimini believes, then it would militate against the Chandogya text, dealing with the Pañcāgni-vidyā, which states that even those who meditate on jīvātman as inherently related to Brahman also traverse to the higher realm through the arcirādi mārga. The relevant text reads: Tad ya ittham viduh ye ce'me aranye śraddhā tapa iti upāsate, te arcisam abhisambhavanti.63 This text, as interpreted by Rāmānuja, refers to the upāsanā on jīvātman as the body of Brahman, that is, as inherently related to Brahman.

Further this theory conforms to the principle of tat-kratunyāya. According to this principle, in whatever form a person meditates, the goal attained should be of the same form. Regarding the meditation upon the pure form of jīvātman as inherently related to Brahman, the object of meditation is Brahman which is the śarīrī (Ātman) of jīva and hence the attainment of Brahman through the arcirādi mārga is justifiable in accordance with the tat-kratu-nyāya.

The meditation on the non-sentient entities such as prakṛti and its effects, prāṇa or vital breath etc as pratīkas, that is, these being conceived as Brahman would not lead to the attainment of Brahman through the arcirādi mārga. Such meditations confer other material benefits as described in the passage dealing with Bhūmā-vidyā. In this passge fifteen entities commencing with nāma and ending with prāṇa are suggested for meditation by Sanatkumāra to Nārada but all of them are rejected as not suitable for attaining the Supreme Brahman designated as bhūmā. The upāsakas on symbols of Brahman (pratīkas) who are categorized as

pratīkālambanān are not eligible to traverse through the arcirādi mārga and attain Brahman. Other than these, who are categorized as apratīkālambanān by Bādarāyaṇa, are led by the ātivāhikas or celestial deities to the Brahma-loka.

V. The Nature of the Supreme Goal

After discussing the theory of utrkrānti or exit of the jīva from the body and also the theory of arciradi-gati or the movement of the jīva into the Brahma-loka through the Divine path guided by the celestial deities, Bādarāyaṇa presents the theory of moksa which is the Supreme Goal attained by the liberated jīva (muktātmā). Two important subjects come up for consideration in this regard: 1) The nature of the attainment by the jīva in the state of mukti and 2) The status of the jīva in relation to Brahman in terms of equality and enjoyment of infinite bliss. Both these theories are important since they provide a positive significance for the concept of moksa rather than its description as cessation of avidyā (avidyā nivṛttiḥ) or as total liberation from bondage caused by karma. Bādarāyana therefore discusses these matters in the fourth pāda, titled Muktipāda, of the Phalādhyāya in the following six adhikaranas.

- i) Sampadyāvirbhāvādhikaraņa
- ii) Avibhāga-dṛṣṭatvādhikaraṇa
- iii) Brāhmādhikaraņa
- iv) Saṁkalpādhikaraṇa
- v) Abhāvādhikaraņa
- vi) Jagad-vyāpāravarjādhikaraņa

We shall present the important points related to these adhikaranas.

a) The Nature of Attainment by Jīva in the State of Mukti.

The first issue which needs to be considered is whether the jīva which attains Brahman acquires any new form in the state of mukti or does it remain in its own form (svena rūpeṇa).

This question is relevant because it determines whether the state of attainment by the jīva can be treated as a goal in the proper sense. That is, unless what is attained is something different from what it was before, it cannot be a goal. The Chāndogya Upaniṣad dealing with this matter merely states: Eṣa samprasādaḥ asmāt śarīrāt samutthāya paramiyotir upasampadya svena rūpeṇa abhiniṣpadyate⁶⁴—"This serene being (jīvātman) having risen from the body and having attained the Supreme Light (Brahman), manifests itself in its own form". Based on this passage, the sūtra states: Sampadya āvirbhāvaḥ svena śabdāt⁶⁵. It means that (the jīva) after reaching Brahman manifests itself in its own natural form because of the word svena or "its own" used in the Upanisad.

The crucial word in the sūtra is āvirbhāva or the manifestation of the jīva in its own form (svena rūpeṇa). The jīva by its nature always exists in its own form, even during the state of bondage. So also in the state of mukti it manifests itself in its own form. How can that state be regarded as a goal achieved by it?. In the state of suṣupti or deep sleep, the mind and the sense organs do not function and the jīva exists in its own form. But that state is not treated as mokṣa for jīva. Hence it is necessary to admit that jīva in the state of mokṣa assumes a new body or form, similar to the individuals who attain svarga by performing yāga (tasmāt muktaḥ sva-anyat bhajati vapuḥ asau devavat). This is the prima facie view advanced regarding this matter.

Vedānta Deśika refutes this argument. The word svena used in the Upaniṣad along with rūpeṇa does not imply that jīva assumes a new form. If it means the new form or body, as the critic contends, then the word svena would be meaningless (svena iti śabdo aphalaḥ bhavet). Hence it is to be admitted that jīva manifests itself in the state of mukti in its own form. The word sva signifies the natural form of jīva (svābhāvika rūpa). That is, jīva manifests itself in the state of mukti in its natural form.

If the jīva manifests itself in its natural form in the state

of mukti, can this state be regarded as a Goal of attainment? In reply, it is explained by Rāmānuja that the liberated jīva abides in its essential nature only after it becomes totally liberated from karma and its effect in the form of body. Though the essential nature of the jīva is eternally accomplished, it can still be regarded as a goal. During the state of bondage, the true nature of the jīva was obscured by avidyā in the form of karma and with the removal of this obscuration (tirodhāna nivṛtti), the jīva is now made to manifest itself in its true nature. This is what is meant by the term abhiniṣpadyate used in the Upaniṣad which has the same meaning as āvirbhāva used in the sūtra. This āvirbhāva of the true nature of the jīva is treated as a goal attained.

By way of further elucidation, Rāmānuja points out on the basis of the subsequent sūtra (Ātmā prakaraṇāt66) and also on the authority of the Chandogya Upanisad, that jīvātman possesses eight attributes. 67 During the state of bondage, these attributes are obscured by karma. But these essential characteristics become manifested during the state of mukti. These are not newly brought into existence, but are only made to manifest after the removal of karma. This is illustrated on the analogy of the gem and its luster. When the dirt on the gem is removed, its luster is restored but not newly produced. In the same way, the essential characteristics of the jīva are not produced but are made to manifest by getting rid of karma which had obscured them during the state of bondage. This is the proper implication of the term abhinispadyate used in the Upanisad and 'āvirbhāva' used in the sūtra. Such an āvirbhāva can be treated as a goal of attainment. As Vedānta Deśika explains, āvirbhāva taken in the sense of manifestation of the inherent qualities of the jīva and which were eclipsed during the state of bondage, by the removal of karma (avidyā nivrtti) is itself a goal attained by the jīva. This explanation is logically tenable in the Viśistādvaita because jīvātman is saguna, that is, endowed with qualities and as such it is possible to speak of two states (avasthās) for it. In the state of bondage the jīva exists with its guṇas eclipsed and in the state of mukti, it manifests itself with the guṇas. Such an explanation cannot be offered in respect of Advaita theory, since jīvasvarūpa being always the same cannot admit any change in the state of mukti. What is nitya-siddha or that which exists always in the same form, cannot be regarded as sādhya or something attained. Mere avidyā nivṛtti cannot also be regarded as mokṣa because the Upaniṣads also speak of the enjoyment of bliss of Brahman by the jīva in the state of mukti⁶⁸. Hence the concept of mokṣa is meaningful if it is conceived as avidyā-nivṛtti leading to the enjoyment of bliss of Brahman.

b) The manner in which the Jīva enjoys Brahman

The next important issue to be considered is the manner in which the jīva enjoys Brahman in the state of mukti. The Taittirīya Upanisad states: So'snute sarvān kāmān saha brahmaṇa vipaścitā"69 – "The jīva enjoys all desirable qualities (gunas) of Brahman along with the omniscient Brahman". The question which arises in this connection is: Whether the jīvātman enjoys the gunas of Brahman as being separate from Brahman (prthag-bhūtam) or whether it experiences the same as being non-distinct (avibhaktam) since it is inseparably related to Brahman. According to the prima facie view, jiva experiences the gunas as separate from Brahman. The reason for advancing this view is that the Scriptural as well as the Smrti texts speak of sāmya or equality and sādharmya or similarity in respect of attributes between Brahman and the mukta jīva. Thus says the Mundaka Upanisad: Yadā pasyah pasyate rukmavarnam kartāram īśam purusam brahmayonim, tadā vidvān punya pāpe vidhūya niranjanah paramam sāmyam upaiti 70 - "When the seer of Brahman (jīva) sees the Purusa (Paramātman) who possesses a divine lustrous body, who is the Ruler of the universe, who is the cause of the unmanifest prakrti, then the knower of Brahman, casting off good and evil, and

becoming free from all blemishes, attains Supreme equality with the Lord (paramam sāmyam upaiti). The Bhagavad-gīta says: Idam jñānam upāśritya mama sādharmyam āgatāh; sarge'pi nopajāyante pralaye na vyathayanti ca 71 – "Those who have acquired the knowledge of Brahman attain a status similar to Mine (Lord), thereafter they are neither born at the time of creation nor do they suffer at the time of dissolution". These texts which speak of sāmya and sādharmya between jīvātman and Paramātman, imply difference between the two. The Upanisads also mention that jīva and Brahman are different. The Śvetāśvatara clearly states: Prthagātmānam preritāram ca matvā-"The individual self is to be known as distinct from the Controller (Brahman). On the basis of these teachings it is contended that jīva experiences Brahman in the state of mukti as distinct from it (tasmāt parasmāt sa prthag-bhāseta).

This view is rejected by Bādarāyana. The relevant sūtra reads: Avibhāgena dṛṣṭātvat.72 It means, as interpreted by Rāmānuja, that the mukta-jīva enjoys himself as non-distinct from it because it is so realized by the jīva in the state of mukti. By way of elucidation, Rāmānuja points out that jiva and Brahman, though they are distinct real entities, are integrally related (aprthag-bhūta) as substance and attribute (prakāri and prakāra). In view of it, the two are avibhāga or non-distinct in the sense that jīva as a prakāra or a mode of Brahman is inseparable from Brahman, similar to the soul and body or substance and its attribute. This is the actual fact (tattva) as evidenced by the Scriptural texts. The Antaryāmi Brāhmaņa clearly states that Brahman indwells within the jīvātman and the latter is its śarīra or body in the technical sense. The author of the Brahma-sūtra also affirms that Paramātman abides in the jīva. The relevant sūtra says: avasthiteh iti kāśa-kṛtsnah.73 When the jīva attains Brahman after it is liberated from bondage, it realizes that it is integrally related to Brahman (parasmāt brahmanah svātmānam anubhavati muktah 74). This is the implication of the word 'drstatvāt' mentioned in the sūtra. Though jīva by

virtue of its intrinsic nature is inseparable from Brahman, this fact is actually visualized only in the state of mukti by the jīva, because it has now become free from avidyā in the form of karma which obscured the true knowledge of the jīvātman in relation to Paramātman. It is therefore appropriate to state that jīva enjoys itself as inseparably related to Brahman (avibhāgena).

If Brahman and the jīva are non-distinct, how is it possible to say that the jīva along with Brahman, enjoys all the desirable qualities (guṇas) of Brahman as stated in the Taittirīya? Similary, if the two are non-distinct, it is inconceivable how there could be paramam sāmya or perfect similarity between the two in the state of mokṣa? It is therefore contended that the enjoyment of Brahman in the state of mukti by the jīva as avibhāga is opposed to the Scriptural teaching. This objection is based on the assumption that Brahman and jīva are identical (svarūpaikya).

This argument is untenable, contends Vedānta Deśika, because Brahman and jīva are different by nature, though they are non-distinct in the sense that Brahman as inherently related to the jīva is one. The Taittirīya text referring to the nature of the goal states: So'snute sarvan kaman saha; brahmaṇā vipaścitā iti'. It means "He (mukta jīva) enjoys all desirable gunas of Brahman along with (saha) the omniscient Brahman". The word saha combined with Brahman means that jīva enjoys both guņas and Brahman. This is called Bhoktṛ-sāhitya, that is, the object of enjoyment for the jīva is both Brahman and its qualities. This interpretation gives greater importance to jīva than to Brahman since jiva is the bhoktā or the one who enjoys both Brahman and gunas. This is not appropriate since Brahman is the Lord and jīva is its subordinate (Sesa). It is therefore considered more proper to interpret the text to mean that both Brahman and jiva together (saha) enjoy all the desirable gunas. This is called bhogya-sāhitya. That is, the object of enjoyment is the same for Brahman and jīva, similar to the father and son

together enjoying the same delicious food. This interpretation is also justified with reference to the passage in which the nature of the goal attained by the brahma-vit is being explained by the Upaniṣadic passage (tasmāt tad-bhogya bhāve bhavatu taducitam brahmaṇā-vyākṛteśca⁷⁵). In either case the distinction between jīva and Brahman stands established. When the difference between the two is proved, the word avibhāga employed by Bādarāyaṇa in the sūtra is intended to convey the idea that jīva is not an independent Reality (svatantra abrahmātmaka) but it exists as a dependent Reality, being inherently related to Paramātman (bhede siddhe svanisthasthiti pariharanam hy-atra sūtropapādyam).

Vedanta Deśika also explains the implication of parama sāmyatva between jīva and Brahman referred to in the Mundaka Upanisad (niranjanah paramam samyam upaiti). In this statement the word 'paramam sāmyam' does not imply perfect equality in every respect since the Upanisad does not contain any teaching to this effect. It is therefore to be taken as similarity only in respect of certain attributes such as jñāna, ānanda, amalatva etc. When a piece of stone and a piece of gold are weighed and found to be of equal weight, it does not mean that the two are equal in every respect. In the same way the equality of jīva and Brahman in the state of moksa is to be understood as similarity in respect of certain aspects only. As will be explained later, jīva does not have the divine functions of creation of the universe, unlike Paramātman. Since it is well established by several Upanișadic texts that jīvātman stands in relation to Brahman as the body to the soul, the statement such as 'brahmavit brahmaiva bhavati' are to be understood in the sense that mukta-jīva attains the status of Brahman (sādharmya) or equality in respect of certain aspects and not absolute identity (brahmaiva ityādi vākyam prathayati samatām).76





c) The Specific Form in which Jīva manifests in the State of Mukti

The specific svarūpa or the intrinsic nature of the jīva that manifests itself after attaining Brahman is discussed in detail by Bādarāyaṇa in a separate adhikaraṇa named Brāhmādhikaraṇa. The need for discussing this matter arises because there are conflicting views in this regard as conveyed by the Upaniṣadic texts and also by the two ancient ācāryas, Jaimini and Auḍulomi. Bādarāyaṇa therefore examines their views and presents his own view on the subject.

According to the view held by Jaimini, the jīva manifests itself with all the eight attributes described by the Chandogya Upanisad in respect of Brahman. The sūtra in which this view is expressed reads: Brāhmeņa jaimini upanyāsādibhyah⁷⁷. The word Brāhmena means the attributes described in respect of Brahman. The word upanyāsa means that which is stated in the Upanisad. In the earlier part of the passage of Chandogya dealing with the nature of the Supreme Goal to be attained by the jīva after liberation from bondage, Brahman is described as apahata-pāpma, vijarah, vimrtyuh, viśokah, vijighatsuh, apipāsah, satyakāmah and satyasamkalpah. In the later part of the passage dealing with the subject of jīvātmā, all these eight attributes are ascribed to jīvātman. It is therefore maintained by Jaimini that jīvātman also possesses all these qualities as part of its intrinsic nature. These were however, not manifest in the state of bondage, but when the jīvātman is freed from bondage, these become manifest. This theory rules out the possibility of conceiving jīvātman as constituted of consciousness only (cin-mātra svarūpa) as held by some (Audulomi) because what is only consciousness without having knowledge as its attribute cannot experience Brahman.

According to Audulomi, jīva manifests itself in its true nature which is pure consciousness only. The relevant sūtra reads: Cititanmātreṇa tadātmakatvāt iti Audulomih.⁷⁸ Cit

means consciousness or knowledge. Cin-mātra means that the self is constituted of only consciousness. Hence it is said that jīvātman manifests itself in the state of mukti as consciousness only and not with the attributes. There are Upanisadic statements which describe the Self as a mass of consciousness. Thus says the Brhadāranyaka: Vijnāna ghana eva⁷⁹ – "Consciousness only is its essential nature". Another text describes that ātman is entirely of the nature of consciousness, both inside and outside, similar to the lump of salt being entirely saltish both in the interior and exterior. The word 'eva' in the text excludes the attribution of any guṇas to the jīvātman. The statement which refers to the guṇas such as apahatapāpma, satyasamkalpa etc. do not really belong to the Self as these are falsely attributed to it on account of upādhis or adjuncts, as explained by Śamkara.

Bādarāyana examines both these theories. He offers his own view which reconciles both these views. The relevant sūtra reads: Evamapi upanyāsāt pūrvabhāvāt avirodham Bādarāyaṇah⁸¹. The sūtra, as explained by Rāmānuja, means that Bādarāyaṇa is of the opinion that although the jīva is described essentially of the nature of consciousness (evamapi), there is no contradiction in admitting the attributes in respect of jīva. These are taught in the Upaniṣad (upanyāsāt) and these are present in the jīva (purva-bhāvāt). In other words, according to Bādarāyana, jīva which is essentially of the nature of consciousness can also possess other attributes mentioned in the Upanisads because both these points are admitted by the Upanisads. In the absence of any conflict, there is no justification to resort to the explanation that the attributes are superimposed on the jīvātman due to avidyā for the purpose of reconciling the two conflicting Upanisadic statements. Nor is it appropriate to accord greater validity to the text describing jīva as prajñāna-ghana eva and lesser validity to the text ascribing gunas to the jīva. The validity of both the texts can be maintained on the basis of the explanation offered by Bādarāyana. As regards the expression 'eva' added to prajñāna-ghana, it does not preclude the admission of other guṇas. It only implies that jīva is essentially constituted of consciousness but this does not rule out the possession of other attributes which are warranted by the Upaniṣadic texts. Taking the illustration of the lump of salt, cited by the Upaniṣads in support of Audulomi's view, what is meant is that there is no part of it which is devoid of salt element, but it does not rule out other qualities such as its shape, hardness, colour etc. In the same way when the Upaniṣad says that Ātman is only a mass of vijñāna or consciousness, it signifies that it is entirely of the nature of consciousness and that there is no non-sentient element in it. The other qualities are also to be admitted as these are mentioned by the Upaniṣad.

VI. The Status of Jīva with Brahman in the State of Mukti

The Chandogya Upanisad states that the jīvātman in the state of mukti is capable of fulfilling whatever it desires. Such a capacity is described as satya-samkalpa. Though this quality is inherent in the jīva, it becomes manifest after the jīvātman gets rid of the karma and attains Brahman. This is substantiated by the Upanisad with the description of the free activities of the jīva in the state of mukti. Thus it says: Sa tatra paryeti jaksat krīdan ramamāņah strībhirvā yānairvā iñātibhirvā 82 - "He moves about there laughing, playing, rejoicing, be it with women, chariots or relatives." Another text says: Sa yadi pitrlokakāmo bhavati samkalpād eva asya pitarah samupatisthanti⁸³ - "If he desires the world of fathers, by his mere will the fathers rise to receive him". Two questions arise in this connection. First, does the jīva fulfill all its desires out of its own will or with some effort as in the case of ordinary individuals? Secondly does the liberated jīva possess a body and the sense organs to perform the activities?

Bādarāyaņa answers these questions. The two

adhikaraṇas titled Samkalpādhikaraṇa and Abhāvādhikaraṇa are exclusively devoted to the discussion of these issues. Regarding the first question, Bādarāyaṇa states that the jīva fulfills its desires purely out of its will and no additional effort is needed for the purpose. The relevant sūtra reads: Samkalpād eva tat śruteḥ.84 The reason for holding this view is that this fact is established by the Scriptural texts.

The Chandogya Upanisad itself explicitly mentions the word 'Samkalpad eva' which means 'by the mere will'. The word eva added to samkalpa rules out the need of any additional factor. This is the significance of the concept of satyasamkalpatva which is an essential attribute ascribed to the jīvātman in the state of mukti. Its other implication, as pointed out by the author of the Vedānta-sūtra85, is that jīva is ananyādhipati which means that it is not under the command of anyone else for operating its will. One who is commanded by somebody else and one who is subjected to karma cannot function freely. The jīva is not subjected to the influence of karma. The Upanisad therefore states that it becomes totally free (sa svarāṭ bhavati86). The term svarāṭ in respect of mukta-jīva signifies that jīva in the state of mukti is no longer subject to the influence of karma in the form of punya and pāpa (akarmavasya). Vedānta Desika also points out that the operation of the free will of the jīva (samkalpa) is not obstructed in any manner (icchāvighāta na syāt), since jīvātman is totally free from the influence of karma in the form of punya and pāpa.

It may be noted in this connection that the description of the activities of the *mukta* such as playing, rejoicing etc are not to be taken literally. These are not the creations of the *jīva* for its own selfish purposes. Since the *jīva* has no desires other than the enjoyment of the bliss of Brahman, being totally subservient to *Paramātman* even in the state of mukti, whatever the *jīva* desires to do are in accordance with the command of the *Paramātman* and also purely for His pleasure. As the Chāndogya states in connection with the *bhūmavidyā*, the *mukta-jīva* is *ātma-ratiḥ* or enjoys himself,

ātma-krīḍaḥ or sports himself, ātma-mithunaḥ or he is his own consort and ātma-ānandaḥ or he is his own bliss.87

Regarding the second question whether the jīva possesses a body and the sense organs to undertake physical activities, Bādarāyaṇa first mentions the views of Bādari and Jaimini and later on presents his own view. According to Badari, the liberated jīva does not possess any body. Thus it is stated in the sūtra: Abhāvam bādariḥ āha hi evam. Be The word abhāva in the sūtra means contextually the absence of a body. According to sage Bādari, the muktātmā does not have the body and the sense organs because the Scriptural text clearly states that as long as there is a body, one cannot escape the experience of pleasure and pain and only when one is free from the association of the body, pleasure and pain do not affect him. Be

Jaimini on the other hand holds the view that the mukta jīva possesses a body and sense organs. Thus it is stated in the sūtra: Bhāvam jaiminiḥ vikalpa āmananāt. The reason given in support of it is contained in the word 'vikalpa āmananāt'. Vikalpa means different forms (vividhaḥ kalpaḥ or vaividhyam). Āmananāt means that it is so described in the Śruti text. That is, the Upaniṣad describes that the mukta-jīva assumes manifold forms. Thus it states: Sa ekadhā bhavati, tridhā bhavati, pañcadhā, saptadhā...91 — "He (the mukta) is in one form, he becomes three-fold, five-fold and seven-fold etc". The jīva can assume manifold forms only through its body since the ātman itself is aṇu and indivisible. Hence it is admitted by Jaimini that muktātmā possesses a body.

Bādarāyaṇa offers his own theory which attempts to reconcile the view of Bādari and Jaimini. The relevant sūtra reads: Dvādaśahavat ubhayavidham Bādarāyaṇa ataḥ. 2 It means that Bādarāyaṇa is of the opinion that the mukta is of both kinds (ubhayavidham) on account of its own will (ataḥ) as in the case of a twelve-day sacrifice named as dvādaśāha. That is, according to Bādarāyaṇa, the mukta jīva can assume a body if he so wills and can also remain

without a body if he so wills. This is similar to the dvādaśāha yāga or the sacrifice which is performed for twelve days. The Scriptural texts enjoin the performance of this yāga in two different ways, depending on the purpose for which it is undertaken. If a person desires to acquire wealth, prosperity etc, he himself should perform it. It is then named ahina. If a person desires to perform a yāga for the welfare of humanity, then it is to be performed with the help of several other priests. In that case it is called satra.

On the authority of these Scriptural texts, the same dvādaśāha yāga is admitted as of two kinds. In the same way, it is to be admitted on the basis of the Upaniṣadic texts that a mukta can assume a body to render service to Paramātman and enjoy Him in that way, if he so wills and he can also remain without a body and enjoy Paramātman if he so wills.

Bādarāyaṇa further clarifies that the enjoyment of Paramātman by the mukta jīva without a body is similar to the experience of Brahman by jīvātman during the state of dream (tanvabhāve sandhyāvat upapatteḥ). Sandhyā is the state of dream. During this state, the jīva experiences good objects and events such as riding on a chariot drawn by horses. The chariot, horses etc do not actually exist during the state of sleep. But these are created by Paramātman to enable jīva to experience them in the dream state in accordance with its past karma. In the same way, if jīva remains without a body, he can still experience Brahman through the body and sense organs created by Paramātman for this purpose.

Just as a person in the state of dream enjoys the chariots and other objects created by Paramātman, the mukta enjoys the world of fathers and other things created by Paramātman as part of His leela or sport. But such creations by Paramātman which are enjoyed by the mukta jīva without a body are not intended for the pleasure of the jīva, since the jīva in the state of mukti being totally free from karma, does not have any desire to enjoy them. All such creations are

therefore intended for the pleasure of Paramātman.

When a mukta-jīva assumes a body out of his free will in the state of mukti, his experiences with the body are similar to the experience in the state of waking. The relevant sūtra reads: Bhāve jāgradavat. The implication of this sūtra is that when the mukta creates objects and events out of his will, he experiences them in the same manner as a person in the waking state actually experiences them with body and sense organs. Even in this case, such experiences of the mukta jīva are intended only for the pleasure of Paramātman since he does not have any selfish motive for himself. Whatever the jīva does in the state of mukti is meant for the purpose of Paramātman.

In this connection, the question arises: How can the jīva which is atomic in size (anu), take on several bodies? In reply, Bādarāyaṇa states that this is possible because the attributive knowledge of the jīvātman in the state of mukti becomes infinite. This is evidenced by the Upaniṣadic text. The Śvetāśvatara states: Sa ca ānantyāya kalpate. Though the jīva is atomic and also located in one small place of the body viz. heart, it has the power to pervade itself in other bodies assumed by it through its attributive knowledge. This is explained on the analogy of the lamp and its light radiated by it (pradīpa). The lamp is located only in one corner of a room but its light radiates all over the room. In the same way, mukta jīva can create several bodies by its samkalpa and activate them through the pervasion of its attributive knowledge.

Another minor objection is raised. There is a statement in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad, according to which when the jīvatman in the state of suṣupti, is united with Paramātman, it does not know anything outside it and anything within it. It reads: Prājñena ātmanā saṃpariṣvaktaḥ na bāhyam kiñcana veda na āntaram. If this be so, how does muktātmā pervade all other bodies through its attributive knowledge? Bādarāyaṇa replies to this objection by pointing out that the Upaniṣadic statement in question is not

applicable to muktātmā. It only refers to the condition of jīva either in the state of deep sleep (suṣupti) or in the state of death when the knowledge is not functioning. In suṣuspti, the knowledge of the jīva, though present, is not functioning. But in the state of mukti, jīva becomes omniscient as stated by the Upaniṣad: Sarvam ha paśyaḥ paśyati sarvam āpnoti sarvaśaḥ.⁹⁷

If the mukta jīva is capable of creating anything desired by it, out of its samkalpa, and if it also enjoys equal status with Brahman (paramam sāmya), the question arises whether the jīva is also capable of creating the universe by its samkalpa. This is an important issue related to the status of the jīva in the state of mokṣa and it is discussed in the final adhikaraṇa of the Brahma-sūtras named Jagad-vyāpār-avarjādhikaraṇa.

Bādarāyana states explicitly that the mukta jīva, though it enjoys equal status with Brahman, does not have the power to create and rule the universe since this function belongs exclusively to Paramātman. The relevant sūtra reads: Jagadvyāpāravarjam prakaranāt asannihitatvācca. 98 The word 'jagad-vyāpāra' means the cosmic functions such as the creation of the universe and also controlling all beings in the universe (nikhila niyamana). The mukta jīva is denied of this function (tad-varjam), for two reasons. First, the Scriptural texts speak of this function only in respect of Brahman (prakaraṇāt). Secondly, while describing the process of creation of the universe by Brahman, the presence of muktātmā is not mentioned (asannihitatvāt). Thus the Taittiriya Upanisad dealing with the nature of Brahman defines it as that which is the cause of creation, sustenance and dissolution of the universe. Similarly the passages which deal with the creation of the universe, state that Brahman alone existed prior to creation and that by its samkalpa the universe was brought into existence. Therefore the function of creation of the universe and the power to control all sentient beings and non-sentient entities belong exclusively to Brahman. Infact this constitutes the

distinguishing characteristic of Brahman and it is not applicable to *muktātmā*. The *parama-sāmya* or equal status of the *jīva* with *Paramātman* therefore excludes the function of *jagat-sṛṣṭi* and its *niyamana* for *muktātma*.

In what respect does jīvātmā enjoy equal status with Brahman? Bādarāyana answers that it is with regard to the bhoga only or the experience of Brahman (Brahmānubhava). Thus it is stated in the sūtra: Bhogamātra sāmya lingāt⁹⁹. The word bhoga means experience. In the context of Brahman it refers to the experience of Brahman in its true form, that is, as blissful. The sāmya or equality between the mukta jīva and Brahman is only in the matter of experience of bliss of Brahman. That is, the mukta jīva enjoys all the asuspicious qualities of Brahman. This is made evident by the Taittirīya text which states: So'śnute sarvān kāmān saha brahmaņā vipaścitā iti' - "The mukta jīva enjoys all the auspicious qualities along with the omniscient Brahman". In this statement the word kāmān is taken to mean the 'auspicious attributes' of Brahman (kāmyante iti kāmāh kalyānaguņāh).

The implication of the expression 'bhoga mātra sāmya' is that the object of experience is common to both jīva and Brahman. In what sense is it common? As Vedanta Deśika explains, Brahman is essentially of the nature of Ananda or bliss, as stated in the Taittīrya Upaniṣad. If the svarūpa of Brahman is blissful, it is also to be admitted that all that belongs to Brahman - its attributes as well as vibhutis, are also blissful in the sense that it is joyful (sukharūpa) for Brahman. In view of it Brahman is described in the Upanisad as Bhūmā, which is interpreted as infinite joy. 100 Paramātman experiences Himself as well as His own glory as blissful. Jīva too in the state of moksa experiences Brahman as well as its glory as blissful in full measure. This is the implication of the words 'bhogamātrasāmya' mentioned in the Vedāntasūtra. The word mātra rules out the jagadvyāpāra for jīva. The mukta jīva is regarded as having an equal status (sāmya) with Brahman only in respect of the enjoyment of bliss and freedom and to whom the jīvātmā is absolutely subordinate may command it to go back. Rāmānuja, while commenting on this sūtra, rules out both these possibilities. The individual who has totally become free from karma after realizing that other than the enjoyment of Brahman nothing else is of value and who has also become omniscient after attaining mokşa is most unlikely to desire anything other than the bliss of Brahman. Paramātman who has abundant love and compassion for the individual self and whom he considers as His dearest (atyartha priyaḥ) as Gītā states, will never think of sending the mukta back. Thus under no circumstances the jīva which has attained the state of moksa will ever return to the world of bondage. Such a state of eternal existence for jīva constitutes mokṣa, which is the Supreme Goal, according to Visistadvaita Vedanta.

- 2. **VS IV-1-13**
- Ch. Up. IV-14-3 3.
- Ch. Up. V-24-3
- See TMK. II-54
- 6. See AS verse 460
- 7. Ch. Up. V-24-3
- VS IV-1-14.
- Katha. Up. II-24
- 10. See TMK. II-56
- 11. AS verse 462
- 12. Ch. Up. VI-14-2
- 13. AS verse 463. Yukta adyaiva anyada va munih (Bādarāyana) iha manute brahmanişthasya muktim
- 14. Ch. Up. VI-8-6
- 15. VS IV-2-1
- 16. Praśna. Up. III-9
- 17. VS IV-2-3
- See AS verse 481. prāgvat saṃśleṣa mātram tata iha hi manaḥ prāṇa ity-āmananti
- 19. VS IV-2-4
- 20. Br. Up. VI-3-38
- 21. Br. Up. VI-4-2
- 22. VS IV-2-5
- 23. Katha. Up. II-6-14

^{1.} Brahmavaivarta Purāna XXVI-70

- 24. See AS verse 484
- 25. VS IV-2-7
- 26. Ch. Up. VI-14-2
- 27. See AS verse 485
- 28. VS IV-2-8
- 29. See Śrutaprakāśikā, RB IV-2-8. utkrāntasya api gacchataḥ sūkṣma śarīra sambandhāt āpīteḥ samsāra iti abhiprāyaḥ
- Ch. Up. VI-8-6
- 31. VS IV-2-14
- 32. VS IV-2-15
- 33. VS IV-2-16
- 34. Br. Up. VI-4-2
- 35. See AS verse 493. Svādhino hārdā-samjñaḥ svayam avikalayā; sampadā sākam ekaḥ sthitvā hṛtpadmamādhye sthagita nijatanuḥ saptaloka gṛhasthaḥ; nadi cakre suṣumnam nikhila dhṛtikarīm nābhi mū rdhantarūpam bhītvā tanmadhyā-randhra prahitam iṣumiva utkṣipya netā mumuksum
- 36. Ch. Up. VIII-6-5
- 37. VS IV-2-17
- 38. The following is the statement quoted by Rāmānuja. Divā ca śuklapakṣaśca uttarāyaṇameva ca, mumūrṣtām praśastāni viparitam tu garhitam
- 39. Ch. Up. VI-14-2
- 40. VS IV-2-18
- 41. Tait. Nārāyaņa Up.
- 42. Ch. Up. VI-15-5
- 43. Kau. Up. I-29
- 44. Br. Up. VIII-2-15
- 45. VS IV-3-1
- 46. See As verse 501
- 47. VS IV-3-2
- 48. VS IV-3-3
- 49. VS IV-3-4
- 50. Ch. Up. IV-15-5
- 51. VS IV-3-6
- 52. VS IV-3-8
- 53. VS IV-3-9
- 54. Tait. Nārāyaņa. Up. 10-14
- 55. Kūrma Purāņa XII-269
- 56. See SB on VS IV-3-7
- 57. VS IV-3-11
- 58. Ch. Up. VIII-3-4
- 59. VS IV-3-12
- 60. Ch. Up. VIII-13-1
- 61. VS IV-3-14

- 62. Ch. Up. VIII-3-4
- 63. Ch. Up. V-10-1
- 64. Ch. Up. VIII-12-2
- 65. VS IV-**4**-1
- 66. VS IV-4-3
- 67. See Ch. Up. VIII-7-1. Ya ātmā aphatapāpma vijāro vimṛtyuḥ viśoko vijighatso apipasah satyakāmah satyasamkalpah
- 68. See Tait. Up. II-1. So'snute sarvān kāmān saha brāhmaņa vipaścita. See also AS verse 520
- 69. Tait. Up. II-1
- 70. Mund. Up. III-1-3
- 71. BG XIV-2
- 72. VS IV-4-4
- 73. VS I-4-22
- 74. See RB IV-4-4
- 75. AS verse 526
- 76. See AS verse 527
- 77. VS IV-4-5
- 78. VS IV-4-6
- 79. Br. Up. II-4-2
- 80. See Br. Up. VI-5-13
- 81. VS IV-4-7
- 82. Ch. Up. VIII-12-3
- 83. Ch. Up. VIII-2-1
- 84. VS IV-4-8
- 85. VS IV-4-9 ata eva ca ananyādhīpatiḥ
- 86. Ch. Up. VIII-25-2
- 87. Ch. Up. VII-25-2
- 88. VS IV-4-10
- 89. Ch. Up. II-12-2. Na ha vai sasārirasya satah priya-priyayoh apahatirasti; asarīram vava santam na priyāpriye spṛṣaṭaḥ
- 90. VS IV-4-11
- 91. Ch. Up. VII-26-2
- 92. VS IV-4-12
- 93. VS IV-4-13
- 94. VS IV-4-14
- 95. Svet. Up. V-9
- 96. Br. Up. VI-3-21
- 97. Ch. Up. VII-26-2
- 98. VS IV-4-17
- 99. VS IV-4-21
- 100. See Ch. Up. VII-24-1. See also RB I-3-7. Yo vai bhūma tat sukham (niratišaya sukharupam)
- 101. Ch. Up. VIII-15-1
- 102. BG. VIII-15
- 103. VS IV-4-22

CHAPTER TEN

GENERAL EVALUATION AND CONCLUSION

In the preceding chapters we have presented the philosophical doctrines of the Viśiṣṭādvaita Vedānta as enunciated by Vedānta Deśika in the Adhikaraṇa-sārāvalī on the basis of Śrī-bhāṣya of Rāmānuja. The details of the doctrines are mainly drawn from the Vedānta-sūtras and the connected Upaniṣadic texts, which constitute the basic source material for Vedānta. Several theories are discussed in the adhikaraṇas but these have been consolidated and presented as a coherent system of philosophy or Darśana under the following broad headings representing five major doctrines of Vedānta.

- The doctrine of Brahman
- 2. The doctrine of the Universe and Brahman.
- 3. The doctrine of *Tivātman* and Brahman.
- 4. The doctrine of Sādhana.
- 5. The doctrine of Parama-puruṣārtha.

In chapter 2 we have discussed the nature (svarūpa) of Brahman as outlined in the adhikaraṇas covered in the first pāda of first adhyāya. It is shown that Brahman as the Ultimate metaphysical Reality (para-tattva) is the primary cause of the creation, sustenance and dissolution of the universe (jagat-kāraṇa). As a sentient Being, it is distinct from the non-sentient cosmic matter. As a Supreme Being constituted of infinite bliss (ānandamaya), it is distinct from the sentient individual self (jīvātman). As a Spiritual Being possessing Divine body, it is also distinct from higher celestial

deities such as Akṣi-puruṣa, Āditya-puruṣa, Indra etc, regarded as exalted individual souls. It is also distinct from non-sentient ontological entities such as ākāśa or cosmic ether, prāṇa or vital breath and jyotis or cosmic light.

In chapter 3, we have outlined the distinguishing characteristics (*dharmas*) of Brahman, as revealed by the *adhikaraṇas* included in *pādas* 2 and 3 of first *adhyāya*. Some of the important ones are:

Brahman is the Sarvātmā or the Universal Self; it is the Antaryāmin or the Inner Controller of all; it is the Akṣara or the imperishable Reality qualified with attributes; it is the Ādhāra or the Supporter of the universe; it is the Vaiśvānara or the Ruler of all souls; it is Bhūmā or infinitely great; it is the Daharākāśa or the subtle space within one's heart; it is the Mukta-bhogya or the object of enjoyment by the liberated souls. More importantly it is pointed out that Brahman is Ubhayalinga, that is, it is free from all defects (heya-pratyanīka) and also endowed with numerous auspicious attributes (samasta-kalyāṇaguṇātmaka).

In chapter 4 we have separately discussed one other important characteristic of Brahman viz. that it is the sole cause of the universe as revealed by a critical examination of the Upaniṣadic passages. These passages prima facie lend support to the claims of the Sāmkhya and Yoga schools according to which *pradhāna* or the primordial cosmic matter and the *puruṣa* or the individual self is the cause of the universe.

In chapter 5 we have dealt with the doctrine of the universe and its relation to Brahman. The adhikaraṇas covering this subject in pāda 4 of first adhyāya attempt to establish that Brahman is the upādāna-kāraṇa or the material cause of the universe and that it is also nimitta-kāraṇa or the instrumental cause of the universe, since by its mere saṅikapla or will, it creates the universe. It is explained how Brahman can be admitted as the material cause of the universe without its svarupa as nirvikāra being affected through the process of pariṇāma or modification of the

prakṛti from its unmanifest state to the manifest state. The several objections raised against the theory of Brahman as upādāna-kāraṇa are also answered. It is also pointed out how the universe as the kārya or the product brought into existence and Brahman, which is its kāraṇa or causal substance are non-distinct (ananya) in the sense that what is considered as kārya is a modified form (avasthāntara) of the causal substance. It is also explained that the universe which constitutes the śarīra or the body of Brahman, since it is wholly and always supported and controlled by Brahman, is real and is related to Brahman in the same way as the physical body is related to the soul (śarīra-śarīrī-bhāva).

In chapter 6, we have discussed the theory of cosmic creation as taught in the Upaniṣads and the Vedānta-sūtras and established the soundness of the Vedānta theory as against the defective views of the rival schools of thought such as the Śāmkhyas, Vaiśeṣikas, Buddhists, Jainas and Pāśupata. We have also explained how the creation of the universe is caused by Brahman in two stages—the first stage through the process of evolution of prakṛti in a particular order upto the five gross elements (pañca-bhūtas) and the second stage by the admixture of the five elements (pañcīkaraṇa) in appropriate proportion by the Caturmukha-brahmā, the celestial deity created by Brahman to perform the function of the creation of the variegated physical universe.

In chapter 7, we have presented the doctrine of the jīvātman and its relation to Brahman. It is noted that the adhikaraṇas dealing with this subject in the third pāda of second adhyāya reveal without any shadow of doubt that jīvātman is a distinct spiritual entity as different from Brahman. It is eternal in character (nitya), jñātā or the subject of knowledge, kartā or the agent of action. Brahman abides in it (avasthitiḥ) as its Inner Controller (Antaryāmin). It is therefore regarded as the amśa or an integral part of Brahman in the sense that it is inherently related to

Brahman, similar to an essential attribute is inseparably related to its substrate. Though $j\bar{\imath}va$ and Brahman are different by virtue of their intrinsic nature, they are non-distinct as the two, being inseparably related, constitute one qualified entity ($vi\acute{s}i\acute{s}ta$). It is also pointed out how $j\bar{\imath}va$, entangled with bondage caused by karma or the deeds of the past lives, passes through the cycle of births and deaths continuously until it is liberated from bondage after duly observing the prescribed $s\bar{a}dhana$.

In chapter 8, we have considered the doctrine of sādhana or the means of attainment of Brahman. We have brought out on the basis of a large number of adhikaraṇas included in the third adhyāya, the various aspects of sādhana: vidyā or upāsanā as the direct means to the Supreme Goal (puruṣārtha), the different modes of vidyā or meditation, the guṇas with which Brahman is to be meditated upon, the nature and components of upāsanā, the karma or the performance of the prescribed rituals as a necessary aid to vidyā and other prerequisites for upāsanā. It is noted that both the object of meditation and also the goal to be attained is Brahman as endowed with attributes (saguṇa Brahman).

In chapter 9, we have examined the Supreme Goal (parama-puruṣārtha). It is observed that the adhikaraṇas related to this subject explain the manner of observing meditation and how the jīva is liberated from the karma in the form of puṇya and pāpa, the manner of its exit (utkrānti) from the body after death, the onward march of the liberated soul through the divine pathway presided over by the celestial deities and how the jīva finally reaches the Brahmaloka or the Abode of Brahman, when it attains a status equal to that of Brahman (sāmya) and enjoys infinite bliss. It is also pointed out that jīva retains its individuality even in the state of mukti and it does not become one with Brahman but remains in its natural form (svena rūpa) ever enjoying the bliss of Brahman, without any possibility of its return to mundane existence (anāvṛttiḥ).

The above brief resume of the contents of the book based on the Adhikaraṇa-sārāvalī indicates the main tenets of

Viśistādvaita Vedānta, as expounded by Rāmānuja in the Śrī-Bhāṣya and further elucidated by Vedānta Deśika in the Adhikarana-sārāvalī. As will be pointed out presently, all these doctrines are reflected in the Brahma-sūtras and the Upanisads. In other words, the doctrines as presented by Vedānta Deśika fully conform to the teachings of Bādarāyana as enshrined in the sūtras and also the connected Upanisadic passages. This claim can be substantiated by a comparative and critical study of the corresponding adhikaranas enunciated by the exponents of two major schools of Vedanta, Samkara and Madhva. Both of them have accepted Brahma-sūtras as the fundamental source book of Vedanta and have also grouped the sūtras into adhikaranas, even though the number of adhikaranas reckoned by them varies. The total number of adhikaranas, according to Samkara, is 196, whereas it is 222 for Madhva, as against 156 formulated by Rāmānuja. In the case of Madhva, some of the names adopted for the adhikaranas differ from those mentioned by Rāmānuja and Samkara. Thus for instance, the Ubhayalingādhikarana included in the third adhyāya, which is an important topic dealing with the two-fold character of Brahman, both for Samkara and Rāmānuja, is named Sthānabhedādhikaraņa, without any consideration to the context in which it is introduced by Bādarāyana. The Vākyānvayādhikaraņa included in the fourth pāda of first adhyāya, dealing with the important subject of the relation of jīva to Brahman, which is acknowledged both by Rāmānuja and Śamkara, is named by Madhva as Samākarṣādhikaraṇa, overlooking the theory of jīvātman, referred to in the sūtras. However, the subject matter discussed and the siddhanta or the conclusive theory established in an adhikarana is far more important than the title adopted for it. We should therefore give greater importance, for the purpose of evaluation of the soundness of the doctrines, to the consideration of the issue viz. to what extent the doctrines of Advaita Vedanta and also of Dvaita Vedanta, as compared to those advanced by the

Viśistādvaita, are philosophically and logically tenable. It may be observed on the basis of the proper interpretation of the sūtras and the concerned Upanisadic texts, in accordance with the commonly accepted principles of interpretation as laid down by the Mīmāmsakas, without imposing on them the accepted doctrines or the preconceived postulates of a particular school of Vedanta, that a large number of adhikaranas as enunciated by Advaita Vedānta, do not strictly conform to the views of Bādarāyaṇa as enshrined in the sūtras. This point has been amply demonstrated by Rāmānuja in the Śrī-Bhāsya and by Vedānta Deśika in the Adhikarana-sārāvalī and also in the Satadūṣaṇī which is a polemic work devoted primarily to the refutation of the doctrines of Advaita Vedanta in a systematic manner by adopting dialectical method. In the concluding vāda of this work which is named 'paramate sūtra svārasya-bhanga vāda' (vāda 66), Vedānta Deśika has specifically pointed out that most of the Vedānta-sūtras and so also the adhikaranas do not support the tenets of Advaita Vedānta. Similarly, in the Adhikaraņa-sārāvalī, he states that all the four adhyāyas of the Brahma-sūtras are opposed to the Advaita Vedanta since it upholds that Brahman as the Supreme Reality (para-tattva) is devoid of all determinations (nirviśesa) and that everything other than Brahman including the jivas and the universe are phenomenal in character caused by māyā or cosmic ignorance1.

Regarding the Dvaita Vedānta of Madhva, Vedānta Deśika does not mention any specific criticisms against it in the Adhikaraṇa-sārāvalī.² This may be due to the reason that the main tenets of the Vedānta advocated by Madhva regarding Brahman, jīvātman, jagat, sādhana and puruṣārtha are not basically different from those advanced by Rāmānuja. He regards this school of Vedānta as a system having close affinity to Viśiṣṭādvaita (tat-sannikṛṣṭamata).³ However there are five important theories advanced by Madhva which are at variance with the theories advocated by Rāmānuja on the basis of the Vedānta-sūtras and also

the Upanisads. These are a) Brahman is only the nimitta-kāraṇa. b) jīva is absolutely different from Brahman and the relation of jīva to Brahman is one of bimba and pratibimba. c) jagat (universe) is also absolutely different from Brahman and the two are not ananya or non-distinct as held by Rāmānuja on the basis of the sūtra. d) the direct sādhana to mokṣa is aparokṣa-jñāna or direct vision of Brahman generated by nididhyāsana. e) In the state of mokṣa, there is ānanda-tāratamya or differences in enjoyment of the ānanda or bliss due to the intrinsic differences of the mukta-jīvas.

Some criticisms are also leveled against the views of Rāmānuja expressed in the Śrī-bhāṣya both by the Advaitins of later period and also the followers of Madhva and in particular by Vyāsatīrtha (1460-1539) in their commentaries on Madhva's sūtra-bhāṣya.

Soon after the publication of the Satadūṣanī in the 14th century by Vedanta Deśika, in which all the important doctrines of Advaita have been refuted in a systematic way, closely following the criticisms offered by Rāmānuja, in the section of Śrī-Bhāṣya named as Mahāpūrvapakṣa and Mahāsiddhānta included in the Jijnāsādhikaraņa, no attempt seems to have been made until the 19th century by any traditional Advaita scholar to write a rejoinder to the Śatadūsanī. The Advaitasiddhi of Madhusūdana Saraswatī (1540-1647) was however a rejoinder to Vādāvalī of Vyāsatīrtha in which the Advaita theory of mithyātva of jagat is mainly taken up for critical examination. This work was not directed towards Rāmānuja's theories. The polemical literature that developed later in the form of replies and counter-replies by the followers of Madhusudana Saraswati were mainly directed more towards Dvaita Vedānta than to the Viśistādvaita Vedānta. Only in the recent years, Mm. AnantaKrishna Sastriar seems to have been encouraged to write a rejoinder to the Satadūṣaṇī. The book titled 'Śatabhūsanī' is the outcome of this new venture. Soon after its publication, it was controverted by a contemporary Viśistādvaita scholar, Sri. Uttamur Veeraraghavacharya in his book titled 'Paramārtha-bhūsana'. On a dispassionate study of the Satabhūṣaṇī it may be observed that this book does not offer any direct reply to the main points of criticisms leveled against Advaita doctrines either by Rāmānuja or Vedānta Deśika. On the other hand, it is in the form of defending the stand taken by the Advaita Vedanta by merely reiterating the elaborate statements drawn from the Advaita classics in support of it. This matter has been examined in my book "Advaita and Viśistādvaita – A study based on Vedānta Deśika's Śatadūsanī" (III Edition 1999) and it is pointed in the concluding chapter that the defence put up by Sastriar is not a satisfactory reply to Vedānta Deśika's criticisms of Advaita. However in recent year, a traditional Advaita scholar, Sri Rāmāryakavi from Andhra Pradesh has published a book titled 'Śamkarāśamkara Bhāsya Vimaršah (1953) in which an attempt is made to criticize the views of Rāmānuja against the Advaitins stated in the Śrī-Bhāsya. An objective study of this work also reveals that even these criticisms of Rāmāryakavi are of superficial nature and these are more in the form of defending the Advaita position than offering any criticisms against the fundamental theories of the Viśistādvaita Vedānta.

Regarding the criticisms of Vyāsatīrtha in his Tātparya-candrikā, a learned commentary on Jayatirtha's Tattvaprakasa, against the views of Rāmānuja, it is found that these are mostly in the form of critical comments on the interpretation of the sūtras such as the meaning offered by Rāmānuja for the sūtras is not correct, the pūrva-pakṣa formulated by him is inappropriate and the viṣayavākya quoted in support of the sūtra is not relevant. These are all of exegetical nature and do not contain any solid constructive criticisms of the main theories (prameyas) advanced by Rāmānuja. However the criticisms of Vyāsatīrtha are also adequately replied to by a traditional Viśiṣṭādvaita scholar of the 18th century, Surapuram Srinivasacharya in the book titled Tattvamārtaṇḍa which covers the first two adhyāyas of the Brahma-sūtra.

We do not propose to take up the examination of the doctrinal differences that arise due to the different interpretations adopted by Samkara, Rāmānuja and Madhva on the several crucial sūtras and also the concerned Upanisadic texts. This needs an independent study and falls outside the scope of the present book which is confined to the presentation of the Visistadvaita Vedanta as expounded in the Adhikaraņa-sārāvalī. This task has already been accomplished to some extent in my two books: 1) The Philosophy of the Vedānta-sūtra - A study based on the comments of Samkara, Rāmānuja and Madhva and 2) The Philosophy of the Upanisads – A study based on the comments of Śamkara, Rāmānuja and Madhva. On the basis of a dispassionate study of the Vedānta Sūtras and the Upaniṣads, it is shown in these books that the following main tenets of Advaita Vedānta do not find any support either in the sūtras of Bādarāyana or in the Upaniṣads, if the same are correctly interpreted with reference to the contexts and also on the basis of accepted principles of interpretation laid down by the Mīmāmsakas.

- 1) Nirviseșa Brahma-vāda or the theory that Para Brahman is undifferentiated Being devoid of all determinations.
- 2) *Jiva* is essentially non-different from Brahman.
- 3) Jagat is illusory (mithyā).
- 4) Māyā is the cosmic principle of illusion.
- 5) Ātmaikya-jñāna is the direct means to mokṣa.
- 6) Realization of the identity of jīva and Brahman by the total eradication of avidyā is the Supreme Goal.

It is also brought out in these books that the following theories of Madhva are not reflected in the *Brahma-sūtras* and the Upanisads.

- 1) Brahman is only the nimitta-kāraņa of the universe.
- 2) Jiva is absolutely different from Brahman and its relation to Brahman is that of pratibimba to

- bimba in the sense of sādṛśya (similarity between the two) and dependence of jīva on Brahman (tad-adhīna).
- 3) The jagat is also absolutely different from Brahman and the two are not non-distinct (ananya), as stated by Bādarāyaṇa.
- 4) Aparokṣa-jñāna understood as bimba-darśana or direct vision of Brahman is the direct means to mokṣa.

We do not question these theories advanced by Samkara and Madhva. These can be defended, as is done by the followers of these schools, on the basis of certain accepted premises. If we concede to the doctrine of māya or avidyā, as enunciated by the Advaitins, and the conception of two forms of Brahman as saguna and nirguna and also two grades of reality as vyāvahārika and pāramārthika, all the tenets of Advaita could be justified. Similarly if we accept the premises advanced by Dvaita Vedanta, such as the absolute difference between the three ontological entities without any unity (abheda) and also the differences in respect of the intrinsic nature of the jīvas, the tenets of Madhva could also be justified. For the purpose of general evaluation of the teachings of the Adhikaraṇa-sārāvalī, we should be mainly concerned to find out whether these doctrines advanced by Samkara and Madhva, are philosophically sustainable, by taking into consideration the selected adhikaranas bearing on these theories as enunciated in the Adhikarana-sārāvalī.

For this purpose, we shall confine our attention to examine three fundamental ontological theories of Vedānta (prameyas) viz. Brahman, jīvātman and jagat together with the controversial issues connected with them and find out which school of Vedānta offers satisfactory explanations, which can be regarded as philosophically sound. This would help us to determine the merit of the Viśiṣṭādvaita as compared to the Advaita and Dvaita.

The issues to be considered are:

- 1. Brahman whether it is nirviśesa or saviśesa.
- 2. Whether Brahman as the primary cause of the universe is both *upādāna-kāraņa* and *nimitta-kāraṇa*? Or is it only *nimitta-kāraṇa*.
- 3. Jīvātman whether it is essentially non-different from Brahman or different from Brahman and how it is related to it.
- 4. Jagat (universe) whether it is illusory (mithyā) or real (satya) and in what way it is related to Brahman.

We have selected these issues for consideration because these are not only fundamental in Vedānta but the answers provided to them determine the nature of the system either as Advaita (kevala-abhedavāda) or Viśiṣṭādvaita (viśiṣṭa-abhedavāda) or Dvaita (kevala-bheda vāda), the three principal schools of Vedānta and also their relative merit from the philosophical standpoint.

I. Nature of Brahman

Regarding the nature of Brahman, the main issue is whether it is nirviśesa or undifferentiated transcendental Reality devoid of all attributes (gunas) or is it savisesa or the Supreme Being endowed with numerous attributes. According to Samkara, Brahman as the ultimate metaphysical Reality (para tattva) is nirviśesa. The Brahman described in the Upanisads as endowed with attributes is apara-Brahma or lower Brahman associated with māyā. Rāmānuja and Madhva do not admit two concepts of Brahman. It is only one Brahman which is the ultimate Reality, which is the same as the personal God of Religion (sarveśvara). It is designated as Visnu or Nārāyana and is endowed with infinite number of attributes. Samkara seeks to justify his thesis both on the authority of the Upanisads and the Vedānta-sūtras. Both Rāmānuja and Madhva refute the view of Samkara on the same authority of the Upanisads and Vedānta-sūtras.

The theory of two Brahmans, which is a major controversial issue in Vedanta, is fully discussed in the book 'The Philosophy of the Vedānta-sūtra' (vide chapter 4). As pointed out therein, it is not sustainable both according to the Upanisads and the Vedānta-sūtras. The Upanisads no doubt, describe Brahman in two ways. That is Brahman as qualified with negative attributes (nisedharūpa višesaņas) such as adreśya, agrāhya, arūpa, niskriya, nirguņa, niravayava etc. and also with positive attributes such as sarvajñah, satyasamkalpah, satyakāmah etc. This does not mean that Brahman is devoid of all attributes and that we have to admit two forms of Brahman as nirguna and saguna, as stated by Śamkara. As pointed out by Vedanta Deśika, it is possible to reconcile this apparent conflict between the nirguna śrutis and saguna śrutis, by adopting the Mīmāmsā principle of interpretation, according to which the negative statements are to be understood in accordance with the affirmative statements. That is, nirguna śrutis are to be interpreted to mean the denial of qualities other than those mentioned in the saguna śrutis (vihita-vyatirikta gunanisedhah). Accordingly the terms such as nirguna, niravaya etc. imply that Brahman is devoid of heya gunas such as vikāra (change), karma and physical qualities such as sthūlatva, anutva, hṛṣavatva etc. As Vedānta Deśika states in the Adhikarana-sārāvalī, the very concept of Brahman as nirguna is defective because such a Brahman can neither be the object of philosophic investigation (jijnāsā) nor the object of meditation⁵. This point is discussed in detail in a separate vāda in the Śatadūṣaṇī under the title 'Jijñāsa-anupapattivādah'6

The second sūtra which defines Brahman as the cause of the three cosmic functions – sṛṣṭi, sthiti and laya (janmādy asya yataḥ) does not hold good in respect of nirviśeṣa Brahman. Jagat-kāraṇatva is an important dharma of Brahman and what is nirviśeṣa cannot possess the dharma of īkṣaṇa or the function of resolving to create the universe by its samkalpa as stated in the 5th sūtra. The Chāndogya

text mentions explicitly that Brahman 'willed to become many' (tad-aikṣata bahusyāṁ prajāyeyeti). If Brahman is devoid of knowledge (īkṣaṇa) or the function to cause the universe in the primary sense of the term, how can it be distinguished from the non-sentient pradhāna, which according to the Sāṁkhyas is the primary cause of the universe?'

As pointed out in chapters 2 and 3, the adhikaranas of the first three pādas of the first adhyāya bring out several distinguishing characteristics of Brahman.⁸ In fact the main objective of these adhikaranas, according to Vedanta Deśika, is to highlight the gunas of Brahman (sarvesām api adhikaranānām tattat bhagavat guņa prādhānya krtyam).9 If Brahman is nirviśesa, none of these can be ascribed to it. Samkara gets over this objection by postulating two concepts of Brahman - saguna and nirguna. That the Brahman described with attributes is the saguna Brahman or the lower Brahman intended for the purpose of meditation, whereas nirviśesa Brahman which is jñeya or to be directly realized, is devoid of attributes. But neither the Upanisads nor the Vedānta-sūtras acknowledge two Brahmans - para and apara. Besides, the concept of māyā or avidyā on the basis of which such a distinction of para and apara Brahman can be sustained has also no basis either in the Upanisads or in the sūtras.

However, the following four adhikaranas are claimed by the Advaitins to support the theory of nirguna Brahman.

- 1. Adṛśyatvādhikaraṇa based on the Muṇḍaka text in which akṣara denoting Brahman is described as qualified with negative attributes such as adreśyam, agrāhyam, agotram, avarṇam, acakṣuḥ śrotram, nityam, vibhum, sarvagatam, susūkṣmam, avyayam and bhūta-yonim.
- 2. Dyubhvādyadhikaraṇa based on the Muṇḍaka Upaniṣad in which Brahman is regarded as āyatana or support for dyau, pṛthivī, prāṇa, antariksa, manas etc. which are woven in it (otam)

- and that alone is to be known as Atman.11
- 3. Akṣarādhikaraṇa based on the Bṛhadāraṇyaka text in which the same akṣara denoting Brahman is described purely in negative terms such as asthūla, ananu, ahrasva etc.¹²
- 4. Ubhayalingādhikaraṇa which describes Brahman as of two-fold character, along with Prakṛtaitāvattvā-dhikaraṇa (treated as a separate adhikaraṇa by Śamkara), þased on the Bṛhadāraṇyaka text, which negates the mūrta and amūrta forms in respect of Brahman by the words 'neti neti'. 13

An objective study of these adhikaraņas reveals that none of these supports the theory of nirviśeṣa Brahman. The sūtras related to these topics explicitly refer to saviśeṣa Brahman.

In the Adréyatvādiguņakādhikaraņa the main sūtra reads: Adrsyatvādi guņakah dharmokteh.14 It means that the ontological entity denoted by Aksara in the Mundaka Upanisad qualified with attributes such as imperceptibility (adrśyatva), is Brahman since the dharmas mentioned in the Upanisadic passage such as sarvajña and sarvavit exclusively belong to it. According to the Upanisad, the ultimate principle, is to be comprehended by parā vidyā, or higher knowledge (atha parā yayā tadakṣaram adhigamyate) and this statement, prima facie, may lend support to Samkara's claim that it is nirviśesa Brahman, being the subject of parā vidyā. But Bādarāyana does not acknowledge it, since he uses the terms gunakah and dharmokteh in the sūtra, which explicitly convey that aksara is qualified with attributes. It is obvious that according to Bādarāyaṇa, Brahman designated as aksara in the Mundaka Upanisad, is saviśesa and not nirvisesa, as claimed by Samkara.

Similarly in the *Dyubhvādyadhikaraṇa*, *Ātman* which is regarded as *āyatana* or the support for the heaven, earth, sky etc which are woven in it (*dyūbhyādyāyatanam*), cannot be regarded as *nirviśeṣa* Brahman. The word *āyatana* is interpreted by Śamkara as substratum for heaven, earth

etc which are illusory and are therefore superimposed on Brahman (otam) due to avidyā. But, according to Bādarāyaṇa, the heaven, earth etc. are real since they actually exist, being the creation of Brahman and hence an undifferentiated Brahman cannot serve as āyatana or the substratum for that which really exists.

Regarding the Akṣarādhikaraṇa based on the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad in which akṣara is described purely in negative terms such as asthūla, anaṇu etc¹⁵, Brahman denoted by the term akṣara is not nirviśeṣa inspite of its description in negative terms because Bādarāyaṇa in the two sūtras¹⁶ bearing on this subject describes it as the supporter of the entire universe (ambarānta dhṛteḥ) by virtue of its possessing the power to command everything in the universe (praśāsanāt). That which possesses the capacity to command everything in the Universe (praśāsanatva) cannot be nirviśesa.

The Ubhayalingādhikarana and the Prakṛtaitāvattvādhikaraņa are of special significance for Śamkara since these two topics are claimed to support strongly the theory of nirviśesa Brahman. The two main sūtras dealing with this matter are: Na sthānato'pi parasya ubhayalingam¹⁷ and Prakṛtaitāvattvam hi pratiṣedhati tato bravītica bhūyaḥ18. The first sūtra is construed by Śamkara in such a way as to convey the view that Brahman is nrivikalvaka or devoid of all characteristics, because everywhere (sarvatra) in the Upanisads it is described so (samasta viśesa rahitam nirvikalpakameva brahma pratipattavyam)19. The justification for adopting this interpretation is that the two ways of description of Brahman (ubhayalinga) viz. as possessing attributes and as devoid of attributes cannot be reconciled even by means of its association with upādhis or limiting adjuncts (sthānataḥ). If one of the two forms is to be admitted to reconcile the conflicting statements, it is to be taken as nirvisesa or Brahman as devoid of attributes, since all the Upanișads describe it so (sarvatra hi).

As we have pointed out in the chapter 8,20 this is not a satisfactory explanation. Contextually the word 'sthānatah'

used in the sūtra means that though Brahman like jīva, abides in all beings as Antaryāmin, it is untouched by defects found in the bodies, since by nature Brahman is apahata-pāpmā or free from defects (nirdoṣa). As Vedānta Deśika states, Bādarāyaṇa introduces this sūtra in the Sādhanādhyāya for the main purpose of proving that Brahman is free from defects (nirdoṣa) unlike jīvātman, so that it is sought for by aspirants to mokṣa as worthy object of meditation. Another important reason for bringing up this matter is to refute the theory of nirguṇa Brahman, because the concept of Brahman as nirguṇa is defective.²¹ Hence the ubhayaliṅgatva of Brahman, if properly understood, does not support the theory of nirviśeṣa Brahman.

The other sūtra (III-2-22) which is based on the famous mūrtā-murta Brāhmaņa of the Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad, in which two forms of Brahman viz. mūrta and amūrta are negated by the expression 'neti neti', is taken as concrete proof for admission of Brahman as nirviśesa. This matter is fully discussed in the book 'The Philosophy of the Vedānta Sūtra'22 and also in the book 'The Philosophy of the Upanisads'.23 It is conclusively established by Rāmānuja that this explanation of Samkara is far from satisfactory. The sūtra clearly states that what is negated is only the limited nature of Brahman (prakṛtaitāvattvam) and what is stated in the later part of the passage (tato braviti ca bhūyah) asserts that Brahman is satyasya satya which refers to the glorious character of Brahman. Hence, Brahman according to this sūtra, is savišesa or endowed with abundant auspicious gunas.

II. Brahman as the upādāna-kāraņa

The next important issue relating to Brahman is whether Brahman which is the primary cause of the three cosmic functions as defined in the Taittirīya Upaniṣad and the second aphorism of Vedānta, is the upādāna-kāraṇa (material cause) of the universe or is it only the nimitta-kāraṇa

(instrumental cause). According to the Vedānta-sūtra, as interpreted both by Śamkara and Rāmānuja, Brahman is both the upādāna and nimitta kārana. The relevant sūtra reads: Prakrtiśca pratijñādrstānta anuparodhāt.24 The word prakṛti on the basis of the Pāṇini sūtra is understood as material cause (jani kartuḥ prakṛtiḥ).25 The pratijñā and dṛṣṭānta mentioned in the sūtra refer to the Chandogya passage dealing with the causation of the universe where the general statement and the illustration of the lump of clay and the products made out of it to elucidate the general statement, are mentioned. On the basis of this passage, the author of the sūtra states that Brahman is the upādānakārana. The word 'ca' means that it is also the nimitta-kāraṇa. As we have explained in chapter 5, this sūtra is introduced in the context of the refutation of the theory of Seśvara Sāmkhya (Yoga school) which admits that prakrti is the material cause of the universe and Iśvara is the nimittakārana. While refuting this theory, Bādarāyana affirms that Īśvara or Brahman is also the upādāna-kāraņa on the unquestionable authority of the Upanisadic texts. In connection with the causation of the universe, the Taittirīya Upanisad states that Brahman itself becomes the universe (tad-ātmānam svayam akuruta). The Chāndogya passage dealing with the causation of the universe mentions that Sat (Brahman) which alone existed prior to creation willed to become many (tad aikṣata bahuṣyām prajāyeya). In another passage of the Mundaka, Brahman is regarded as the Bhūtayoni which implies that it is the material cause of the universe. Considering all these facts, Bādarāyana regards Brahman as the upādāna-kārana on the analogy of the spider and the web created by it. The sūtras also state: Atmakrteh, parināmāt26. It means that Brahman itself becomes the universe through modification. Both Samkara and Rāmānuja, therefore admit that Brahman is upādāna-kāraņa though they offer different explanations regarding the parināma of Brahman without affecting its svarūpa as nirvikāra.

But Madhva does not admit that Brahman is the *upādāna-kāraṇa*. The *sūtra* which is so specific regarding this matter, is interpreted in a different way. The term *prakṛti* is interpreted to mean Viṣṇu. The justification for adopting this meaning is that all terms occurring in the *sūtras* included in the *Samanvayādhyāya* are to be interpreted in favour of *Viṣṇu*, the Supreme Being. Madhva ignores the Chāndogya passage in which the *pratijñā* and *dṛṣṭānta* are so explicitly mentioned and adopts a different *viṣaya vākya* drawn from another *vedic* text which has a reference to a different general statement and also an illustration of the rivers flowing into the ocean, which has no bearing on the subject of causality of Brahman.

Whatever justification is offered by Madhva and his followers in support of the theory of Brahman as only nimitta-kārana, it does not conform either to the Vedāntasūtra or the Chāndogya Upaniṣadic teaching which emphasizes the causal relationship between Brahman and jagat. The Upanisadic texts dealing with the causation of the universe clearly convey the view that Brahman is the material cause, though the word upādāna is not specifically mentioned in them. According to the definition of Brahman offered in the Taittiriya Upanisad and the Vedānta-sūtra framed on it (janmādy asya yatah), Brahman, as the primary cause of the universe is to be admitted as the material cause on the analogy of the clay and pot made out of it. Otherwise there would be no causal relationship between Brahman and jagat. In the case of the pot brought out of clay, clay is the material cause, whereas the potter, who is instrumental in making the pot, is only the nimitta-kāraņa. The potter cannot be the primary cause of the pot since he needs the clay for the production of the pot. On the same analogy, if *Īśvara* is only the *nimitta-kāraṇa*, He cannot be the primary cause of the universe. It would be the prakrti, since that is the material cause of the universe, according to Madhva's position. Such a view is not acceptable to Badarayana as is evident from the refutation of Sesvara Samkhya theory of

Īśvara as nimittakārana. In order to establish the causal relationship between Brahman and jagat, Bādārayaṇa also refutes the Vaisesika theory of causality, according to which cause and effect are different and affirms that Brahman as a cause and lagat as its kārya are ananya or non-distinct in the sense that the effect is a modified state of the causal substance (avasthāntara) and as such the two are causally related27. Among the causal factors required for the production of a product, greater importance is to be given to the causal substance, since that is the primary cause of the effect (kārya). In the same way Īśvara or Brahman is to be admitted as the upādāna-kārana. This is the important logical justification for ascribing the upādāna-kāranatva to Brahman. Another reason for the admission of Brahman as upādāna kāraņa is that Brahman is also the cause of dissolution of the universe (samhartā). During dissolution, the universe becomes submerged in the causal substance which is *Īśvara*. The Subāla Upaniṣad clearly states that during the process of dissolution, tamas or the unmanifest universe becomes one with paradevatā (tamaḥ pare deva ekī bhavati)28. If Brahman is not the material cause, the universe should dissolve in prakrti which is the material cause and not Brahman. But the Taittiriva states that the universe enters Brahman at the time of its dissolution (yat prayanti abhisamviśanti)29.

Regarding the objection that the admission of material causality would affect the nature of Brahman as nirvikāra, Bādarāyaṇa himself has anticipated it and offered a suitable reply to it in two ways. First he states that we have to accept what is taught in the Śruti since Śruti is final authority in this matter. Since the Scriptural text says that Brahman is the upādāna-kāraṇa, we have to admit it. The relevant sūtra reads: Śrutestu śabdamūlatvāt³0. A more rational explanation is also offered by pointing out that Brahman possesses variegated powers (vicitra śakti)³¹ and it is therefore possible for it to undergo modification without affecting its nirvikāratva. Rāmānuja elucidates this point by stating that

what actually undergoes modification is prakrti, which is its śarīra according to the Antaryāmi Brāhmaņa and that the changes taking place in the śarīra should not affect the Indwelling Self which is its ādhāra. This is logically justifiable in the Viśistādvaita system since it admits substance as different from attribute, though the two, as inseparably related, is one complex entity. The analogy cited by Rāmānuja in support of this is that the self of an individual who passes through the states of boyhood, youth, manhood and old age, is not affected by the changes taking place in the body. The same principle holds good in respect of Brahman which is inherently related to cit and acit at all times. If this explanation is not accepted, it would not be possible to justify the Upanisadic statement which affirms that Brahman itself becomes the manifold universe. It may be possible to resolve this problem by resorting to vivarta vāda, that is, Brahman itself appears illusorily as the universe due to Māyā, but the doctrine of Māyā on the basis of which, vivarta-vāda can be sustained is not found in the vedāntasūtra.

The first pāda of second adhyāya is primarily devoted to examine all possible objections against the theory of Brahman as the upādāna-kāraṇa. The major one is raised by the Vaiśeṣikas to whom cause and effect are absolutely different and hence the causal relationship between Brahman and the universe cannot be admitted. The rest of the objections are raised by the Sāmkhyas against the Vedānta theory of Brahman as upādāna-kāraṇa³². If Brahman were not the upādāna-kāraṇa, as enunciated in the Prakṛtyādhikaraṇa of the previous pāda (I-4), then there would be no need for all these sūtras mentioned in the first pada of Second adhyāya.

It therefore becomes obvious that Bādarāyaṇa admits that Brahman is the *upādāna-kāraṇa*. Further, if it were acceptable to Bādarāyaṇa that Brahman is only *nimitta-kāraṇa*, as Madhva maintains, then there would be no justification for refuting the theory of Seśvara-Sāmkhya and

the school of Pāśupata which only accept *Īśvara* as nimitta-kāraṇa as Madhva does. It therefore follows that according to Bādarāyaṇa, Brahman is both the upādāna-kāraṇa and nimitta-kāraṇa of the universe. In this respect, Madhva's Dvaita Vedānta suffers from a major drawback by refuting Brahmopādānatva. Even the schools of Yādava and Bhāskara coming after Śamkara and prior to Madhva accept Brahmopādānatva, though the explanations offered by them for upādānatva of Brahman is different as in the case of Śamkara.

III. The Theory of Jīvātman

Coming to the theory of jīva, the major issue to be considered is whether jīvātman or the individual self is non-different from Brahman or different from it. According to Śamkara, the jīva is essentially Brahman and it is regarded as many and different from Brahman due to the fact that the same Brahman being conditioned by limiting adjuncts such as bodies and antaḥkaraṇas appear to be different, similar to the one all-pervasive ākāśa, which appears to be many when the same is conditioned by several receptacles. According to another view of Advaita, the jīvas are reflections of the Brahman in the several antaḥkaraṇas, similar to the reflections of the single moon in the waves of the water. According to Rāmānuja and Madhva, jīvātman is a distinct, real ontological entity different from Brahman.

Both the schools attempt to establish their theories on the strength of the Upaniṣads. There are, no doubt, a few statements in the Upaniṣad which prima facie speak of non-difference between jīva and Brahman such as 'tat-tvamasi', 'ayam ātmā brahma', 'aham brahmāsmi'. But there are also a large number of Upaniṣadic statements which affirm that jīva and Brahman are different. The Śvetāśvatara Upaniṣad states: Jña jñau dvau ajau, īsa anīśa which emphasise difference between the two in terms of one as omniscient and the other ignorant, one as Ruler and the other as that which is ruled.

The students of Vedanta are familiar with the arguments advanced by the two schools in support of their theories and there is no need to reiterate them. What we are concerned here is, whether the Vedānta-sūtras support the view of Advaita. As we have pointed out in the chapter 7 dealing with the adhikaranas relating to the doctrine of jīva, Bādarāyaṇa upholds the theory of jiva as different from Brahman. There are several sutras in the first adhyāya and also other adhyāyas which point out that jīva is different from Brahman. The sūtra 'Adhikam tu bhedanirdeśāt'33, is a categorical statement emphasizing that Brahman is different and even higher than jīvātman. If jīva were not really different from Brahman, the attainment of Brahman in a higher realm known as Brahmaloka, the pursuit of the prescribed upāsanā or any other spiritual discipline for this purpose would be of no value. The Vedanta as a mokṣa $\hat{s}\bar{a}stra$ would be futile. The Advaitin no doubt seeks to justify all these theories of Vedanta - the difference between jīva and Paramātmā, the observance of meditation for the attainment of Brahman and the attainment of a higher spiritual goal – on the basis of empirical reality (vyāvahārika satyatva). That is, all that has been taught in the Vedanta has empirical value intended for the practical purposes but from a transcendental standpoint of Ultimate Reality, they are not real. By postulating the concept of māyā, the cosmic principle of illusion, he seeks to justify all these theories of Vedānta including the theory of jagat as mithyā (illusory).

Is the theory of māyā sustainable? According to the critics of Advaita, it is not. This theory is not explicitly mentioned in the Upanisads nor is it supported by the Vedānta-sūtras. As Vedānta Deśika observes, the concept of avidyā as an indeterminable principle (anirvacanīya) is similar to the concept of samvṛti admitted by the Mādhyamika Buddhists as a postulate to explain how one becomes many³⁴. It is not sanctioned by the Upaniṣads, but yet it is admitted in order to uphold the absolute Monism or absolute-oneness of Reality. The plurality is accounted for on the basis of cosmic

ignorance. This is the main reason why Rāmānuja and so also Madhva have vehemently attacked the māyā-vāda as it is against the spirit of Upaniṣadic teachings. It is therefore an undeniable fact that Advaita Vedānta deviates from Bādarāyaṇa in respect of the theory of jīva, as a real ontological entity different from Brahman, whereas Madhva and Rāmānuja conform to the sūtras.

IV. The Relation of Jīva and Universe to Brahman

The Upanisads acknowledge three ontological principles. These are *Iśvara* or Brahman who is the Ruler and controller of all, the jīvātman, which experiences the objects and the universe with which we are surrounded. All the three are important principles to be known in Vedanta. Thus states the Śvetāśvatara: Bhoktā bhogyam preritāram ca matvā. All the schools of Vedanta have to admit them. There may be differences of opinion with regard to their relative ontological status in terms of the grades of reality as paramārthika and vyāvahārika or as higher and lower (paratattva and aparatattva) or as independent and dependent (svatantra and paratantra). The admission of only one principle like Brahman as absolutely real and the other two principles jīva and the jagat, as illusory, is not therefore justified. All the three have to be accepted as real ontological entities in order to formulate an acceptable and sound system of philosophy. With the admission of all the three principles, we are confronted with the question of finding a proper relationship between the three, Brahman, jīva and jagat. The question to be considered is: What is the nature of the relation between Brahman and jiva and also Brahman and jagat? These are the two major ontological problems in Vedānta. The Upaniṣads have provided an answer to these questions. Based on these Upanisadic passages, Bādarāyana has attempted to explain the relationship between the ontological entities. All the three commentators on the Vedānta-sūtra have also offered different explanations on these issues. We have to examine which one is a satisfactory

theory. The merit of a school of Vedānta can be determined on the basis of the philosophical soundness of the theory of relationship between the ontological entities.

Bādarāyana who acknowledges the importance of the relationship between the three ontological entities, discusses this matter in the following adhikaraṇas:

- 1) Vākyānvayādhikaraņa
- 2) Amśādhikarana
- 3) Prakṛtyadhikaraṇa
- 4) Ārambhaņādhikaraņa
- 5) Ahikundalādhikarana

The topics 1 and 2 deal with the relation of jīva to Brahman, whereas topics 3 to 5 deal with the relation of the universe to Brahman. The details of these adhikaraṇas are given in the respective chapters dealing with them. The Vedānta sūtras covered in these adhikaraṇas have a direct bearing on the nature of relationship between the three ontological principles, though these sūtras are interpreted differently by the commentators, more specifically by Madhya.

We shall first consider the relation of jīva to Brahman. The topic Vākyānvayādhikarana³⁵, according to Śamkara and Rāmānuja, deals with this subject. This is obvious from the fact that Bādarāyana, while discussing the import of the term 'Ātman' employed in the passage of Maitreyī Brāhmaṇa, mentions in three sūtras36 the names of three sages, Ásmarathya, Audulomi and Kāsakṛtsna who held different views regarding the relation of Brahman to jīva. The sūtras containing the views of Asmrathya and Audulomi, as interpreted by Samkara and Rāmānuja, convey that the relation of jīva to Brahman is either non-difference (abheda) or difference cum non-difference (bhedābheda). The view expressed by Kāsakrtsna is regarded as the view of Bādarāyana both by Samkara and Rāmānuja. According to this view Brahman abides in jīva (avasthiti) and as such the two being inherently related is regarded as nondifferent.

Madhva offers an altogether different interpretation for these sūtras. These sūtras are taken as part of an adhikaraņa named Samākarṣādhikarṇa and they are concerned with establishing the samanvyaya of the terms used in the Karmakānda (ritualistic portion of the Vedas). It does not appear to be relevant to bring up the subject of karma in the context of discussion of Brahman as the cause of the universe, particularly when the question of how the terms ātman (jīvātman) and Paramātman are employed in the Upanisadic passages of Maitreyī Brāhmana interchangeable terms. If it were karma and its bearing on Brahman, as Madhva contends, it does not appear relevant to discuss the question of the relation of jīvātman to Brahman and refer to the views of three sages regarding this matter. Obviously Madhva avoids the subject of the relation of jīva and Brahman, particularly, the crucial sūtra ascribed to Kāśakrtsna which emphasizes the intimate relationship between jīva and Brahman.

The Amsadhikarana in which jīva is stated to be amsa of Brahman specifically deals with the relation of jīva to Brahman. The relevant sūtra of this adhikarana reads 'Amso nānāvyapadeśāt anyathā ca etc.,37 is introduced by Bādarāyana in connection with the discussion of the nature of jīva as nitya, jñātā, kartā and parāyatta and it is therefore intended to explain its relation to Brahman. From the wording of the sūtra, it is so obvious that there are two conflicting views regarding the relation of jīva to Brahman, as different (nānā) and also non-different (anyathā ca) and that for the purpose of reconciling this apparent conflict, jīva is to be regarded as amsa of Brahman. In interpreting the term amsa or part with reference to Brahman, three different explanations are advanced by the commentators. Samkara who advocates the theory of abheda (tādātmya) between jīva and Brahman, interprets amsa as 'amsa iva' that is, jīva which is essentially Brahman appears as amśa

or part of Brahman in the sense of being different from Brahman due to avidyā, just as the single moon appears as many when reflected in the waves of water. This theory of relation in terms of non-difference (abheda) is not tenable for two reasons. First, it conflicts with the several Upanisadic texts which categorically state jīva is different from Brahman by virtue of the difference in their intrinsic nature. Jīva is ajña (ignorant) while Paramātman is Sarvajña, as the Upanisad states. Paramātman is Īśa, while jīva is one ruled by Him. This is what is implied in the word 'nānāvyapadeśāt' used in the sūtra. It is no doubt true that some Upanisadic texts speak of non-difference between the two. This is implied in the words 'anyathā ca' in the sūtra. It is not appropriate to accord greater validity to the texts speaking non-difference (abheda Śrutis) and less validity to the texts emphasizing difference between jīva and Brahman (bheda Śrutis). Both are to be accepted as equally valid. In order to reconcile the two conflicting views, Bādārayana employs the concept of amsa, which if correctly understood, means an integral part of Viśista Reality, as Rāmānuja correctly interprets. This explanation is in full accord with the sūtra in which it is stated that according to Kāśakṛtsna, Paramātman abides in jīva (Avasthiteh iti Kāśakṛtsnah). Both Śamkara and Rāmānuja acknowledge that this is the view of Bādarāyana. The Antaryāmi Brāhmana also supports it. According to this, Brahman abides in the jīvātman as its Antaryāmin (ya ātmani tisthan). In view of it there is intimate relationship between jīva and Brahman and the two as inherently related is regarded as one.

Madhva offers an altogether different interpretation for this sūtra. The jīva, according to him, is an amśa of Brahman in the sense that it has close resemblance to Brahman in respect of its essential characteristics of knowledge (jñāna) and bliss (ānanda) and that its very existence is sustained by Brahman. It is not a physical part but it is a reflection (pratibimba) in the sense of likeness (tat-sadṛśa) to Brahman and also dependence on it (tad-adhīnatva). Adopting this

meaning for amsa, Madhva interprets nānāvyapadesa to mean that jīva is described in the Scriptural texts in different ways such as father, son, brother, friend etc. The other word 'anyathā' is interpreted to mean that jīva is not the source of sustenance but on the contrary, it is the one which derives its sustenance from Brahman. While there is nothing wrong in offering a different meaning for the sūtra, the explanation offered by Madhva does not appear relevant in the context of explaining the nature of jīva's relation to Brahman by Bādarāyana in terms of amsa for the purpose of reconciling abheda and bheda Śrutis which explicitly state that jīva is different from Brahman and also non-different from it. Besides, this sūtra mentioning jīva as amsa of Brahman, according to the explanation of Madhva, would have no bearing on the sūtra 'avasthiteh iti Kāśakrtsnah' in which the relation of Brahman to jīva is explained by Kāśakrtsna in terms of permanent avasthiti of Paramatman in jīva on the authority of the Antaryāmi Brāhmaņa. The amsa and amsī relationship in the sense explained by Madhva as bimba and pratibimba does not explain in the strict logical sense the intimate relation between jiva and Brahman. The term pratibimba normally denotes a reflection of an object in another media, like the moon in the waves of water or the face in a mirror. Such a concept of pratibimba which is adopted by Samkara affects the eternal character (nityatva) of jīva, which goes against the Upanisadic text and the Vedānta-sūtra affirming that jīvātman is nitya. Sādṛśya or similarity between two objects such as the moon and the face does not denote a relation. The dependence of one on the other (tadadhīna) like the jar on the floor also does not convey an inherent relation because such a relation is separable. The word avasthiti employed by Vedānta-sūtra on the basis of Antaryāmi Brāhmana refers to a permanent and inseparable relationship between jīva and Brahman, as explained by Rāmānuja. The Scriptural texts speak both difference and non-difference between jiva and Brahman in the primary sense as pointed out by Bādarāyaṇa in the

sūtra by using the term 'vyapadeśa'. Śamkara also has to admit it. But Samkara attempts to reconcile the conflict by according lesser validity to the bheda Śrutis and affirms that abheda Śrutis are more valid and as such the jīva and Brahman are identical. Madhva, on the contrary, gives greater importance to the bheda Śrutis and lesser importance to the abheda Śrutis and interprets the abheda suggested in these texts in a figurative sense. Further, Madhva has to acknowledge that the word vyapadeśa used by the sūtrakāra clearly indicates that the difference and non-difference mentioned in the Upanisadic texts are to be taken in their primary sense. The only way of reconciling these two concepts in respect of jīva and Brahman in the primary sense is to regard jīva as amsa of Brahman. The term amsa can be understood in several senses, as pointed out by Vedānta Deśika in the Adhikarana-sārāvalī.38 But none of these including what is stated by Madhva is hardly satisfactory. The only explanation which is philosophically and epistemologically justified is the one offered by Rāmānuja viz., an integral part in the sense of an essential characteristic of a visista dravya or qualified entity (visista vastunah ekadeśatvam). The implication of this explanation is that jīva is an integral part of Brahman since Brahman is inseparably related to jīva, similar to the physical body is inseparably related to its soul. Brahman, according to Viśistadvaita Vedanta, is ajada dravya or spiritual viśista tattva. It is always associated with cit (jīvas) and acit (cosmic matter) both in the state prior to creation and also in the state after creation of the universe by the Samkalpa of Paramātman.39 This is evident from the Upanişadic texts teaching the causation of the universe. In the Chandogya text 'Sadeva saumya idam agra āsīt - ekameva advitīyam', the term sat implies that Brahman is the material cause of the universe, since in the passage it is stated that the same Sat wills to become many. What serves as the material cause, should be a viśista tattva, that is, it is to be associated with cit and acit in its subtle form. Otherwise, it cannot become

many by its will. The Reality as pure Viśesya, as Advaitin conceives, cannot serve as upādāna kārana, unless the cosmic principle of māyā is introduced to explain the evolution of the universe as an illusory manifestation of Brahman (Vivarta). But the doctrine of māyā is not supported by the Upanisad and the Vedānta-sūtras. It is therefore more appropriate and logically justified to accept Brahman as a Visista tattva and account for the causation of universe, as taught in the Upanisads. Hence the relation of jīva to Brahman as explained in the Amśādhikarana by Vedānta Deśika is philosophically more sound than that offered by Śamkara and Madhva. As will be seen presently, the amśaamisī bhāva admitted by Rāmānuja on the basis of the Vedānta-sūtra is the same as the śarīra-śarīrī relation advanced by Rāmānuja in respect of Brahman and universe in the Ahikundalādhikarana. Such a relation accommodates both difference and non-difference between Brahman and the other two ontological entities - jīva and jagat. There is also difference between Brahman and jīva because the two by virtue of their intrinsic nature are of different character. The two are also non-different in the sense that Brahman as inherently related to jīva since it abides in jīva, as declared in the Antaryāmī Brahmana, is one as a viśiṣṭa entity. This kind of relation is also logically justified. A substance as a complex entity having two aspects - substrate and the quality which inheres in it, is one but the substrate and quality by their very nature are different. The essential quality of a substance is inseparably related to it. The mere substrate (viśesya) without quality is inconceivable. Brahman as a qualified spiritual substance (ajada dravya) is one but the qualities and the substrate in which they inhere are different. A pure substance devoid of any qualities is non-existent, like the sky flower according to Vedanta Deśika.40

V. The Causal Relation of Universe to Brahman

Now we come to the examination of the causal relationship

between Brahman and jagat. This subject has received special attention in the Vedānta-sūtras, since the main objective of the first and second adhyaya of Brahma-sūtra is to establish the central thesis of Vedanta viz., Brahman is the sole cause of the universe (jagatkāraņa). Bādarāyaṇa at the outset defines Brahman as that which is the Cause of the creation, sustenance and dissolution of the universe. It is regarded as the material cause (upādāna-kāraṇa) of the universe on the analogy of the lump of clay and the products made out of it, which is cited in the Chandogya Upanisad in connection with the causation of the universe. The Prakrtyadhikarana deals with this subject. This is discussed fully in chapter 5. As we have pointed out earlier, it is important to admit that Brahman is not inerely the nimittakārana of the universe as the Seśvara Sāmkhya (yoga school) and Madhva maintains but it is also the upādāna-kārana of the universe. All possible objections raised against this theory by the Sāmkhyas and in particular the Vaisesikas for whom kārana and kārya are absolutely different, have been fully answered by Bādarāyaṇa in the adhikaraṇas of first pāda of the second adhyāya. The Ārambhanādhikarana is of special significance since it proves that jagat as kārya and Brahman as the causal substance are non-distinct (ananya) in the sense that what is regarded as kārya such as pot is only a modified form of the clay which is the causal substance. These two adhikaranas - Prakṛtyadhikarana and Ārambhaņādhikaraņa establish not only the causal relationship between Brahman and jagat but also that jagat as the effect is non-distinct (ananya) from Brahman. The sūtra on this subject reads: 'Tad-ananyatvam ārambhana śabdādibhyaḥ'41. Thus according to Bādarāyaṇa, though Brahman and jagat as cause and effect are distinct, they are also non-distinct in the sense that it is the same Brahman as associated with cit and acit in their subtle form prior to creation becomes Brahman as associated with cit and acit in their gross form after the creation of the universe by the samkalpa of Brahman. This is the considered view of

Bādarāyaṇa, if the sūtras of Prakṛtyādhikaraṇa and Ārambhaṇadhikaraṇa are interpreted correctly without imposing the accepted doctrines or pre-conceived postulates, as Śamkara and Madhva have done. By introducing the vivarta-vāda or the theory of illusory manifestation of an object due to avidyā, similar to the shell appearing as silver due to ignorance of the shell, Samkara does not offer a satisfactory explanation of the causal relationship between Brahman and the jagat. The vivartavada would be sustainable if the theory of avidyā as conceived by Śamkara is proved. But the doctrine of avidyā has no basis either in the Upanisads or the Vedānta-sūtra. It is also riddled with contradictions when subjected to logical analysis as pointed out both by Rāmānuja and Madhva. Besides, jagat as an illusory manifestation of Brahman would be reduced to the position of an illusory entity. But according to the Upanisads and the Vedānta-sūtra, jagat is a real ontological entity and is different from Brahman, as it has been brought into existence by Brahman.

The Ahikundalādhikarana included in the second pāda of third adhyāya specifically discusses, according to Rāmānuja, the question of relation of the universe to Brahman in terms of viśesana (attribute) and viśesya (substance). That is, jagat which is caused by Brahman is related to it in the same way as an attribute to the substance or the body to the soul (śarīra-śarīrī bhāva). We have presented the details of this adhikarana in the chapter 5 on the universe and Brahman⁴². Bādarāyana introduces three sūtras⁴³ in which he refers to the different views on the nature of the relation of Brahman to the universe in terms of bheda-abheda or difference-cumnon-difference and abheda or non-difference, by citing two illustrations: a) serpent and its coil (ahikundala) and b) the luminous body and its light (prakāśāśraya and prakāśa). According to the first view, the universe is regarded as a special form (samsthāna višeṣa) of Brahman, as coil is of the serpent. The implication of it, as explained by Rāmānuja, is that Brahman is non-different from the universe, just as the coil is non-different from the serpent. This is a prima facie theory. The second view is that there is difference and non-difference between Brahman and the universe, just as the light and its substrate (the luminous body) are both different and also non-different since both are of the same nature. This is also regarded as a prima facie theory. The third view upheld by Bādarāyana is that Brahman is related to the universe in the same way as an attribute is related to its substance or the body to the soul. This is the explanation offered in connection with the relation of jīva to Brahman in terms of amsa and amsī in the Amsādhikaraṇa. That is, the universe is also regarded as an amsa or an integral part of Brahman since it does not have a separate existence apart from Brahman as in the case of the jīva (jīvavat pṛthaksiddhyanarha viśesanatvena acid vastuno brahmāmsam)44. This explanation is logically justified and also supported by the Upanisad. According to the Antaryāmi Brahmana, the universe is the *śarīra* of Brahman in the technical sense viz., that it is necessarily and always supported and controlled by Brahman. This theory accommodates both difference and non-difference from different stand points, difference as śarīra and śarīrī and non-difference as śarirī (Brahman) being integrally related to the *śarīra* (universe and also *jīva*).

The above explanation is justified because Brahman as a Viśiṣṭa Reality (viśiṣṭa tattva) is inherently related to both cit and acit at all times. As a viśiṣṭa tattva it is one (eka) but at the same time it is also different from cit and acit, since the latter are different in nature from the former. Such a kind of relation between Brahman and universe and also Brahman and jīva cannot be admitted either by Śaṁkara or Madhva. For Śaṁkara Brahman is absolutely one Reality devoid of all differences both external and internal with the denial of the real existence of jīvas and jagat. If three ontological real entities are not accepted, the question of the relation of Brahman and jīva or Brahman and jagat in the proper sense does not arise. This teaching is against the Upaniṣad and also the Vedānta-sūtras. Absolute Monism

suffers from this drawback. The term ananyatva employed by Bādarāyaṇa to account for the causal relation of Brahman and jagat is interpreted by Śamkara as non-difference in the sense that Brahman alone exists and the jagat does not really exist. This is not the intention of Bādarāyaṇa. The Chāndogya Upaniṣad equates Brahman with jagat in the statement 'sarvam khalu idam Brahma'. This equation by negating the second principle (jagat) is not philosophically sound. Similarly, the amśa and amśī bhāva mentioned by Bādarāyaṇa in connection with jīva's relation to Brahman cannot be sustained logically unless the reality of the two ontological principles is accepted.

In the case of Madhva, though he admits all the three ontological entities as real, he regards that all the three are absolutely different. He cannot therefore explain a satisfactory relationship between Brahman and jīva as well as Brahman and jagat. As pointed out earlier, the amsa and amsī bhāva as bimba and pratibimba in a technical sense as sādršya and tadadhīnatva does not provide a satisfactory relationship between jīva and Brahman. Similarly, the nondifference between Brahman and jagat taken in a secondary and figurative sense is also not a satisfactory logical relationship. He does not also acknowledge that the Vakyānvayādhikaraņa and Ahikundalādhikaraņa deal with the subject of relationship between jiva and Brahman and jagat and Brahman respectively. Both these adhikaranas are named as Samākarṣādhikaraṇa and Ubhayavyapadeśādhikarana respectively and interpreted in favour of different theories which do not seem to be relevant to the context in which the sūtras are introduced by Bādarāyana.

From the foregoing discussion of three major ontological theories and connected issues regarding Brahman as saviśeṣa or nirviśeṣa, Brahman as upādāna or nimitta-kāraṇa, the relation of jīva to Brahman as bheda or abheda and the status of jagat as satya or mithyā and also the nature of its relation to Brahman, the explanations provided by the Viśistādvaita Vedānta, as stated in the Adhikarana-sārāvalī,

are philosophically sounder than those offered by Advaita Vedānta and the Dvaita Vedānta. Vedānta Dešika is therefore justified in claiming that among the schools of Vedānta, the Viśiṣṭādvaita Vedānta as expounded by Rāmānuja deserves to be regarded as a sound system of philosophy or Darśana. As stated by him in the Tattva-muktākalāpa⁴⁵, the merit of this system lies in respect of following points: 1) It does not question, unlike the Advaita, the validity of what is proved by perception (pratyaksa) as an important pramāņa (drṣṭe apahnatyabhāvāt). 2) It adopts logic or reasoning to a limited extent as supplemental to what is said in Śruti, unlike Naiyāyikas and Madhvas (anumiti viṣaye lāghavasyānurodhāt). 3) In matters which have to be proved only on the authority of the Scriptural texts, it accords equal validity to all the texts, by reconciling the apparent conflicts, as in the case of abheda Śrutis and bheda Śrutis without denial of either texts (sastrenaiva avaseye vihativirahite nāstikatva prahāṇāt). This system of Vedānta which is developed on the basis of an ancient tradition46 is therefore unassailable to the criticisms of other schools of thought and can be regarded as philosophically sound. (akhilatamah karsanam darśanam nah).

^{1.} See AS verses 153, 268,290, 430 and 552

^{2.} The only direct criticism made by Vedānta Deśika against Madhva is regarding the theory of ānanda-tāratamya. He states in the Rahasyatrayasāra that Ānanda Tīrtha (Madhva) overlooked the sāmya śruti or the Upaniṣadic text speaking of equal status of jīva with Brahman in the state of mukti by advocating the theory of the gradation in respect of the experience of ānanda by mukta jīva. See RTS – chapter-22.

^{3.} See Satadūṣaṇī, opening verse.

^{4.} See AS. Verse 307. Also chapter 8 p 205

^{5.} AS verse 153. adau jijñāsatā āstām bahuvihatihatā

^{6.} SD vada 2

AS verse 153. nirviśeşaikya pakşe mukhyaikşādyaih svadharmaiḥ prakrti-purusato bheda vādah katham syāt

^{8.} See AS verses 78, 129. See also chapter 2 pp.58-59. and chapter 3, pp.60-61

^{9.} See Padayojana on verse 78

- 10. See chapter 3 section V
- 11. Ibid section VII
- 12. Ibid section IX
- 13. See chapter 8, section 1
- 14. VS 1-2-22
- 15. See chapter 3 section IX
- 16. V.S I-3-9 akṣaramambarāntadhṛteḥ. V.S I-3-10 sā ca praśāsanāt
- 17. VS III-2-11
- 18. III-2-22 acc. to SB
- 19. See SB III-2-11
- 20. See chapter 8 section 1
- 21. See AS. Verse 290
- 22. See Philosopy of Vedantasūtra: Chapter 4, pp 60-64
- 23. See Philosopy of the Upanisads: pp.11-12
- VS I-4-23 acc. to RB and I-4-24 acc. to SB. See also chapter 5, section 1
- 25. Pāṇini Mahābhāṣya I-4-30
- 26. VS I-4-26 and 27
- 27. See Ārambhaṇādhikaraṇa in chapter 5 section 2
- 28. See Subala. Up.II-1
- 29. Tait. Up. III-1.
- 30. VS II-1-27.
- 31. VS II-1-28
- 32. See chapter 5 section IV
- 33. VS II-I-22
- 34. See AS verse 198. See also chapter 6 pp. See also FVV p.390.
- 35. VS 1-4-19. See also chapter 4 section VI.
- 36. VS 1-4-20 pratijñā siddheh lingam āsmarathyah VS 1-4-21 utkramişyata evam bhāvāt iti audulomih VS 1-4-22 avastriteh iti kāsakrtsnah
- 37. VS II-3-42. See also chapter 7 section V
- 38. See verses 245 –249. See also chapter 7 section V
- 39. RB II-3-18 atah sarvadā cid-acid-vastu-sarīratayā tatprakāram bramha
- 40. See Satadūsanī vāda 33. Tasyāh sarvamāna anāghratatvena khapuspamāņatvāt. See also RB. I-1-1 p. 114-115
- 41. VS II-1-15. See also chapter 5 section II.
- 42. See chapter 5, section III.
- 43. VS III-2-26 and III-2-27, III-2-28
- 44. See R.B. III-2-28
- 45. See TMK verse 496. Dṛṣṭe apahnatyabhāvāt anumiti viṣaye lāghavasyānurodhāt Sāstreṇaivāvaseye vihativirahite nāstikatva prahāṇāt; Nathopajñam pravṛttam bahubhir upacitam yāmuneya prabandhaiḥ
- 46. See Vedārthasamgraha p.100 sista-parigrhīta-purātana veda vedānta vyākhyāna. See also introduction pp. xx.

Trātam samyag-yatīndraih idam akhilatamah karsanam darsanam nah;

APPENDIX-I

THE NAMES OF ADHIKARANAS

with brief description of the subjects covered in them in the order presented in the Adhikaraṇa-sārāvalī.

Adhyāya 1- Samanvayādhyāya or the chapter devoted to establish the correlation of the various texts of the Upaniṣads with Brahman as the primary cause of the universe (jagatkāraṇa).

Pāda 1

1. Jijñāsādhikaraņa (VS. I-1-1)

It justifies the need and importance of philosophic enquiry into the nature of Brahman by a spiritual aspirant after he has completed the stdy of pūrva-mīmāmsā, which deals with the ritualistic portion of the Vedas and realized the impermanent value of the fruits achieved by the Vedic rituals and the eternal value of the Supreme Goal to be attained by the study of Vedānta.

2. Janmādyadhikaraņa (VS I-1-2)

It discusses the soundness of the definition of Brahman offered by the Upanisads as the oprimary cause of the creation, sustenance and dissolution of the universe.

3. Śāstrayonitvādhikaraņa (VS I-1-3)

It establishes that śāstra or the sacred texts is the only pramāņa for knowing Brahman.

4. Samanvayādhikaraņa (VS I-1-4)

It establishes that all the Upanişadic texts are purportful since they teach about Brahman as the Supreme Goal of attainment.

5. Īkṣatyadhikaraṇa (VS I-1-5 to VS. I-1-12)

It is devoted to prove that the term sat referred to in the Chāndogya Upanisad as the cause of the universe is not the pradhāna or the primordial cosmic matter admitted by the Sāmkhya, but it is the Brahman, since the function of "resolving to create" the universe cannot be ascribed to the non-sentient cosmic matter.

6. Ānandamayādhikaraņa (VS I-1-13 to VS I-1-20)

It discusses the issue whether the description of Atman as anandamaya in the Taittrīya Upaniṣad (II-5) is fīvātman or Paramātman and affirms that it is Brahman, since it is essentially constituted of bliss par excellence.

7. Antarādhikaraņa (VS I-1-21 to VS I-1-22)

It establishes that the *purusa* which resides in the orbit of the sun and also in the eye as described in the two passages in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad (I-1-6 and I-7-5) in terms of physical body with golden colors and eyes similar to the lotus flower is not the exalted *fīvātman*, but the *Paramātman*, who is endowed with lustrous spiritual body not caused by *karma*.

8. Ākāśādhikaraņa (VS 1-1-23)

It discusses that the concept of ākāśa referred to in the Chāndogya passage (I-9-1) does not denote the ethereal space but Brahman.

9. Prāṇādhikaraṇa (VS I-1-24)

It explains that the term *prāṇa* employed in the Chāndogya passage (I-11-5) is not the vital breath but Brahman.

10. Jyotiradhikarana (VS I-1-25)

It explains that the terms Jyotis mentioned in the Chāndogya passage (III-13-7) does not refer to the physical light radiated by the sun and other luminaries but Brahman which is the Supreme Spiritual Light, three quarters of which cover the immortal higher domain.

11. Indra-prāṇādhikaraṇa (VS I-1-29 to I-1-32)

It establishes that the concept of *Indra-Prāṇa* mentioned in the passage of Kauṣītakī Upaniṣad as the object of meditation does not refer to the *Jīvātman* of Indra but Brahman as the *antarātmā* of Indra because the word *prāṇa* referred to here is correlated with the terms such as *ānanda*, *ajara* and *amṛta* stated in the later part of the passage.

Pāda 2

12. Sarvatra-prasiddhyadhikarana (VS I-2-1 to I-2-8)

It discusses the implication of the statement of the Chāndogya passage "All this is Brahman" and the meditation enjoined on it as tajjalān etc. and brings out the important characteristic of Brahman as the Self of everything in the universe (sarvātmā).

13. Attrādhikarana (VS I-2-9 to I-2-12)

It discusses the implication of the description of the ontological principle as the devourer (attā) of the entire universe in the Kaṭha Upaniṣad and brings out the characteristic of Brahman as Samhartā or the cause of the dissolution of the universe.

14. Antarādhikaraņa (VS I-2-13 to I-2-18)

It discusses the implication of the Chāndogya passage in which puruṣa is stated to be abiding in the eye and affirms that this akṣipuruṣa is the very Brahman because it is described as ātmā, amṛta and abhaya and also as characterized by infinite joy.

15. Antaryāmy-adhikaraņa (VS I-2-19 to I-2-21)

It discusses the significance of the Antaryāmī Brāhmaṇa which narrates how a higher principle abides in all entities in the universe and affirms that it is Paramātman (Brahman) who indwells in all beings including jīvātmā and controls them from within.

16. Adrśyatvādi-gunkādhikarana (VS I-2-22 to I-2-24)

It discusses the issue whether the metaphysical principal termed as akṣara which is described by the Muṇḍaka Upaniṣad as adreśya, agrāhya etc. refers to Brahman or prakṛti and establishes that akṣara qualified by negative attributes is Brahman since in the same passage it is stated as sarvajña and sarvavit.

17. Vaiśvānarādhikaraņa (VS I-2-25 to VS I-2-33)

It discusses the issue whether vaiśvānara ātmā referred to in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad on which meditation is prescribed is Brahman or fīvātman or some other entity and affirms that it is Brahman because of the mention of certain essential characteristics such as its cosmic form.

Pāda 3

18. Dyubhvādy-adhikaraņa (VS I-3-1 to I-3-6)

It discusses the issue whether that which is described in the statement of the Mundaka Upanisad as ayatana or the

support of the heaven, earth, sky etc. which are woven in it, is *jīvātman* or *Paramātman* and establishes that it is Brahman, since the concerned passage *employs* the term *Ātman* which is regarded as *setu* or that which enables the person to attain immortality (*amṛta*).

19. Bhūmādhikarana (VS I-3-7 to I-3-8)

It discusses the question whether the term Bhuma mentioned in the Chandogya Upanisad (VII-15-1) on which meditation is enjoined is $\int \bar{t}v \bar{a}tman$ or Brahman and establishes that it refers to Brahman since it is regarded as satya which is greater than $pr\bar{a}na$ ($\int \bar{t}v \bar{a}tman$) and also described as infinitely blissful ($nirat\bar{s}saya$ -sukha- $r\bar{u}pa$).

20. Akşarādhikaraņa (VS I-3-9 to I-3-11)

It discusses the issue whether the metaphysical principle akṣara described in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad in negative terms such as asthūla, anaṇu etc. is Brahman or other ontological entities such as pradhāna and jīvātman and concludes that it is Brahman since it is stated in the Upaniṣad that it is the supporter of the entire universe through its commanding power (praśāsana).

21. Ikaşatikarmādhikaraņa (VS I-3-12)

It discusses the issue whether the Paramapurusa referred to in the Prasna Upanisad as the object of meditation through the media of syllable 'Aum' with all the three letters and who is also the object of realization ($\bar{I}ksana$), is Brahman or Hiranyagarbha and concludes that it is Brahman which is the object of enjoyment for the liberated soul.

22. Daharādhikarana (VS I-3-13 to I-3.22)

It discusses the question whether the concept of daharākāśa or the subtle space within one's heart mentioned in the Chāndogya passage as the object of meditation along with

certain attributes refers to Brahman or some other entity such as bhūtākāśa (ethereal space) or jīvātman and comes to the conclusion that it is Brahman since the daharākāśa is described as the supporter of the entire universe and that is it also free from all defilements (apahata pāpmā).

23. Pramitādhikaraņa (VS I-3-23-24)

It discusses wheth the purusa abiding in one's heart which is limited to the size of a thumb of a human being (angusthamātrapurusa) as mentioned in the Katha Upaniṣad (II-4-12) refers to Brahman or Jīvātman and affirms that it denotes Brahman since it is described as the Ruler of the past and future.

24. Devatādhikarana (VS I-3-25 to I-3-29)

It points out after discussing the view of Jaimini, that even devatās are eligible for meditation since they too have the knowledge of Brahman and possess the body and the sense organs.

25. Madhvādhikaraņa (VS I-3-30 to I-3-32)

It discusses the question whether the special deities such as vasus etc. referred to in the Chāndogya passage (III-1 to 11) dealing with $Madhuvidy\bar{a}$ are eligible for meditation and affirms that they too meditate on Brahman as their $Antary\bar{a}min$.

26. Apaśūdrādhikaraņa (VS I-3-33 to I-3-41)

It discusses the implication of the statement made in the passage of Chāndogya containing a dialogue between sage Raikva and Jānaśruti, a kṣatriya who lacks Brahman knowledge and who is addressed as śūdra and states in this connection that śūdras are not eligible for Brahm-vidyā since they are prohibited by Śruti from studying Vedas.

27. Arthantaratvadhikarana (VS I-3-42 to I-3-44)

It discusses the question whether ākāśa described in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad as nāma-rūpakartā or that which performs the function of giving names and form to the created objects is muktātmā or Paramātmā and affirms that it denotes Brahman since it is stated in the Upaniṣad that Brahman alons with the jīva enters into the created entities and assigns names and form to them.

Pāda 4

28. Ānumānikādhikaraņa (VS I-4-1 to I-4-7)

It discusses the claim of the Samkhyas that *prakrti* termed as *avyakta* in the Katha Upanisad (I-3-11) is the cause of the universe and rejects it as untenable since the term *avyakta* contextually denotes the physical body.

29. Camasādhikaraņa (VS I-4-8 to I-4-10)

It points out that the term 'Ajā' employed in Śvetāśvatara Upaniṣad which is construed in favour of Sāmkhya theory of prakṛti as the cause of the universe does not support their claim since it is a general term without any specification, like camasa. a vessel used in the yāga.

30. Samkhyopasangrahādhikarana (VS I-4-11 t I-4-13)

It points out that the terms pañca-pañca janāḥ employed in the Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad (VI-4-17) do not imply the twenty five categories of Sāmkhya theory of prakṛti and its evolutes.

31. Kāraņatvādhikaraņa (VS I-4-14 and I-4-15)

It explains that the terms avyakta and asat used in the Brhadāraņyaka and Taittirīya Upaniṣad respectively do not refer to the prakṛti of the Sāmkhyas but Brahman as qualified with the unmanifest universe in the state of dissolution.

32. Jagadvācitāvādhikaraņa (VS I-4-16 to I-4-18)

It discusses the implication of the terms puruṣa and its karma mentioned in the Kauṣītakī Upaniṣad (IV-18) and clarifies that karma denotes the jagat which is created by Brahman (Kriyata iti karma).

33. Vākyānvayādhikaraņa (VS I-4-19 to I-4-22)

It discusses the question whether the term 'Atman' referred in the passage of Maitreyī Brāhmaṇa (Br. Up IV-4-6) discusses jīvātman or Paramātman (Brahman) and establishes that it is Paramātman who alone is to be meditated upon for attaining immortality.

34. Prakṛtyadhikaraṇa (VS I-4-23 to I-4-28)

It examines critically the theory of Seśvara Sāmkhya (Yoga) that Īśvara is only the *nimitta kāraṇa* of the universe and establishes conclusively that Brahman is also the *upādāna kāraṇa* of the universe through the process of *pariṇāma* without affecting its *svarūpa* as *nirvikāra*.

35. Sarvavyākhyānādhikarana (VS I-4-29)

It attempts to show that the Upanisadic statements which prima facie speak of the higher celestial deities such as Hiranyagarbha, Siva, Rudra, Indra etc. as the cause of the universe are not opposed to the central theory of Vedānta viz. that Brahman as the Supreme Deity is the cause of the universe, if these texts are properly interpreted with due consideration to the context in which they are made and the principles of interpretation adopted in respect of the other passages.

Adhyāya II- Avirodhādhyāya or the chapter devoted to prove the soundness of the Vedānta doctrine of Brahman as the sole cause of the universe.

Pāda 1: Smṛti pāda dealing with the objections of Sāmkhya and other Schools.

36. Smṛtyadhikaraṇa (VS II-1-1 and 2)

The Kapila Smṛti cannot be accepted as the authoritative source for determining the Vedānta doctrine of Brahman as the cause of the universe.

37. Yogapratyukty-adhikarana (VS II-1-3)

The Yoga Smṛti is also unauthoritative for determining the purport of the Upaniṣadic texts dealing with the causation of the universe.

38. Vilaksanatvādhikarana (VS II-1-4 and 5)

In reply to the objection of the Sāmkhyas that there cannot be any causal relationship between Brahman and the universe, since the two are of different nature, it points out that the causal substance and effect brought out of it need not be of the same nature.

39. Śiṣṭaparigrahādhikaraṇa (VS II-1-13)

The other schools of thought such as the Naiyāyikas, Jainas, Buddhists who subscribe to the theory of paramānus as the cause of the universe stand refuted since they are also opposed to the Upaniṣads and also suffer from logical inconsistency.

40. Bhoktṛāpatty-adhikaraṇa (VS II-1-14)

It attempts to prove that Brahman is not subject to the experience of pleasure and pain even though it is associated with the universe as its body.

41. Ārambhaṇādhikaraṇa (VS II-1-15 to II-1-20)

By way of refuting the theory of Vaiseṣikas who maintain that cause and effect are absolutely different, it establishes the causal relationship between Brahman as cause and jagat as its effect on the ground that the two are non-distinct (ananya) in the sense that the effect is only a modified form of the causal sustance.

42. Itaravyapadeśādhikaraņa (VS II-I-21 to II-1-23)

It refutes the objection of the Sāmkhyas that Brahman being non-different from jīvas, the universe created by it is undersirable to it, since such a uviverse is full of suffering.

43. Upasamhārādhikaraņa (VS II-1-24 and 25)

It attempts to show that Brahman is not in need of any accessory for creation of the universe.

44. Kṛtsnaprasakty-adhikaraṇa (VS II-1-26 to II-1-31)

It attempts to meet the objection that Brahman as the material cause of the universe would be subjected to total transformation into the universe, or alternatively if a part of Brahman undergoes modification, it would violate the Scriptural text speaking of Brahman as niravayava or devoid of parts on the basis of the explanation that Brahman possesses vicitra śakti or extraordinary power to create the universe without affecting its svarūpa.

45. Prayojanatvādhikarana (VS II-1-32 to II-1-34)

The objection that there is no useful purpose served by the creation of the universe which is filled with suffering is answered by explaining that the creation of the universe is a mere sport to the *Īśvara* (Brahman) and the creator is also not subject to cruelty or partiality since the individuals are created in a accordance with their *karma*.

Pada 2: Tarkapāda dealing with the logical untenability of the theories of other schools of thought regarding cosmic creation.

46. Racanānupapatty-adhikaraņa (VS II-2-1 to II-2-9)

It is devoted to prove the untenability of the Samkhya theory of *prakṛti* as the cause of the universe without the control of a sentient being.

47. Mahad-dhīrghādhikaraņa (VS II-2-10 to 16)

It examines the theory of the Vaisesikas who trace the origin of the universe to the paramāņus and proves its untenability.

48. Samudāyādhikaraņa (VS II-2-17 to II-2-26)

It is devoted to the refutation of the theories of Vaibhāṣikas and Sautrāntika Buddhists who also trace the origin of the universe to the paramāṇus and to prove their unsoundness.

49. Upalabdhy-adhikarana (VS II-2-27 to 29)

It examines critically the views of the Yogācāra school of Buddhism, which does not accept the existence of external objects other than vijāna or mental series, and proves their logical inconsistency.

50. Sarvathānupapatty-adhikaraņa (VS II-2-30)

It critically examines the theory of śūnyavāda of the Mādhyamika Buddhists, according to whom tattva or what is considered to be a real entity is absolutely indeterminable, and rejects it on the ground that it is riddled with self-contradiction.

51. Asambhavādhikarana (VS II-2-31 to II-2-34)

It is mainly devoted to prove the untenablility of the Jaina theory of saptabhangi or seven fold formula and also the

philosophical untenability of other doctrines advanced by the Jainas.

52. Pāśupatādhikaraņa (VS II-3-35 to II-2-38)

It is devoted to the refutation of the school of Pāśupatas on the ground that their philosophical theories are unsound and their religious practices are also opposed to the Vedic teachings.

53. Utpatty-asambhavādhikaraņa (VS II-2-39 to II-2-42)

It is mainly devoted to defend the validity of the system of $p\bar{a}\bar{n}car\bar{a}tra$ by setting aside a few criticisms against its teachings and in particular the origin of $f\bar{v}va$.

Pada 3: Viyat pāda dealing with ontological status of the cosmological entities and jīvātman.

54. Viyadadhikarana (VS II-3-1 to II-3-9)

It discusses the question whether or not viyat or ether has an origin (utpatti) and affirms that it is an evolute of prakrti and so also vāyu etc. since they are brought into existence by Brahman.

55. Tejodhikaraņa (VS II-3-10 to II-3-13)

It discusses the process of evolution of each evolute in a particular order and clarifies that an evolute by itself does not cause the subsequent evolute but on the other hand, Brahman as inherent in an evolute that causes the next one.

56. Ātmādhikaraņa (VS II-3-18)

It establishes that $\bar{n}v\bar{a}tman$ is not subject to origin unlike *viyat* but it is eternal, as declared by the Upanişadic texts.

57. Jñānādhikaraņa (VS II-3-19 to II-3-32)

It establishes that $j\bar{\imath}v\bar{a}tman$ is not merely of the nature of knowledge $(J\bar{n}\bar{a}na\text{-}svar\bar{u}pa)$ but more importantly it is the knowing subject $(j\bar{n}\bar{a}t\bar{r})$. It is also anu or monadic in character and not vibhu or all-pervasive.

58. Kartradhikarana (VS II-3-33 to II-3-39)

It establishes that jīvātman is the agent of action and refutes the theory that kartṛtva belonging to buddhi is superimposed on it.

59. Parāyāttādhikaraņa (VS II-23-40 to 41)

It states that though the kartrtva of jva is caused by Paramatman, jva as karta has some freedom to act on its own in respect of the initial action in accordance with the influence of the past karma.

60. Amśādhikarana (VS II-3-42 to II-3-52)

It discusses the relation of jīvātman to Brahman in terms of difference (bheda) and non-difference (abheda) and explains it as amsa of Brahman in the sense that it is an integral part of Brahman.

Pada 4: Prāṇapāda dealing with the nature of Indriyas and prāṇa

61. Prāņotpatty-adhikaraņa (VS II-4-1 to II-4-3)

It points out that *prāṇa* or vital breath has an origin similar to *viyat* and it is not eternal.

62. Saptagaty-ādhikarana (VS II-4-4 and 5)

It rejects the view that *indriyas* are seven only and proves that it is eleven including the mind.

63. Prāṇāṇutvādhikaraṇa (VS II-4-6 and 7)

It points out that *indriyas* are anu or subtle organs since the Upanisad speaks of its movement along with $\bar{p}va$ during its exit from the body.

64. Vāyukriyādhikaraņa (VS II-4-8 to II-4-11)

It discusses the nature of the *mukhya prāṇa* or vital breath and points out that it is neither the mere elemental *vāyu* but it is a separate entity.

65. Śrestanutvadhikarana (VS II-4-12)

It points out that mukhya-prāṇa is also aṇu or monadic in nature since it is stated in the Upaniṣad that it also moves along with the jīva when it exits from the body after death.

66. Jyotirady-adhisthānādhikaraņa (VS II-4-13 and 14)

It points out that the function of all *indriyas* and also *prāna* is regulated by *jīvātman* which is the controller of them (*adhiṣthātṛ*) and that this power of the *jīva* is bestowed by *Paramātman*.

67. Indriyādhikaraņa (VS II-4-15 to 16)

It clarifies that *prāṇa* or vital breath is not an *indriya* or sense organ as in the case of ten sense organs and the mind since the Upaniṣad mentions clearly that it is distinct from the eleven sense organs.

68. Samjñāmūrtiklṛpty-adhikaraṇa (VS II-4-17 to 19)

It discusses the question whether the assignment of names and forms to the objects created by Brahma is done by Brahman or Hiranyagarbha and proves that this function is done by Brahman which causes the evolution of *prakṛti* upto five gross elements and then admixes them in certain proportion (*pancīkaraṇa*) to constitute the variegated universe with names and forms.

Adhyaya III- Sādhanādhyāya or the chapter dealing with the means of attainment of Brahman

Pada 1

69. Tadantarapratipatty-adhikaraṇa (VS III-1-1 to III-1-7)

It discusses the question whether or not the jīva when it exits from the body after death, moves to the higher realm along with the subtle body (bhūtasūkṣma) and concludes on the basis of the details of pañcāgni-vidyā provided in the hāndogya Upaniṣad (V-3-3) that is moves into the realms of he moon with the subtle body to experience the fruits of good deeds.

70. Kṛtātyayādhikarana (VS III-1-8 to III-1-11)

It is devoted to clarify that *jīvas* which have gone to the realms of the moon return to the earth with residual *karma* to be yet experienced in the next life.

71. Anișțādikāryādhikaraņa (VS III-1-1-12 to VS III-1-21)

It discusses the question whether even the souls of the individuals who have not performed meritorious deeds would go to the realm of the moon and answers that only those individuals who have performed meritorious deeds (iṣṭādhikārī) go to the candraloka to reap the benefits of the deeds.

72. Tatsvābhāvyāpatty-adhikaraņa (VS III-1-22)

It clarifies a minor point that the soul, when it descends from the realm of the moon to the earth through the $\bar{a}k\bar{a}\hat{s}a$, in the sense that it assumes similarity to $\bar{a}k\bar{a}\hat{s}a$.

73. Nāticirādhikaraņa (VS III-1-23)

This is also devoted to clarify a minor point relating to the

duration of the stay of $j\bar{v}a$ in $\bar{a}k\bar{a}sa$ and it states that it does not stay there too long.

74. Anyādhiṣṭitādhikaraṇa (VS III-1-24 to III-1-27)

It is devoted to explain the manner in which the $\bar{\mu}va$ remains in the food grain before it enters into the human body in the form of *retas* (Semen).

Pāda 2: Ubhayalinga pāda dealing with the twofold character of Brahman to create a craving for its attainment.

75. Sandhyādhikaraņa (VS III-2-1 to III-2-6)

It discusses the question whether the objects experienced by the $\bar{n}va$ during the state of dream (sandhyā) is created by $\bar{n}va$ or Paramātman and explains that these are the wondrous creations of Paramātman to be experienced by the $\bar{n}vas$.

76. Tadabhāvadhikarana (VS III-2-7 to III-2-8)

It discusses the question relating to the resting place for jīva during the state of suṣupti or the dreamless state and points out that all the three places mentioned in the Upaniṣads viz.—hitā nāḍi, punītat nāḍi and Brahman abiding in the heart-together serve as the resting place for jīva when it becomes united temporarily with Paramātman.

77. Karmānusmṛty-adhikaraṇa (VS III-2-9)

This is devoted to clarify that the same jīva which experienced the suṣupti comes back to its normal state.

78. Mugdhādhikaraņa (VS III-2-10)

It describes the state of swoon which is sometime experienced by the jīva and it is described as ardha-samapatti or the state of half death in which jīva is neither alive nor dead.

79. Ubhayalingādhikarana (VS III-2-11 to III-2-25)

It is devoted to establish that Brahman though it abides in the jīvas and other entities as Antaryāmin, it is not affected by the defects found in the bodies of the jīvas, since by nature it is free from all defilements and is also endowed with numeraous auspicous attributes, as is evident from the Scriptural and Smṛti texts. It also discusses the implication of the Scriptural statement negating two forms of Brahman as mūrta and amūrta by the expression 'neti neti' and states that Brahman is not devoid of attributes but on the contrary, it is endowed with attributes.

80. Ahikundalādhikarana (VS III-2-26 to III-2-29)

It discusses the nature of the relation of the non-sentient universe to Brahman and explains that the universe caused by Brahman is related to it in the same way as an attribute to the substance or the body to the soul (śarīra-śarīrī-bhāva) similar to the relation of the jīva and Brahman as amśa and amsī.

81. Parādhikaraņa (VS III-2-30 to III-2-36)

It discusses the question whethe there is any Reality higher than Brahman and affirms that Brahman is the highest Reality.

82. Phalādhikaraņa (VS III-2-37 to III-2-40)

It discusses the question whether karma or deeds performed by an individual confers the desired fruits throught the unseen potency (apūrva) generated by it and comes to the conclustion that only Paramātman bestows all the desired fruits including moksa.

Pāda 3: Guṇopasaṁhāra pāda or the part dealing with the different vidyās or types of meditation on Brahman and the guṇas with which it is to be contemplated

83. Sarva-vedānta pratyayādhikaraņa (VS III-3-1 to III-23-5)

It discusses the question whether the vidyās such as dahara-vidyā and vaiśvānara-vidyā taught in different Upaniṣads is the same or different and establishes that they are the same since there is no difference in the codana or the words enjoining it, the designation adopted for them, the nature of the goal to be attained and the description of the object of meditation.

84. Anyathātvādhikaraņa (VS III-3-6 to III-3-9)

It clarifies that *udgītha vidyā* taught in the Chāndogya and Bṛhadāraṇyaka are different since the object and purpose of meditation on *udgītha* are different.

85. Sarva-abhedādhikarana (VS III-3-10)

The prāṇa-vidyā enjoined for meditation in Chāndogya, Bṛhadāraṇyaka and Kauṣītakī Upaniṣad is the same vidyā since the guṇas with which it is to be meditated do not differ.

86. Ānandādyadhikaraņa (VS III-3-11 to III-3-17)

With regard to the question relating to the guṇas with which Brahman is to be meditated upon, it is pointed out that the distinguishing guṇas of Brahman such as ānanda, satya, jñāna, ananta are to be necessarily contemplated along with Brahman in respect of all vidyās, since these are inseparable from Brahman and also useful to know its essential nature (svarūpa-nirūpaka dharmas)

87. Kāryākhyānādhikaraņa (VS III-3-18)

It discusses the issue whether or not the performance of the ācamana or sipping of water three times prior to and after taking a meal is an unjuction laid down as part of the prāṇavidyā mentioned in the Chāndogya and Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad and clarifies that it is not a vidhi but nevertheless the water taken as ācamana is to be contemplated as a garment (vastra) for prāṇa.

88. Samānādhikaraņa (VS III-3-19)

It clarifies that the $\dot{Sandilya}$ -vidy \bar{a} mentioned in the Agnirahasya and also in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad though appears to be different $vidy\bar{a}s$ in terms of the description of the gunas with which Brahman is to be meditated upon are the same.

89. Sambandhādhikaraņa (VS III-3-20 to III-3-22)

It clarifies that the $up\bar{a}san\bar{a}$ on Satya-brahma as abiding in the orbit of the sun and the same kind of meditation on Satyabrahma as abiding in the right eye are to be treated as two separate kinds of $up\bar{a}san\bar{a}$ and hence the gunas mentioned in one Upaniṣad for contemplation are not to be include in the second meditation.

90. Sambhratyādhikarana (VS III-3-23)

It clarifies that the special guṇas such as jyeṣṭhatva, vīryatva and dyulokavyāptatva with which Brahman is to be meditated upon as stated in the Taittirīya Śākhā and Chāndogya are not to be included in respect of all other upāsanās.

91. Puruṣavidyādhikaraṇa (VS. III-3-24)

It points out that the *puruṣa-vidyā* mentioned in the Taittrīya and also in the Chāndogya are different because there is difference in respect of certain details of the *vidyās*.

92. Vedyādy-adhikaraņa (VS III-3-25)

The recitation of certain hymns in the form of prayer at the commencement of the *upāsanā* is not considered as a necessary *anga* or subsidiary part of the *upāsanā*.

93. Hānyadhikaraņa (VS III-3-26)

It deals with the question whether the Brahma-jñānī at the time of his death should contemplate only on hāna or getting rid of his duṣkrta and sukṛta and also upāyana or its transfer to his friends and enemies, both of which are mentioned sparately in some of the Upaniṣads and clarifies that both are to be contemplated since hāna also includes upāyana.

94. Sāmparāyādhikaraņa (VS III-3-27 to III-3-31)

It discusses the question whether the Brahma-jñānī gets rid of all his sukṛta and duṣkṛta at the time of his exit from the body prior to the movement through arcirādi path or some are to be got rid off after reaching the border of the higher abode (paramapada) and clarifies that both the sukṛta and duṣkṛta are thrown off at the time of exit since there is no scope to experience the fruits of the good deeds after the exit of the jīva from the body.

95. Aniyamādhikaraņa (VS III-3-32)

It clarifies that the movement of the Brahma-vit through the arcirādi-mārga is not restricted to upāsakas of some specified vidyās but it is also applicable to all who observe Brahmopāsana.

96. Akşaradhyadhikarana (VS III-3-33 and 34)

It discusses the question whether the negative qualities such as asthūla, anaņu etc. and also adreśya agrāhya etc. with which Brahman is to be meditated upon in respect of upāsanā on akṣava (Brahman), as taught in connection with the akṣara-vidyā by Bṛhadāraṇyaka and Muṇḍaka Upaniṣad respectively, are to be included in respect of other vidyās too and it is

concluded that these negative qualities which are categorized as heya-pratyanīkatva are to be contemplated along with the four other essential attributes viz. ānanda, satya, jāāna and ananta for the reason that these too constitute an essential attribute of Brahman and are useful to know the nature of Brahman as free from defilements.

97. Antartvādhikarana (VS III-3-35 to III--3-37)

It clarifies that the two ways of description of Brahman offered by Yājñavalkya to the questions raised by Uśastra and Kahola in the Brhadāranyaka Upaniṣad teaching uśasta kahola vidyā do not constitute two separate vidyās since both descriptions apply to Brahman which is the object of meditation.

98. Kamādyādhikaraņa (VS III-3-38 to III-3-40)

It clarifies that the dahara-vidyā or meditation on Brahman abiding in one's heart which is mentioned in the Chāndogya and Bṛhadāraṇyaka with slightly varying description of the attributes with which it is to be contemplated do not constitute two separate vidyās, since the term vasītva used in Bṛhadāraṇyaka is a specific form of satyasaṁhalpatva employed in Chāndogya.

99. Tannirdhāraņa-aniyamādhikaraņa (VS III-3-41)

It discusses an incidental issue relating to *udgītha upāsanā* and clarifies that it is not a necessary *aṅga* or subsidiary means to *vidyā*.

100. Pradānādhikaraņa (VS III-3-42)

It discusses the manner in which dahara-vidyā or the meditation on Brahman as subtle space within the heart and clarifies that Brahman as qualified with the eight attributes as stated in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad is to be meditated upon and not guṇas alone separately.

101. Lingabhūyastvādhikaraņa (VS III-3-43)

It establishes that the passage of the Taittrīya Nārāyaṇa in which it is stated that Nārāyaṇa is parabrahma, paratattva, param jyotis etc. is not intended to specify the nature of the object of meditation in respect of dahara-vidyā only mentioned in the preceding passage of the same Upaniṣad but on the contrary, it affirms that Nārāyaṇa as the Supreme Deity is the object of meditation in all the vidyās including dahara-vidyā because these statements contextually are of stronger validity (prakaraṇāt balīyaḥ).

102. Pūrvavikalpādhikaraņa (VS III-3-44 to III--3-50)

This is an incidental topic which deals with the question whether certain religious rites to be observed mentally as mentioned in Agnirahasya, are part of the performance of the sacrifice done in the fire or are they part of vidyā observed mentally in the form of meditation and clarifies that these are of the nature of meditation.

103. Śarīrebhāvādhikaraņa (VS III-3-51 and 52)

In connection with the subject of the upāsanā on jīvātman which is also part of the meditation on Brahman, it discusses the question whether jīvātman is to be meditated upon in its embodied state as kartā, bhoktā etc. or in its true form as qualified with its essential attributes such as apahatapāpmā, satyasamkalpa etc. and it concludes that jīvātman is to be meditated upon in its true form as different from its embodied form.

104. Aṅgāvabaddhādhikaraṇa (VS III-3-53 and 54).

It discusses a minor issue whether or not the $up\bar{a}san\bar{a}$ on $udg\bar{\imath}tha$ which is enjoined in certain $S\bar{a}kh\bar{a}s$ of the Upanisads is applicable to all the other $S\bar{a}khas$ and answers that it is applicable to all the $S\bar{a}kh\bar{a}s$.

105. Bhūma-jyāystvādhikaraņa (VS III-3-55)

In connection with the meditation on $Vaiśv\bar{a}nara$ $\bar{A}tman$, the question is discussed whether the meditations on dyuloka, $\bar{a}ditya$, $v\bar{a}yu$, $\bar{a}k\bar{a}\acute{s}a$ and $prthiv\bar{v}$ which are parts of $Vaiśv\bar{a}nara$ $\bar{A}tman$ (Brahman) are also to be done separately and it is clarified that meditation on $Vaiśv\bar{a}nara$ $\bar{A}tman$ is to be observed in its cosmic form as one Reality comprising all parts.

106. Śabdādibhedādhikaraņa (VS III-3-56)

It establishes that the several $vidy\bar{a}s$ mentioned in the different Upanisads are different because of the difference in respect of the Scriptural statements in the form of injuctions (codana), the description in terms of gunas with which Brahman is to be meditated, the designation offered ($\bar{a}khy\bar{a}$) and other factors.

107. Vikalpādhikaraņa (VS III-3-57 to III-3-58)

It points out that the different vidyās are alternative means to attain Brahman because the nature of the attainment is the same for all vidyās.

108. Yathāśrayabhāvādhikarana (VS III-3-59 to III-3-64)

It discusses a minor point relating to the *udgītha upāsanā* which is enjoined in some of the Upaniṣads and clarifies that it is not required to be observed necessarily in respect of all *vidyās*, as it is not enjoined as a subsidiary means to *upāsanā* on Brahman.

Pāda 4: Aṅgapāda or the part dealing with the karma as aṅga to $vidy\bar{a}$.

109. Puruṣārthādhikaraṇa (VS III-4-1 to III-4-20)

It critically examines the theory of karma or the performance of the prescribed deeds as the direct means to the Supreme Goal (puruṣārtha) and affirms that vidyā or (upāsanā) as aided by karma is the direct sādhana to mokṣa.

110. Stutimātrādhikaraņa (VS III-4-21 to III-IV-22)

It deals with a minor matter relating to the glorificatory statements about *udgītha* and clarifies that these are to be taken as injuctions (*vidhi*) enjoining the *upāsanā* on *udgītha*.

111. Pāriplavādhikaraņa (VS III-4-23 to III-IV-24)

It points out that the statements found in the Upaniṣadic passages dealing with the narration of *Brahma-vidyās* in glorifying terms are to be taken as part of the *vidhi* enjoining the *upāsanā*.

112. Agnīndhanādy-adhikaraņa (VS III-4-25)

It examines the eligibility of the sanyāsins for observing the meditation on Brahman since they cannot perform the prescribed karma as anga to upāsanā, being ineligible to light the sacrificial fire (agnīndhana) and answers that they too are eligible for upāsanā since they observe such other karmas as prescribed for sannyāsāśrama.

113. Sarvāpekṣādhikaraņa (VS III-4-26)

It discusses the case of the *gṛhasthas* and points out that they are required to perform all the prescribed *karmas* such as *yajña*, *dāna*, *tapas* etc. as aid to *upāsanā* since they are eligible to light the sacrificial fire.

114. Śamadamady-adhikaraņa (VS III-4-27)

It points out that besides the performance of prescribed rituals the *grhasthas* are also required to cultivate *śama* or tranquility, *dama* or control of senses, *uparati* or inner satisfaction and *titikṣu* or patience, *samāhitatva* or equanimity as these are all auxiliaries to *vidyā*.

115. Sarvānnānumatyadhikaraņa (VS III-4-28 to 31)

It clarifies that the general permission sanctioned by the Scripture for acceptance of all kinds of food by the Brahmavit is intended for special circumstance such as at the time of losing one's prāṇa, as is evident from the episode of Uśasti in Chāndogya Upaniṣad.

116. Vihitatvādhikaraņa (VS III-4-32 to III-4-35)

It clarifies that the performance of karma such as yajña, dãna etc. is also to be performed by the grhasthas who are not seekers of mokṣa, since these are enjoined by scripture even for them.

117. Vidhurādhikaraņa (VS III-4-36 to III-4-39)

It clarifies that even individuals who do not belong to the four āśramas (anāśrami) such as those who are widowers are also eligible for Brahma-vidyā.

118. Tadbhūtādhikarana (VS III-4-40 to 43)

It points out that persons who have been thrown out of a particular āśrama for having committed sinful acts are forbidden from pursuing Brahma-vidyā, since the observance of vidyā by such persons is forbidden by the śāstra.

119. Swāmyādhikaraņa (VS III-4-44 to III-4-45)

It deals with an incidental topic relating to the *udgīthopāsanā* and clarifies that this is to be accomplished by the priests appointed for the purpose by the person who intends to conduct it for the desired goal.

120. Sahakāry-adhikarana (VS III-4-46 to III-4-48)

It clarifies that the term mauna which implies manana or reflection on the object of meditation is also enjoined along with pāṇḍitya or deep knowledge and bālyatva or child like innocence which constitute the accessories to upāsanā.

121. Āvişkārādhikaraņa (VS III-4-49)

It elucidates the term bālyatva mentioned in the Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad by pointing out that it does not mean irresponsible behaviour like a child (kāmacāra) but it refers to the childlike innocence by not manifesting externally one's greatness as a Brahma-jñāni.

122. Aihikādhikarana (VS III-4-50)

It deals with the question whether or not the *upāsanā* observed for the purpose of attaining benefits other than *mokṣa* such as heavenly bliss, wealth etc. and points out that the goal is attained soon after the completion of it, provided there are no obstacles in the form of *prārabdha karma*.

123. Muktiphalādhikaraņa (VS II-4-51)

It points out that in the case of the *upāsanā* observed for attaining *mokṣa*, the goal is achieved soon after the completion of meditation, provided there are no obstacles in the form of strong *prārabdha karma* such as an offence to *Brahmavit*.

Adhyāya IV- Phalādhyāya or the chapter dealing with the Supreme Goal.

Pāda 1: Āvṛttipāda or the part dealing with the manner of upāsanā and its results

124. Āvṛttyādhikaraṇa (VS IV-1-1 to 2)

It points out that *vedana* which is the same as the *upāsanā* or *dhyāna* and which is the direct means to attain the Supreme goal is to be practised repeatedly and continuously until the goal is achieved and that it is to be accomplished with the aid of the *yogāṅgas*.

125. Ātmopāsānādhikaraņa (VS IV-1-3)

It discusses the question whether the *upāsaka* should meditate on Brahman as different from him or as non-different from him and answers that he should meditate on it as its inner Self (*ātmetyeva*)

126. Pratīkādhikaraņa (VS IV-1-4 to IV-1-5)

It clarifies that in the case of the *upāsanā* on other entities such as *manas*, *prāṇa* etc. the *upāsaka* should not regard them as his *Ātman* (Inner Self).

127. Ādityādimaty-adhikaraņa (IV-1-6)

It considers an incidental topic relating to the contemplation on $udg\bar{\imath}tha$ as the symbol of $\bar{A}ditya$ and states that $udg\bar{\imath}tha$ is to be contemplated as $\bar{a}ditya$ since the latter is a higher and superior entity (utkarsa) than the former.

128. Āsīnādhikaraņa (VS IV-1-7 to IV-1-11)

It specifies that the meditation is to be done in the sitting posture since it secures steadiness of the mind and body which is useful for concentraing on the object of meditation.

129. Āprayāņādhikaraņa (VS IV-1-12)

It points out that the meditation is to be pursued until the end of one's life, as stated in the Chândogya Upanişad (VIII-15-1).

130. Tadadhigamādhikaraņa (VS IV-1-13)

It establishes that $up\bar{a}san\bar{a}$ which has reached a state of perfection resulting in the clearer vision of Brahman, has the power to destroy all sins committed prior to its embarkation $(vin\bar{a}sa)$ and that the sins committed unintentionally subsequent to the commencement of the $up\bar{a}san\bar{a}$ do not cling to him (aslesa).

131. Itarādhikaraņa (VS IV-1-14)

It clarifies that $p\bar{a}pa$ or sins referred to in the Upaniṣad also includes punya or merit since punya also stands in the way of attainment of mokṣa.

132. Anārabdhakāryādhikaraņa (VS IV-1-15)

It clarifies that the *sukṛta* and *duṣkṛta* which have not yet begun to give their results stand eradicated but not the *puṇya* and $p\bar{a}pa$ karma which have already begun to yield the results.

133. Agnihotrādy-adhikaraņa (VS IV-1-16 to IV-1-18)

It discusses the question whether the prescribed rituals such as agnihotra are to be performed by the Brahma-vit for whom the results for such meritorious deeds do not bear any result and answers that these have to be observed since they are mandatory for him.

134. Itarakşapanādhikarana

It clarifies that the $pr\bar{a}rabdha$ -karma, that is, the punya and $p\bar{a}pa$ karma which has begun to bear its fruits, is to be experienced either until the end of the present life or even in a subsequent life until it is totally got rid of.

Pāda 2: *Utkrānti pāda* or the part dealing with the exit of the *jīva* from the body.

135. Vāgādhikaraņa (VS IV-2-1 to IV-2-2)

While discussing the process of the exit of the $j\bar{v}va$ or the $up\bar{a}saka$ at the time of death, it points out that the very organ of speech becomes merged in the manas in the sense that it becomes united with it.

136. Manodhikarana (VS IV-2-3)

It clarifies that the mind combined with all the *indriyas* is not dissolved in the *prāṇa* or vital breath but it becomes united with it.

137. Adhyakṣādhikaraṇa (VS IV-2-4)

It points out that $pr\bar{a}na$ associated with the sense organs becomes united with the $j\bar{i}va$, which is the lord of all sense organs.

138. Bhūtādhikarana (VS IV-2-5 to IV-2-6)

It clarifies that the term *tejas* with which *prāṇa* is united, according to the Upaniṣad, implies all the five subtle elements including fire.

139. Asṛty-upakramādhikaraṇa (VS IV-2-7 to IV-2-13)

It discusses the question whether the *utkrānti* is applicable to both persons who have realized Brahman and also those who have not undertaken the *upāsanā* to attain Brahman and affirms that *utkrānti* is common for the *upāsakas* and non-*upāsakas* upto the point of entering into *mūrdhanya-nādi* or the main artery leading from the heart to the cown of the head.

140. Parasampatty-adhikarana (VS IV-2-14)

It explains how in the final stage of $uthr\bar{a}nti$, the $\bar{j}va$ associated with the subtle sense organs, mind, $pr\bar{a}na$ as well as the subtle elements becomes united with the Supreme Deity ($paradevat\bar{a}$) and that this temporary union with the $paradevat\bar{a}$ abiding in one's own body as the $Antary\bar{a}min$ is intended for securing some relief for the afflicted $\bar{j}va$.

141. Avibhāgādhikaraņa (VS IV-2-15)

It clarifies that the term sampatti or the union of jīva with Paramātman does not imply dissolution of it in the causal

substance but on the contrary, it means that it becomes united with *Paramātman* in such a way that the two entities become indistinguishable (*avibhāga*).

142. Tadokodhikarana (VS IV-2-16)

It describes how the jīva is enabled to exit through the suṣumnā-nāḍi radiating from the heart to the crown of the head which is illumined by Paramātman out of His grace in response to the devoted meditation on Him and also constant contemplation on the arcirādi mārga as part of an aid to upāsanā.

143. Raśmy-adhikarana (VS IV-2-17)

It states that jīva, after its exit from the body proceeds to the realm of the sun through the course of its rays, which are present even in the night.

144. Niśādhikaraņa (VS IV-2-18)

It affirms that the *Brahmavit* even if he dies in the night, attains Brahman.

145. Daksināyanādhikaraņa (VS IV-2-19)

The death of a Brahmavit in the half period when the sun moves southward (dakṣiṇāyana) does not affect his attainment of Brahman.

Pāda 3: Gatipāda or the part dealing with the movement of jīva through the divine pathway.

146. Arcirādy-adhikarana (VS IV-3-1)

It examines the varying views found in the different Upaniṣads regarding the pathway leading to the *Brahmaloka* and concludes that there is only one pathway named *arcirādi* mārga commencing from arcis or light through which jīva traverses to the higher realm.

147. Vayāvādhikaraņa (VS IV-3-2)

By way of clarifying the order in which the celestial deities are mentioned in the Upanişads, it points out that devaloka mentioned in one place is not different from $v\bar{a}yu$ or $v\bar{a}yuloka$ mentioned in another Upanişad.

148. Varunādhikarana (VS IV-3-3)

It clarifies that Varuṇa, the celestial deity ruling the rains (parjanya), is to be placed after lightning (vidyut) since the two are connected together.

149. Ātivāhikādhikaraņa (VS IV-3-4 to IV-3-5)

It clarifies that the light (arcis) day, month, etc. do not refer to the physical entities nor are they places of enjoyment but they are the presiding deities over them and serve as guides (ativahikas) enroute the abode of Paramātman.

150. Kāryādhikaraņa (VS IV-3-6 to IV-3-15)

It discusses two conflicting views relating to the types of upāsakas who are lead by the celestial deities to Brahma-loka held by Bādari and Jaimini, and establishes conclusively that neither those who meditate on Caturmukha Brahmā nor those who meditate exclusively on Brahman are lead to the Brahma-loka but as sated by Bādarāyaṇa, only those who meditate on Brahman and also on the individual self (jivātman) conceived as inherently related to Brahman (Brahmātmaka) are led by the ātivāhikas through the arcirādimārga.

Pāda 4: Muktipāda or the part dealing with the nature of the mokṣa attained by jīva.

151. Sampadyāvirbhāvādhikaraņa (VS IV-4-1 to IV-4-3)

It discusses the issue whether jīva which attains Brahman acquires any new form in the state of mukti or does it remain

in its own form and affirms that $\bar{p}va$ after reaching Brahman (sampadaya) manifests itself in its own natural form (svena $r\bar{u}pa$) with all the eight attributes which were eclipsed during the state of bondage but now the same being fully manifested.

152. Avibhāgena-dṛṣṭatvādhikaraṇa (VS IV-4-4)

It discusses the question whether the jīva in the state of mokṣa enjoys the guṇas of Brahman as being separate from Brahman (pṛthag-bhūtam) or it experiences the same as being non-distinct (avibhaktam) and concludes that the mukta-jīva enjoys itself as non-distinct from Brahman since it now actually realizes that it is integrally related to Brahman (avibhāgena dṛṣṭatvāt).

153. Brahmādhikarana (VS IV-4-5 to IV-4-7)

It examines the two views relating to the specific form in which jīva manifests itself after attaining Brahman viz (i) whether it manifests itself with all the eight attributes stated in the Chāndogya, as held by Jaimini or whether it manifests itself as consciousness only (cin-mātra), as held by Audulomi and affirms, as pointed out by Bādarāyaṇa, that jīva though it is by nature of pure consciousness, also possesses all the eight attributes in the state of mukti, since there is no contradiction between the two views.

154. Samkalpādhikaraņa (VS IV-4-8 to IV-4-9)

It discusses the question whether the mukta jīva which is stated to perform any activities it desires in the state of mukti, fulfills all its desires out of its own free will or with some effort as in the case of ordinary individuals and answers that it fulfills its desires out of its own free will and no additional effort is needed for this purpose.

155. Abhāvādhikaraņa (VS IV-4-10 to IV-4-16)

It examines the two conflicting views of Bādari and Jaimini regarding the possession of the body and the sense organs for performing activities by the *mukta jīvas* and points out, as stated by Bādarāyaṇa, that *mukta jīva* can assume a body, if it so desires and also can remain without a body, if it so wills.

156. Jagad-vyāpāravarjādhikaraņa (VS IV-4-17 to IV-4-22)

It discusses an important question whether the mukta jīva which is stated in the Upaniṣad to enjoy equal status (paramasāmya) with Brahman in the state of mukti has the capacity to create the universe and answers that it does not have this capacity since the cosmic function of creation exclusively belongs to Paramātman. It also clarifies that equality with Brahman is only in respect of the enjoyment of bliss of Brahman and its glory (bhogamātra-sāmya). When once jīva attains mukti, there is no return of it to the mundane esistence (anāvrtti).

APPENDIX-II

THE NAMES OF BRAHMA-VIDYĀS

referred to in the Upaniṣads and the Adhikaraṇa-sārāvalī in the alphabetical order $^{\rm I}$

Names	Reference to Upanisads	Reference to Vedānta Sūtra	Reference to Adhikaraṇa- sārāvalī
1. Ākāśa-vidyā	Ch. Up I-9 and Viii-14	VS I-1-23 and VS I-3-42	AS 69 and 128
2. Akşara-vidyā	Mund. Up I-1-5	VS I-2-22	AS 93
3. Akşistha	Br. Up VII-5-1&2	VS III-3-20 and 21	AS 344
Satyabrahma-vidyā 4. Ānandamaya-vidyā	Tait. Up II-5	VS I-1-13	AS 59 and 60
	•		AS 116
	Katha Up. II-4-12 Br. Up. V-7-1	VS I-2-19	AS 110 AS 91
 6. Antaryāmī-vidyā 7. Antarāditya-vidyā 		VS I-1-21	AS 62 & 63
, ,	Ch. Up I-1-6 Kaus. Up IV-18	VS I-1-21 VS I-4-16	AS 139
8. Bālākī-vidyā	Br. Up. IV-1-16	V3 1-4-10	AS 139
9. Bhumā-vidyā	Ch. Up V-15-1 to VII-16-1	VS 1-3-7	AS 104 and 105
10. Dahara-vidyā	Ch. Up VIII-1-1, Tait. Nārāyaņa II-5		AS 111 and 112
11. Gargy-akşara-vidyā	Br. Up V-8-8	VS I-3-9	AS 108
12. Gāyatrī-vidyā	Ch. Up III-12 to 6		AS 72
13. Jyotişamjyotir-vidyā	Br. VI-4-16 and 17		AS 136
14. Īśāvāsya-vidyā	Isa Up.	VS III-4-1, VS III-4-9	AS 397
15. Pañcāgni-vidyā	Ch. Up V-10	•	
ζ ,	Also Br. Up. VIII-2-15	VS III-1-1 and III-3-32	AS 274
16. Paramjyotir-vidyā	Ch. Up. III-13-7& 8	3 VS I-1-25	AS 71 and 72
17. Parampuruṣa-Vidyā (also named Trimätrapraṇava-vidyā)	Praśna Up. V-5	VS I-3-12	AS 109

18. Paryańka-vidyā	Kauş Up. I	VS IV-3-11	AS 514	
19. Prāṇa-vidyā	Ch. Up. I-II-5	VS I-1-24	AS 70	
20. Pratardana-vidyā	Kaus Üp. III-2	VS I-1-29	AS 74	
ŕ	& III-9			
21. Madhu-vidyā	Ch. Up III-1	VS I-3-30	AS 124	
22. Maitreyī-vidyā	Br. Up VI-5-6	VS I-4-29	AS 141	
23. Naciketa-vidyā	Katha Up. I-2	VS I-2-9	AS 86 & 87	
(also named Attṛvidyā)				
24. Nyāsa-vidyā	Tait. Nārāyaņa 51	VS III-3-56	AS 385	
•	•	(implied accord-		
		ing to Rāmānuja²)		
25. Sad-vidyā	Ch. Up. VI-2-1	VS I-1-5	AS 55 and 56	
26. Samvarga-vidyā	Ch. Up. IV-3-1	VS I-1-33	AS 125	
	to 6			
27. Śāṇḍilya-vidyā	Ch Up. III-14-1	VS I-2-1	AS 85	
, , ,	Br. Up. VII-6-1	and III-3-19		
28. Satyakāma-vidyā	Ch. Up IV-14-9	Not referred	Not referred	
,	•	to in VS	to in AS	
(also named Sodaśakalaśa-				
Brahma-vidyā)				
29. Vaiśvānara-vidyā	Ch. Up. VII-11	VS I-2-25 and	AS 94 and 95	
,	to 24	III-3-55	also 381-82	
30. Vyāhṛti-vidyā	Br. Up. VII-5-1	VS III-3-20	AS 344	
(also named	•			
Àdityamaṇḍalastha-				
Brahma-vidyā)				
31. Upakośala-vidyā	Ch. Up. IV-10-5	VS I-2-13	AS 88	
•	& IV-15-3			
32. Uśastakahola-vidyā	Br. Up V-4-1	VS III-3-35	AS 361-362	
,	and V-5-1			

^{1.} There is no unanimity among the commentators regarding the names of the *Brahma-vidyās* though they generally agree that the total number of *vidyās* as means to *mokṣa* is thirty two. The names given in this list are in accordance with the *Adhikaraṇa-Sārāvalā* published by Ahobilamuṭṭ, Madras (1940).

See Śrutaprakāśikā on RB III-8-56. Akşaravidyādikā iti ādiśabdena nyāso vivakṣitaḥ. See also AS verse 385.

GLOSSARY

Abheda: Non-difference.

Abheda-jñāna: Knowledge of the identity of jīva and Brah-

man.

Abheda-śruti: Scriptural texts speaking of the non-differ-

ence between jīva and Brahman.

Abhinispatti: Manifestation.

Abhyāsa: Repetition. Ācārya: Preceptor.

Acit: Non-sentient matter; primordial cosmic matter. $\bar{A}dh\bar{a}ra$: That which serves as the basis; the Supporter.

 $\bar{A}dheya$: That which is sustained; the supported.

Adhikaraṇa: Topical section comprising one or more sūtras dealing with a specific subject.

Adhiṣṭhāna: Substratum; objective basis for illusion (acc.

SB).

Adhyāsa: Superimposition.

Adhyāya: A chapter in Brahma-sūtras.

Āditya : The Sun.

Adrṣṭa : Unseen potency. Adreśya : Imperceptible.

Adrśyatvādhikaraṇa: Topic dealing with the subject of Brah-

man as imperceptible etc.

Agni: Fire.

Agnindhana: One who is eligible to light the sacrificial fire. Ahamartha: The entity denoted by the notion of "I"; the jīvātman (acc. RB).

Ahikundala: The serpent and its coils.

Ajada: Sentient.

Aja: Unborn, Prakṛti (acc. Sāmkhya).

Ajñāna: Ignorance, absence of knowledge.

Ajara: Free from old age. Ākāśa: Cosmic ether, space. Ākhya: Designation; name.

Akṣara : Imperishable; Brahman; jīvātman; prakṛti.

Akṣarādhikaraṇa: The topic dealing with Brahman as akṣara.

Akşi: Eye.

Akṣipuruṣa : The deity seen inside the eyes (by the yogi).

Amṛta: Immortal.

Ambara: Sky.

Ainsa: A part; an integral part of a complex whole (acc. RB); close resemblance (acc. MB); appearing as part (acc. SB).

Amśādhikaraņa: Topic dealing with jīva as an amśa or Brahman.

Amānava Puruṣa: The celestial deity who leads the liberated souls to Brahmaloka.

Anādi: That which has no origin.

Ananta: Infinite; that which is not conditioned by time, space and another entity.

Ãnanda : bliss.

Ananya: Non-distinct; non-difference.

Anandamaya : Blissful;

Ānandamayādhikaraṇa: The topic dealing with Brahman as ānandamaya.

Ānanda-tāratamya: gradation in respect of the enjoyment of bliss by liberated Jivas (acc. to MB)

Anāvṛtti: Non-return to bondage. Anguṣṭhamātra: Size of the thumb.

Anivacanīya: Indeterminant; inexplicable.

Anga: Subsidiary.

Antaḥkaraṇa: Internal sense organ; mind.

Antara: Inside; within.

Antarādhikaraṇa: The topic dealing with the nature of the purusa seen within āditya and aksi.

Antarātmā: Inwelling Self; Paramātman as immanent in all beings.

Antaryāmin: The inner controller; The immanent Supreme Being which controls everything from within; Brahman.

Antaryāmyadhikaraṇa: The topic dealing with Brahman as Antaryāmin.

Anu: Monadic.

Anumāna: Inference.

Ānumānika: That which is established by inference; prakrti

admitted by the Sāmkhyas.

Anupapatti: Logical untenability.

Anupraveśa: Entry of Brahman into all created objects along with jīva.

Apacceda-nyāya: The principle according to which what is later is to be accepted in preference to the earlier.

Apahata pāpma: Free from evil.

Apara: Lower.

Aparokṣajñāna: Direct knowledge of Brahman derived from meditation (acc. RB); Intuitive knowledge of identity of jiva and Brahman (acc. SB); direct vision of Brahman (acc. MB). Aprthakbhūta: Not existing as separate.

Arambhana: Being connected with speech (acc. RB)

Ārambhaṇādhikaraṇa: The topic dealing with the subject of Brahman as material cause of the universe.

Arcis: Light.

Arcirādimārga: The pathway presided over by celestial deities through which mukta jīva traverses to the higher abode.

Aśabdam: Not supported by scripture but proved by anumāna.

Asakṛt: Repeated observance.

Aspasta: Ambiguous. Aśrama: Stages of life.

Aśraya: Locus, basis, support.

Ativādi: One who speaks greatness of a principle.

Atman: The individual self; also Paramātman (Brahman). Attā: The devourer; one who is the cause of the dissolution of the universe.

Avasthā: the modified state of a substance.

Avasthiti: Abiding as one thing in the other.

Avibhāga: Non-distinct; Identity (acc. SB)

Avidyā: The cosmic principle which causes the appearance of Brahman as the universe (acc. SB); Karma in the form of punya and pāpa (acc. RB).

Avikāra: Not subject to any modification.

Avidușa: One who does not practice meditation on Brahman.

Āvirbhāva: Manifestation. Āvṛttiḥ: Repeated practice.

Avyakta: Unmanifest primordial cosmic matter (prakṛti); Avyākṛta: Unmanifest state of prakṛti; Brahman as associated with subtle cit and acit.

Āyatana: Abode; that which holds togther.

Avirodha: Absence of contradiction.

Avirodhādhyāya: The chapter II of Brahmasūtras proving the absence of contradiction in respect of Vedānta theories.

Baddha: Bound, The jīva in bondage.

Bhakti: Devotion; unceasing meditation on God.

Bhakti-yoga: unceasing meditation adopted as a direct sādhana for attaining mokṣa.

Bhāṣya: Commentary (on Vedānta sūtras).

Bheda: Difference.

Bheda-śruti: Scriptural texts teaching difference between the Brahman and jīva.

Bheda-vāda: The theory emphasizing the difference between the ontological entities.

Bhedābheda: Difference-cum non-difference.

Bhedābheda-vāda: The Theory upholding bhedābheda. between Brahman and jīva as well as jagat.

Boddhā: The knower.

Bhoga: Experience of bliss of Brahman.

Bhoktā: One who experiences the individual self.

Bhūmā: Infinitely great; bliss par excellence; Brahman.

Bhutākāśa: Physical ether.

Bhūtasūkṣma: Five subtle elements and indriyas.

Bhūtayoni: Source of the universe.

Bimba-darśana: Direct vision of the image of God.

Brahmā: The Vedic deity entrusted with the task of the creation of the universe.

Brahma (Brahman): The Ultimate Reality in Vedānta.

Brahma-loka: The abode of Brahman.

Brahma-sākṣatkāra: Direct realization of Brahman.

Brahma-vidyā: The *Upāsanā* (meditation) on Brahman culminating in the direct vision of Brahman (acc. RB); the spiritual knowledge of Brahman.

Buddhi: Intellect; internal organ; mind.

Cakșus : eyes.

Camasa: A special type of vessel used in yāga for drinking soma juice used in the yāga.

Candra: moon. Chāyā: shadow.

Cintana: Repeated contemplation of the object of meditation; dhyāna (meditation).

Cit: Sentient being; the individual self.

Dahara, also Daharākāśa: Subtle space within the heart; Brahman.

Daharādhikaraṇa: The topic dealing with the meditation on daharākāśa as Brahman.

Dama: Controlling of sense organs.

Dāna: Charity.

Darśana: Vision or the realization of the self; specific type of meditation characterized with vividness (acc. RB); system of Philosophy.

Devatā: Celestial deity.

Dhāraṇa: Concentration on the object of meditation; sixth limb of yogāṅgas.

Dharma: Attribute: quality.

Dharmabhūta-jñāna: Knowledge as an essential attribute of the self. attributive knowledge.

Dharmī: Substrate; substantive aspect of a viśiṣṭa entity.

Dhruvānusmṛti: Steadfast meditation.

Dhyāna: Meditation.

Dīpa: Light of the lamp.

Dosa: Defect.

Draṣṭā: The seer; Paramāmtman; also jīvātman.

Dravya: Sustance; that which serves as the substratum for

modification.

Dṛṣṭūnta : Illustration.
Duḥkha : Suffering; grief.

Duşkṛta : Sin; sinful deeds; evil.

Dvaita: Dualism; the system of Vedanta expounded by

Madhva.

Dyuh: Heaven.

 $Dyubhv\bar{a}dyadhikarana$: The topic dealing with Brahman as the $\bar{A}yatana$ of heaven, earth etc.

Dvyanuka: Combination of two primary atoms; binary compound.

Eka: One.

Gati: Movement of jīva after its exit from the body to the

higher realms.

Gauna: Secondary.

Gauṇārtha: Secondary meaning of a term. Guhā: Cave; inner recess of the heart.

Guna: Quality; attribute.

Hetu: Reason.

Heya-guna: Defiling qualities or attributes.

Heya-pratyanīka: Opposed to everything that is defiling.

Hiranmaya: Golden.

Hiranyagarbha: Vedic deity entrusted with the function of creation.

Hita: Means or sādhana to achieve the Supreme Goal.

Hṛsva: Short.

Iṣṭādhikāri: Those who have performed meritorious deeds.

Indra: The name of the chief celestial deity.

Indriyas: The sense organs.

Īkṣaṇa : The act of seeing or resolving. Īśvara : The Ruler of the universe.

Jada: Inert matter.

Jagat: Universe.

Jagat-kāraṇa: Being the primary cause of the universe.

Jagrat: Waking state of the self.

Janma : Origin; birth.
Jantu : A living being.
Jaṭharāgni : Digestiv fire.

Jijñāsā: Desire to know; enquiry into the nature of Brahman.

Jijñāsādhikaraṇa: The topic dealing with the enquiry into the nature of Brahman.

Jīva, also Jīvātmā: The Individual self.

Jīvanmukti: Liberation of an individual self from bondage while he is still embodied.

Jñāna: Knowledge.

 $J\bar{n}\bar{a}ta$: The Knowing subject; the individual self as the knower.

Jñātṛtva : Knowership.

Jñeya: What is known; object. *Jyotis*: Light, spiritual light.

Kalyāṇa-guṇa: Auspicious attributes (of Brahman). Kāma: Sensual desires; what is desired or aspired for.

Kartā: Agent of action; the self as doer.

Kartṛtva: Process of action; activity.

Kāraņa : Cause.

Karma: Action, ritualistic deeds; the result of past deeds. Karma-kāṇḍa: Portion of the Vedas dealing with rituals.

Kārya: Effect; what is brought into existence.

Kṛti: Effort.

Kṛtsna-praśakti: Total transformation.

Kratu: Ritualistic deeds.

Laya: Dissolution of the universe.

Laukika : Empirical.

Līlā: Sport.

Linga: Identity mark; characteristic. Mahat: The great; evolute of prakrti.

Mahimā: Greatness; glory. Manana: Logical reflecton.

Manas: Mind.

Mauna: Silence; repeated reflection on the object of medi-

tation.

Māyā: Cosmic principle which gives rise to the world of illusion (acc. SB); the phenomenal character of the universe; the primordial cosmic matter; that which is an instrument of wonderful creation (acc. RB).

Māyāvāda: The doctrine of Advaita which advocates that everything other than Brahman is illusory.

Māyin: One who wields māyā; Īśvara.

Mīmāmsā: Enquiry into the meaning of the Scriptural texts.

Mithyā: Illusory.

Mithyātva: Illusoriness.

Mokṣa: Liberation of the jīva from bondage; union with the Supreme Being and enjoyment of the bliss of Brahman.

Mrt: Clay.

Mṛttikā : Made of clay.

Mṛtyu : Death.

Mukhyārtha: Primary meaning.

Mukta: One who is liberated from bondage; the liberated soul.

Mukti: The state of final liberation from bondage.

Mūlaprakṛti: The primordial cosmic matter.

Mumukşu: An aspirant for mokşa.

Nābhi: Hub of the wheel.

Nāḍi: Subtle artery. Nairghanya: Cruelty.

Nāmadheya: Designation by name.

Nāma-rūpa : Name and form. Nānā : Manifold; different.

 $N\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ -vyapadesa: Texts teaching in the primary sense that

jiva is different from Brahman (acc. RB). Nididhyāsana: Steadfast meditation.

Nimitta-kārana: The instrumental or efficient cause.

Nirañjana: Free from bondage.

Niravayava: Incapable of physical division; partless.

Nirdosa: Defectless; free from all defilements.

Nirguna: Devoid of attributes; undifferentiated.

Nirguṇa Śruti: Scriptural text describing Brahman as devoid of attributes.

Nirlepa: Unaffected by the experience of sukha and duḥkha. Nirupādhika: Unconditioned.

Nirvikalpa: Indeterminate; devoid of all qualities (acc. SB).

Nirvikāra : Immutable.

Nirviśesa: Devoid of all characteristics; undifferentiated.

Niṣkala : Devoid of parts.

Niṣkramaṇa: Exit of the jīva from the body.

Niṣkriya: Devoid of activity; free from self-effort (acc. RB)

Nitya : Eternal.

Niyamana: Control.

Niyantā: One who controls all beings; God.

Pañca-bhūta: Five physical elements.

Pāda: Part; part of an adhyāya in the Brahma-sūtras.

Pāpa : Sin.

Pāñcarātra: Treatises dealing with the mode of worship and allied matters relating to Vaiṣṇavism.

Pañcīkaraña: The process of quintuplication of five elements.

Para: The higher element.

Para Brahma: The ultimate Reality; the higher Brahman (acc. SB); the Supreme Being (acc. RB).

Paramapada: The eternal abode of God.

Parama-puruṣārtha: The Supreme Goal.

Paramāņus: The atoms which are conceived by the Vaiśeṣikas as partless, eternal, infinitesimal and supra-sensuous reals.

Pāramārthika: That which is absolutely real (acc. SB); real (acc. RB).

Param-jyotis: The transcendental light; Brahman. Parama-puruṣa: The Supreme Being; Paramātman. Paramātman: The Supreme Self; Brahman; God.

Paratantra: That which is dependent.

Parimāṇa: Dimension.

Parināma: Evolution; Modification.

Parāyatta: What is endowed by God such as kartṛtva.

Phala: Fruit or result of an endeavour.

Pradhāna: The primordial cosmic matter (prakṛti), admit-

ted by the Samkhya.

Prakāra: Mode of a substance; an attribute.

Prakārin: That which has modes or attributes; Brahman.

Prakāśa: Illumination.

Prakṛti: Primordial cosmic matter; also the material cause

(acc. SB and RB)

Pralaya: Dissolution of the universe.

Prameya: The theory established by pramāṇas.

Prāṇa : Vital breath; jīva; Brahman. Praśāsana : The power to command. Prasiddha : What is well-established.

Prāpya: What is to be attained; Goal of attainment.

Pratibimba: Reflection; similar to (acc. MB)

Pratīka: The symbol of Brahman adopted for meditation.

Prayatna: Effort.

Pṛthak: Distinct; separate.

Pṛthivī: Earth.

Prāyaścitta: Expiatory rite.

Puccha: Tail; support. Puṇḍarīka: Lotus.

Puṇya : Merit.

Puruṣārtha: The goal of human edeavour.

Purusottama: The Supreme Person; Brahman.

Purușa: Person; individual self; Paramātman.

Purvāgha: Sins committed prior to the commencement of the upāsanā.

Pūrvapakṣa: Prima facie view.

Pūrva-mīmāmsā: The treatises which deal with the ritualistic portion of the Vedas.

Śabda: Sound; verbal testimony; revealed scripture.

Sādhana: Spiritual discipline; means adopted to attain Brahman.

Sādharmya: Equality; Similarity.

Sad-vidyā: Meditation on Brahman conceived as sat, as taught in the Chāndogya Upaniṣad.

Sādṛśya: Similarity.

Saguna: Endowed with attributes.

Saguna Śruti: Scriptural statement describing Brahman as qualified with attributes.

Sahakāri-kāraṇa: Accessory cause.

Sāmānadhikaraṇya: Syntactic equation of terms denoting the same entity but connoting different qualities.

Samanvaya: Concurrence with the main purport.

Samanvayādhikaraṇa: The topic dealing with the correlation of the Upanisadic texts with Brahman.

Sambandha: Relationship.

Samhartā: Brahman as the cause of the dissolution of the universe.

Samprasāda: Jīvātman (acc. RB); state of deep sleep (acc. SB).

Samyoga: Conjuction; external relationship.

Samvṛti: The principle conceived by the Buddhists to explain the phenomenal appearance of the manifold universe.

Sansāra: Bondage.

Samașți-sṛṣṭi: Creation of the aggregate universe.

Sāmya: Equality; equal status of the mukta-jiva with Brahman.

Sandhyā: The state of dream.

Samkalpa: Will.

Sanmātra: Constituted of knowledge only.

Śarīra: Body; that which is necessarily supported and controlled by the self and also subserves its purpose (acc. RB).

Śarīrī: The self of the śarīra; Brahman.

Sarīra-śarīrī-bhāva: The organic relationship between Brahman and the universe of cit and acit (acc. RB).

Sarvajña: Omniscient.

Sarvavit: Knower of everything.

Sarvātmā : Self of all. Śāstra : Sacred texts. Sattā : Existence.

Satya: Truth; Brahman as Reality (acc. SB); Unconditioned existence of Brahman (acc. RB).

Satyakāma: One whose needs or desires are self-fulfilled.

Satya-samkalpa: One whose will is not obstructed (acc. RB).

Saviśeṣa: That which is characterized; Brahman as characterized with attributes.

Sāyujya: The state of mokṣa in which the individual self enjoys equal status of Brahman.

Setu: Causeway.

Siddhānta: Final view; the established conclusive theory.

Siddhavastu: That which is already established.

Smṛti: Texts based on the revealed scripture such as Itihāsas, Purānas etc.

Sṛṣṭi: Creation.

Śravaṇa: Comprehending what is taught by a teacher.

Sthūla: Gross; manifested form.

Śuddhasattva: Spiritual substance characterized by unalloyed *sattva*.

Sukha: Happiness.

Sukṛta: Merit earned by the performance of good deeds.

Sūkṣma: Subtle; unmanifest form.

Śūnya: Void; indeterminable (acc. Buddhist)

Sușupti: Dreamless state.

Suṣumnā-nāḍi: The subtle artery which radiates from the heart to the crown of the head through which the jīva exits from the body.

Sūtra: An aphorism; a concise aphoristic sentence expressed in a few words.

Sūtrakāra: The author of the Vedānta-sūtras.

Svabhāva: The essential nature of an object; essential characteristic of an object (acc. RB).

Svābhāvika: Natural form; unconditioned.

Svapna: Dream.

Svarūpalakṣaṇa: Definition of an object in terms of its essential attributes.

Svatantra: One who is independent such as Brahman.

Svayam-prakāśa: Self-luminous; self-established (acc. SB.)

Syādvāda: The theory of the Jainas regarding the sevenfold description of an entity.

Tamas: The primordial cosmic matter (prakṛti); also one of the three qualities (guṇa) of prakṛti.

Tapas: Austerity; also Brahman.

Taṭastha-lakṣana: Definition of an object by means of identity.

Tatkratu-nyāya: The principle according to which in whatever form a person meditates, the goal attained should be the same.

Tattva: Metaphysical Reality; Ontological entity.

Tejas: Splendour; the element of fire.

Triguna: Three qualities of prakṛti-sattva, rajas and tamas.

Tyāga: Renouncement.

Ubhayalinga: Two-fold characteristic of Brahman as free from all defects and also endowed with kalyaṇa-guṇas (acc. RB)

Ubhayalingādhikaraṇa: The topic dealing with Brahman as ubhayalinga.

Unmāna: Dimension.

Upādāna-kāraṇa: Material cause.

Upādhi: Adjunct; a limiting condition.

Upakrama : Commencement. *Upalabdhi* : Comprehension.

Upalakṣaṇa : Qualification per accidens. Upalakṣya : What is denoted by upalakṣaṇa.

Upapatti: Logical tenability. *Upakarana*: Accessories.

Upāsaka: One who practises meditation.

Upasamhāra: Conclusion; conclusive statement.

Upāsanā: Steadfast meditation; unceasing loving medita-

tion on Brahman (acc. RB). *Upāya*: Means to attain a goal.

Ūrdhvaretas: One who practises strict celibacy.

Urnanābhi: Spider.

Utpatti: Production; origin.

 $Uttara-m\bar{\imath}m\bar{a}\dot{m}s\bar{a}$: The treatises which deal with the

Upanisadic portion of the Vedas; Vedānta.

Vaidharmya: Dissimilarity; different from.

Vairāgya: Non-attachment.

Vaiśvānara: The Ruler of all souls; elemental fire; the diges-

tive fire.

Vaisamya: Partiality.

Vākyārtha-jñāna: Knowledge derived from the study of the sacred texts.

Varṇāśrama-dharma: Religious duties prescribed according to castes and stages of life.

Veda: Revealed scripture.

Vicitra-śakti: Variegated power.

Vidyā: Upāsanā leading to the direct knowledge of Brahman (acc. RB); knowledge of the identity of jīva and Brahman (acc. SB).

Vākyānvaya: The correlation between the earlier and later statements.

Vijñāna : Knowledge. Vijñātā : Knower.

Vilakṣaṇa : Of different nature. Vikāra : Change; modification.

Vipaścit: Omniscient.

Virodha: Conflict; contradiction.

Visaya: Subject-matter of discussion.

Viṣaya-vākya: The Upaniṣadic statement which serves as the basis for the Vedānta-sūtra.

Viśeṣaṇa: Qualification; attribute.

Viśesya: The substrate for an attribute.

Viśista: What is qualified.

Viśiṣṭa-abheda-vāda: The theory upholding oneness of Brahman as viśiṣṭa or organically related to cit and acit (acc. RB).

Viśistaikya: Oneness of substance as inseparably related to the attributes.

Viśvakartā: Creator of the universe.

Vivarta: Illusory manifestation.

Vivarta-vāda: The theory adopted by Śamkara to account for the illusory manifestion of Brahman as the manifold universe.

Vyapadeśa : Meaning in the primary sense. Vyāvahārikā : Empirical.

Yajña: Offering of sacrifice in the consecrated fire.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Basic Source books in Sanskrit

Adikaraṇa-sārāvalī of Vedānta Deśika with Adhikaraṇa-cintāmaṇi (commentary of Śrī Kumāra Varadāchārya) and *Padayojana* (commentary of Śrivaṇ Rāmānuja Yati, 42nd Jeer of Ahobila Mutt, Madras, 1940).

Adhikaraṇa-sārāvali of Vedānta Deśika with Adhikaraṇa cintāmaṇi (commentary of Sri Kumaara Vedāntacārya and Sārātha-ratna-prabhā) (commentary of Sri Uttamur Veeraraghavacharya), Ubhayavedanta granthmala, Madras, 1972.

Śārīraka Adhikaraņa-ratna-mālā with Prakāśā of Mm. Kapisthalam Desikacharya, ed. Sri Srinivasa Raghavan, Pudukkotai 1938.

Śrībhāṣyam of Śrī Rāmānuja with Śrutaprakāśikā of Sudarśana Sūri (commentary on Śribhāṣyam), Ed. Uttamur Veeraraghavacharya, 2 volumes, Madras, 1967.

Other books in Sanskrit

Bramhasūtra-bhāṣya of Śaṁkara with *Bhāmati*, *Kalpataru* and other commentaries. Bombay, 1938.

Brahmasūtra-bhāṣyam of Madhva with *Tattva-prakāśikā* of Jayatirtha and other commentaries, Ed. K.T. Pandurangi 7 Vols. Bangalore 2002.

Daśopaniṣadbhāṣya of Śamkara. Ed. Govinda sastry, Delhi-1964. Nyāyasiddhānjana of Vedānta Deśika, Ed. Uttamur Veeraraghavacharya ed. Madras. 1976.

Nyāyāmṛta of Vyāsatīrtha with Advaitasiddhi, Ed. K.T. Pandurangi 3 Vols. Bangalore, 1994-96.

Paramārthabhūṣanam by. Uttamur Veeraraghavacharya, Madras.

Śatadūṣaņī of Vedanta Deśika, Ed. Srivatsankaracharya, Madras 1973.

Śatabhūsanī, by Mm. Anatakrishna sastriar, Calcutta.

Siddhitraya of Ālavandar, Ed. R. Ramanujachari, Annamalinagar, 1972.

Tātparya-Candrikā of Vyāsatīrtha, Ed. K.T. Pandurangi, 3 Vols. Bangalore, 1999-2001.

Tattva-muktā-kalāpa of Vedānta Deśika with Sarvārtha-siddhi (commentary by Vedānta Deśika), Ed. Uttamur veeraraghavacharya, Madras, 1973.

Upaniṣadbhāṣyam with *Tīkā* of Jayatīrtha and *Khaṇdārtha* of Sri. Raghavendratirtha, Ed. Poornaprajna Samsodhana Mandal, Bangalore 1997.

Upaniṣadbhāṣyam of Śrī Raṅgarāmānuja on Bṛhadāraṇyaka, Chāndogya, Īśa, Kena and other Upanisads. 3 Vols. Ed. Uttamur veeraraghavacharya, Madras.

Vedārtha-samgraha of Śrī Rāmānuja with *Tātparyadīpikā* of Sudarśanasūri, Ed. T.T. Devasthanam, Tirupati, 1954.

Viṣaya-vākya-dīpikā of Raṅgaramānujamuni, a commentary on the Upaniṣadic texts discussed in the Brahma-sūtras. Ed. Chakravarty Iyengar, Mysore, 1892.

Vedāntadīpa of Rāmānuja, Ed. P.B. Annangaracharya. Conjeevaram, 1956.

Vedāntasāra of Rāmānuja, Ed. P.B. Annangaracharya, Conjeevaram, 1956.

Works in English

Radhakrishnan, S. The Bramhasūtras, London, 1960. Radhakrishnan, S. The Principal Upanişads, London, 1953.

Raghavachar, S.S Śrībhāsya on the *Philosophy* of the *Brahmasūtras*, Bangalore, 1986.

Bibliography 393

Raghavachar, S.S. Śrī Rāmānuja on the Upaniṣads, Madras, 1972.

Raghavachar, S.S. Introduction to Vedārthasangraha, 2nd ed. Mangalore, 1973.

Rangacharya, M. The Vedāntasūtras with the Śrībhāṣya of Rāmānuja, English translation, 3 vols. 3rd edition, New Delhi, 1988-91.

Sharma, B.N.K. The Brahmasutras and Their Principal Commentaries, 3 Vols. New Delhi-1986.

Sharma, B.N.K. Philosophy of Śrī Madhvācārya, Bombay 1962. Srinivasachari, P. N. The Philosophy of Viśiṣṭādvaita. Adyur, Madras, 1978.

Srinivasachari, S.M. Advaita and Visistādvaita, A Study based on Vedānta Desika's Satadūsanī. IIIrd Edn. Delhi, 1999.

Srinivasachari, S.M. Fundamentals of Viśiṣṭādvaita-A study based on Vedānta Deśika's Tattvamuktākalāpa. Delhi, IIIrd Edn. 2004.

Srinivasachari, S.M. The Philosophy of the Vedānta-sūtra-A study based on the Evaluation of the commentaries of Śamkara, Rāmānuja and Madhva. Delhi, 1998.

Srinivasachari, S.M. The Philosophy of the Upanisads— A study based on the Evaluation of the comments of Śamkara, Rāmānuja and Madhva. Delhi 2002.

Thibaut, G. The Vedāntasūtras with Rāmānuja's Śrībhāṣya, English translation, SBE series, Vol. 48. (reprint), Delhi-1962.

Thibaut, G. Vedānta-sūtras with the commentary of Śankarāchārya parts I and II. English translation with Introduction, SBE series, vols; 4, 38, (reprint) Delhi, 1962.

INDEX

Adhikaraṇa: meaning and definition of xxv-xxvi-7; number of xxvi; names of and subjects discussed in, See Appendix I.

Adhikaraṇa-sārāvalī: Scope and content of xxv-xxvii; central theme and broad subjects discusses in xxvii-xxxii, 15-16. Special features of xxxii-xxxv; see also Appendix I for names and subject matter of discussion of adhikaranas.

Adrísyatvādhikaraṇa: 69, 315-316. Ahikuṇḍalādhikaraṇa: 134, 333. Ākāśa: as Brahman, see Brahman. Ākāśādhikarana: 40-41.

Akşara: as Brahman see Brahman; as qualified with attributes 69 and 82-83.

Akṣarādhikaraṇa: 80-81. Amānavapuruṣa: 274, 276.

Amsa: as jīva see jīvātman; different views reg. 196-199.

Amśādhikaτaṇa: 195.

Ānandamaya: also Ānanda, as

Brahman 31.

Ālavandār also Yāmuna: xxi, works of xxi.

Ānandamayadhikaraṇa: 31-32. Antaryāmī: as Brahman, see Brahman.

Antaryāmī Brahmana: 65-66. Antaryāmyadhikaraṇa: 65. Apaccheda-nyāya: 221. Arcirādi-mārga: Theory of 273-274. Ārambhaṇādhikaraṇa: 129-31, 326, 332. Ātman: as Paramātman see Brahman; as jivātmā, see jivātman.

Ātmādhikaraņa 182.

Avirodhādhyāya: xxix, 149. Audulomi: 117, 290.

Avibhāga: jiva's relation to Brahman

as 287.

Bādarāyaṇa, Also Vyāsa, passim; specific mention of the name in the. Brahmasutras: 94, 217, 291, 294.

Bhahti: also Bhahti-yoga, See upāsanā.

Bhāskara : 182, 197, 201. Bhedābheda-vāda : xxii. Bhedavāda : 313.

Bheda śrutis: 195, 328.

 ${\it Bh\bar{u}m\bar{a}}$: as Brahma: meaning and

implication of the term, 77. Bhūmādhikaraņa: 77.

Bimba-pratibimba: 328.

Bodhāyana (also vrttikāra): as the earliest commentator on VS: xx.

Brāhmādhikarana: 290.

Brahma-vidyā: theory of 229; nature of 245-248; different types of 231; as alternative means to moksa 232; manner of observing 251-252; essential attributes of Brahman to be contemplated in respect of 235-236; eligibility of persons for 241-42; requirements for observing 243-44. See also Appendix II for names of

thirty-two Brahma-vidyās.

Brahman: also Paramātman, passim, doctrine of, 27; definition of 12, 17, svarupalaksana of 13, tatasthalaksana of 13, as jagatkārana 12, essential nature (svarūpa) of 27, as sentient Being 27-28, as distinct from pradhāna (prakrti) and individual self 31, as distinct from exalted pvas 36, as possessing a lustrous spiritual body 37-38, as distinct from non-sentient cosmic entities 39, as ūkāša 40, as prāņa 42, as param jyotis 42, as antarātmā, of Indra-prāņa, 44, distinguishing characteristics of 53-54, as sarvātmā 58, as attā 58-59, as puruşa abiding in the eye (akşı) 61, 64; as samyadvāma 63, as bhāmāni 69, as Antaryāmin 65, 67; as aksara 69; as bhūmā 77; as infinite bliss 80; as ādhāra of universe 80; as praśasitara 83; as object of enjoyment of muktas 84; as Daharākāśa 96; as apahatapāpmā 219; as anguşihamātra purusa 91; as object of meditation for devatās and other celestial deities 93, 94; as nāmarūpa-nirvahitā 95; as the sole cause of the universe 101-102; as ubhayalinga 217, 219; as the highest Reality 208-9; as bestower of moksa and other purusārthas 210-211; as worthy object of meditation 201; as nimittakāraņa of the universe 119; as upādānakāraņa of the universe 122-25; as aid-acid viśista, 130.

Daharākāśa: as Brahman, 92.

Daharādhikaraņa: 91.

Dhyāna (meditation): meaning and implication of the term, 228, 230.

Dhyānaniyoga-vāda 36;

Dvaita Vedānta: criticisms against the tents of Dyubhvādya-dhikaraṇa: 277. Guṇopasamhāra: 216. See also

Brahma-vidyā.

Hiranyagarbha also Caturmukha Brahmā, as object of meditation, 89, 90, 252, 255.

Iksana as a function of Sentient Being: 40.

Ikṣatyadhikaraṇa: 39.

Indra pranadhikarana: 55.

Iśvara (God) : See Brahman.

Jagat: See universe.

Jagat-kāraṇa as essential qualification of Brahman, 26.

Jaimini: 263, 267.

Janmādyadhikaraņa: 263, 267.

Jijnāsādhikaraņa: 17, 18.

Jīva (also jīvātman: individual self) passim; doctrine of 170; as nitya 170-72; as kartā 176-7; as bhoktā 178; as jīnāta 173-4; as aņu 175; as dependent on Paramātman 180; as prayoya kartā 181; freedom of 182-83; its relation to Paramātman 184; as amsa of Brahman 185; its transmigration and rebirth 189-90, 195-96; its movement to higher realms 190-91; its condition in the states of dream, susupti and mūrcchā 197-200; its liberation from bodage 234-36. See also utkrānti; status of jīva in the state of moksa, See Supreme Goal.

 $j \bar{n} \bar{a} dhika \tau a na:173$

jñātā: See jīva.

Jyotis: as Brahman See Brahman. Karma (prescribed rituals), as aid to upāsanā 220-21;

Kartā : See jīva. Kārya-brahmā : 252.

Kāśakṛtsna: 118, 119, 293, 294. Kṛtsnapraśaktyādhikaraṇa: 140.

Mādhyamika Buddhism: Criticism of the theory of Śūnyavada 155-57.

Maitreyī Brāhmaņa: 116. Meditation: See upāsanā.

Moksa: See Paramapurusartha,

theory of 234. Nammālvār : 2. Index 397

Nāthamuni: 2; works of 2; Nididhyāsana: See upāsanā. Nimitta-kārana: Brahman as, 119, 122, 126-27, 280, criticism of

Madhva's view of 287-88.

Ninguna Brahman: Theory of, criticism

of, 202, 204-6, 282-83, 284-86.

Nirguna Srutis : 205, 282.

Parinama of Brahman: See universe.

Nisprapañca niyoga-vāda 36.

Param-jyotis as Brahman, 53.

Parama-puruṣārtha (Supreme Goal) doctrine of 234; the nature of the Supreme Goal, 257-59; status of $\bar{n}va$ in the state of mukti, 263.

Pañcāgni-vidyā: 198-9.

Pradhāna, also prakti or the primordial cosmic matter as the cause of the universe (acc. Samkhya), refutation of the theory, 39-42, 44-47.

Prakṛtyādhikaraṇa 122.

Prāṇa: As Brahman, 52-53.

Prāṇādhikaraṇa: 52.

Puruṣārthādhikaraṇa, 220.

Pūrva-mīmāmsā: (of Jaimini), its relation to Uttara-mīmāmsā or Vedānta 19-20; as aid to Vedānta 22-23.

Ramānuja, passim: author of Śrībhāṣya 3; works of 3-4;

Sādhana (also upāya: means) passim. Sādhanādhyāya 11, 201.

Saguna Brahman (also saviśesa)

Saguna Śrutis, 204, 282.

Samānādhikaranya: definition of 31. Samanvaya, meaning of (acc. RB), 34.

Samanvayādhikaraṇa, 34.

Samanvayādhyāya: 8, 37.

Sankarşana (author of Devatākānda) 23.

Sampadyavirbhāvādhikaraṇa, 257.

Samurti: concept of, 155-56.

Šarīra-śarīrī-bhāva 136-37, 131, 133. Sarvatra-prasiddhyādhikaraṇa, 61. Śastradrsti 57.

Tattva-muktā-kalāpa: Its scope and contents 5-6, as complemental to AS 6. Vedānta Dešika, passim: Life and works of 4-5;

Vedānta-sūtra: also Brahman-sūtra, passim.

Ubhayalinga: Brahman as, 201-203. Ubhayalingādhikarana, 201.

Universe (also jagat) pussim, doctrine of 122, Brahman as material cause of 122-24; as non-distinct from Brahman, 128-29, its relation to Brahman 131-33.

Upādāna-kāraņa (material cause): the theory of Brahman as 122, objections against the theory of 133-34.

Upāsanā (meditation: also nididhyāsana), as direct means to mokṣa 201, nature of 226-30; See also Brahma-vidyā.

Uthranti: theory of, 238.

Uttara-mimāmsā (also Vedānta): Its relation to Pūrva-mīmāmsā 19-20.

Vaiśvānara, as Brahman, 76-77, 79. Utsarga-apavāda-nyāya 37.

Vākyānvayādhikaraņa, 115, 292-93.

Vedānta, passim: need and justification for its study 18-19; pre-requisites for its study 24.

Vedānta-sūtra (also Brahma-sūtra) passim, nature and number of, 6; division of into Adhyāyas, pādas and adhikaranas, 6.

Vidyā as Sādhana, 211, nature of 226; See also Brahma-vidyā.

Viśeṣaṇa-viśeṣya-bhāva, 131, 133.

Visistadvaita, passim: meaning of 1, historical development of 1-4; as darsana 1, ancient exponents of 2; Visista-abheda-vāda, 281.

Vivartavāda, 141.

Yādavaprakāśa, 172, 186, 188.

Yogāngas, 230-31.

S.M. Srinivasa Chari is a distinguished scholar trained up by eminent teachers. He did his Ph.D. from the University of Madras. His other published works are:

- Advaita and Viśiṣṭādvaita- A study based on Vedānta Deśika's Śatadūṣaṇi.
- 2. Fundamentals of Viśiṣṭādvaita-A study based on Vedānta Deśika's Tattva-muktā-kalāpa.
- 3. Vaisnavism—Its Philosophy, Theology and Religious Discipline.
- 4. The Philosophy and Theistic Mysticism of the Ālvārs.
- 5. The Philosophy of the Vedāntasūtra
- 6. The Philosophy of the Upanisads
- 7. The Philosophy of the Bhagavad Gītā

FUNDAMENTALS OF VIŚISTĀDVAITA VEDĀNTA

A Study based on Vedānta Deśika's Tattva-muktā-Kalāpa In this volume, which is a study of Viśiṣṭādvaita based on Tattva-muktā-kalāpa, the line of arguments advanced by Vedānta Deśika is closely followed. The major and important issues related to the philosophy of Viśiṣṭādvaita are brought within the purview of discussion. The contemporary rival schools represented by Cārvākas, Buddhists and Jainas, Nyāya-Vaiśeṣikas, Mīmāmsakas and the Advaitins, of both orthodox and unorthodox camps, are successfully encountered. In the textual light of Tattva-muktā-kalāpa, the notion that dispelled, and its philosophic core is established beyond doubt.

ADVAITA AND VIŚIŞŢĀDVAITA

Advaita and Visiṣṭādvaita presents a comprehensive exposition of Vedānta Deśika's Śatadūṣaṇī, a polemical classic of Viśiṣṭādvaita Vedānta devoted to the criticism of the doctrines of Advaita Vedānta. The thought-provoking arguments found in the sixty-six Vādas of the original text are brought together, analysed and discussed in a systematic manner under eight broad headings: Pramāṇas; Perception; Consciousness; Individual Self; Brahman; Universe; Avidyā; Sādhana and Mukti.

In presenting the dialectics of Vedānta Dešika in a vigorous and scholastic form the author deals with numerous issues that the *Vādas* raise—epistemological, ontological, religious, and ethical. Though the issues are many, each discussing a specific problem, they are ultimately directed to refute the central doctrine of Advaita, viz., that Brahman which is pure consciousness devoid of all determinations, constitutes the sole Reality and everything else is illusory.

MOTILAL BANARSIDASS PUBLISHERS PVT. LTD.

- Delhi (INDIA) -

E-mail: mlbd@vsnl.com Website: www.mlbd.com

Code: 31803



Rs. 795