A QUARTERLY
ON
JAINOLOGY

VOL. XXVII

OCTOBER 1992

No. 2

Jam Journal



JAIN BHAWAN PUBLICATION

ISSN 0021-4043 A QUARTERLY ON JAINOLOGY

VOL. XXVII

OCTOBER 1992

No. 2

Jam Journal



JAIN BHAWAN PUBLICATION

Contents

Sacred Literature of the Jains	55
Albrecht Friedrich Weber	
Contribution of Jaina Literature in the Development of Medical Science: Treatment of Leprosy	71
Nagendra Kumar Singh	
Jain Origin of a Hindu Temple	79
S. Padmanabhan	
Kundakundacarya: His Life and Works	83
K. B. Jindal	
A Note on Sarasvatamandana	90
Satyavrat	
The Ramayana Culture in Karnataka Jainism Vasantha Kumari	96
Book Review	
Collected Articles of LA Schwarzschild on Indo-Aryan 1953-1979: compiled by Royce Wiles	1 0 6
Satya Ranjan Banerjee	
Plate	
Sculptures of Nagaraja Temple Nagercoil	80

Collected articles of LA Schwarzschild on Indo-Aryan 1953-1979

compiled by Royce Wiles



Book Review

Luise Anna Schwarzschild—Collected Articles of L A Schwarzschild on Indo-Aryan 1953-1979, compiled by Royce Wiles, Faculty of Asian Studies Monographs: New Series No. 17, Faculty of Asian Studies, Australian National University, GPO Box 4, Canberra ACT 2601, Australia, 1991, pp. xii + 223 + 1.

The Faculty of Asian Studies of the Australian National University is to be congratulated for publishing 26 articles of L A Schwarzschild on Middle Indo-Aryan. The book, in Royal Octavo size and containing 223 pages, is compiled by Royce Wiles and is published "on the occasion of Dr Luise Hercus's retirement in 1991 from the Readership in Sanskrit which she has held since 1973 in the Faculty of Asian Studies of the Australian National University". It is a good thing that 'some of her colleagues, friends and former pupils have decided to reprint in book form the collection of 26 articles in the field of Middle Indo-Aryan studies which she published under the name of L A Schwarzschild between 1953 and 1979'. The articles are lithographically reproduced from the original Journals with original type-setting and pagination, giving, of course, the new pagination mark at the bottom. As the articles are printed in different type-setting, the book reminds us the shades and flavour of original sources and taste. It is true, indeed, that many of these articles are well-known to scholars working in the same field, 'but some of those published in commemorative volumes are less well-known and are not easy to come by'. The members of the Faculty Council of the Asian Studies have rendered a yeoman's service to the scholarly world for making these scattered articles available in a book form, for which they are to be thanked.

Besides 26 articles and a preface by K. R. Norman of the

Cambridge University, the book contains a list of publications by L A Schwarzschild on Middle Indo-Aryan year by year showing the progress and the development of her writings. The book has a grammatical index and indexes of Old, Middle and New Indo-Aryan words prepared respectively by Colin Mayrhofer and Royce Wiles. It is nicely printed and bound. The cover of the book is crowned with a manuscript folio which has enhanced the quality of the book.

This book is not a full-fledged grammar on Prakrit, or on Middle Indo-Aryan, but several problematic topics on Prakrit and Apabhramsa focussed by her from time to time in different Journals are put together in a book form. As the articles are printed in a chronological order the pattern of a grammar book is not found. problems discussed by Schwarzschild are not obviously touched by any earlier writers, such as, Christian Lassen (Institutiones Linguae Pracriticae, Bonnae ad Rhenum, 1837), Nicolaus Delius (Radices Pracriticae, Bonnae ad Rhenum 1839), E. B. Cowell (A Short Introduction to the Ordinary Prakrit of the Sanskrit Dramas with the Grammar and a List of Common Irregular Prakrit Words. London 1875), Eduard Müller (Beitrage zur Grammatik des Jaina-Prakrit Berlin. 1879), Richard Pischel (De Grammaticis Pracriticis, Vratislaviae, 1874, and Grammatik der Prakrit Sprachen, Strassburg, 1900), Richard Schmidt (Elementarbuch der Sauraseni, Hannover, 1924) and many others. But the problems raised by her are scholarly and deep thought-provoking, and the majority deal with broad concepts.

Apart from the fact that this is not a book on Grammar, her articles can be arranged fairly in a grammatical order in the following manner:

I Phonology: 18, 19, 23, 24 = 4

II Morphology: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 12, 14, 20, 21, 25, 26 = 13

III Syntax : 22 - 1

IV Word-studies: 7, 9, 11, 13, 15, 16, 17 - 7

V Miscellaneous: 10 = 1

In phonology, four articles are contributed and they are all very much thought-provoking. In Some Sporadic Changes of Vowels in Middle Indo-Aryan (No. 18, pp 134ff) and Some Unusual Sound Changes in Prakrit (No. 23, pp. 164ff.) her discussions on sporadic sound changes are straightforward. She has illustrated her paper by citing

some examples, such as, Skt. guru > Pkt. garua, practically coming from the base gar—as found in Skt. gariyas (cf. Gk. βαρυς) and Skt. garistha, garimā, Pkt. garimā. Even the Pkt. garua is from Skt. garuka (Cf. Hemacandra's sūtra gurau ke vā, I. 109). Other examples are Skt. purusa, > Pkt. purisa, Skt. cubuka > Pkt. cibua, and so on. reason which has actuated her to write this interesting phenomenon of Prakrit is due to the fact that "sporadic changes" in Prakrit have not been studied as thoroughly as the regular sound changes'. In a similar way, she has also noticed some irregular sound changes (pp. 164ff), such as, Skt. cikitsā > Pkt. teucchā, tigicchā, Skt. jyotsnā > Amg. S. dosinā, Skt. yugma > Desi dogga, Skt. taksati > Pkt. cacchai (Hc. IV. 194). With regard to the changes of dentals to palatals due to the association of palatal y she has once again raised the problem of the pronunciation of the palatal series of consonants in Middle Indo-Aryan. The problem was started by G. A. Grierson (The Pronunciation of Prakrit Palatals, J.R.A.S., 1913, pp. 391ff), reassessed by S. R. Banerjee (The Eastern School of Prakrit Grammarians, Calcutta, 1977, pp. 103-106), even though her analysis throws some new dimensions on the problem. The other two articles—The Middle Indo Aryan prefix vo 'off' and Some Phonological Problems Associated with It (No. 19, pp. 141ff) and Initial Retroflex Consonants in Middle Indo-Aryan (No. 24, pp 169ff)—are worth reading.

In morphology, there are thirteen articles which cover almost all the major important aspects of morphological features. In the domain of declension three problems are indicated by her three papers: Notes on the Declension of Feminine Nouns in Middle Indo-Aryan (No. 6, pp. 42ff), Distinction and Confusion: a Study of Neuter Plural Endings in Middle Indo-Aryan (No. 26, pp 186ff) and Variant Forms of the Locative in Middle Indo-Aryan (No. 25, pp. 175ff). In the first article her emphasis is mainly on two points: the oblique endings and the formation of the ending with -he (as in $m\bar{a}l\bar{a}he$) in Prakrit feminine. Though she has discussed quite a lot about the origin of tahe (in order to elicit he from that base), her explanation of its origin either from tisyāh or dhi > hi > he, or from bhim (cf. Gk. \$\phi) > him > he is not accepted by all. The simple origin of it is suggested at the end from tassa > tasa > taha > tahe which form is then transferred to the locative ending (p. 48). In the second article, the problem of 'the nominative accusative plural of the common neuter noun in a the grammar states that—ā—aim—āi, and āni are all used in Prakrit. In her opinion some of these are dialectal variations (p. 186ff). Her paper on locative is quite interesting. Prakrit has various forms in locative singular. They have mainly come from two sources:

(i) Prakrit e corresponds to Skt. e and (ii) - si, - mi, -mmi, mmī, -mhi and later on-śśim, -ssim, Pali—smim Mg. āhim, Ap. him are all derived from the Sanskrit pronominal ending smin. In her opinion these different endings, though 'could be used indiscriminately in Middle Indo-Aryan', 'show that many of these are regional and chronological variants possibly indicating scribal traditions, and some of them are of stylistic significance' (p. 185). In Notes on Two Post-positions of late Middle Indo-Aryan (No. 12, pp. 99 ff) her speculation on the origin of the two postpositions tanaya and resi (resammi) is praiseworthy.

In her article The Possessive Adjectives of Late Prakrit (No. 2 pp. 12ff) Schwarzschild has observed that "possessive adjectives are not strictly essential parts of speech, their place can often be taken by the genetive of the personal pronouns. This has led to a certain lack of continuity in their development which has, however, often been exaggerated. Apart from very isolated survivals like maia, the Sanskrit possessives had already died out in Prakrit," (p. 12). As a result, instead of discussing the problem from the point of view of Prakrit, her main emphasis is on Modern Indo-Aryan Vernaculars like Hindi, Rājasthāni, Gujarāti, Mārāṭhi and so on. This article is worth reading, at least, for understanding the origin of Proto-New Indo-Aryan possessive forms.

In verb morphology there are four articles and they are on the future, imperative, infinitive and gerund. In the 'Notes on the Future System of Middle Indo-Aryan (No. 1, pp. 1ff), she is mainly concerned with the future forms of New Indo-Aryan languages where the remnants of the MIA future system are reflected. The MIA future system is regulated by s-type and h-type. The s-type of future occurs in Gujarāti. Lahnda, and Jaipuri, and the h-type is preserved in Mārwārī, Hindī (Brajabhāṣā), Bundelī, Bhojpurī and Awadhī, as well as in Kāsmiri. Both these types are found in MIA, e.g., dāhanti and hohamti in Asokan Inscriptions, and dāsāmi and dāsāmo in the Jaina canon, the process being OIA- $sya > Pkt. > -ssa > Pkt - sa \rightarrow ha$ with the connecting vowel-i. This type of future forms is found in almost all the Prakrit dialects. In her opinion they are not all developed in one time. In a similar way her paper on A Study of Some Features of the Imperative in Middle Indo-Aryan (No. 20, pp. 146ff) though tells us how some of the MIA imperative endings are also found in some NIA languages, the main emphasis is not on its development in NIA, but how the Prakrit imperative endings behave in different Prakrit dialects like Mahārāstrī, Saurasenī, Apabhramsa and others, paper is interesting mainly for its usages.

Prakrit infinitives are sometimes confused with gerunds. Though Schwarzschild has not suggested any new derivations of the origin of Prakrit infinitive, her paper shows that she is still not very happy with some of the explanations offered by some earlier scholars like Weber, Müller, Pischel and others. The usual practice of tracing the origin of Prakrit -um or ium is from (i) tum and -ttae from Vedic tvāyai or tavai along with all its variations -yae, āya, -ae or even -āyāe. In fact, the latter forms are gerunds used infinitively. Though short, her paper on gerund, Some Forms of the Absolutive in Middle Indo-Aryan (No. 5, pp. 37ff), discusses the origin and usages of gerund in Prakrit. There are many gerundial forms in the Middle Indo-Aryan of which two types are noteworty. They are:

```
tv types : -ttā, -ttāṇa(m) -(t)ūṇa(m)
-ccā, -ccāna(m),
-avi, -ivi, -evi
-eppi, eppiņu
ya type : -ya, -a, iya, (i)yāṇa(m), -i,
```

"The geographical and chronological distribution of these forms are complex", says Schwarzschild, yet she thinks that "(i) samprasarana to tu is perhaps characteristic of the Southern dialects, (2) assimilation to -tt of the Eastern dialects, (3) assimilation to -pp of the Western dialects, while (4) palatalisation to cc is very sporadic (cf. p. 37)". Her explanations need further investigation.

Her papers on adverbs (Quelques Adverbs Pronominaux du Moyen Indien etc. No. 8 pp. 57ff), on conjunctive (Remarques sur Quelques Conjonctions du Moyen Indo-aryen, No. 21 pp. 153ff) and one on indeclinable (The Indeclinable je in Middle Indo-Aryan No. 44, pp. 104ff) and also one on syntax (Some Interrogative Particles in Prakrit, No. 22, pp. 159ff) are straightforward. Some seven or eight papers are devoted to the study of some Prakrit words.

In the Bibliography of the Prakrit Language prepared by S. R. Banerjee (Calcutta, 1977), Schwarzschild's articles published between 1953 and 1960 were included. This shows that a Prakrit bibliographymaker was quite conversant with the rise and growth of a scholar like Schwarzschild. I, therefore, believe that this book will rouse enthu-

siasm among the younger scholars of the globe. It is painful to say that in modern times in Europe the Prakrit studies have been living in a realm of sad and doleful neglect. This timely broughtout treatise will generate some congenial atmosphere among the younger scholars of the world. I heartily recommend this book to the academic world and hope that the book-shelf of every library of this universe will be adorned with this book.

—Dr Satya Ranjan Banerjee
Department of Linguistics
Calcutta University

OUR CONTRIBUTORS

- NAGENDRA KUMAR SINGH, Research Scholar, Patna University, Patna.
- S. PADMANABHAN, Nagercoil, Kanyakumari, South India.
- K. B. JINDAL, Ajitashram, Lucknow.
- SATYAV AT, Dept. of Sanskrit, Govt. College, Sri Ganganagar, Rajasthan.
- VASANTHA KUMARI, Reader in History, Maharani's Arts College for Women, Mysore.

Sacred Literature of the Jains

[from the previous issue]

In aṅga 4 (or Nandī, N) there are contained the statements of contents: se kiṁ taṁ viyāhe ?²⁵⁸ viyāhe ṇaṁ [305] sasamayā viāhijjaṁti parasamayā sasamayaparasamayā, jīvā viā° 3, loge 3 viāhijjai;²⁵⁴ viyāhe ṇaṁ²⁵⁵ nāṇāviha-sura-narimda-rāya-risi-vivihasaṁsaiya-pucchiyāṇaṁ, jiṇeṇa vitthareṇaṁ²⁵⁶ bhāsiyāṇaṁ, davva-guṇa-khetta-kāla-pajjava-paesa-pariṇāma-jahatthiyabhāva-aṇugamaṇikkheva-naya-ppamāṇasuṇiuṇo-'vakkama-vivihapagārapāgaḍapayaṁsiyāṇaṁ,²⁵⁷ logālogapagāsiyāṅaṁ,²⁵⁸ saṁsāra-sam-uddaruṁda-uttaraṇasamatthāṇaṁ²⁵⁹ suravaisaṁpūiyāṇaṁ, bhaviyajaṇaypaa-hiyayābhiṇaṁdiyāṇaṁ tamaraya vidhaṃsaṇāṇaṁ, sudiṭṭhadīvabhūya-ihāmai-buddhivaddhaṇāṅaṁ, cattīsahsahassa-m-aṇūṇayāṇaṁ²o vāgaraṇāṇaṁ daṁ-saṇāu²²⁶¹ suyatthabahuvihappagārā²o sisahiyatthāya²o guṇahatthā.²o4

We have for this aiga the commentary of Abhayadeva. For a special table of contents for the first two books, two-thirds of the third book, for books 34-41, cf. my treatise, of which mention has often been made here and which created a new course for Jaina investigations: "On a fragment of the Bhagavati" part first 1865 part second 1867.²⁶⁵

- 253 vyākhyāyamte···yasyām sā vyākhyā; viyāhe iti pullimganirdesah prākţtatvāt; saţtrinsatsahasrānām (vyākaranānām) darsanāt srutārtho vyākhyāyate iti. vākyasambamdhah.
- 254 N has here the order loe ..., jīvā..., sasamae ..; the verb is here correct, viyāhijjaī with loe; samae, 'jjamti with jīvā.
- 255 vivahe nam C; the following is omitted in N.
- 266 vitthara A; nanavidhaih surair vividhasamsaya-vadbhih pristanam; Mahavirena.
- 257 dravya...parināmānām yathāsthitabhāvānugama-niksepanayapramānasunipunopakramo vividhaprakāraih prakatam pradaršito yair vyākaranais tāni tesām…nayā naigamādayah.
- 253 lokālokau prakāšitau yeşu.
- 259 samsārasamudrasya vistīrņasya uttaraņe samarthānām.
- 260 susthu dīstāni, dīpabhūtāni ; anyūnakāni sattrinsatsahasrāni yesām tāni, iha makāro' nyathāpadanipātas ca prākītatvāt anavadyam.
- 231 teşām darsanāt prakāsanād uparibamdhād ity a., athavā teşām darsnā upadarsakā ity a.
- 262 śrutārthāḥ, te ca bahuvidhaprakārāś ce 'ti vigrahaḥ, śrutārthānām vā bahuvidhāḥ prakārāḥ iti vigrahaḥ.
- 263 sisyahitarthaya.
- 264 guṇamahatthā (!) B. C.; guṇahastā guṇaparyāptyādilakṣaṇo hasta iva hastaḥ pradhānāvayava(ḥ) yeṣām te (cf. Pet. Dict. s. v. hasta 1 i).
- In the enumeration of daily labours, 1, 378, the statement in lines 9 and foll. is to be explained thus: "at most a whole sayam on one day, a moderate measure in two days, at least a sayam in three days"—see above p. 250. āyamvila in 14 stands for āyāmamvila ācāmāmra and signifies a meal taken during a fast consisting of a "sour swallow", a portion of sour pap cf. Leumann Aupap. p. 101, and in a derived sense a division of time necessary for this meal—1. 18 read: "need a day each;" 1.19 read "sedhisayāim (book 34)." Much must be now changed in the middle portion of the treatise.

VI. The sixth angam, Nāyādhammakahāu, [306] Jñātā^{266*} dharmakathās, in two suyakhamdhas (śrutaskandha), which are very different in extent. The first in 19 ajjhayanas contains the nāyāni, which word is explained by udāharana, dṛṣṭāmta, i.e. edifying tales or parables, designed to serve as moral examples; the second which is much smaller, contains n 10 vaggas the dhammakahāu, i.e. edifying legends. The specific difference in the contents of both parts is not rendered clear by this method of division, 267 which itself is characterized in the legendary introduction to the text as a constituent part of the same.

In this introduction, which begins with the formula usually found in legends—tenam kāleṇam tenam samaeṇam—the work is referred to a dialogue between Mahāvīra's scholar Suhamma and the latter's scholar Jambū,²⁶⁸ which took place at the period of king Koṇia of Campā. Suhamma represents the transmission of the [307] sacred texts as proceeding directly from Mahāvīra. He prefaces "the fifth angam is now ended (pamcamassa amgassa ayam atthe pannatte), what is the contents of the sixth angam?" and then continues with a detailed presentation of its division as given above, citing the titles of each of the 10 ajjhayanas of the first suakkhamdha. Hereupon follows one of the usual ajjhayana introductions which from this point on is found at the beginning of each of the following ajjh.

This style of introduction and of tabulation of the contents recurs²⁶⁹ in exactly the same form in the case af angas 7-11, and proves that these six angas especially are bound together and have perhaps been the subject of treatment at the hands of the same redactor. They are connected like links in a chain, inasmuch as in the beginning of each anga reference is made to the angas preceding it. The first four angas have a mark of unity in their introductory formula suyam me and in their close ti bemi. The fifth anga occupies an isolated position.

^{266*}See Schol. Hem. 243 p. 319 (Bgk.-Rieu) for the length of the ā in Jñātā.—The same length is observed in the Vedic compound idhmā-barhis; see also the Vienna Oriental Journal, Vol. III, p. 331, note 2-L.

²⁶⁷ Accord. to the Comm. this difference consists herein, that in the first part āptopālambhādijāātair dharmārtha upanītah, in the second part sāksāt kathābhir abhidhīyate. The second part contains, it is true, no parables and similitudes, but the first, as well as the second contains kathās. As Leumann informs me the term nāya is treated in great detail in anga 3, 4, 3.

²⁶⁸ The Prakrit text Jambūditthamta, or Jambūsvāmikathānakam, in 21 uddeśas, deals with him; the Prakrit in it is very like the apabhransa.

²⁶⁹ The tenth has now, it is true, another introductory formula. Abhayadeva however cites a different one which is exactly the same as that found before angas 7, 8, 9, and 11.

The fact that this *introductio solennis* is found in all six angas, alike, is proof enough of its late origin and of its being the work of a hand which brought all six into close conjunction. If this be so, it is possible to conceive that the explanation of the name nāyā-dhammakahāu which occurs in anga 6 (nāyāni ya [308] dhammakahāo ya) is not in harmony with its original signification. I prefer the foll. explanation: first separate the word into nāyādhamma and kahāu and understand by nāyādhamma the "dharma of the Jñāta" ie. of Mahāvira²⁷⁰* (see above, p. 261, on anga 2, 1, 1, 6), and understand the meaning to be "Recitals for the dharma of the Jñāta."

But we must not suppress an objection. In the anga section in anga 4 and Nandī, both parts of anga 6 are especially recognized, and in fact by the same titles: nāyāi, and dhammakahāu. This misunderstanding, if such here exist, must have been anterior to the date of anga 4 and N. I cannot however regard this as a cogent objection, since the Nandī is the work, according to all probability, of Devarddhigani himself (980 Vīra), and the section of anga 4 is perhaps, in the last instance, the production of a still later period (cf. above, p. 284.)²⁷¹

The statements in reference to the extent of the second part of anga 6 contained in anga 4 and identical with those of the Nandī, are full of the most fabulous exaggerations, cf. p. 286, 289. Each of the dhammakahās is said to contain 500 akkhāiyās, each of these 500 uvakkhāiyās; each uv. 500 akkhāiya uvakkhāiyās with a total of " $3\frac{1}{2}$ koṭi", i.e. 35 millions of akkhāiās. This latter sum excites the hostility of surprise since, if we reckon each [309] of the ten vaggas of the second part as a dhammakahā, the result for all 10 is if we trust the above quoted statements, 125 koṭis, namely 10×500^3 , i.e. 1250 millions! According to the Schol. on the Nandī this riddle is solved by the assumption that of the 125 koṭis, only $3\frac{1}{2}$ koṭi are "apunarukta", and the remaining $121\frac{1}{2}$ koṭis have occurred in the nine ajjh. 11-19 of part 1, each of which in turn contains 540 akkh. having each 500 uvakkh, and these 500 akkh. uvakkh each.

^{270*}The length of the \bar{a} of $n\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ (cf. Pān, 6, 3, 129, 130) is irregular according to both explanations.—See however the first note on this $a\bar{n}ga$. It certainly militates against the plausibility of the above conjecture, that the recitals of the first part are cited in the references of the redactor under the designation of $n\bar{a}ya$ (jahā amḍanāe, jahā Mallināe)—L.

²⁷¹ There is no reason whatever to suppose a misunderstanding in the above passages only to please an etymology of the 19th century; even in this very anga 6 the term nāya is applied to the first and twelfth ajjh, as will be seen from their titles given later on. Remember also the term nāyajjhayanāim spoken of above on anga 419.

Dismissing such calculations as mere child's play, let us examine the actual state of things. In the first place the titles of the 19 ajjhayaṇas of part 1 are enumerated at the outset (see page 307), and are found singly in $\bar{A}va\dot{s}y$, 16,82.83 ($\bar{A}v$.) and in the Vidhiprapā (V.)²⁷² They are as follows:—

- 1. Ukkhittanāe, Utksiptam: the "raised" but not replaced foot of an elephant, the first birth of prince Megha, whose history is here related ab ovo (pregnancy of his mother, birth of the child, education, marriage, instruction at the hands of Mahāvīra). See Paul Steinthal: "Specimen der Nāyādhammakahā," Leipzig, 1881.273 The contents are said by Abh. to be anucitapravṛttikasya śiṣyasyo pālambhah.
- 2. Samkhāda (Av. samghāda V), samghātakah; śresthicaurayor ekabamdhanabaddhatvam; or anucitapravṛttikocitapravṛittikayor anarthārthaprāptiparamparā.
- 3. Amda, mayūrāmdam (cf. p. 270 note 4); pravacanārtheşu śamkitā-śamkītayoh prāninor doṣaguṇau [310].
- 4. Kumma, kūrma; asamlīnemdriyetarayor (i.e. asamlīnemdrīya-samlinemdriyayor) anarthārthau.
- 5. Selaa, Śailako rājarṣiḥ; pramādavato' pramādavataś cā 'narthetarau (i.e. anarthārthau, evil and weal.)
- 6. Tumba (tumbaya V), alābū; prāņāti pātādimatām karmagurutābhāvene' tareṣām²²²⁴ ca laghutābhāvena anarthaprāptītare.²²⁵5
- 7. Rohiņī śreṣṭhivadh \overline{u} h; mahāvratānām virādhanāvirādhanayor anarthārthau.
- 8. Mallī, ekonavinšatitamajinasthīnotpannā tīrthakarī; 276 mahāvratānām evā 'lpenā' 'pi māyāšalyena dūṣitānām ayathāvatsvaphalasādhakatvam, or māyāvato 'narthaḥ.
- 9. Maimdi (Māyamdi V); Mākamdi nāma vaņik, tatputro Mākamdīśabdene 'ha grhītah; bhogeşu aviratimato 'nartho, viratimataś cārthah.

²⁷² I extract these explanations or, as the case may be, statements of contents, from the introductions to each of the ajjh. in Abhayadeva's Comm.

²⁷³ On page 4 twenty-one ajjh, of part 1 are erroneously spoken of; there are but nineteen.

²⁷⁴ viz. aprānāti°.

²⁷⁵ i, e. anarthaprāptyarthaprāpti.

²⁷⁶ See Kup. 10 (800).

- 10. Camdamā (camdīmā V) candramāḥ; guṇavṛddhihānilakṣaṇāv anarthārthau pramādy-apramādinoḥ.
- 11. Dāvaddave (°ge Āv.), samudrataṭe vṛkṣaviśeṣāḥ; mārgārādhana-virādhanābhyām anarthārthau, or cāritradharmasya virādhakatvam ārādhakat-vam ca.
- 12. Udaga nāe, udakam nagaraparikhājalam; cāritrārādhakatvam prakṛtimalīmasānām api bhavyānām sadguruparikarmaṇā bhavati; or samsargaviśesād guṇotkarsaḥ.
- 13. Mamdukke, Mamdūkah namdimanikāra śresthijīvah; samsargavisesābhāvād gunāpakarşah; or satām gunānām sāmagry-abhāve hānir.
- 14. Tevalī 'i ya (Teulī Āv.), Tetalisutā 277 bhidhāno'mātyaḥ; tathāvidhasāmagrīsadbhāve guṇasampad upajāyate; or apamānād viṣayatyāgaḥ. See pp. 271 note 2. 317.
- 15. Namdiphala: [311] namdivṛkṣābhidhānataruphalāni; Jinopadeśāt (viṣayatyāgaḥ), tatra ca saty arthaprāptis, tadabhāve tv anarthaprāptiḥ; or viṣayābhiṣvamgasyā 'narthaphalatā.
- 16.278 Avarakankā, Dhātakīsanda Bharataksetrarājadhānī; tadvisayanidānasya sā (anarthaphalatā); or nidānā (t) kutsitadānād vā anarthah.
- 17. Āinne, ākīrņā jātyāḥ samudramadhyavartino' śvāḥ; imdriyebho niyamtrītebhyaḥ sa (anarthaḥ) ucyate; or imdriyavaśavartinām itareṣām cā 'narthetarau.²⁷⁹
- 18. Sumsumā (Sumsa $\bar{A}v$.), Sumsumābhidhānā śreṣṭhiduhitā; lobhavaśavartinām itareṣām ca tāv eva (anarthārthau); or asamvṛtāśravasye' tarasya cā 'narthetarau.
- 19. Pumdarīe, pumdarīkam; 280 ciram samvṛtā'sravo bhūtvā'pi yah paścād anyathā syāt tasya alpakālam samvṛtāśravasya ca tāv (anarthetarāv) ucyete.

After the conclusion of ajjh. 19 there follows a special conclusion for the first suyakharidhe,²⁸¹ then the usual beginning for the second suyakharidhe held in the same strain as the introduction to the aṅga itself, and giving in detail the contents of each of the ten vargas.

²⁷⁷ Teyaliputte in the text.

²⁷⁸ Here there is a detailed account of the Dovai (Draupadi).

²⁷⁹ i. e., anartharthau.

²⁸⁰ See anga 2, 2, 1.

²⁸¹ The statement that 19 days are necessary to finish the 19 ajjh. is found here.

These treat of the aggamahisīo, 1, Camarassa, 2, Balissa Vairoyaṇaraṇṇo, 3, asurimdavajjiyāṇam dāhiṇillāṇam imdāṇam, 4, uttarillāṇam asurimdavajjiyāṇam bhavaṇavāsi-īmdāṇam 5, dāhiṇillāṇam vāṇamamtarāṇam, 6, uttarillāṇam vāṇam°, 7, chamdassa, 8, sūrassa, 9, Sakkassa, 10, Isāṇassa [312].

The actual composition of the text of the second part is quite summary. To the first vagga five ajjhayanas are ascribed, 282 their names being $K\bar{a}l\bar{\imath}$, $R\bar{a}t\bar{\imath}$, $Rayan\bar{\imath}$, Vijju, $Meh\bar{a}$, names of the five wives of Camara. The history of the first alone is really related, and that in quite brief fashion; that of the second is very much abbreviated and is identified with the first by the use of the customary marks of abbreviation ($eva\dot{m}$ $jah\bar{a}$ $K\bar{a}l\bar{\imath}$, $ta\dot{m}$ ceva $savva\dot{m}$ $j\bar{a}va$); that of the third is still shorter, and the fourth and fifth are settled with a word or two.

The text of the remaining vargas is despatched in a like-summary fashion with but few words, although quite a number of ajjh, are allotted to several of them. Their contents is as follows: varga 2 five ajjh., vargas 3 and 4, 54 each, vargas 5 and 6 each 32, vargas 7 and 8 each 4, vargas 9 and 10 each 8.—In the Vidhiprapā however 10 ajjhayaṇas each are allotted to varga 1 and 10 to varga 2.283

The extent of the second part in the MSS. is one-twenty-first of the first part. In one MS. the commentary on part 2 is despatched in four lines. Even if all due regard is paid to the second note on anga 7 given below on p. 315, how curious are the statements, p. 286, 289, 308, from anga 4 and Nandi.

The events take place in Rāyagiha, Campā, Vārāṇasī, Bāravatī, Vīyasogā, Teyalipura, Ahicchattā, Hatthisīsā, Pumdaragiṇī In the first account we find an [313] enumeration of non-Aryan peoples; some are not found among those quoted, p. 302, from anga 5, others are found here which are wanting there. We read (see Steinthal, p. 28): bahūhim Cilāiyāhim khujjāhim vāvaņi(!)-vadabhi(!)-Babbari Vaüsi-Joniya - Palhavi - Isiņi - Thārugiṇi - Lāsiya - Lausiya - Damili - Sinhali-Āravi-Pulimdi-Pakkaṇi, Bahali-Murumdi-Sabari-Pārasīhim. There is, further-more, mention made here of 72 kalās (cf. p. 282 and Steinthal,

²⁸² padhamassa vaggassa pamca ajjhayanā pam tam: Kāli .. Mehā.

^{283 ...}padhamavaggo, tammi dasa ajjhayanā...vie dasa ajjhayanā, (see above, p. 231).

p. 29). The word javaniyā (St. p. 14), yavanikā, "curtain", refers to a stage-curtain or to the theatrical plays of the Greeks. We must not fail to notice the mention of 18 desībhāsāo (St. p. 29) in a list which does not go into detail (see below, p. 336 and on up. 1 Cf. Ind. Stud. XVI. 38 on the word talavara (St. p. 14).

There is a commentary by Abhayadeva.

The table of contents in anga 4 or Nandī (N) is:—se kim tam nāyādhammakahāu²84? nā hāsu nam nāyānam²85 nagarāim ujjānāim ceiyāim vanasamdā (dāim N) rāyāno²86 ammāpiyaro samosaranāim dhammāyariyā dhammakahāu ihaloiyā paraloiyā iddhivisesā bhogapariccāyā pavajjau suyapariggahā tavo'-vahānāim pariyāgā samlehanāu bhattapaccakkhānāim pāovagamanāim²87 devalogagamanāim²88 sukulapaccāyāīo²89 puna-bohilāo²90 amtakirīyāo [314] ya²91 aghavijjamti jāva.²92 nāyā hāsu²93 nam pavvaiyānam viņayakaranajinasāmisāsanavare²94 samjamapainnāpālaṇadhiimaivavasāyadulla-bhānam,²95 tavaniyama-tavo' vahāṇa-raṇaduddhārabharabhaggāṇisahāṇisatthāṇam,²96 ghoraparīsahaparājiyāṇam, sahapāraddharuddha-siddhālaya-

- 284 jnātāny udāharanāni tatpradhānā dharmakathā jnā° othā, dīrghatvaṁ saṁjnātvāt; nāyādh iso taken here as karmadh...not as a dvandva.
- 295 nāyāim BC, jāātānām udāharanabhutānām Meghakumārādīnām nagarādiny ākhyāyante, nagarādīni dvāi vinsatih padāni kanthyāni.
- 286 The foll. is inverted in N samo° rā° am° dh hāo dh°riyā ihalogaparalogīā riddhivisesā bhogapariccāgā pavajjā pariāgā suapa° tavova° samle° bhattapaccakkhānā; in angas 7 fg. the case is similar.
- 287 pāuga° A, pāovaga° N,
- 288 N ed. has according to Leumann the following just as in anga 7 (p. 307),
- 289 ? pavvaya BC, pavvayai A, paccaio N.
- 290 °lābhā N.
- 291 °yāu A, °yāo N. °yāto ya BC.
- 292 jāva signifies that here anyāni pamca padāni da(r) śyāni, i.e., aftet āgh., the usual five words pannavijjamti parūvi° damsi° nidamsi° uvadamsi°.
- 293 jāva nāyā° to the end is omitted in N; in which there follows dasa dhammakahānam vaggā and the remarks in reference to the number of the akkhāias.
- 294 sāmi omitted in BC. °śāsana-vare śeṣapravacanāpekṣayā pradhānapravacane ity a., pāṭhāmtarena; samanānam vinayakaranajinasāsanammi (perhaps an older reading) pavare.
- 295 paiņa, thiti, duvvalāņam A: samyamapratijīvā samyamābhyupagamah; sai 'va duradhigamyatvāt kātaranara-kşobhakatvāc ca pātālam iva pātālam (other reading), tatra dhītimativyavasāyā durlabhā yeṣām te tathā; pāthāmtarena samyamapratijīvāpālanāya dhītimativyavasāyās teṣu durbalā ye, teṣām.
- 296 dudhara bharabhaggā A; taponiyama-tapaupadhāne, te eva ranās ca kātaranaraksobhakatvāt samgrāmosramakāranatvāt durbharabharas ca, tābhyām bhagnāh. parāmukhibhutāh, tathā nihsahā nitarām asaktā eva nihsahakā, nissistās ca nissistāmgā muktāmgā ye te; prākstatvena, kakāralopa-samdhikaranābhyām bhagnā ity ādau dirghatvam avaseyam.

magganiggayānam, 297 visayasuhatucaās (vasadosamuchiyānam, virāhiyacarittanā nadamsaņa-jaigunavivihappagārani ssārasunnayāņam, 298 samsāraapāradukkhaduggaibhavavivihaparamparāpavamca²⁹⁹ dhīrāṇa jiyaparīsahakasāyasennadhiidhaniya-samjamaucchāha nicchiyānam, 800 ārāhiyanānadamsanacarittajoganissalla³⁰¹ suddhasiddhālayamagga-m-abhimuhāṇām, surabhayanavimānasokkhāim anovamāim bhottūna⁸⁰² ciram ca bhogabhogāni [315] tāni divvāni maharihāni tato va kālakkamacuyānam, jaha va puņoladdhasiddhi⁸⁰⁸ maggāṇam, amtakiriyācaliyāṇa ya, sadevamāṇusadhīrakaranakāranāņi, bohaņa³⁰⁴ aņusāsaņāņi guņadosadarisaņāņi ditthamte paccae³⁰⁵ va souna, logamunino jaha ya tthiya⁸⁰⁶ sasanammi jaramarananasanakare, ārāhiyasamjamā ya suralogapadiniyattā uvemti³⁰⁷ jaha sāsayam sivam savvadukkhamokkham308 ee anne ya evamãi 'ttha vittharena ya.309

VII. The seventh angam uvāsagadasāu, upāsakadasās, in ten ajjhayaņas; legends about ten upāsakas or pious fathers of families (gāhāvai), who, by means of asceticism, &c., attained the divine condition and thereby releasement.

Angas 7-9 belong to the second group of angas (see above p. 249, 307), from the general connection of the contents of each, from their common designation in anga 3,10 as dasāu,³¹⁰ "decads," from the special common denomination of their introduction (ukkheva, upakṣepa) or conclusion (nikheva), and from their very limited extent,³¹¹ [316]

- 297 sahaprārabdharuddhāh, ata eva siddhorgaj jnānāder. nirgatāh.
- 298 tair eva yatigunaih sunyakāh; padatrayasya ca karmadhārayah: virādhitacaritrajāānadarsana-yatiguna-vividhaprakāranihsāra-sunyakānām.
- 299 pavamcā BC.
- 300 jīya...seniddhittidhāṇaya A; jitam pariṣahakaṣāyasainyam yaih, dhṛter dhanikāḥ svāminah (cf. Aupapāt. § 32 p. 126), samyame utsāho...avasyambhāvī yesām.
- 301 nīsalla A; niḥśalyo mithyādarśanādirahitah.
- 302 bhuttuna B.C.
- 303 siddha B. C.
- 304 bodhana B. C.
- 305 pavatte BC. pratyayāńś ca, bodhakāraņabhūtāni vākyāni.
- 306 jaha#hiyā B. C.; lokamunayaḥ...parivrājakādayo yathā ca yena prakāreņa sthitā(ḥ) śāsane.
- 307 uveti C, uveli A.
- 308 °kkhā A.
- 309 evam āhi 'ttha vichāena ya A.
- 310 dasādhyayanarūpāh see Hem. abhidh. v. 244. We saw it is true, above (p. 270 seqq.) on anga 3, 10 that the designation dasās suits only the texts cited there, but not our texts of angas 7-9 with the exception of anga 7; these must consequently be regarded as secondary in comparison to the former.
- 311 The smallness of these angas is however to some extent only one of appearance, in so far as each of the numerous tales, which, from being identical with previous

añgas 7-9 thus stand in immediate connection with each other and bear the stamp of an undeniable unity.

This conclusion is drawn from the method of treatment which prevails in them, and which explains their inconsiderable extent. The first account contains (as is the case in part 2 of anga 6) the pattern on which all the others are modelled. We need therefore refer merely to the points of contact, and make mention of what is new in the presentation of the subject. An especial characteristic of anga 7 is this: Though different localities are adduced for the single stories, which all belong to the period of Mahāvīra, the king is in every case (the name Seṇia in the eighth story is the solitary exception) called Jiyasattu, the origin of which name must be sought in the Ajātaśatru of the Buddhistic legends. The titles of the ten stories are found in anga 3,10 (S), and are in general the same as those given here; see above, p. 271:—

- 1. Āņamda in Vāņiyagāma.
- 2. Kāmadeva in Campā.
- 3. Culaņi (ņī SV) piyā (°pitar) in Bāņārasī.
- 4. Surādeva, in Bāņārasī.
- 5. Cullasaiga (sae S, sayaga V) in Alabhiya.
- 6. [317] Kumdakodila (kolia S V) in Kampillapura; opposition between Mahāvīra and Gosāla Mamkhaliputta.
- 7. Saddālaputta in Polāsapura; he was a potter and adherent of the Ājīvias (ājīvikāḥ Gośālaśiṣyāḥ, Schol.).
- 8. Mahāsayaa (sayaga V) in Rāyagiha.
- 9. Namdiņīpiyā (°pitar), in Sāvatthī.
- 10. Letiāpiā (°pitar), in Sāvatthi.

Vardhamānadeśanā is the title of a metrical treatment in Prakrit gāthās of the contents of this anga, to which I have had access. The MS is cut short at v. 865 in the history of Ānanda. An interlineal version in Sanskrit accompanies the Prakrit; its first verse cites the

ones, are reduced to some phrases only, must be counted in full. At the end especial mention is made of the number of days necessary for the uddesanam i.e. recital or recitation of each of the ajjhayanas or vargas. The Vidhiprapā characterizes the 10 ajjh. as egasara because they are not divided into uddesagas.

In each account there is a name beginning with Aruna; in the first the name Aruna itself, in the others it forms the first member of a compound e. g, Arunabhe, Arunappahe, Arunakamte, Arunasitthe, &c.

title Vardh. The sixth name is the same (v. 8) as in SV; koliae (kolika), the eighth (v. 9) Mahāsayaṇa (but sataka in the chāyā), the tenth Tealipio (Tetalipriya, see p. 310).

There is an anonymous commentary, which refers to a vyākhyā on anga 6 by the same author. The word kamthya (often erroneously kamvya), which is frequently used in the scholia when the meaning of a passage is plain and needs no further comment, implies that these passages are "in everybody's throat, intelligible by themselves". This I owe to the courtesy of a communication from Bühler.

The table of contents in anga 4 and Nandī is as follows:—se kim tam uvāsagadasāu? uvā sāsu nam uvāsagānam (samovā N) nagarāim ujjā cei vaņa (N omits) rāy i sī ammā samo dhammāyariyā dhammakahā ihalogaparaloga-iddhī visesā, uvāsagānam ca sī sī lavvaya-veramaṇa-guṇa sī pacca [318] kkhāṇa-posahovavāsa-padivajjaṇayāu sī suyapariggahā tavo vahāṇāim padimāu sī uvasaggā samlehaṇāu bhattapaccakkhāṇāu (ṇāim N) pāuvagama (pāovagamaṇāim N) deva sukula puṇabohi sī amtakiriyāu ya (N omits) āghavijjamti; uvāsagadasāsu sū puṇabohi gama-sammattavisuddhatā-thirattam sī mūlaguṇottaraguṇā aticārā thitivisesā ya bahuvisesā padimā sī bhiggahaṇa sē pālaṇā uvasaggāhiyāsaṇā sī nīruvasaggayā ya sā tavā sī lavvayaguṇaveramaṇapaccakkhāṇaposahovavāsā apacchim-

- 313 N has again an inverted order (and the complete words) sa, rā. am. dh° hāo dh°riyā.
- 314 riddhi N.
- 315 uv. ca N omits.
- 316 Inverted in N: bhogapariccāyā pariyāgā suyapariggahā tavo'vahānāim sīla° paḍivajjanayā paḍīmāo.
- 317 gunaveramana N (inverted).
- 318 silavratāny anuvratānī, viramaņānī rāgādī(vi)ra(ta)yah (!), guņā guņavartāni, pratyākhyānānī namaskārasahitāni; posadho 'stamyādīparvādīni, tatro' 'pavasanam āhārasarīrasatkārādityāgah; pratipādinato...
- 319 devalogagamaņāim sukulapacchāo puņabohilābhā N.
- 320 What follows, omitted by N
- 321 mātāpīt putrādīkābhyamtara (!) parisat, dāsidāsamitrādīkā vā.
- 322 vistaradharmasravanāni mahāvīrādīnām samnidhau.
- 3?3 samyaktva viśuddhata sthiratva.
- 324 ddhiti A; guņataraguņātiyarā thitāvisesā B. thiti C.
- 325 samyagdar sanādīpratimaķ.
- 326 bhiggahagahanapa° C.
- 327 hitāsanā B.C. upasargādhisahanāni, see Leumann, Aupap. p. 100.
- 328 °sagga ya B C.
- 329 tava ya to onamtiya ya omitted in A.

amāraņamtīvā⁸⁸⁰ ya samlehaņā ya,⁸³¹ appāņam jaha ya bhāvaittā, bahūņi bhattāņi aṇasaṇāe ya cheittā,⁸³² uvavannā kappavaravimāṇuttamesu³³³ jaha aṇubhavamti suravaravimāṇavarapomḍariesu³³⁴ sokkhāim aṇovamāim, kameṇa-bhottūṇa uttamāim³³⁵ tao āukkhaeṇam cuyā samānā jaha jiṇamayammi bohim laddhūṇa³³⁶ ya samjamuttamam tamarayaoghavippa [319] mukkū³³⁷ uvemti³³⁸ jaha akkhayam³³⁹ savvadukkhavimokkham ete. anne ya evam-āim,

VIII The eighth angam, amtagadasāu, amtak rtadasās, or amtak rtadasās, see Hem. abh. v. 244; in eight vaggas, embraces in all 93 ajjhayanas, viz. (10, 8, 13, 10, 10, 16, 13, 10): 340 it deals with legends concerning the pious, who have "put an end" to their worldly life. 341

The number of the vaggas, eight, is very remarkable, as it is not in harmony with the concluding part of the title. All Our surprise is however increased when we reflect that in anga 3 and anga 4 (see above 271, 286) ten ajjhayanas were allotted to our text; in anga 4, besides, seven vaggas and ten uddesanakālas. The Nandī agrees with our text in apportioning to it eight vaggas (and eight udd.), but makes no mention of ajjhayanas whatever. Furthermore the titles of the ten ajjhayanas cited in anga 3, 10, have scarcely anything in common with those of our text (see p. 271, 322); some appear in anga 9. There is therefore here a violent opposition between [320] the tradition and the actual constitution of the text. We have seen above, p.

³³⁰ paścātkālabhāvinyah, akāraś ca mamgalaparihārārthah (!) maranarūpe amte bhavā māranāmtikyah.

³³¹ Thus A, samlehaṇājjhosṇāhim B. C.; ātmanaḥ sarīrasya jīvasya ca samlekhanā tapasā rāgādijayavasikaraṇāni tāsām jjhosaṇa tti joṣaṇa sevanā.

³³² cheiyattā A; chedayitvā.

³³³ kalpavareşu yani vimanany uttamani teşu.

³³⁴ varattapumdarīesu A.

³³⁵ k. bh. utt. omitted in A.

³³⁶ bohi B, laddhena A.

³³⁷ raja A. rayogha BC; tamo-raja-oghavipramuktāḥ ajnānakarmapravāha-vipra°.

³³⁸ uvemti omitted in A; upayanti.

³³⁹ aksayam apunarāvīttikam.

³⁴⁰ Likewise in the Vidhi prapa.

³⁴¹ amto vināsah, sa ca karmaņas tatphalasya ca samsārasya kīto yais te'mtakrtās te ca trthakarādayah.

³⁴² The scholiast seeks to reconcile the contradiction as follows:—prathamavarge daśā 'dhyayanāni 'ti tatsamkhyayā amtakītadaśā. This is of course a mere make-shift. If Abh. appeals to the Nandī on this point (see p. 291n), he can mean nothing else (since the Nandī contains nothing of the kind) than that the Nandī cites for our anga eight "vaggas" instead of ten 'ajjh. "This so-called "explanation" substitutes, without a word of warning "ajjh. for vagga".

272, 291, that even Abhayadeva on angas 3 and 4 confessed that he was unable to explain the differences between the statements made there and the text constituting the anga.

In harmony with this is the fact that the existing text is in an exceedingly fragmentary condition, and is filled with references to sections in angas 5 and 6, upānga 2 and according to the scholia, to the Daśāśrutaskandha, the fourth chedasūtram. In many instances, the later ajjhayaṇas of a vagga, just as was the case in part 2 of the sixth anga and in anga 7, present us with nothing more than a mere title. Each vagga is preceded by a statement in kārikā-form of the contents of the ajjhayaṇas, which are therein contained. The scholiast on the Nandī thinks that by the vaggacūliyā 3 43 (mentioned among the aṇaṅgapaviṭṭha texts) the 8 vaggas of the Antakṛddaśās are intended. The same statement is found in the scholium on aṅga 3, 10; though there appears to be no proper place for any cūliyā whatever.

The scene of the first story is in Baravati at the court of king Amdhayavanhi (Amdhakavṛṣṇi), or of Kanhe nāmam Vāsudeve rāyā; the names Vasudeva, Baladeva, Aritthanemi, Pajjunna, Samba, Aniruddha, Jāmbavatī, Saccabhāmā, Ruppiņī &c., which belong to this story, and also that of Baravati itself, are met with frequently as the recital proceeds. The ninth story of the first vagga treats of Pasenai, [321] Prasenajit. The third vagga begins with the history of Aniyasa, son of Nage nama gahavatī, Sulasa nama bhariya, 344 under king Jiyasattu of Bhaddilapura. The sixth vagga begins with the history of Makayi under king Senia of Rayagiha. The other localities are essentially the same as those in anga 7, viz.-Vāņiyagāme, Sāvatthī, Polāsapura, Vāņārasi, Campa, and also Saee (Saketa). The last vagga treats especially of the ten wives of king Senia, step-mothers (cullamauya) of king Koniva: Kālī, Sukālī, &c., who one and all zealously studied the sāmāiya-m-āiyāim ekkārasa amgāim and are instructed therein by the Ajja Camdana (about whom no further notice is given). This piety is probably connected with the death of the sons of each, cf. upānga 8 (Nirayāvalisutta); and their grandsons—sons of these sons become ascetics if we may ascribe any probability to the legend, Cf. upānga 9.

³⁴³ The text has vanga, but Pāksikasūtra and Vidhiprapā and also anga 3, 10 (above p. 274) have likewise vagga.

³⁴⁴ Cf Jacobi, ante Vol. IX. p. 28 (1880) and Abhay on anga 3, 8 and 9. Leumann, Wiener Zeitschrift f. d. Kunde des Morgenl. Vol. III. p. 333.

The kārikās with the titles of the ajjhayanas for the single vargas are:—

- 1. Gotama³⁴⁵ Samudda Sāgara Gambhīre ceva hoī Thimete ya! Ayale Kampille khalu Akkhobhe Paseṇai Vinhu||.
- 2. Akkhobhe Sāgare khalu Samudde Himavamta Acala nāme ya | Dharane ya Pūrane ya Ajjhicamde (Abhinamde) ceva aṭṭhamae||.
- 3. Aniyase Anamtasene Ajjiyasene Anihayariū Devasene Sattusene| Sārane Gae Sumuhe Dumuhe Kūvae Dāsae Anāhiṭṭhī||.
- [322]4. Jāli Mayāli Uvayāli Purisaseņi ya Vāriseņe ya| Pajjuņta Samba Auiruddha Saccanemi ya Dadhanemī|| For the first 5 names see anga 9, 1.
- 5. Paümāvatī Gorī Gamdhārī Lakkhaṇā Susīmā ya Jāmbavatī/Saccabhāmā Ruppiņi Mūlasiri Mūladattā vi //.
- 6. Makāyī Kimkam(m)e³⁴⁶ ceva Moggarapānī ya Kāsave|Khemate Dhītidhare ceva Kelāse Haricamdane||Vāratte Sudamsane Punnabhadde taha Sumanabhadde Supaiṭṭhe|Mehātimutte Alakkhe ajjhayaṇāṇam tu solasayam||
- 7. Namdā Namdavatī ceva Namduttarā Namdīseniyā ceva|Marutā Sumarutā Mahāmarutā Marudevā ya aṭṭhamā||Bhaddā Subbaddā ya Sujayā Sumanāi ya|Bhūyadinnā ya bodhavvā Sehiyabhajjāna nāmāti||
- 8. Kālī Sukālī Mahākālī Kaṇhā Sukaṇhā Mahākaṇhā/Vīrakaṇhāya bodhavvā Rāmakaṇhā taheva/Piuseṇakaṇhā navamī dasamī Mahāseṇakaṇhā ya//

It is impossible to reconstruct any correct metre in these $k\bar{a}rika\dot{s}$, since the lines are a confused mass of $\dot{s}loka$ and $\bar{a}yr\bar{a}$ homistiches.

The table of contents in anga 4 or Nandī (N) is as follows:—se kim tam amtagadadasaū? amta° sāsu nam amtagadānam nagarāim ujjānāīm ceiyaīm vana° rāyā° ammāpiyaro samosaranam dhammāyariyā dhammakahāu⁸⁴⁷ ihalogaparaloga° bhogapariccāga pavajjāu suya⁸⁴⁸ tavo

³⁴⁵ Also in the Vidhiprapā: ittha ajjhayaṇāṇi Goyama m-āiṇi.

³⁴⁶ Kimkamme is found in anga 3, 10, for anga 8; this should have been stated on page 271. In reference to the question where Mayali is identical with Bhagali, see the same page. Is Jali equal to Jamali? The account here entitled Gae treats of Somila, as Leumann informs me See ibidem,

³⁴⁷ In N we find the same transposition as in the case of 6, 7, sa° rā° a° dha° hāo° dh°-riyā.

^{348 °}pāralogiyā riddhivisesā N.

³⁴⁹ N inserts pariyāgā before sua°.

padimāu³50 [323] bahuvihā tavo³51 khamā ajjavam maddavam ca soyam ca saccasahiyam²5² sattarasaviho ya (B. C., °hā yā ya A) samjamo (me A, °mo ya B. C.) uttamam ca bambham akimcanayā tavokiriyāu samitī guttīu cevā, taha³5³ appamāyajogo (°ge A) sajjhāyajjhānāna³5⁴ ya uttamāṇam doṇham pi lakkhaṇāim, pattāṇa ya samjamuttamam jiya (jīya A) parīsahāṇam ya cau vihakammakkhayammi jaha kevalassa³5⁵ lambho, pariyāu (°yāto B. C.)³56 jattio (°ito B. C., jatiyāu A) ya jaha pālito (pālayato A) munīhi, pāuvagaii ya³5⁻ jo jahim³5⁻8 jattiyāṇi bhattāṇi cheyaittā (cheittā A, chedaittā B. C.) amtakaro (°gado B. C.) munivaro³5⁶ tama-rao'-gha³6⁰ mukko mokkhasuham aņuttaram ca patto (A, pattā B. C.) ete anne ya evam-āi-'tthā parūviyā (parūve, B. C.) jāva.

IX. The ninth aṅgam, aṇuttarovayāiyadasāu, anuttaraupātikadaśās;³⁶¹ in 3 vaggas with 33 ajjhayaṇas (10, 13, 10); contains legends of saints each one of whom attained the highest (anuttara) heavenly world (vimāna)³⁶².

The name (°dasāu) is here too at variance with the constitution of our text, but is in agreement with the statements of angas 3 and 4, where only 10 ajjhayanas are mentioned; while anga 4 recognizes but ten (the Nandī but three) uddeśanakālas, see above p. 286,—[324]. We have already seen that, of all the names given in anga 3, 10 as those of the 10 ajjh., but three recur in anga 9. This proves that we have here to do with a text that has suffered a transformation. Our text has been handed down to us in an exceedingly fragmentary state, consisting chiefly of references to Meha (6, 1, 1) and Khandava (5, 2, 1); the

- 350 14 padimāto BC; N has instead of padimāu merely samlehavāo bhattapaccakkhānam pāvagamanā sukulapaccāio punavohilābhā amtakiriyāo a āghavijjamti: dvādasa bhiksupratimā māsikyādayah (cf. Leumann on Aup, § 24).
- 351 sic. A. bahuvihāto BC.
- 352 śaucam ca satyasahitam.
- 353 yāto samiī guttīto ceva BC, samitayo guptayas ca.
- 354 svādhyāyadhyānayoh.
- 355 inanader labhah.
- 356 paryāyah pravrajyālaksaņah, yāvāms ca yāvadvarsādipramāņo yathā yena tapovisesāsrayaņādinā prakāreņa pālito munibhih.
- 367 munihim ppātovagato ya BC.
- 358 prāyopagamābhidhānam anašanam pratipanno yo munir yatra.
- 359 amtakito munivaro, jāta iti šeļah.
- 360 raügha A, ratogha BC.
- 361 This should strictly be °pādika; cf. my remarks on upānga 1.
- 362 nā śmād uttaro vidyate ity anuttarah, upapāto (°pādo (!) janmārthah, anuttarah pradhānah anyasya tathā-vidhasyā bhāvād upapāto (°pādo) yeṣām te, tadvaktavyātāpratibadahā daśā daśādhyayanopalakṣitā.

first story alone of each varga is passably complete, the others are cited merely by their catch words.

The events of these recitals transpire in Rāyagiha, Sāgeta Vāṇiyagāma, Hatthiṇapura. The names of the personages involved are to be extracted from the $k\bar{a}rik\bar{a}s$, which cite the titles of the 33 ajjhayaṇas; viz:—

- 1. Jāli³⁶³ Mayāli Uvajāli Purisaseņe ya Vāri seņe ya | Dihadamte ya Laddhadamte Vehallo Vehāyase Abhaye ti kumāre | | See page 521 for the first five names.
- 2. Dīhaseņe Mahāseņe Laddhadamte (again (!) ya Gūḍhadamte ya Suddhadamte ya|Halle Dumme Dumaseņe Mahādumaseņe ya āhite|| 1|| Sīhe ya Sīhaseņe ya Mahāsihaseņe ya āhite|Pumaseņe ya bodhavve terasame hoi ajjhayaņe || 2 ||
- 3. ³⁶⁴Dhanne ya Sunakkhatte Isidāse ya āhite|Pellae Rāmaputte Pacamdimā Puṭṭimāi ya||1|| Peḍhālaputte (cf. aṅga 2, 2, 7) aṇagāre Poṭṭileiya Vehalle|dasame vutte ime ye dasa āhiyā||2||.

Our information in reference to these persons is limited almost entirely to their names [325] alone. In the first history (of Jāli), which is a prototype of the rest, it is at least related that he ekkārasa aṅngāiṁ ahijjati.

It is surprising that the table of contents in anga 4, or Nandī (N), is particularly explicit. This is probably to be explained by the fact that it had as its subject an entirely different text from that which we possess. It is as follows:—se kim tam anuttarovavāiyadasāo? anuesāsu nam anuttarovavāiyāṇam ṇagarāi ujjā cei vaṇa ses tavo anmā samo dhammāya dhammakahā ihaloga haloga pavvajjā suya suya tavo padimāo samlehaṇā bhatta pāu anuttarovavatti (A, vāto BC. rovavāyatti N) sukulapaccāyāi (yātī BC, ccāīo N) punabohi amtakiriyā āghavijjamti;

³⁶³ ittha ajjhayaṇāṇi Jāli-m āiṇi, Vidhiprapā.

³⁶⁴ Five of these names recur in anga 3, 10 for angas 8 and 9, cf. p. 271.

³⁶⁵ N omits (an error of the scribe).

³⁶⁵ N inverts sao rao amo dho hão dho riyã.

³⁶⁷ ihalogapari^o A, ihalogapāraloga BC, ihaloiapāralotā riddhivišesā bhogapariccāgā pavajjāo N.

³⁶⁸ pariyāgā° before sua in N.

³⁶⁹ padimātave, A, merely padi° BC, padimāo uvasaggā N.

aņu° sāsu³⁷⁰ ņam titthagarasamosaraņāim paramamamgalajagahiyāni (hittānam A) jinātisesā ya bahuvisesā311 jinasīsāņam ceva samanagana, (gaņagana A) payaragamdhahatthinam³⁷², thirajasānam, parīsahasenna (sena A) rivu (ripu A) balapamaddann lam (balāpa° C) tavaditta373 carittanānasammattasāra-vivihappagāra vittharapasattha gunasamjuyānam374 anagāramaharisīnam anagāragunānam vannao³⁷⁵ uttamavaratava visitthanānajogajuttānam, jaha ya jagahiyam bhagavaü, 376 järisä ya (omitted in BC) riddhi [326] visesā devāsuramāņusāņam, parisāņam pāubbhāvā ya, jiaņsamīvam jaha ya uvāsamti jinavaram, 377 jaha ya parikahemti (hamti A) 378 dhammam loga (loka A) guru³⁷⁹ amara-narasuragaṇāṇam, soūṇa ya tassa (bhāsiyam A) avasesakammavisayavirattā narā jahā (jadhā BC) abbhuvemti (abbhāvamti A) dhammam urālam samjamatavam cā 'vi bahuvihappagāram, jaha bahūņi vāsāņi aņucarittā ārāhiyanānadamsanacarittajogā jinavayanam-anugayamahiyabhāsiyā,380 jinavarāņa (jaņa A) hiyaeņa-m-aņuņettā,381 je ya jahim jattiyāni bhattāni cheyaittā (°tittā BC, cheiyattā A), laddhūņa ya samāhim uttamam, jjhāņajogajuttā uvavannā (°vattā B) muņivaruttamā, jaha aņuttaresu pāvamti (pāveti A) jaha aņuttaram tattha visayasokkham, tato³⁸² ya cuyā kameņa kāhimti samjayā, jaha ya amtakiriyam, ce (ete. BC) anne ya evamādi 'ttha jāva.

X. The tenth angam, panhāvāgaranāim, praśnavyākaranāni, in ten dāras, treats in a dogmatic and not in a legendary form, of the ten ethical duties, viz.; first of the 5 adhammas or anhayas, āśrava, 383 which

[to be continued]

- 370 N omits the foll., titthakara BC.
- 371 jagaddhitāni...; bahuvišeṣā 'daham vimalasuyamdham'' ity-ādayas' catustrinšud adhikatarāḥ.
- 372 ganadharādīnām śramanottamānām.
- 373 davavad davāgnir iva (v. e.) diptāny uijvalāni ; pāthāmtareņa (the foll. is the reading of the text, tapodipāni yāni caritrajanasamyaktvāni.
- 374 praśastaś ca kṣamādayo guṇāś; taiḥ samyutānam; kvacid; ruciraguṇa dhuajānam iti pāṭhaḥ.
- 375 vaņaŭ A, vattato B, vannato C, vaņakah ślāghā, ākhyāyata iti yogah.
- 376 bhagavoto jinahitam (v. e.), bhagavata iti jinaśāsanam iti gamyate.
- 377 jinasamī pe yena prākāreņa paincavidhābhigamādinā sevamte rājadayo jinavarain.
- 378 parīkathayati: i. e. plur. majest.
- 379 Iokagurur iti jinavaro; perhaps guru plural.
- 380 jinavacanam ārāvi (?) anugatam sambaddham, mahitam pūjitam, bhāşitam yair adhyāpanādinā; pāṭhāmtare jinavacanam anugatyā" nukūlyena suṣṭhu bhāṣitam yais te jinavacanānugatisubhāṣitāḥ.
- 381 hiyātana B, hiyatena C; anunittā A; iha sasthi dvitiyārthe, tena jinavarān hṣ-dayena tamasā (tapasā?) anuniya prapya dhyatvā.
- 382 anuttaravimānebhyah,
- 383 i. e. āsrava, for which we should expect āsnava. In the explanation "ā abhividhinā srauti sravati karma yebhyas te āsravāh", snauti stavati should probably be read

Contribution of Jaina Literature in the Development of Medical Science: Treatment of Leprosy

Nagendra Kumar Singh

The present paper attempts to highlight the contribution of Jaina physicians in the field of medical science. The science of medicine (tegicchya or āyuvveya) has been counted in Jaina texts among the nine sciences. The practice of pāvasuya is said to have been discovered by Dhanvantarī. It contains eight branches: kumārabhicca (pediatrics), salāga (surgery and midwifery), sallahattha (the treatment of eye, ear, nose and throat), jangda (taxocology), bhāyavijja (demonology), rasāyana (method of restoring health in old age), vājikarana or khāranta (sexual rejuvenation) and kāyatigiccha (treatment of body diseases).

The physicians carried their bags of surgical instruments (satthakose)³ and gave various treatments according to the nature of the disease, viz. sinehapāṇa (rubbing with oil drinks), vamana (vomitting), vireyaṇa (purging), avadhāhana (branding), avanāhana (medicated baths), anuvasana (oil onema), kṣethikamma (famigation), niruha (purging by drugs), sirāveh (opening veins) tecchana (cutting), pācchana (scraping), sirobothi (bathing the head with oils), lappana (nourishing the body with oils). Besides these methods, several other methods of treatment has been adopted by the Jaina physicians.

The Acārānga Sūtra mentions the following sixteen diseases: kuṭṭha (leprosy), ganḍi (boils), rāyanise (consumption), avamāriya (epilepsy), kāniya (blindness), kuniya (lameness), khejiya (jumpback), udarī (dropsy), muyā (numbness), suniya (swelling), gilasani (over-appetite),

¹ Thananga Sutra, p. 678.

² Niśītha Curni, 15, p, 944.

³ Ibid., 11, p. 701.

⁴ Vivāgasuya, i. p. 8.

vevai (trembling), pidhasappi (disablement), silivaya (elephantiasis) and madhumeha (diabetes). The causes of diseases are over-eating, eating unwholesome food, over-sleeping, over-working, checking calls of nature, travelling, irregularity of food, and indulgence in sexual intercourse.⁵

The practice of using skin with or without hair (saloma or nirloma) for curing the Jaina monks and nuns is pretty old and is referred in the Brhatkalpasūtra. It is said that if a nun suffered from udodhavata (faltulence) or from dhauggha (paralysis) or from piles or from acute pain or her hand or foot due to dislocation or her whole or a part of the body being affected by wind, she was made to lie down on a skin.6 The leg of a vulture was tied to cure paralysis, the teeth and the nails of the bear, and the hair of the ram were also used for similar purposes.7 If her waist or hand was affected by vāta (rheumatism), the skin of a taraccha (hyena) was wrapped around the affected part; if she was bitten by dog, she was made to lie down on a divicamma (tiger-skin).8 In the same way the hairless skin was prescribed for the Jaina monks. who suffered from galantakodha (leprosy), piles, kacchu or kidibha.9 Dropings of a ram or cow urnine was used to cure leprosy known as pama. 10 The gośirsa-sandal was also used to cure kimikuttha (leprosy) full of maggots.11

The drinking of urine was another pratice described in the Bṛhat-kalpasūtra.¹² The monks and nuns drank each others urine for the cure of snake-bite.¹³ The fly dropping was used in the case of vomitting and the horse fly (asamakkiya) to remove dirt from the eye. They used pills to cure eye-sores.¹⁴ Flesh was used to cure fistula and in its absence rice powder mixed with honey and ghee was used.¹⁵ For madness it is stated that if a monk or a nun became mad, they were to be tied gently and kept in a room or a well without water.¹⁶ Various types of

```
5 R. V. Trenekuer, Milindapanha, London, 1880, p. 153.
```

⁶ Bihatkalpa Bhāsya, pp. 3816-18

¹ Ogha Nijjutti, p 134.

⁸ Brhatkalpa Bhāsya, op. cit.

⁹ Ibid., pp. 3829-40.

¹⁰ Piņļanijjutti, p. 48.

¹¹ Āvasyaka Cūrņi. p. 133.

¹² Brhatkalpa Bhāsya, p. 1277,

¹³ Niśītha Curni, pp. 58-121.

¹⁴ Ogha Nijjutti, p. 129.

¹⁵ Bihatkalpa Bhāşya, p. 1277,

¹⁶ Vavahāra Bhāṣya, p. 1225.

oil such as hamisatella satapāgatella, sahassapāgatella and marutella are also mentioned in Jaina canons for external use. 17 Besides medical treatment surgical operation also seems to have been carried out.

Here we meet an important experiment curing a patient of leprosy by Jīvānanda as recorded by Hemacandra. Is Jīvānanda was born as the son of the physician Suvidhi at the city of Kṣitipratiṣṭhita in Videha. He studied, the science of Āyurveda in all its eight branches and rasa (taste) vīrya (power), and vipata (efficacy of the drugs). As such he became the foremost amongst physicians, full of wisdom and unquestionable skill, even like the sun among the planets.

One day when Jivānanda was sitting with his five friends at his residence a Jaina monk arrived there begging alms for breaking his three-days fast. He was none else but prince Guṇākara, son of King Pṛthvipāla, who had taken to monkhood abandoning the kingdom like dirt. His body had emaciated on account of penances even as the current of a river due to summer heat. Moreover he was afflicted by worm leprosy on whole of his body on account of eating untimely and unwholesome food. Being desirous of emancipation, he never cared for any cure of this disease.

On beholding the leprous monk prince Mahidhara, one of his friends, said tauntingly to Jivananda, "You do possess thorough knowledge of the disease, its drugs and its treatment; the only thing wanting in you is just compassion. Alas! like courtesans, you people won't even look at a patient unless he pays your fees, even though he might be well-acquainted, suffering; the discerning ones however should not solely be greedy; in some cases treatment must be offered for the sake of dharma. Fie upon all your efforts in treatment as well are disregarding such as diagonosis that you a worthy afflicted with a disease."19 Jivananda retorted promptly, "Well said, my noble friend. You have struck me with wonder. Indeed, a Brāhmaņa without animosity, a merchant not deceitful, a from jealousy, an embodied one free from diseases, a scholar who is wealthy, a virtuous one lacking pride, a woman not fickle, and a prince with good behaviour are seldom seen."20 He further stated

¹⁷ Niśitha Curni, p. 109; Bihatkalpa Bhāsya, p. 6031.

¹⁸ Sri Jain Atmananda Sabha edition of the First Parvan, edited by Muni Caturvijyaji, Bhavanagar. 1936, verse 718-788.

¹⁹ Ibid., verses, 738-741.

²⁰ Ibid., verses, 742-44.

74 JAIN JOURNAL

that the great monk must certainly be treated by him but the lack of drugs was hindrance. He however admitted that he had lakṣapāka oil but he did not have gośīrṣa-candana and ratna-kambala.

At this, the five friends of Jivananda—Prince Mahidhara, Subuddhi. Pūrņabhadra, Guṇākara and Keśava went to the market and enquired of an old merchant about the two things. He showed the objects and said that each of them would cost a hundred thousand Dinars, and asked why they wanted such costly objects. On learning the noble purpose, the merchant said to himself "what a contrast between their youth intoxicated with wildess, joy and love on the one hand. and their thoughts that are very abode of discernment for old age, worthy of person like myself."21 а these thought, he handed over both the commodities and did not accept the price at all. He remarked, "I shall take imperishable dharma the price. Well, you have allowed me to share dharma like brothers."22

They took all these remedies to the monk, who was standing under a banyan tree in the kāyotsarga posture. Bowing down to him, Jīvānanda begged his pardon for disturbing him and took his permission to apply the medicines. Then, they brought a cow's body recently dead and started the treatment. First of all they anointed all his limbs with the lakṣapāka oil which disappeared in the body. The patient became unconcious on account of the great warming power of the oil and the worms, confused by the heat, came out of the body. Jīvānanda then covered the monk with the ratna-kambala. The worms struck to it because of its coolness. Jīvānanda, then, slowly shook off the ratna-kambala over the cow's body causing the worms fall down on it. He then, soothed the monk by rubbing gośīrṣa-candana which gives life to the creatures like nector.²⁸

Since only the worms from the skin had come out, the physician anointed the patient again with the oil and again many worms emerged out; which clung to the covering ratna-kambala, even as bacteria of curd, more than two days state, cling to a lacquered cloth.²⁴ Again he laid it down on the cow's body, and then comforted the monk with

²¹ Ibid., verse, 753.

²² Ibid., verse, 755.

²³ Ibid., verses, 761-67.

²⁴ Ibid., verse, 770.

showers of gośirsa-candana.²⁵ The third application of the oil forced the worms in the bone to come out.²⁶ Again he shook the worms clinging to the ratna-kambala off on the cow's body.²⁷ The physician then smeared the monk with the juice of gośirsa-candana with great devotion as if he was a God. And at last glowing with fresh skin grown by virtue of application of healing drugs the monk glittered like a statue of polished gold.²⁸

Hemcandra has, thus, described an actual experiment of curing a leper. All the same, the problem of identification of these drugs has proved a hard nut to crack. Lakṣapāka taila is translated by Helen Johnson, as the oil with a hundred thousand ingredients, gośīrṣa-candana as gośīrṣa-sandal and ratna-kambāla as jeweled-blanket. ²⁹ The present writer has discussed the problem with several well-known practitioners of Indian medicine and has carefully consulted a number of standard treatises, both ancient and modern on the subject but satisfactory solution, however, was not found. It appears that all the three commodities were very costly. The ratna-kambala and the gośīrṣa-candana were more costly than the lakṣapāka-taila in as much as the physician had the same with him while the other two had to be procured from the market at a price of hundred thousand Dināras each.

Did lakṣapāka oil comprised of as many as hundred thousand ingredients? Or was it prepared by giving a hundred thousand puṭa-pākas³o to its constituents? Or was its ingredient was something like lac which was known in sanskrit as lakṣa? These questions have still remained unanswered. Regarding other two objects some thing can be said. Gośīrṣa-candana is definitely a kind of sandal and as such it might have a soothing effect. Apte explains 'Gośīrṣa' as a yellow pigment prepared from the urine or bile of the cow. This explanation suggests identification of gośīrṣa with gorocana. We have a soothing effect.

²⁵ Ibid., verse, 772.

²⁶ Ibid., verse, 773.

²⁷ Ibid., verse, 774.

²⁸ Ibid., verse, 776.

²⁹ Gaekwad's Oriental Series, No. L1, 1931, p. 67,

³⁰ Puta-Pāka is a particular method of preparing drugs wherein the various ingredients are wraped in the leaves (or earthen pots), and being covered with clay are roasted in fire for a fixed period.

³¹ The Practical Sanskrit-English Dictionary, Poona, 1890, p. 469.

³² Chandraraja Bhandari, *The Vanauşadhi Candrodaya* (Hindi), vol. III, Indore, N. D. p. 284.

Mr. Bhandari states that it is bile of the cow's head. It is described there as very cool, palatable, enhancer of bodily charm, and useful for leprosy. This description also tempts us to identify our gośīrṣa-candana with the gorocana. The gorocana was stated to be used for the auspicious tilaka mark on the forehead,³³ while gośīrṣa-candana is stated to be used for smearing the different limbs of the body.³⁴ Even at present gorocana is available as a ball of compact yellow powder which is much lighter inside than on the external surface.

Now kambala is a blanket of wool. Ratna-kambala would, therefore be blanket of wool studded with jewels. This phrase is employed elsewhere also in the present work, where it is stated that traders from Yavana-dvīpa showed their ratna-kambala to Jīvayaśā, daughter of the King of Magadha, who purchased it for half the price demanded. These blankets we described to be cool in hot weather and warm in winter made of thick fine wool.⁸⁵

The phrase ratna-kambala occurs in some other Jaina texts also. Prof. H. R. Kapadiya has listed it among fabulous objects. He refers to its occurence in Maladharin Hemacandra's Tippanaka on Jinabhadra Gani's Viśeṣāvaśyakabhāṣya (verses 2551-52). The reference is that Śivakoţi alias Sahasramalla, a native of Rathavīrapura and a brother of Uttara was given by the ruler of his native place, a costly blanket called ratna-kambala which his preceptor did not like as it is inconsistant with the life of a Jaina monk. It may however, be pointed out that here the reference is not to a jeweled blanket, but a gem amongst the blanket, i.e. an excellent blanket which the perceptor got cut into pieces and these pieces were distributed among the disciple monks as kerchiefs for cleansing their feet. The source of the so

Another reference given by Prof. Kapadiya is Śłlańkadeva's (8th century A.D.). Ãcārānga Sūtra Vrtti (II. 1.5.1), where a ratna-kambala is stated to be prepared from the fur of mice who live in the potters' furnace as do fish in water and that for cleaning, it is exposed to fire. Here also, it may again be pointed out, the phrase employed is kambala-

³³ Somaprabhācārya, Satarthakāvya, Prācīn Sāhityoddhār Series, No-2, II ii. 89.

³⁴ Ibid., I. iv. 1-20; II. ii 463, 565, 573; II. iv. 31, 252; II. v. 115; II. vi. 643.

³⁵ Ibid., VIII. vii. 135, 137,

³⁶ Quoted in H. R. Kapadia, References to Fabulous Objects by Jain Writers, Journal of the Oriental Institute, vol. VIII/2, Dec. 1958, pp. 169-179.

³⁷ Visesāvasyaka-Bhāsya of Jinabhadra Gani with Bihad-Vitti called Sisya-hita of Maladhārī Hemacandra, Benaras, Vol. VI, V. S. 2439, p. 1021a.

ratna not ratna-kambala. His third reference is Śilankācārya's Vivarņa on the Niryukti (verse 122) of the Sūtrakṛtānga Sūtra (1.13) where the commentator mentions that a ratna-kambala becomes warm in cold weather, and cools down when it is oppresive heat. The pertinent portion is as follows:

unhe karei sīya siye unhatanam puna karei kambalakṣaṇādiṇam esa sahābo muneyanyo

But this reference could not be traced in the edition available at the Oriental Institute, Baroda. Here also the first word in the second line suggests that it is kambala, not ratna-kambala.

Prof. Kapadiya refers also to its occurance in Trisasti-salākā-puruṣa-carita (I. i) only in a casual way. The phrase ratna-kambala thus is met with in Hemacandra's Triṣaṣti-salākā-puruṣa-carita (I. 746, 768 and 770) where the life of Jīvānanda was dealt with its price. He further pointed out that narratives about king Śrenika-Śālibhadra, and Sthūlabhadra furnish references pertaining to ratna-kambala and the story of Sthūlabhadra suggests that ratna-kambala could be had from Nepal. 39

It is not always intended to consider ratna-kambala simply as a fabulous object. Pt. B. L. Shanbhagace says that the thick woolen Persian carpet is still called ratna-kambala in Konkani. Moreover we have already seen above that in the seventh sarga of the eighth parvan of Trişaşţi-śalākā-puruṣa-carita, Yavana traders are stated to have brought the ratna-kambala to India for selling at very high price. The worms burning due to the application of the lakṣapāka oil, which is described by Hemacandra as uṣṇavīrya i.e. a powerfully scorching drug, would naturally be tempted to resort to the jeweled woolen blanket which would be comparatively cool and soothing. We have already noted two references specifying the characteristic of the blanket of giving heat in cold weather and coolness when it is oppresive heat.

³⁸ Ācārāngasūtra with Bhadrabāhu's Niryukti and Śilankācārya's Vivaraņa, Agamodaya Samiti edition, Mehsana, 1966, p. 392b and 393a.

³⁹ Ibid., fn. p. 24.

⁴⁰ Trisasti-śalākā-purusa-carita. VII. 8.

The dead body of cow was brought there just for giving shelter to the tortured worms as ordained by the principle of non-violence. Modern doctors would destory the germs by means of some sort of germicides in order to prevent the disease being spread by them.

The ratna-kambala may be replaced by any other cool and soothing covering, but the most important drug is the $laksap\bar{a}ka$ oil. I request therefore the modern experts in $\bar{A}yurveda$ whose duty it is to search out this drug not for the sake of world-renown but just for the sake of the ailing humanity.

Jain Origin of a Hindu Temple

S. Padmanabhan

Nagercoil, the name of which is derived from the five-headed serpent shrine which is now the headquarters of Kanyākumārī District of Tamil Nadu was a part of Travancore State upto 1956. The temple of Nāgarāja is situated in the heart of the town. The attention of every visitor to the temple is drawn to the two big stone images of hydra-headed serpents and the five inscribed granite slabs that are erected nearby. There are nine separate inscriptions on the five slabs. The eight inscriptions which are dated from Kollam Era 681 to 697 refer to the gifts of lands made at different times for the conduct of worship and the supply of offering to the serpent deity in the temple. The lands were left in the custody of Kerala Narayanan alias Gunaveerapandithan and Jeevakarudaiyan alias Kamalavahanapandithan who were supervising the temple affairs. The small slab containing the inscriptions of the Kollam Era 820 gives a list of donors for making an ornamental lamp stand and donation of oil for its use.²

Of the nine inscriptions on the granite slabs eight of them mention the names of Gunaveerapandithan and Kamalavahanapandithan and call the name of the place as Kottar and not by the present name Nagercoil. The words Palli and Pallichantham also occur in all these eight inscriptions. One of the inscriptions which was dated Kollam Bra 696 mentions the name of the Venad King Bhuthala Sri Veera Udaya Marthanda Varma. The inscription dated Kollam Bra 764 (1588 A.D) found on the western wall of Anandakṛṣṇa shrine³ which does not mention Palli or Pallichantham denotes that the temple might have passed into the hands of the Hindus during this period. The particulars mentioned in these inscriptions thus unfold a glimpse of the history of the town, the temple and the ruler of the period.

¹ Inscriptions of Kanyākumārī, Part 3 Nos. 1968/275, 276, 277, 281, 282, 283, 284, 285, 286.

² Ibid., No. 1968/281,

³ Ibid., No. 1968/279.

The very names Gunaveera and Kamalavahana mentioned in the inscriptions are reminiscent of Jain nomenclature. The term 'Palli' and 'Pallicham.' inscribed therein are clear proof that this was a Jain temple originally. The word 'Palli' even today indicates temples other than those of Hindus. 'Pallichantham' means royal gifts of lands to the deities of other religions, while 'manyam' represents the gifts made to Hindu temples.

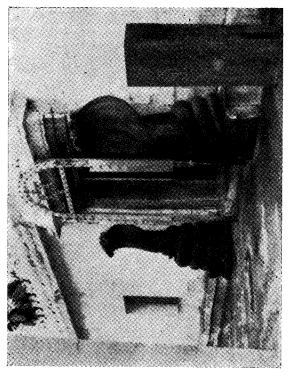
On the pillars of the temple there are many images of Jain Tirthankaras. The image in standing pose under the hood of a five headed serpent is Pārśvanātha, the 23rd Tirthankara in the line, the 24th and the last being Vardhamāna Mahāvīra. The seated figure carved on the pillar is undoubtedly of Mahāvīra, for, at the bottom of the seat are seen sculptured figures of lions, the totem peculiar to Mahāvīra. Over the head of the image is the triple umbrella, one of the characteristic features of Jain iconography. The image of a lady under the hood of a three headed serpent is Padmāvatī, the Yakṣī of Pārśvanātha.

From the hymns of Thirugnanasambandar, it can be surmised that Jainism was a prominent religion in Kottar and the surrounding area during his days. He has described the naked Jain monks and the staunch Buddhists roaming in the streets of Kottar as "Udaiilathu Ulalginra Kundarkal Unarum thavathaya Sakkiyarum". It is interesting to note that Therur near Nagercoil was once a centre of Buddhists of Theravada School.4 There is also epigraphic evidence to show that there were flourishing Jain settlements in Kottar, Kurandi, Tiruchcharanathumalai and Tirunandikkari which are all in the present district of Kanyākumāti. From the Jain vestiges and inscriptions found in Samanarmalai in Madurai district, Kalugumalai in Chidambaranar district and Tiruchcharanathumalai in Kanyākumārī district we learn that a large number of Jain monks who were there hailed from these four Jain centres in Kanyākumārī area. The erudite Jain scholars and their disciples from these centres of learning left votive images cut on the rocks in different centres of Jain culture. There were several Jain scholars named Putbananda Adigal, Uttanandi Adigal, Vimalachandrar and Pathamoolathan Arangam Maran who prefixed the word Kottar to their names.⁵ The line "Chattan Varagunan Seivittha Srimeni" which appeared in the inscription found

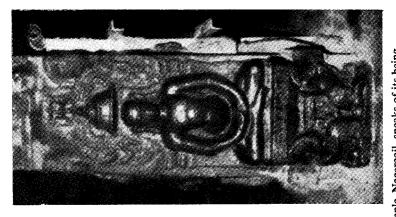
⁴ Dr. Shu Hikosaka, Buddhism in Tamilnadu, p. 192.

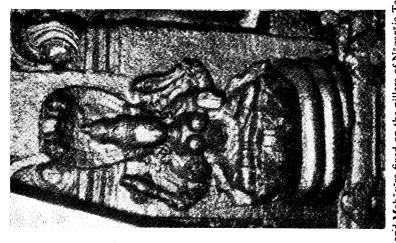
⁵ South India Inscriptions, Vol. V, pp. 122-132.

⁶ T.A.S., Vol. II, p. 126.



Dharanendra and Padmāvati in the form of serpents at the entrance to the inner shrine of Nagaraja Temple at Nagercoil.







The images of Pārsvanātha, Padmāvatī and Mahāvīra fixed on the pillers of Nāgarāja Temple, Nagercoil, speaks of its being originally a Jain Temple.

at Thiruchcharanathumalai denotes that the King Varaguna of Ay dynasty in the 9th century A.D. was a staunch Jain. From this inscription we also learn that Jainism flourished in the area with royal support.

The Jain scholars grouped together and formed a Sangham that is a study centre near Kottar in the 7th Century A.D. The name of a village Puravaseri near Kottar is derived from "Pulavarseri" which means a colony of scholars. One of the inscriptions found in the Kṛṣṇa Temple at Puravaseri mentions the land which was donated to the temple belongs to Jains (Pallichantham).

The gigantic images of the two serpents at the entrance to the inner shrine with the 23rd Tirthankara Parsvanatha resting on the spiral-shaped thick coil of one of them narrate an episode in the life of Parsvanatha and his connections with the serpents. This episode is depicted in the Uttarapurana. The legend goes that a snake couple killed by the arrogant Mahipala listened to the soothing hymns of Pārśvanātha before they died and were reborn as the snake king and queen in the Netherworld. One day while the saint was in deep meditation his spiritual radiance halted the flight of God Samvara's car. Annoyed at this Samvara caused a heavy downpour of rain, but failed in his attempt to disrupt the meditation of Parsvanatha. In order to rescue the saint from the rising floods the snake King Dharanendra spread his hood over him, and his Queen Padmavati planted a lotus under his feet. Thus the saint rose above the waters and was saved. Thus these images which depict the episode in the life of Parsvanatha also confirm the Jain origin of the Nagaraja Temple.

In ancient days devotees from Kongunadu (present Coimbatore and Salem areas) came here and worshipped the deity. The illumination on the last Sunday of Avani is locally called Kongunattu Vilakku. It is interesting to note that Kongunadu was also a famous centre of Jains in ancient days.

At the time of reconstruction and renovation in the 17th Century A.D. the temple might have passed into the hands of the Hindus. When Jain Pallis became Hindu temples, certain alterations had to be made, particularly regarding the idols, in keeping with the requirements of the Hindu pantheon. All the deities except Nāgarāja were later additions installed by the Hindus. The very appearance of the

sanctum of the Siva shrine proves positively the above statement. The shrines of Sastha, Durga, Balasubramanya and Idumba were only recent additional structures of the temple.

Another interesting fact to be noted here is the absence of the name of the deities Siva and Anandakṛṣṇa in the inscriptions of the temple. The earlier inscriptions from Kollam Era 681 to 697 (1506-1522) mention the name of the presiding deities as Nagar locally known as Nagaramman (Devi) that is the five-headed serpent in the northern side of the shrine and Nagaraja, the King of serpents who stands under the hood of a five-headed serpent in the southern side. They are only Padmavati and Dharnendra who are worshipped by Jains. Now the deity Nagaraja is locally called Anandakṛṣṇa. Most of the inscriptions found in the temple read thus: "Kottattu Nagarkkum and Nagarajavukkum" (Nagar and Nagaraja of Kottar). The inscription dated Kollam Era 764 found on the western wall of the shrine calls the deity Nagaraja as Thiru Ananda Alwar and the inscription dated Kollam Era 819 calls the deity as Śri Kṛṣṇa. devotees of the local area later combined the two names and used to call the deity Nāgarāja as Ānandakṛṣṇa. From these facts it can be surmised that the deity Nagaraja became Ananda in 1588 A.D. and Śrī Kṛṣṇa in 1643 A.D. The inscription dated Kollam Era 817 and the image of the Venad King Veera Ravivarma Kulasekharaperumal bearing the Saivite marks on his forehead which is carved under the inscription denote that the shrine of Siva might have been erected in between the shrines of Nagaramman and of Nagaraja and the temple was renovated and reconstructed by the King. It is astonishing to note that the name of Siva and Anandakrsna are not mentioned in any of the inscriptions found in the temple. The temple of Nagaraja is thus a fine example of the transformation of a Jain shrine into a Hindu one.

At present, the temple of Nāgarāja may be regarded as a splendid monument showing at its best the fusion of the four streams of Indian religion. Besides the presiding deity Nāgarāja, the images of Lord Siva and of Ānandakṛṣṇa have been enshrined in the ardhamandapa and the pillars of the mandapa bear carved figures of Jain Tīrthankaras, Parsvanātha and Mahāvīra. The beautiful southern gateway of the temple known as Mahamerumaaligai reminds us of a Buddhist vihāra. Thus the Nāgarāja temple stands as an embodiment of the four creeds Saivism, Vaiṣṇavism, Jainism and finally Buddhism.

Kundakundacarya: His Life and Works

K. B. Jindal

The year of ascension ($nirv\bar{a}na$) of Lord Mahāvīra is 527 B.C. After him there were only three persons who obtained omniscience in this cycle of time—Gautama, Sudharmā and Jambū. After these Kevalins (omniscients), there followed a long succession of apostles who can be classified into four categories depending upon their store of knowledge. Those who had complete knowledge of the spoken word ($sruta-jn\bar{a}na$), those who had limited knowledge of the ten $P\bar{u}rvas$ and the eleven Angas, those who knew only the Angas, and those who had knowledge of only one Anga ($\bar{A}c\bar{a}ra$). The periods of their ministry are detailed below:

		Years
I-Kevalins	Gautama	12
	Sudharmā	12
	Jambū	38
II-Śruta-Kevalins	Vișņukumāra	14
	Nandimitra	16
	A parājita	22
	Govardhana	19
	Bhadrabāhu	29
III-Pūrva-Aṅgins	Viśākha	10
	Prosthila	15
	Kşatriya	17
	Jayasena	21
	Nāgasena	18
	Siddhārtha	17
	Dhṛtisena	18
	Vijaya	13
	Buddhilinga	20

¹ Gautama was Gaṇadhara of Mahāvīra. A Gaṇadhara is an interpreter of the sermons and discourses of a Tīrthańkara.

	Gangadeva	14
	Dharmasena	14
IV-Aṅgins	Nakṣatra	18
	Jayapāla	20
	Pāṇḍu	39
	Dhruvasena	14
	Kansa	32
V-Ācāra Angins	Subhadra	6
	Yasobhadra	18
	Yaśobahu	23
	Lohärya	10
	Māghanandī	4
	Jinacandra	9
	Kundakunda	52
	Total	583

Taking away the fifty-two years of his own ministry, Kundakundā-cārya started preaching 531 years after Lord Mahāvīra. Since only in his forty-fourth year he became an Ācārya, the date of Kundakundā-cārya would be 40 B.C.

The personality of great teachers is lost in obscurity and shrouded with traditions. It is said that in a town called Kurumarai in the district of Pidat Nadu in the South, there lived a wealthy businessman by name Karamunda. His wife was Śrīmati. They had a cow-herd who tended their cattle. His name was Yativar. One day when he was driving his cattle to an adjoining forest, he saw to his great surprise that the whole forest was consumed by forest fire except a few trees in the centre, which retained their luxuriant green foliage. This roused his curiosity and he went and inspected that place. There he found on the branch of a green tree a Śāstra, written on palmyra leaves and wrapped in cloth. Yativar brought down the Śāstra, and carried it home with great awe and reverence. He placed it on a high pedestal and continued to worship it daily.

One day Srutasagar Muni visited Kurumarai town. Karamunda offered him food. After taking his meals, the Muni gave his usual religious discourse to the people gathered at the residence of

Karamunda. Yativar was also in the audience. After listening to the discourse, Yativar offered to the Muni the Śāstra which he had salvaged from the forest. On account of these gifts—food from the Master and the scriptures from the servant—the Muni was very much pleased and blessed them both. The Master of the house who was issueless, was to have an intelligent son and old and faithful servant would be born as the promised son of the house. The happy event came to pass. Yativar was reborn in his next birth as the son of Karamunda and Śrimati. He was christened as Kaundes and received his education from Śrutasāgar Muni. Before Śrutasāgar left for his heavenly abode, he had admitted Kaundes in the order of Munis with his formula of initiation: Sīmandharāya Namaḥ. Kaundes inherited his preceptor's water-bowl and peacock-feather broom (pīchī).

The newly initiated Muni Kaunde's later on came to be called Kundakunda. Throughout his life, he continued to chant his formula of initiation Sīmandharāya Namaḥ.

There is another version to this formula of initiation:

According to Jaina Cosmology, the terra firma (Jambūdvipa) is divided into six segments—Bharata, Airāvata, and Videha, with two antipodes of each. In the first two segments, there are twenty-four Tīrthankaras in the fourth cycle of time (Duṣamā-Suṣamā), But in the Videha Kṣetra, there are twenty Tīrthankaras in every cycle of time.

Kundakundācārya lived in Bharata Kṣetra in which we all live. There was a lingering doubt in the mind of Kundakundācārya which none in Bharata Kṣetra could dispel. A colleague of Kundakundācārya in his pervious birth, became a Deva in the next birth. To dispel the doubt, the Deva physically transported Kundakundācārya to Videha Kṣetra. The first Tīrthankara of Videha Kṣetra, Sīmandhara, gave audience to Kundakundācārya and cleared the cloud in his mind. Thus enlightened, Kundakundācārya was brought back to Bharata Kṣetra by the Deva. Kundakundācārya was deeply beholden to Sīmandhara Svāmī for having lead him to right Belief and Right Conduct. In token of his respect and gratitude, Kundakundācārya constantly chanted the name of the Tīrthankara—Simandharāya Namaḥ.

At the time of Bhadrabāhu there was a terrible famine in the north. Bhadrabāhu took a large body of ascetics with him and migrated to the South. The Pāṇḍya Kings of the South were Jainas from very

Karamunda. Yativar was also in the audience. After listening to the discourse, Yativar offered to the Muni the \hat{Sastra} which he had salvaged from the forest. On account of these gifts—food from the Master and the scriptures from the servant—the Muni was very much pleased and blessed them both. The Master of the house who was issueless, was to have an intelligent son and old and faithful servant would be born as the promised son of the house. The happy event came to pass. Yativar was reborn in his next birth as the son of Karamunda and Śrīmati. He was christened as Kaundeś and received his education from Śrutasāgar Muni. Before Śrutasāgar left for his heavenly abode, he had admitted Kaundeś in the order of Munis with his formula of initiation: Sīmandharāya Namah. Kaundeś inherited his preceptor's water-bowl and peacock-feather broom $(p\bar{i}ch\bar{i})$.

The newly initiated Muni Kaundes later on came to be called Kundakunda. Throughout his life, he continued to chant his formula of initiation Sīmandharāya Namaḥ.

There is another version to this formula of initiation:

According to Jaina Cosmology, the terra firma (Jambūdvipa) is divided into six segments—Bharata, Airāvata, and Videha, with two antipodes of each. In the first two segments, there are twenty-four Tirthankaras in the fourth cycle of time (Duṣamā-Suṣamā), But in the Videha Kṣetra, there are twenty Tirthankaras in every cycle of time.

Kundakundācārya lived in Bharata Kṣetra in which we all live. There was a lingering doubt in the mind of Kundakundācārya which none in Bharata Kṣetra could dispel. A colleague of Kundakundācārya in his pervious birth, became a Deva in the next birth. To dispel the doubt, the Deva physically transported Kundakundācārya to Videha Kṣetra. The first Tīrthaṅkara of Videha Kṣetra, Sīmandhara, gave audience to Kundakundācārya and cleared the cloud in his mind. Thus enlightened, Kundakundācārya was brought back to Bharata Kṣetra by the Deva. Kundakundācārya was deeply beholden to Sīmandhara Svāmī for having lead him to right Belief and Right Conduct. In token of his respect and gratitude, Kundakundācārya constantly chanted the name of the Tīrthaṅkara—Simandharāya Namaḥ.

At the time of Bhadrabāhu there was a terrible famine in the north. Bhadrabāhu took a large body of ascetics with him and migrated to the South. The Pāṇḍya Kings of the South were Jainas from very

early times and Bhadrabāhu accepted the hospitality of the then king. Bhadrabāhu migrated from the North to the South, but Kundakunda was the son of the soil. Guntakal is an important Railway Junction in modern Andhra Pradesh. Near it is the town of Kundakunda in the District of Anantapur. This is the birthplace of Kundakundācārya. In the days of the Ācārya, this entire area was called Pidat Nadu, referred to above Indeed, Andhra Pradesh was carved out after 1950 from what was formerly Madras Presidency, and still earlier the greater Tamil Nadu.

125 kilometres from the Madras City, and eight kilometres from Vandvasi Tehsil is Ponnurmalai. On a hillock here, there are the footprints² of Kundakundācārya. Below the footprints is inscribed:

dakşina dese malaye hemagrāme munirmahātmāsīt helātcāryo nāmnā dravila gaņādhīsvaro dhīmān

Translated in English it means—"In the south hill range, there is nestled a village called Hemagrama (Ponnur). In this village lived the wise and learned Elacarya, the leader of an Order of Saints." Elacarya is the other name of Kundakundacarya.

During his itineraries, Kundakundācārya also visited Mylapore, on the sea coast, very near Madras. It is here that he wrote the great Tamil treatise Tirukkural. Tirukkural is regarded as Tamil Veda. It is a great treatise on polity, morality and ethics. It was then a practice that anybody who wrote a treatise had to read it out to his Order to get their approval and sanction Kundakundācārya was a Digambar naked Sadhu and he could not personally appear and read out the treatise before the conclave. So he sent his disciple Tiruvulla Nainar to officiate for him. Tiruvulla Nainar took Tirukkural to Madurai and there he read out and explained the importance of the treatise to the conclave of Saints gathered there. The Saints mistook him for the author. And that is how Tirukkural came to be associated with Tiruvulla Nainar. The mistake in the identity of the author continues till today. Tirukkural has been translated in Hindi by Govinda Rai Sastri and printed and published by Kundakunda Bharati, Special Institutional Area, New Delhi. Between January, 1988 and December, 1992, this Hindi version of Tirukkural has had four editions. But in

² Foot-prints are carved out at the place where the person concerned breathed his last.

each edition, the name of the original author in Tamil is mentioned as Tiruvulla Nainar (Tiruvalluvar).

At the time of Kundakundācārya, the Pallavas ruled in Tamil Nadu, with Kānjipuram as their capital. Siva Mahārāj or Siva Skandha Varmā was a Jaina King of the Pallava dynasty. For him Kundakundācārya wrote the Prābhrt Trayī—Pañcāstikāya Sāra, Pravacana Sāra and Samaya Sāra. The Ācārya is reputed to have written 85 Pāhudas, out of which only twelve are extant—the three Prābhrtas mentioned above, Niyama Sāra and Asta Pāhudas.

 $Pa\tilde{n}c\tilde{a}stik\bar{a}ya$ $S\bar{a}ra$ treats about the five cosmic constituents. The five cosmic constituents are $j\bar{\imath}va$ (soul), pudgala (matter), dharma (principle of motion), adharma (principle of rest) and $\bar{a}k\bar{a}sa$ (space).

Pravacana Sāra is in three parts. The first part states that a Kevalī absorbed in his Self, is above all sensual feelings—above pleasure and pain. The second part states that knowledge is in corelation to the five cosmic constituents. The third and last part deals with dravya and bhāva lingas, the externals and internals of a Muni—his eleven hall-marks and his true disposition.

Samaya Sāra describes the pure nature of the Soul. The word "Samaya" is used in the sense of absorption or realisation. Selfabsorption is the central goal to be aimed at by the Soul struggling to be free from the fetters of the mundane bondage of karmas.

Niyama Sāra deals with the path of liberation, which is Right Belief, Right Knowledge and Right Conduct—the three jewels of Jaina faith. The word Niyama literally means "rule of law" and Sāra means "the right". Niyama Sāra thus signifies the Right Rule, i.e., the true and indispensable law for the attainement of liberation. The whole gist of this treatise is to show that the all-pure, all-conscious, all-blissful and self-absorbed soul alone is the Siddha, a perfect soul. If a soul is in bondage with Karmic matter, i.e., if it has any connection, whatsoever, with the non-soul, it is imperfect and under delusion. When this connection with the non-self is completely severed, Siddha-pada, Perfection, is attained.

The Asta (Eight) Pāhudas are discourses on:

1. Darśana — Right Belief

2. Sūtra — Twelve Angas

3. Cāritra — Right Conduct

4. Bodha — Eleven hall-marks of a Muni

5. Bhāva — Soul Activity

6. Moksa — Path to Salvation

7. Linga — Who is a real Muni?

8. Sīla — True disposition of a Muni

The Asta Pāhudas were written at a time when decadence had set in and there was schism in Jainism. In the Eight Pāhudas, the Jaina Munis are reminded of the high Order to which they belong and they are exhorted not to deviate from the path of rectitude and asceticism set for them by their preceptors.

Question arises why the author chose to call his works as *Pāhuḍa*? In Volume I, Part 1, *Gāthā* 13, page 297 of *Kaṣāya Pāhuḍas*, there is question-answer:

pāhude tti kā ņirutti? jamhā padehi phudam tamhā pāhudam

Query: What is the etymological explanation of Pāhuḍa?

Reply: All that is written in verse-form is Pāhuda.

Thus in a generic sense, all that is written in Prakrit verse is $P\bar{a}huda$. The Sanskrit equivalent of $P\bar{a}huda$ is Prabhrta. On the same page 297 of $Kas\bar{a}ya$ $P\bar{a}huda$, the word $Pr\bar{a}bhrta$ is explained as under:

prakṛṣṭena tīrthaṇkareṇa ābhṛtaṁ prasthāpitam iti prābhṛtaṁ prakṛṣṭairācāryairvidyāvittavadvirābhṛtaṁ dhāritam vyākhyātamānītamiti vā prābhṛtaṁ

³ By Gunadharācārya, Digambar Jain Sangh Granthamālā, Series 1, second edition, 1974 publication.

"That which is laid down by the Tirthankaras is *Prābhṛta*. That which was imbibed by the Ācāryas and later on preached by them and carried over from predecessor to successor is *Prābhṛta*. The Ācārya's only wealth is their learning."

In the Appendix to Samaya Sāra, it is said that when a vassal meets his lord, he offers his humble tribute to his lord. The soul in bondage is the vassal and the liberated soul is the lord. The Ātmā is striving to have a glimpse of the Paramātmā and, therefore, it makes a substantial tribute of the written word to the Paramātmā. All Śāstras are Prabhrta, offerings or gifts, by the Ācāryas to the Arhatas and the Siddhas.

Thus we have three shades of meaning of the word $P\bar{a}huda$ or $Pr\bar{a}bhrta$:

- 1. All that is written in Prakrit verse-form;
- 2. All that was spoken by the Tirthankaras and imbibed by the Acaryas and passed on to posterity; and
- 3. The written sastra offered at the feet of the Masters. Numbers 2 and 3 are two sides of the same coin.

A Note on Sarasvatamandana

Satyavrat

The combined testimony of the Śrngāramandana and Campūmandana reveals it beyond doubt that Prime Minister Mandana had made substantial contribution towards enriching Sanskrit grammar, as well. While in the former he proudly projects himself as the illustrious author of Sārasvatamandana (and the Kāvyamandana), with equal fondness, he terms the Campumandana as a work brotherly (junior) to it.1 As is evident from its title, especially the alternative appellation Sārasvata-sūtravrtti, the Sārasvatamandana purports to be a brief gloss (vrtti) on Anubhūtisvarūpa's Sārasvata Vyākarana, which, not unlike similar attempts, seeks to compress Sanskrit grammar, as exhaustively propounded in Pāṇini's Aṣṭādhyāyī, within the space of mere seven hundred aphorisms. Suchlike compendiums are a veritable boon to the beginner, and serve as a gateway to the intricacies of Sanskrit grammar and semantics The Sārasvata Vyākarana indeed evoked wide following in the Jainistic tradition. It was perhaps to respect the tradition and minister to the academic needs of the young students that Mandana took it upon himself to resolve the text with his perceptive vrtti, other glosses thereon notwithstanding,

Unlike his other writings, the Sārasvatamandana is unhappily not available in print. Of two of its manuscripts deposited with the Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute, Poona, the one (New No 36) copied in V. S. 1632, is in a better state of preservation. Running into as many as 121 folios, the Ms is a riddle of sorts. While it is legible for the most, the text is hopelessly tarnished by tantalizing ambiguity and incoherence. The way the scribe has recklessly mutilated the simple words and known sūtras is an eloquent, though sad commentary on his poor equipment in Sanskrit. He had no qualms in turning banhayati into canhayati, śāsa anušistau into āsa anušistau, rāto ñau puk into rāto nau puk. The Ms is infested with such fearsome howlers, though the scribe is blissfully unaware of their gravity. With such a

yah särasvatakāvyamaņdanakavirdāridryabhūbhītpatih, Sīngāramaņdana, 107; Srīsārsavatamaņdanasya viduṣām santoṣadasyānuje, Campūmaņdana, p. 35.

hopeless text it is well-nigh impossible to decipher sizable parts of the codex or extort any connected meaning from it. It is thus a frustrating exercise to subject the *Sārasvatamandana* to a sustained appraisal. Nevertheless, a patient study and analysis of the text, as it exists throw up certain features which seem to settle down as the distinguishing characteristics of the *vrtti*.

Mandana's gloss is a exhaustive and useful to unravel the mysteries of the Sārasvata Vyākarana as a vṛtti on a grammatical text can be. The author has indeed made a commendable attempt to elucidate the Sārasvata text with his lucid gloss. His simple language and down-to-earth style combine to prompt the reader to negotiate the jungle of the corrupt text with a modicum of grit taken together, the vṛtti reflects, in no small measure, the author's equipment in grammar which his biographer Maheśvara has underscored with warmth and frequency.²

What strikes one most is Maṇḍana's technique of resolving the text. While, in keeping with the norm, he has sought to deal with the Sārasvata Vyākaraṇa sequentially reproducing the sūtras followed by his gloss thereon; not infrequently he chooses to be casual in merely paraphrasing the aphorisms in his language, without quoting them bodily. No serious offence may be taken against the method in so far as it serves to unfold the import of the relevant sūtras, but it can hardly be claimed to be scientific or adequate enough to grapple with a tough discipline like grammar.

Mandana was actuated by the desire to make Anubhūtisvarūpa's text, the clearest possible. In order to realise his objective he has resorted to a variety of devices. The most fruitful has been the method to explain the more important/intricate sūtras by dissolving the various compounds and/or paraphrasing the various units they are made of, much in the manner of a commentator on drama or poetry. His vṛtti is therefore brimming with expressions like vigṛhya vyācaṣṭe, spaṣṭattvād vyācaṣṭe, viśeṣamāha. An idea of his anxiety to ensure transparence to his elucidation can be had from the gloss on so well-known a sūtra as janikartuh prakṛtih. Says he: janirjanidhātvartho jananamiti yāvat/janeḥ kartā janjkartā tasya prakṛtiḥ mūlakāraṇam|etadeva spaṣṭatvād vyācaṣṭe|jāyamānasya kāryasya mūlakāraṇamapādānasamgam bhavati.³ He has not refrained from dissolving such simple compounds as stoḥ and

² jāgradvyākaraņasca nāṭakasubhālamkāravijnastathā, Kāvyamanohara, I. 12

³ Sārasvatamandana (Ms), pp. 48b, 49a.

abhvo in stoh ścubhih ścuh and abhvornādau respectively. This is how he explains the latter aphorism—aśca bhūśca tayoh abhvo iti nigrhya vyācakṣāno abhvorityatra uvabhāvadoṣam śabdanirdeśatvena pariharan vyācāṣṭe pūrvasyākārasya bhūśabdasya ākārādeśo bhavati nādau sati dīrghakaraṇam pūrvākāravīṣayam na bhvartham tena hrasva iti hrasvaḥ. 4 Maṇḍana has the wont to shed light in his gloss on other related issues, as well. Why i in the sūtra i yam svare stands for long ī also is lucidly explained in the vṛtti. When a short vowel is used in the sūtra, it denotes both of its forms, but when followed by t or kāra, it stands for itself alone. i varṇa iti dīrghamapi samgṛhṇāti yato varṇagrahaṇe/savarṇagrahaṇam taparakaraṇe kāragrahaṇe ca tāvanmātragrahaṇamiti. 5

It is simply beyond the tiny frame of the vrtti to sequentially dwell upon the formation of the whole gamut of words. The feat can possibly be accomplished in an exhaustive commentary (bhāṣya). Maṇḍana's vrtti interestingly seeks to instruct, within its limits, the reader in the process of formation of words, explaining the procedure often with sūtras but mostly without them, with mere reference to the sequence involved therein. The style doubtless involves repetition but is extremely beneficial to young readers not well equipped to try conclusions on his own. This is how he explains the formation of the yananta narinrtyate and causative pācayati, nrtī gātravikṣepe ṣaḍ dvitvam upachāyā rogāgamaḥ narīnrtyate|yaca ñi pratyayaḥ ñitvādata upachāyā iti vrddhiḥ dhātusajñā tibādayaḥ ap kartari gunaḥ ayādeśaḥa yācayati.

Pada forms the life breath of Sanskrit grammar. It is so sacrosanct to it that all else including the usage, sinks into insignificance. Mandana has been happily chary of the pitfalls inherent in the system. He, therefore, set himself on illustrating, not infrequently the use of a plethora of forms with brief but apt examples. The device serves to bring him closer to the present day grammarian who is so keen to acquaint the readers with usage by mustering appropriate illustrations from ancient texts or those of his own. This is how he means to exemplify the various forms, accomplished in his vrtti: abhūt vrṣṭih jagāmāgastyo dakṣinām diśam cakhāna kūpam jamgamyate turagah gāyatryoyatiṣthate sūtramuccarati.

With a view to ensure clarity to the subject and invest it with added interest Mandana has occasionally resorted to the style of the

⁴ Ibid., p. 83a.

⁵ Ibid., p. 9a.

ancient bhāsyas in posing the issue under discussion and meeting them convincingly. That he resorted to it in the brief gloss, speaks volumes of his anxiety to dispell complexity from grammar that is otherwise inherent in it. Thus, in the case of the example dadhi iha intended to illustrate the savarnadīrgha sandhi he raises, by way of pūrvapaksa, the pertinent question as to why the sutra i yam svare that prescribes the substitution of ya for i if it is followed by a vowel, does not apply here. He explains it on the ground that a special rule with its specific application takes precedence over a general rule which has indefinite sweep.6 Likewise his vrtti on the sūtra dviśca which provides for doubling the root in case it is followed by the desiderative suffix sa. Mandana asks inquisitively why the augment it is not added to the root bhū in accordance with the rule sisatāsīsyapāmit. It has been met with the simple aphorism vuh which negates the augment it after roots ending in u, a and grah, guha etc. The sūtra nānit explains away the subsequent query that why the root bhu does not take guna though it is followed by an ardhadhātuka suffix (gunah kuto na bhavati).

It is again to facilitate a clearer understanding of the text that the Prime Minister has inducted in the body of his gloss, the views of the preceeding grammarians both named and unnamed. He has referred to their observations by the stock phrase iti kecit. In the vrtti on some of the sūtras he has quoted a multiety of alternative opinions. While explaining the aphorism lingarthe prathama which prescribes the use of the nominative case, he has three views to offer, besides his own which combine/reveal the fierce controversy that has raged, down the ages with respect to its interpretation.7 At one place he has quoted Pāṇini, Kāśika and Nyāsa by name, but the text is so corrupt that it is difficult to make out what was actually intended here. The nomenclatures of the tenses in the Sārasvata Vyākaraņa widely differ from those in Panini. They are uniformly named after the point of time they represent. Thus lat therein is vartamana, lut śvastana and lit is nabādiprakriyā. Maņdana has invariably equated them with the betterknown Pāninian appellations which go far to remove the mist of ambiguity about them.

The Sārasvatamandana begins with an autobiographic verse in the sārdūlavikrīdita metre, which sets forth the details of Mandana's

^{6 &#}x27;i yam svare' ityādinā yakārādayah kuto na syurityāha|sāmānyaśāstrāt višesašāstram balavat|bahuvyāpakam sāmānyam alpavyāpako višesahhetvantaramāha pareņa pūrva bādho bhavati|parašabdo'tra istavacanam|tena istena savarņe dīrghatvena savarņavisaye yakārādīnā bādhah|Ibid., pp. 10b, 11a,

⁷ Ibid., p. 49b.

lineage and attributes his success to the lotus-like feet of Jinendra. It is followed by an exhaustive evaluation of the mangalācaraṇa of the Sārasvata Vyākaraṇa which runs as follows:

praņamya paramātmanam bāladhiv iddhi siddhaye sārasvatīm ju kurve prakriyām nativistarām

Maṇḍana is justified in his belief that the benediction has the sanction of the ancient masters. Thus in siddhe sabdārthasambandhe Patañjali has intended the word siddha to perform the function of the maṅgalācaraṇa. The imperatives of the benediction are likewise met by the auspicious word vṛddhi in the first sūtra of the Aṣṭādhyāyī (vṛddhirādaic). The author of the Mahābhāṣya insists on the benediction not only in the beginning of the work but on the middle and end as well because in his view it brings name to the work and ensures fulfilment of the readers cherished desires. Maṇḍana has sought to respect the tradition in his gloss which is distinguished by benediction at the three prescribed places.

Mandana is convinced that the lyabanta form pranamya has been accorded the first place in the benediction because of its happy connotation. Being indicative of excellence (prakarsa), the author hereby means to wish the reader successive excellence in prosecuting his grammatical studies. As a matter of fact, it is the prefix pra that denotes excellence. Parama in the second phrase paramātmānam he opines/denotes the infinite and inscrutable power of God popularly known as his $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ the cause of universe. The word $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ is meant to underscore his omnipresence.10 Paramatmā thus stands for Siddha Parameśvara. If dissolved as parāmatmānam, it would be synonymous with the highest consciousness. Bāladhīv rddhisiddhaye in his view is intended to imply that the growth of intellect costitutes accomplishment (siddhi) and that adds up to one of the goals (puruṣārtha). The adjectival clause anativistaram according to him denies only verbosity not the profundity of meaning. The author of the Sārasvata Vyākaraņa means to convey a wealth of meanings in limited words because absolue or intricate diction tends to scare away the green horn (durbodhāccalanti bālāh).

⁸ mangalādini mangalamadhyāni mangalāntāni sāstrāņi prathante virapurusakāņi bhavantilāyuşmatpurusakāņi cādhyetārasca siddhārthā yathā syuh, Vyākaranamahābhāsya (chap. 1-2), Meerut, 1977, p. 33.

⁹ parā jagatkāraņataya utkrstā māyāśaktiryasya saḥ paramaḥ, Sārasvatamaṇḍana, p. 1b.

¹⁰ atati satatam gacchati yadvā prāpnoti sarvavyāpakatayā prāpnoti, Ibid., p. 1b.

Maṇḍana has taken the opportunity to express his views on the objects of grammar as well. The five objectives $-rak s\bar{a}$, $\bar{u}ha$, etc. mentioned in the $Mah\bar{a}vbh\bar{a}sya$ are so well-known. But Maṇḍana soars high in holding Brahman (Saccidānanda Paramātman) as the highest object of all the $s\bar{a}stras$. That should be taken to be the objective of the present treatise also (tadevātrāpi). The fourth aphorism (tattu samanvayāt) of the Brahmasūtra describes him in detail. The author of the vrtti is convinced that on closer scrutiny, $raks\bar{a}$, $\bar{u}ha$ etc. cannot be held to be the highest objectives of the study of grammar. 12

The word sārasvatīm in the mangala verse, in his opinion, means Sārasvatī pranītam. The Sārasvata Vyākarana is traditionally believed to have been revealed to the author by the goddess of learning herself.

sūtrasaptaśatī yasmai dadau sākṣāt sarasvatī anubhūtisvarūpāya tasmai srīgurave namaḥ

According to Mandana anativistarām and rju reflect laghu and asandeha, admitted as two of the objectives in the Mahābhāşya.

In the author's words, the present vrtti is intended to dispell the haze of imprecise glosses that had enveloped Anubhūtisvarūpa's text, over the years. Besides that the Sārasvatamaṇdana is invested with historical worth in as much as it provides additional details about its author. Apart from the Kāvyamanohara, it is the only work to refer to him as Saṃghapati and Mahāpradhana (Prime Minister). It is again the solitary work to highlight his manifold equipment in various disciplines with the happy phrase sarvavidyā viśāradah.¹³

¹¹ raksohāgamaladhvasandehāh prayojanam, Mahābhāsya, op. cit, p. 5.

¹² na ca vicāryamāņe raksohāgamādayo' pi parama prayojanam bavitum śakyāḥ, Sāra-svatamandana, p. 2b.

¹³ srimanmandanasamghapati pranite sārasvatamandane sandhi prakaranam samāptam, Ibid., p. 15a.

srimaṇḍanaḥ sūtravidalmasāhimahāpradhāno' pyadadhātsusaṁdhin, Ibid., unnumbered verse.

iti......śrīmadbāhaḍātmaja sarvavidyāviśāradaḥ—śrīmanmaṇḍana praṇīte sārasvata maṇḍane kṛdantaprakaraṇam samāptam, Ibid., p. 121.

The Ramayana Culture in Karnataka Jainism

Vasantha Kumari

The epic story of the Rāmāyaṇa which has appealed to the imagination of the Indians has not only fascinated them down the ages but it has also had its influence on the general Indian way of thought and life. This has resulted in finding its expression in varied forms in Hinduism, Jainism and Buddhism, in other words, what may be described as Indianism. It is this popular appeal which indeed explains the secret of its survival.

The study of Jaina $R\bar{a}m\bar{a}yana$ presents an interesting picture, because $R\bar{a}ma$ in Jainism has occupied the place of Baladeva, amongst the Tri-sasti-salākā-mahāpuruṣa and not that of $Avat\bar{a}ra$ -puruṣa as he is generally imprinted in Vedic Brahmanical $R\bar{a}m\bar{a}yanas$. In other words, the mythological frame of the Jaina $R\bar{a}m\bar{a}yana$ is absolutely different in spirit and atmosphere from the Vedic Brahmanic frame.

Rāma, Lakṣmaṇa and Rāvaṇa form the eighth set of Baladeva, Vāsudeva and prati-Vāsudeva. Baladevas are of gentle and sobre temperament while Vāsudevas are violent and împetuous. Since Rāma is considered to be Baladeva, he immediately attains liberation. Hence the Jaina scripture upholds Rāma as Siddha Paramātmā.²

Vimala Sūri is stated to have been the earliest amongst the prominent writers to record the complete narrative story of Rāma in the Jaina version. The date of Vimala Sūri Ācārya has been ascribed to 1st Century AD.³ The tradition of Vimala Sūri was followed for centuries by the Jaina writers until Guṇabhadrācārya, who composed *Uttara*-

¹ H. C. Bhayani 'The Narrative of Rāma in the Jaina Tradition', Bhāratīya Vidyā, Vol. XXV, pp. 18-25.

² Ibid., p. 20.

³ V. M. Kulakarni, Story of Rāma in Jaina Literature.

Purāṇa in the 10th Century A.D.4 Guṇabhadrācārya made certain changes in the Jaina tradition of Rāmāyaṇa, which had already been established by Vimala Sūri in his independent work Paumacariya.⁵ The narrative story of Rāma in Guṇabhadrācārya's work Uttara Purāṇa appears only in a single canto.⁶ The chronological assessment of Rāma is made by Guṇabhadrācārya, who states in his work, that, Rāma lived during the period of Tīrthankara Munisuvrata.⁷ Besides, many eminent scholars through the ages have carried the Rāma narrative in the Jainistic form based on the findings of either Vimala Sūri or Guṇabhadrācārya. The rich epic tradition is also well carried on by the Jaina writers in Kannaḍa literature.

Cāmuṇḍarāya was the earliest and the most prolific of the Jaina writers to have dealt with the Rāma narrative story. He has gained a place for himself in the history of Kannaḍa literature by his prose work entitled Triṣaṣṭi-Lakṣaṇa Mahāpurāna popularly known as Cāmuṇḍarāya-Purāṇaṁ. It is like a handbook of Jaina religion and deals with the 24 Tīrthankaras, the 12 Cakravartis and each of nine Baladevas, Vāsudevas and prati-Vasudevas, a total of 63 śalākā-puruṣas. Cāmuṇḍarāya was also a prime promoter of Jaina doctrine.8 Cāmuṇḍarāya-Purāṇaṁ contains a canto entitled 'Rāma-Lakṣmaṇa-Caritam', which is, nothing but the Jainistic version of Rāmāyaṇa and it is narrated in the form of a supplement to the life of Munisuvrata, the twentieth Tīrthankara.9 Cāmuṇḍarāya was primarily believed to have followed the tradition of Guṇabhadrācārya while narrating the story.

There are a few key points to be noted in Cāmuṇḍarāya-Purṇnaṁ, wherein Daśaratha is referred to have been the King of Vārāṇasīpura in Kāśīviṣaya.¹⁰ But later he shifts to Sāketapura, where his other sons Bharata and Satrugna are stated to have been born.¹¹ To Subalā was born Rāma, while Lakṣmaṇa to Sumitrā, but in Cāmuṇḍarāya-

⁴ Ibid.

⁵ Ibid.

⁶ Uttara Purāņa, ed. A. Santaraja Sastri, Vol. I, pp. 464-633, Kannada Sahitya Parishattu, 1981.

⁷ Ibid., p. 477.

⁸ E. C., Vol. II, No. 476

⁹ Cāmuṇḍarāya Purāṇam, pp. 261-306, ed. Hampa Nagarajaiah, Kannada Sahitya Parishattu.

¹⁰ Ibid., p. 263.

¹¹ Ibid., p, 264.

Purāṇam no reference is made of the mothers of Bharata and Śatrugna, though it upholds the paternity of Daśaratha. Sītā' sdescription reveals the pitiful conditions of women, from birth onwards which is a sad commentary of women's position in the society. Sītā was born to Lankeśvara Rāvaṇa and his chief queen Mandodarī, who abandons the child after birth. Janaka who finds the child brings her up giving the name Sītā. Rāma marries Sītā. Nārada narrates the beauty of Sītā to Rāvaṇa. Rāvaṇa transforms Mārīca into a golden deer. Sītā is kidnapped in his aerial car, i.e., Puṣpaka-vimāna—Rāma and Lakṣmaṇa search for Sītā, the meeting of Vālī, Sugriva, Anjaneya follows. In the war which follows, Rāvaṇa dies by the discus of Lakṣmaṇa—such in brief, is the story as narrated by Cāmuṇḍarāya. Being a prime promoter of Jainism, Cāmuṇḍarāya has handed-over to his people, Guṇabhadrācārya's Jaina Rāmāyaṇa tradition in their own language for better understanding and appreciation.

The tradition of Gunabhadrācārya's Rāmāvana was followed by a set of scholars of the later period like. Nagaraja, the author of Punvāsrava. This work was composed in 1331 AD. 18 The Rāmāvana narrative story appears, in the seventh canto entitled 'Sītādevī-Kathe'. The author was highly impressed by the chastity of Sita, who is also referred to as Janaki. He begins the narrative, with an invocation stotra in praise of Janaki. A reference to the names of the other three queens of Rama, namely Prabhavati. Ratinibha and Śridhama are made. The speciality of the Jaina version of Rāmāyana lies in the fact that. Rāma is a polygamist. The story deals with the later part of the Rāmāyana, after Sitā's banishment by Rāma. The events such as reunion, agnipraveśa, i.e., fire ordeal, are narrated. In the concluding part of this story, Nāgarāja, upholds the chastity of Sītā. Sītā who undergoes the fire ordeal appears seated on the lotus flower and is untouched by Agni. Later she renounces the world and enters the ascetic order.14

In about 1540 A.D. Devappa composed the Rāmavijaya-Kāvya, based on the tradition of Guṇabhadrācārya. He has kept up the nāmāvalī of the chief characters of the Rāmāyaṇa narrative story as referred to by Guṇabharācārya. Accordingly he has mentioned the name of Kaikeyī as the mother of Lakṣmaṇa, but has abruptly

¹² Ibid., p. 264.

¹³ Nāgarāja, Puņyāsrava, p. 11, ed. Javaregowda, D.

¹⁴ Ibid., pp. 231-242.

brought into picture the name of Sumitrā as the mother of Lakṣmaṇa. From this, it is evident that the author was not very much in acquaintance with the nāmāvalī reffered to by Guṇabhadrā-cārya.

The outstanding figure among the authors of the Jaina Rāmāyṇa who belonged to the School of Vimala Sūri, was Nāgacandra, popularly known as Abhinava Pampa. He was a Jaina poet who flourished in Mysore at the Court of Viṣṇuvardhana, the great Hoysāla ruler in about 1140 A.D. His independent composition was Rāmacandra-carita-Puraṇa which is also known by the name Pampa-Rāmāyaṇa. 16

The following key differences may be noted in the nāmāvali of Nāgacandra's Pampa-Rāmāyaṇa¹⁷ and Cāmuṇḍarāya-Purānam.¹⁸

Cāmundarā ya-Purānam

Mother of Rāma is named Subalā. Lakşmaņa was born to Sumitrā. (*Uttara Purāņa* of Guņabhadrācārya refers Kaikeyi, as the mother of Lakşmaṇa).

He fails to mention the name of the mothers of Bharata and Satrugna.

He omits the interposing of Kaikeyi, the prime mover of the Rāmāyaṇa story.¹⁹

Pampa-Rāmāyana

Mother of Rāma is named Aparājitā, Lakṣmaṇa—Sumitrā Bharata and Śatrugna—Kaikeyi. (While in Kumudendu Rāmāyaṇa, the 4th wife of Daśaratha Suprabhā is mentioned as the mother of Śatrugna).

There is a reference to the interposing of Kaikeyi.

Nāgacandra endorses Rāvaņa with super qualities. Rāvaņa is depicted as an ardent follower of Right Faith, Right Conduct and Right Knowledge, a Jina Bhakta, having a fine Śāntīsvara basadi in the

¹⁵ Devappa, Rāmavijaya Kāvya, ed. Keshavakshatta, T.

¹⁶ Nāgacandra, Rāmacandra Carite Purāṇam. p, 5, ed. Dr. R. C. Hirematta, Bharatiya Jnanapitha, 1975.

¹⁷ Ibid., p. 5.

¹⁸ Cāmundarāya Purāņam, op. cit. pp. 263-264.

¹³ *Ibid*.

capital and many caityas all over his kingdom. Further Ravana is portrayed as a true promoter of Ahimsā Dharma. Accordingly, he is said to have even issued orders through out Lanka and its territories, that no animal life should on any account be harmed; and that his warriors should, for a time desist from fight; and that all his subjects should be deligent in performing the rite of Jina $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$. Further, Nagacandra depicts the war scene and states that the Yaksas or Guardian spirits of the Jina shrines made appeal to Rama and Laksmana to withdraw. Finally a pact is made based on which anything may be done to bring down Rāvaņa's devotion—so long as no harm is caused to his life and the palace and the temples are not destroyed.21 The above passages no doubt substantiate that the author had a knowledge of historical events as he lived in the court of a great king. He was aware of alliances and conflicts. Therefore he was able to get the real historical background to depict the events of the Epic War.²² It is even probable that he had some personal experiences on the contemporary social calamities and social scandals like religious strifes and misadventures on Jaina basatis and their demolition by the divergent religious groups of his period. The credit may however be assigned to Nagacandra for having built up the image of human Ravana for he has portrayed Rāvaņa as an ardent Jina Bhakta. Thus it becomes evident that Nagacandra's motive was to suppress hateful ideas against Rāvana.

Kumudendu Ācārya's version of the Rāmāyaṇa is based on the tradition of Nāgacandra's Rāmacandra-carita-Purāṇa. Kumudendu is specially glorified as Hoysālaraya Rājaguru in an inscription at Śravaṇa-belgola,²³ and this Hoysāla King was Narasimha-III, according to the Bannegudda inscription.²⁴ He had many titles like, 'Paravadigirivajra', 'Vādībala-Locana', 'Vādī Darudara Kuliśa', 'Paravādī Gandaberunda', 'Vādīgajakeśarī', 'Sarasakavitilaka'.²⁵ An interesting factor, which attracts the attention of the readers of Kumudendu Rāmāyaṇa is that, the work has been composed in different satpati meters by associating each with the specific rāga and the tāla. It is quite evident, that the author must have written this work with the intention

²⁰ Ibid., Ch. XIV, St. 82 to 97.

²¹ Ibid., Ch. XIV, St. 75-105; E. P. Rice, A History of Kanarese Literature, 1921, pp. 40-41.

²² Śrī Sāhitya, p. 797 [collection of the works of B. M. Srikantaiah]

²³ E. C., Vol. II, No. 334.

²⁴ M. A, R., 1911, pp, 48-49.

²⁵ Kumudendu Rāmāyaṇa, ed. K. M. Kundangar and A. P. Changale.

of composing the entire masterpiece in the musical form. In his composition there are references to the various ragas like Bhūpāli. Malahārī, Madhu Mādhavī, Dhānyasī, Rāmakri, Pālamanjarī, Deśigaula, Sāranga. Vasanta and Karungee and the tālas like tāla, Atta-tāla, Ghampe-tāla. Voddmatteve etc.²⁶ Though Rāma and Laksmana are basically the observers of Ahimsā Dharma, they uphold the Kşatriya tenets like Dusta-siksā and Sista-paripālana. As found in the other versions of the Jaina Rāmāyana, Kumudendu also abides himself to the traditional Jainistic pattern, but with a few glaring changes like the depiction of the fourth wife of Dasaratha namely Suprabha. who is stated to have been the mother of Satrugna. though the position of Aparajita and Sumitra is unaltered. Kaikevi is mentioned to have been the mother of only Bharata.

Devacandra, a well known Jaina scholar of the early nineteenth century (1770-1841), too wrote on the theme of the Epic story entitled Rāmakathāvatāra in Kannada prose form. He traces back the origin of the Jaina Rāmāvana to the times of Adideva, the first of the Tirthankaras, who narrated the story to his son, Bharata. This was passed on from generation to generation till it reached Mahavira the last of the Tirthankaras. He in turn, tells the story to the King Śrenika of Magadha, his devout disciple. In the course of time several writers like Kachi Bhattaraka, Nandi Muni, Kavi Paramesthi, Ravisena, Vīrasena. Siddhasena. Padmanandi, Gunabhadra, Sakalakīrti carried the Rāmāyana tradition in their works. Even Kannada writers like Cāmundarāya, Nāgacandra, Māghanandī Siddhāntī, Kumudendu, Navasena and others continued the same tradition. While concluding his work Devacandra adds that, he has clarified a few doubtful points which were found by him in the narration of Nagacandra's versions of the Rāmāyana on the basis of the Rāmāyana story narrated in Uttara-purāna. 27

Candrasāgar Varņī, another noteworthy Jaina scholar of the nineteenth century also composed Śrī Rāmāyaṇa²⁸. He is stated to have composed this work on the request made by the Bhavyas of Ganjam, i.e., the Jaina Śrāvakas of Śrīraṅgapaṭṭana. While featuring the main characters of the story, the author simply adopts the name of revered Kauśalyā as the mother of Rāma. Thus, the scholar sets aside the corresponding names like, Aparājitā, and Subalā mentioned in the

²⁶ Ibid., in every Canto—the specified Raga and Tala are mentioned.

²⁷ Devacandra, Rāmakathāvatāra. (unpublished, IKS, Mysore).

²⁸ Candra Sāgara Varņī, Srī Rāmāyaņa, published by Payasagara Varni, Bidare.

earlier texts. He refers to the four wives of Dasaratha, namely, Kausalya, Sumitra, Kaikeyi and Lakşmana Mahadevi, the last being the mother of Satrugna.

The Impact of the Ramayana Culture on the Socio-Religious Beliefs of the People:

Bāhubalī Colossul: Its Association with Rāma:

A few scholars have tried to refer to the antiquity of the image of Bāhubalī to the Epic Rāmāyaṇa period, by associating the colossal statue with that of legendary Rāma. The Munivamśābhyudaya of Cidnaānda-Kavi, an incomplete work composed in the seventeenth century throws light on the fact that Rāma and Sītā were responsible for not only bringing the image of Gommaṭa from Śrī Lankā, but also for worshipping it on the larger hill.²⁹

In Rājāvalī-Kathā, Devacandra mentions that the image of Belgola was formerly worshipped by Rāma and Rāvaṇa and also by the latter's wife Mandodarī. It is said that in ancient times there was a self-formed image at this place which was in the shape of Gommatesvara Svāmī which Rāvaṇa, the monarch of the Rākṣasas, worshipped to obtain happiness. Ananta Kavi, in Gommatesvara-Carite, tells us that the shooting of an arrow by Camuṇḍarāya resulted in the revelation of the image of Gommata. These observances throw light on the natural tendency prevailing amongst the people who have always been valuing the sanctity of the legendary personages, than the truth of the historical accomplishments of the human beings.

Humcha Padmāvatī Basti. Its Association with Rama:

An inscription on the outdoor of Padmāvatī basti states that the basti was created by Lord Rāma and Lord Brahmā.³²

If such dogmatic beliefs are retold, generation after generation,

²⁹ Cidānanda Kavi, Munivamsābhyudaya, Ch. IV. St, 17 to 24. Unpublished, I K.S., Mysore.

³⁰ Devacandra, Rājāvali Kathe, p. 149, ed. B. S. Sanniah.

³¹ Ananta Kavi, Gommatesvara Carite, p. 12, ed. Dr. B. V. Sirura.

³² E. C., Vol. VIII, No 56(Nagar)

they get embellished and these beliefs are naturally passed on to posterity. However, it should be noted that, neither Rāma or Sītā were transformed into the objects of worship, nor were they adorned as mystic couple in the Jaina religious practice in Karnataka. Despite the fact that the Rāmāyaṇa tradition, in Jaina recension had been composed in greater numbers by the Jaina writers of Karnataka, the cult of Rāma did not develop in Karnataka Jainism. No stotra, either in praise of Rāma or seeking his blessings, were composed. It is significant that neither were the icons of Rāma and Sītā made, nor were they installed for worship in the basadis. Even the sculptural carvings, representing the scenes from Jaina Rāmāyaṇa failed to adorn the panels of the basadis.

Semblance of highly reputed personalities of the ruling powers, with Rāma, Sitā, Lakṣmaṇa, Daśaratha, Kauśalyā are found in the Jaina inscriptions, specially those which belonged to the period of the Gaṇgas and the Hoysālas. But, such references are very few in number. However, it is in this regard that Rāmāyaṇa has left its imprints on the Jaina society in Karnataka. The inscriptions eulogises the Epic personages as embodiments of high ideals. They appreciate the noble qualities of Rāma and consider him to be an ideal King, a stern relentless hero, an ideal brother, and above all the promoter of Dharma. Thus he is assigned a place of honour by the Jainas, while Sītā, par excellence is depicted as an ideal wife.

Didiga and Mahadeva, who are stated to have been the founder of the Ganga dynasty, are compared to Rama and Laksmana. 33

The early Hoysāla royal couple, Ereyanga and his queen Echaladevi, are described as Rāma and Sīta because of their renowned qualities and the protection of Dharma. Echaladevi was wellknown for her beauty like Sītā. They are also regarded as Dasaratha and Kausalyā and their son Biṭṭideva is described as Rāmacandra. King Vinayāditya is upheld for his chastity, and is described as Hanuman to other's wife. Hulla, a minister who served many Hoysāla kings was also a prime promoter of Jainism. He and his wife are compared to Rāma and Jānakī. Lakşmi, wife of Gangarāja was a Sītā in her devotion

³³ E. C., Vol. VIII, No. 110, (Sorab)

³⁴ E. C., Vol. II, No. 481.

³⁵ Ibid., No. 176.

³⁶ Ibid., No. 481.

to her husband. She is also compared to Chetni for her faith in the worship of Jina. Baladeva Daṇḍanāyaka and his wife Bachikabbe are also compared to Rāma and Sītā. Their sons, Nāgadeva and Singana are stated to have resembled Rāma and Lakṣmaṇa in their good qualities. Baladeva is described as an unassisted hero—Rāma in the battle. Viṣṇuvardhana the great Hoysāla king is compared to Rāma for being a stern, relentless hero in the battle. His renowned queen Śāntalā the prime promoter of Jina Dharma, is extoled as Sītā in the loftiness of devotion to her husband. It is also stated that a few of the royal ladies even excelled Sītā. Chandekabbe, wife of Nāgavarma Daṇḍanāyaka also claims her superiority over Sītā, in the loftiness of devotion to her husband, Chandekabbe, wife of Nāgadeva Daṇḍanāyaka is stated to have been even superior to Sītādevī on earth. Chaṭṭaladevī, daughter of Rakkasa Gaṅga has also been compared to Sītā. She is also hailed as the daughter of Sītā.

The Jaina tradition strongly upholds the view that Sri Rama attained nirvana on the Mangi-Tungi hill. The earliest reference to this effect is made by Śri Kundakundacarya, in one of his compositions Dasa Bhakti in which he has stated that, Śri Rāma, Hanumanta, Sugrīva, Nīla, Mahānīla, etc. attained nirvāna at Māngi-Tungi.44 The same tradition has also been carried by Acarya Pujyapada. In his composition, Nirvāna Bhakti in which he states that Śri Rāma attained nirvāņa at Tungi hill. Even a few Ācāryas of the later period have astakas eulogising Māngi-Tungi as Siddha-ksetra by associating this with Sri Rāma. 45 Further, the sculptural depictions of Śri Rāma, Hanumāna and Sugrīva seated in the padmāsana posture are also found in one of the caves on Mangi-Tungi hill. It is significant to note that, this hill bears testimony to the fact that it is being a Jaina centre. The other caves on the hill too bear the sculptural carving of Tirthankaras and Yakşa and Yakşi, etc. Presently, Mangi-Tungi hill is known by the name Galana hill and it is situated in Maharastra (almost eighty-six km from Manmad Station.)46

```
37 Ibid., No. 160.
```

³⁸ Ibid., No. 174.

³⁹ Ibid., No. 176.

⁴⁰ Ibid., No. 176 (Chikkabetta)

⁴¹ Ibid., No, 174 (Chikkabetta)

⁴² E. C., Vol. VIII, No. 39 (Nagar)

⁴³ Ibid., No. 192 (Thirthahalli)

⁴⁴ Kunda Kundācārya, Dāšabhakti, ed. A. Santaraja Sastri, p. 129.

⁴⁵ Santinatha, K. Hosapete, Māngi-Tungi Kşetra.

⁴⁶ Ibid.

But, the religious value of Māṅgi-Tuṅgi hill hardly has played any influence on the Jaina writers of the Rāmāyaṇa in Karnataka. Neither has any writer made any reference to this Siddha-kṣetra or Śrī Rāma, nor has it been looked upon by them as a pilgrimage centre. In Uttara-purāṇa and Cāmuṇḍarāya-Purāṇam, however, Sammedā Śikhara is mentioned as nirvāṇa-bhūmi of Śrī Rāma. Thus it is apparent that the myths and legends have always been a dominant factor in the socio-religious beliefs of the people. Stala Purāṇas, Icons, Sculptural Carvings, Festivals, Feasts, etc.—all these form the infra-structures. Through them, the legendary figures have merged into the religious beliefs and practices, thus, by and large they have mixed up with the historical facts.

Hence, on the basis of what has been discussed above and from the nature of the records, it becomes clear that the impact of the $R\bar{a}m\bar{a}yana$, in the Jaina way of life, was only superficial and did not reach the popular level, as in the case of Hinduism. Neither Rāma nor Sītā was included in the pantheon of gods and goddesses of the Jainas. It is also obvious that the Rāma Cult neither prevails nor has played any significant role in the socio-religious life of the Jaina community in Karnataka.

