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JAIN NON-VIOLENCE AND CONSERVATION OF NATURE

Dr. Binod Kumar Tiwary

There are numerous dangers the world is facing today, but among them, the biggest is the pollution problem and threat on the conservation of nature. Since a long, the people have been neglecting the nature and now, the dangerous results of such neglect have started coming before us. The people of the whole world have continuously extracted the natural resources for their selfish and petty satisfaction, which has caused the world wide pollution. The wild race of scientific industrial revolution, material pleasure, wrong interpretation and use of the scientific inventions, water explosion, the demon like mad increase in population, continuous damage to the forests, the use of insecticides, the attempt to grow more and more in the agriculture fields and the killing of innocent animals as well as birds in the previous centuries have fully damaged the natural environment of the world. In the name of various developments, not only the land, river and ocean water is being polluted, but even the air and space too is not spared. The egoistic nature and works of the people have destroyed the purity of our big ice mountains in one form or another. If we give a glance at our so called achievements, we feel that all behind these had been our personal greed and the violent attitude towards the nature. It is due to our indifferent thinking, the population of the world has even crossed the boundary of seven thousand million, but at the same time, according to the estimate of the "International Union for the Conservation of Nature", at least, twentyfive thousand botanical breeds have started extinguishing, of which at least one thousand have already vanished. These records are sufficient to state that the people of the present age not only think less and less on such dangers of future, but are almost aloof from the present volcanic situation surrounding them. In such a condition, there has evolved a direct threat of elimination of the whole living beings from the globe.

The most needed thing before the universe today is to preserve the nature, especially attention should be given more and more on the flora and fauna. On such a vital subject, the first scientist and thinker to give attention, was Encert Hackley of Germany, who in the year 1865, proved that there was close relation among living beings and planets as well as air and other natural materials. But, even after this discovery, nothing more was done to preserve the things of nature and the human concept towards it could not be changed.

Now, in this connection, if we come to the Indian cotext and give a glance at various ancient scriptures, we find that the old saints and our predecessors not only gave their views on preservation of Nature, but even had taken several practical steps in this regard as well. To understand those things and facts, we have to examine today the old Indian traditions, customs, the life style of those people and their religious as well as spiritual belief and thought. In the last decade the consumerism has entered into our culture very rapidly, but at the same time, we have started facing their evil effects on our society. In such a condition, there is no way left before us but to divert ourselves from the materialistic environment to that of the natural and spiritual one. The Vedic, Jain and Buddhist scriptures inspire and guide us of such life style. Since a few years, a good number of scientists of the world have started accepting the view that for the safety of nature and environment, the religious traditions and beliefs have to be seriously considered. While in the Vedic religion, people have been advised to accept the importance of kṣiti, jala, pāvaka, gagana, and sainsāra, the Jain and Buddhist religions preach people to be loyal to their surrounding nature, But among all, the Jain religious ideas and its nature of living give utmost emphasis on the ways of preserving natural objects and global environment.

The Jain religion is based mostly on five fundamental principles --ahimsā, satya, asteya, aparigraha and brahmcarya and directly or indirectly, one can preserve the natural resources only by following the above paths. Besides, the Jain Tirthankaras and other munis have presented before their followers examples of such an ideal and balanced life, which very much narrate their attachment and affection to the nature. The Jain religion gives too much emphasis on ahiinsā and asks people to preserve and care even the smallest kind of living being. It has been narrated that the earth, water, fire, air and plants are not only the part of the almighty, but even should be considered as having the essence of jīva. According to the Jains, the earth is like a living being and one should not commit violence to it. The earth contains thirtysix elements like soil, sand, iron, copper, gold and coal etc-- and one should avoid overextraction of these things. Likewise, people have been asked not to waste water and pollute it. If the water becomes impure, the fate and life of aquatic animals and insects as well as other beings may be thrown in danger.

In Jain principles, the *vanaspatis* or flora have been accepted as having jīva, which have the feelings of pleasure and sorrow like human beings. Here, the relations between flora and fauna as well as soil objects and air have been shown. In this context, even the scientific researches of today show that the planets, creatures and animals are closely dependent on each other and if there is any interference with one group, it naturally affects the other. While we get the life saviour air-Oxyzen-from vegetables, they even gift us flowers and fruits and help in bringing rain as well. The flora purify the soil and air too and so we cannot ignore vanaspatis at all. The green land, air and water around us are environment, but it is a pity that we are destroying them all due to our selfishness. We are brutally murdering even the animals and innocent birds, which have been presented to us by the nature. The Jain texts condemn bad behaviour and violent attitude to the animals, creatures and plantations of any kind. Even the creatures, which we think are useless for us like earth worms, frogs and snakes are not so, as they are helpful in cultivation. On the other side, the unchecked deforestation has hampered the usual and natural rainfall. While in one hand, the air is polluted with dust and poison, the global air temparature is increasing day by day. These ecological changes have brought the fear of drought anf famine. Besides, the cutting of trees is not only an act of violence, rather it is helping and increasing the pollution as well. The conception of jīva even in the grasses was recognised in the Jain scripture thousands of years ago. Later on, Clue Becuster and Jagdish Chandra Basu proved in their researches that there existed life in floras or vegetables, which like other living beings, take birth, grow, feel sorrow and pleasure and even die. In spite of all these facts, the forest wealth is decreasing very fastly due to our greed and selfishness, which is unbalancing the nature and environment both. It is our own misdeeds which have recently created the problem of Ozon and have slowly invited various global dangers and diseases. The Jain philosophy mentions that if the soul of any being is hurt by actions or words, it is a simple case of violence. Ahimsa does not mean avoidance of killing only, but it contains the idea of affection towards every jīva of the world. Non-violence can be seen in the background of human patience and wisdom. A man should and have to vaoid hatred, anger and harsh words if he thinks for the welfare of the humanity. Though, the nature itself tries to maintain balance, it is being disturbed due to the violent actions and thoughts of human beings.

Apart from the principles and customs of Jainism, the life style, events and biographics of the Jain Tīrthankaras and *munis* show their

all times attachment and love for the nature. They had been keeping themselves nearer and nearer to the nature and asked the masses to lead such a life in which they would feel cheerful and healthy. The dreams of Tīrthankara's mothers in which they saw various objects and events of the nature, are the symbols of their pious ideas towards the nature. Various plants have been given due honour just by calling them 'kalpavrkşa'. It is also corroborated by the fact that Mahāvīra and other Tīrthankaras got enlightment by meditating under one tree or another. The 'pīpal', 'vaṭa' and 'aśoka' trees have been connected with our religious customs and even today they are worshiped one way or another. In the ancient period, the saints and munis used to reside in the forests with a view to safeguard the nature and environment. All the above examples show that the Jainas gave importance to each and every part of the nature and requested their followers not to take violent action against them. They preached also to keep a kind attitude towards the flora and fauna in all times to come.

Now, assessing and discussing the old and new conditions, we find that the entire present world is facing the danger of unbalanced nature. The people have forgotten the utility and importance of nature before the present culture of materialism and consumerism. The scientists and ecologists are afraid today with the possibility of converting big faunas into deserts on the north temperature zone on the earth. It is also feared that some portions of the earth may become so hot that it would be impossible for anything to survive there.

But, still it is not too late. We have to keep in mind that to avoid such a situation, one has no option but to see and search measures in the old Indian tradition, culture and thoughts. In this way only one could be well-acquainted with the importance of nature and would give up the cruel ideas against it. In the whole Jain scriptures, nonviolence has been regarded as the sole way of pleasure and its minute form has also been discussed there so that people may think to become non-violent towards the smallest living beings. If we wish to control the rising pollution, crime, violence and dangerous diseases, we have to take ourselves nearer and nearer to the nature. In the present world, the biggest and most important human necessity is the preservation of Nature, in which every one has to be a sharer of it. Our urgent need of the current progressive scientific age is to search the ways and means from our ancient past for the preservation of natural resources as well as to understand its importance, so that the deep danger of nature unbalance could be tackled with.

MAHAVIRA - THE GREAT WANDERER Dulichand Jain and Pratibha Jain

Who is a wanderer? The spirit, which travels and yet travels not, which is far and near as well, which resides within and without - says the Iśopaniṣad. In the same vein, the Jaina dictum says - The medium of motion (*dharma*) provides movement to the spirit (and matter); otherwise the universe would come to a stand still, like water helping the motion of fish. Similarly, the medium of rest (*adharma*) provides steadiness; otherwise there would be no stability in this universe, like the shade of a tree providing rest to the weary travellers.¹

The spirit wanders from one birth to the next, moving on and onwards, a seemingly endless search, searching for that which is in one's own being. Like the *kasturi* deer, which is intoxicated by the fragrance and jumps about searching for it, not knowing that the fragrance is within its own being.

One can discuss this wandering at many levels, pondering over its geographical as well as metaphysical significance. Particularly motivating are the wanderings of the ancient seers, one of whom was Lord Mahāvīra whose wanderings were not just to sanctify the Earth, but a journey of the higher realms as well. His wanderings can be interpreted at so many dimensions and levels, because it satisfies the queries at all those levels.

It was an era dominated by the caste system, when the common man was in awe of the Brahminical priests, accepting blindly their monopoly and superiority, when Vedic injunctions were followed fearfully, when animal sacrifices were justified for the fruition of the Yajñas, when the Śūdras and women were treated as unequal and inferior, when religion was manipulated for the purpose of power and dominion. It was an era that saw the vision of the ancient seers and *riṣis* being suppressed by the power grabbing leaders who were editing and presenting their own interpretations of religion. In such a scenario of political unrest and religious disorder, there was a need for a code of conduct incorporated in a vision of peace and non-violence.

¹ According to Jainism, the whole universe is brought under the two eternal and co-existing categories of spirit ($J\bar{i}va$) and non-spirit ($A\bar{j}\bar{i}va$). $A\bar{j}\bar{i}va$ is of five kinds: Matter (Pudgala), medium of motion (Dharma), medium of rest (Adharma), space ($\bar{A}k\bar{a}sa$) and time ($K\bar{a}la$). Dharma and Adharma have a special meaning in Jainism as the conditions of motion and rest.

Such a vision arose in the form of Lord Mahāvīra - a seer of truth, a fountain of compassion, a life of seeking and self-realizing.

This spiritual path which he walked upon, had been sanctified by twenty-three Tīrthankaras before him, the 1st of whom was Lord Rṣabhadeva and the 23rd was Lord Pārśva². This paper will explore the social vision and religious insights of the great teacher through his geographical wanderings.

The journey begins at Kundagrama, a splendid city in the heart of Vaishali kingdom near modern Patna in 599 B.C. Born to king Siddhārtha and queen Triśala, this divine child was named Vardhamāna. At birth itself, he was endowed with Śrutajñāna (knowledge of testimony), Matijñāna (knowledge derived through the sense organs and the mind) and Avadhijñāna (clairvoyance)³. The presence of these three kinds of knowledge at birth is a remarkable feature of a Tīithankara.

Strong and fearless, this extraordinary boy grew up to be kind and religious as well. Detached to the riches and luxuries around him, he remained engrossed in contemplation about the problems of life and the world. He was deeply troubled by the adverse situations prevalent in society. Superstitions, animal sacrifices, inhuman treatment of women and Sūdras - awakened a silent revolution in him.

At the age of thirty, he embraced the life of a monk. Seated in a golden palanquin, in a magnificent procession followed by thousands of citizens, he moved to Jñātakhaṇḍa garden. There, under an Aśoka tree, after observing a two day fast, he removed his princely attire and wore white robes. He then pulled out his hair by his hands and bowing to the Siddhas, the liberated souls, he initiated himself into the holy order. A princely life was renounced for a life of bareness and tolerance. Pledging to abstain from sinful deeds and tolerating hardships with equanimity, he ventured on the path. Prince Vardhamāna became Śramaṇa Mahāvīra. He was now called Mahāvīra - the coura-

²C.D Sharma in his book, 'A Critical Survey of Indian Philosophy' writes: "The Jainas believe in 24 Tīrthnkaras or 'Founders of the Faith' through whom their faith has come down from fabulous antiquity. Mahavira, the last of the twenty four Tirthankaras cannot be regarded as the founder of Jainsim because even before him, Jaina teachings were existent. But Mahavira gave a new orientation to that faith and therefore modern Jainism may be rightly regarded as a result of his teachings"

The Jaina theory of knowledge includes, five degrees of knowledge that lead to omniscience. All the five are mentioned in this article as attained by Mahāvīra during specific contexts.

geous one because of the great vows which indicate his immense inner strength. He now gained the *manaḥ-paryāya-jñāna* (fourth degree of knowledge-telepathy) by which he knew the thoughts of all sentient beings in a particular space time. This initiation was the end of one path and the beginning of another. The inner journey unfolded.

The first phase of his wanderings lasted for twelve and a half years. Engrossed in spiritual contemplation, he was silent most of the time. Determined to overcome the need for bodily comforts, he subjected himself to all kinds of climatic and natural disturbances. Not discriminating between habitable and inhabitable regions, between smooth and rough paths, between safe and dangerous pathways, Mahāvīra wandered on. Nor did he pay heed to any advice. Steadfast in his vows, engrossed in the cotemplation of the self, unaffected by human, natural and supernatural sufferings and tortures, he moved on.

There was a Yakṣa in Astigrāma who tortured him for an entire night by assuming demoniac and animal forms; there was the ferocious snake, Caṇḍakauśika, in Kanakhal, who was a terror in the entire region till his meeting with Mahāvīra who remained unaffected by his hisses and deadly poison; there was the shepherd in Chamani village who was so angry with Mahāvīra for not taking care of his oxen, not understanding that Mahāvīra's silence arose from meditation, that he hammered nails into Mahāvīra's ears. At many places, the villagers were hostile and extremely violent. There are many such other tales during his wanderings, all of deadly tortures, but all borne patiently and unflinchingly. If ever he spoke, it was a language of compassion and wisdom which transformed such cruel hearts.

Apart from these soul-stirring descriptions of adversities faced by Mahāvīra, we also have accounts of the rigorous austerities observed by him while he was engrossed in Sādhanā. During this period of twelve and a half years, he ate meagre food for three hundred and fifty days only. He observed fasts for fifteen, thirty and also for a hundred and twenty days at a stretch. Immense was his will power, immense was his equanimity and tolerance.

It was an inner peace undisturbed by external forces. It was a conquest over the demands of the body, mind and speech. The final and most painful of all tests was the hammering of the nails into the ears. With that period, the adversities were over. This spiritual hero had defeated the *karmie* shackles with his army of determination and steadfastness. He became a Jina, a conqueror.

This period of adversities and austerities reached its zenith at

Jambhiyagrāma on the banks of the Rjubaluka River. It was the tenth day of the bright half of Vaiśākha month. Fasting for two and a half days, meditating under a huge sāla tree in the Godohika (milking) posture facing the sun, this ascetic attained Kevalajñāna (the fifth degree of knowledge-omniscience) - a state of infinite knowledge, infinite intuition, infinite energy and infinite bliss.

"Now the Venerable ascetic Mahāvīra became a *Jina* (conqueror), an *Arhat* (worthy of worship) and a *Kevalī* (omniscience). He became the twenty-fourth Tīrthankara of the present era." (*Kalpasūtra*, 121). Hereafter Śramaṇa Mahāvīra came to be known as Bhagavān Mahāvīra.

The inner journey unfolded further. The jouney hereafter was that of the teacher, the guide, and the preacher. After attaining omniscience, Lord Mahāvīra began to give discourses. As before, he wandered from one place to another on foot. From Jambhiyagrāma he moved on to Madhyama Pāvāpuri. There, a Brahmin named Somila, was organizing a large religious sacrifice. Several Vedic scholars along with their disciples were assembled there; chief among them was Indrabhūti Gautama. They had all heard of Lord Mahāvīra's enlightenment but were disbelieving it.

As soon as Indrabhūti saw Mahāvīra, Mahāvīra addressed him, Oh Indrabhūti! You have doubts about the self. How did Mahāvīra know? Indrabhūti had not uttered a word regarding this doubt about the existence of the soul. So, it is true, thinks Indrabhūti, he being a *kevalī*, he must have completed his knowledge about all things of all times. The universe has no secrets from such a being. All is known. All is transparent. Indrabhūti was completely humbled.

Equally humbled were ten other eminent Vedic scholars of that gathering who came forward to meet Mahāvīra, each of them with a different metaphysical doubt lingering in the mind. To each of them, Mahāvīra first revealed the doubt without their stating the same and then put forward convincing replies. No further proof was required, nothing more was needed to establish Mahāvīra as a true teacher. Fully satisfied and happy, all of them along with their 400 disciples each, surrendered at the feet of master. Thus 4411 initations took place in a single day.

This is the meaning of Tīrthankara - one who establishes the

⁴The universe is described in Jainism as an eternal cycle of Yugas, further subdivided into 6 periods.

Tīrtha or the religious order. Thus emerged the religious order of Mahāvīra - the Caturvidha Saṅgha - the four-fold congregation of monks, nuns, laymen and laywomen.

Such a magnificient incident reached far and wide and thousands of men and women came to listen to the discourses of Mahāvīra wherever he went. It is said that not just humans, but animals and birds were also attracted to his discourses. The rich and the poor, kings and their ministers, merchants, farmers, craftmen and all classes of people were sanctified by his sermons. Many became his disciples and followers.

The Sangha evolved efficiently under the able administration of Mahāvīra. Indrabhūti became the first prime disciple of Mahāvīra. He, along with the ten Vedic scholars, became the eleven Gaṇadharas. They formed the nucleus of the new order and composed all the rules of conduct and scriptural literature, which they later narrated to other disciples.

The Sangha was instrumental in providing proper guidance to the monks and nuns and in inspiring the laymen and laywomen to look after the monks and nuns. In the Sangha, no distinction was made between men and women, and the Brāhmins and Śūdras. All were inspired, all were embraced, all were transformed. The women being initiated as nuns was indeed a revolution in those times. For Mahāvīra, it was just a natural culmination of his respect for humanity.

The Sangha expanded very quickly. Soon, there were 14,000 monks, 36,000 nuns, 1,59,000 laymen and 3,18,000 laywomen. Their code of conduct consisted of a five-fold spiritual discipline. These are five *vratas* or vows of non-violence, truthfulness, non-stealing, celibacy and non-possession. This scheme of vows was very strict and rigid for the ascetics called the *mahāvratas* (Great Vows). They were advised not to stay in any place for more than a month except during Caturmāsa (the rainy season) and to wander about only on foot.

The householders had to follow the five vows also, but their rules were modified and less strict known as the *anuvratas* (Small Vows). Their duties extended to taking care of the ascetics, providing a temporary dwelling for them and propagating the cause of religion. This four-fold religious order was a self-governing and self-sufficient system.

For thirty long years, this great wanderer moved from place to place preaching the Jaina religion and its code of conduct as a way of life. He visited important places like Kāśī, Kośala, Vatsa, Campā, Pāñcāla, Magadha, Rājagṛha, Aṅga, Vaṅga, Kaliṅga and many others. The Jaina canonical literature⁵ has detailed descriptions of the wanderings of Mahāvīra and the transformation of the people based on his noble teachings. Thousands of people from various cities and villages and from different walks of life joined the religious order of Mahāvīra.

Bimbisāra, the king of Magadh, was a Buddhist, but his Queen was a great devotee of Mahāvīra. We find a vivid description of the dialogue between Bimbisāra and Anathimuni in the *Uttarādhyayana Sūtra*, which inspired the king to become a disciple of Mahāvīra as well. His son and minister, Abhayakumāra, was also an ardent disciple of Mahāvīra. Cetaka, the head of Vaiśali republic and maternal uncle of Mahāvīra, greatly contributed in propagating the Jaina religion far and wide. Many kings, such as Vīraṅgada, Vīrayaśa, Sañjaya, Seya, Śiva, Udrāyana and Śaṅkha Kāśīvardhana joined the religious order of Mahāvīra.

The last lap of the great wanderings of Mahāvīra was Pāvā. He came here at the age of seventy-two and stayed in the garden of Rājā Hastipāla. His discourses at Pāvā are recorded in the *Uttarādhyayana Sūtra*. Here he sat for his last meditation on a slab of stone. It was in the early hours of the fifteenth day of dark fortnight of Kārttika month in 527 B.C., transcending the wandering cycle of birth and death, this hero of the spirit attained the state of Nirvāṇa and became Siddha.

"And on that night during which the venerable ascetic Mahāvīra attained Nirvāṇa, the eighteen confederate Kings of Kāśī and Kośala, the Mallas and Licchavis instituted an illumination with lighted lamps for they said, 'since the internal (*bhava*) light (of intelligence) is gone, let us make an illumination with the external (*dravya*) light (of matter)." (Kalpa-sūtra, 127)

⁵ Bhagavatī, Aupapātika, Triṣaṣṭiśalākāpuruṣa. Harivamsa Purāṇa.

ANNEXTURE - I CATURMASAS OF MAHĀVIRĀ

1.	Asthikgram*	22.	Rajgriha
2.	Nalanda	23.	Vanijyagrama
3.	Champa	24.	Rajgriha
4.	Prishtha Champa	25.	Mithila
5.	Bhaddiyanagar	26.	Mithila
6.	Bhaddiyanagar	27.	Mithila
7	Aalambhiya	28.	Vanijyagrama
8.	Rajgriha	29.	Rajgriha
9.	Vajra Bhumi	30.	Vanijyagrama
10.	Shravasti	31.	Vaishali
11.	Vaishali	32.	Vaishali
12.	Champa	33.	Rajgriha
13.	Rajgriha	34.	Nalanda
14.	Vaishali	35.	Vaishali
15.	Vanijyagrama	36.	Mithila
16.	Rajgriha	37.	Rajgriha
17.	Vanijyagrama	38.	Nalanda
18.	Rajgriha	39.	Mithila
19.	Rajagriha	40.	Mithila
20.	Vaishali	41.	Rajgriha
21.	Vanijyagrama	42.	Pava

^{*} Spelling is not diacritical.

ANNEXURE II THE GREAT WANDERINGS OF TIRTHANKAR MAHAVIRA

1st Year 5th Year

Kundgrama Kayangala Sannivesha

Jnatakhandavana Shravasti

Karmagrama Haledduka Grama

Kollaga Sannivesha Nangalagrama (In Vasudeva Temple) Maroka Sannivesha Aavartta (In Baladeva Temple)

Duiijjantaga Ashrama Chauraka Sannivesha

Asthikgrama Ladh Desha

Purna Kalasha Grama

2nd Year Bhaddiya Nagari

Moraka Sannivesha

Dakshina Vachala 6th Year

Kanakakhal Ashrampada Kadali Samagama Uttar Vachala Jambu Sanda

Shvetambi Tambaya Sannivesha Surabhipur Kupiya Sannivesha

Thunaka Sannivesha Vaishali (In Kammashala)

Rajagriha Gramaka Sannivesha (In Vibhelaka

Nalanda Yaksha Mandir) Shalishirsha

3rd Year Bhaddiyanagari

Kollaga Sannivesha

Suvarnakhal 7th Year

Brahmanagrama Different Places in Magadha Empire

Champa Alambhaiya

4th Year 8th Year

Kalaya Sannivesha Kundaka Sannivesha (In Vasudeva

Pattakalaya Temple)

Kumaraka Sannivesha Bhaddan Sannivesh (In Baladeva

Chauraka Sannivesha Temple)

Prishthachampa Bahusalagagrama (In the gardan of

Shalavan) Lohargala Purimatala Rajagriha
(In the Shakutamukh garden) Mithila
Unnaga Vaishali

Gobhumi (In the Baladeva

Rajagriha temple of

Samarodhyama)

Rajagriha

9th Year

Lādha (Rādha Desha)12th YearVajrabhūmiSunsumarpuraSumhabhūmiBhogapuraNanda Grama

10th YearMendhiyagramaSiddharthapuraKaushambiKurmagramaSumangalaSidharthapuraSuchehhetaVaishaliPalaka

Vanijyagrama Champ (In Yagyashala)

Shravasti

13th Year
11th Year
Samulatthiya Sannivesha Mendhiyagrama
Dhridha Bhumi Chhammani
Pedhalagrama Madhyamapara
(In Paulash Chetya) Jambhiyagrama

Baluka

Suyoga
Suchheta 14th Year
Malaya Brahmana
Hastishirsh Kundagrama

Tosaliganva (In Bahushal Chetya) Mosali Videha Janapada

Sidharthapura Vaishali

Vajragrama

Aalambhiya 15th Year Seyariya Vatsa Bhumi Shravasti Kaushambi

Kaushambi Koshala Janapada

Varanasi Shravasti

Videhajanapada Vanijyagrama

16th Year Magadha Janapada Rajgriha

17th Year

Champa Videha Janapada Vanijyagrama

18th Year Varanasi Alambhika Rajgriha

19th Year Magadha Janapada

Rajgriha

20th Year Vatsa Janapada Aalambhiya

Kaushambi Vaishali

21st Year Mithila Kakandi Shravasti Ahichhatra

Kampilya Polaspur

Rajpur

Vanijyagrama

22nd Year

Magadh Janapath

Rajgriha

23rd Year Kayangala Shravasti Vanijyagrama

24th Year Brahmana Kundagrama

(Bahushal Chaitya) Vatsa Janapada Magadh Janapada

Rajagriha

25th Year Champa Mithila Kakandi Mithila

26th Year Anga Janapada Champa

Champa Mithila

27th Year Vaishali Shravasati

Mendhiyagrama (Shalkoshtak Chaitya)

28th Year Kaushal-Panchala

Shravasti Ahichchhatra

Hastinapur

Maukanagari Vanijyagrama

29th Year Raigriha

30th Year Champa Prishtha Champa Videha

Vanijyagrama

31st Year Koshal - Panchala Saketa Shravasti

32nd Year Kampilya Vaishali

33rd Year Magadha Rajagriha Champa Prishthachampa Rajagriha

-34th Year Rajagriha (Gunasheel Caitya) Nalanda

35th Year Videha Janapada Vanijyagrama Kollaga Sannivesh Vaishali

36th Year Kaushal Janapada Panchal Janapada Surasena Janapada

Saket

Kampilyapura Sauryapura Mathura Nandipura Videha Janapada

Mithila

37th Year Magadha Janapada

Rajagriha

38th Year Magadha Janapada Rajagriha Nalanda

39th Year Videha Janapada Mithila

40th Year Videha Janapada Mithila

41st Year Magadha Janapada Rajagriha

42nd Year Rajagriha Pava

JAINA PERSPECTIVE ON ADVAITA VEDANTA Jagdish Prasad Jain "Sadhak"

Śańkara's introduction to his *Bhāṣya* is a philosophical masterpiece by itself. There he gives his own personal opinion without being constained to follow the *sūtras* of the text. Hence he freely expresses his views on life and things. This introduction contains several ideas, which correspond closely to those of Ācārya Kundakunda. Firstly, both maintain that the Self and non-Self are two entirely distinct entities. Secondly, both make the distinction between *vyavalṣāra* and *paramārthika* (Śaṅkara) or *niścaya* (Kundakunda), i.e. between empirical and transcendental perspectives. The two entities, Self and non-Self, have no common nature and no common attributes. One is *cetana* (subject or *viṣayin*) and the other is *acetana* (object or *viṣaya*) or *jaḍa*. The two are as much as opposed to each other as light and darkness.

According to Śańkara the attributes of the one cannot be transferred or superimposed upon the other. But our practical life depends on the mutual transferrence or the imposition of external attributes upon the āunan (Self). According to him, this superimposition of the extra personal attributes on the self can be of the body (e.g. when one says "I am fat or thin;") of the senses as in "I am dumb or one-eyed;" or of the mind such as desire, intention, doubt, determination and the like. This beginningless adhyāsa (superimposition or confusion) of the nature of wrong cognition (mithyāpratyayarūpaḥ) is natural (naisargika). It rests on false knowledge (mityājňāna-nimitta) and is brought about by Nescience or Avidyā. As a result, the individual self in the empirical world or Saińsāra is influenced by this wrong knowledge, confusion, or philosophics/transcendental error (avidyā) and identifies himself with external objects or various psychic states.

Thus, Sankara points out that in ordinary life, every individual has to operate only through his body and sense without which life itself would be impossible in the concrete world. Even the cognitive process of knowledge depends upon sense-perception and intellec-

^{1.} *Śańkara Bhāṣya* , Introduction to *Brahmasūtra*, as translated by S. Radhakrishnan, *Indian Philosophy*, Vol II (1931), page 506.

^{2.} Ibid

tual activity which naturally presupposes the organic body. Even when the individual is looked upon as an agent carrying out injunctions, religious and ethical, an organic body must be presupposed for carrying out all those injunctions. His conduct, as a social being in the world, is therefore inextricably mixed up with bodily behaviour, without which he can neither discharge his duties as a social being nor as a religious devotee. In this concrete world which is real in its own way, the social distinctions based upon rank and birth hold good. That one is a Brahmin and the other is a *Kṣatriya*, one is a master and another is a servant, are all distinctions based upon the body and hold good only in the empirical world.³

In this way the self appropriates the attributes and limitations of the not-self (as is evident in the judgement "I am Brahmin" "I am fat" and the like). But the identification of the self does not mean the total identification of being, because the self is intrinsically real, and its identification with the not-self only means that the self owns up the not-self and vests it with its own existence. Thus in all cases of error the substratum is real and the predicate is falsely superimposed upon it. "Correct knowledge necessarily demands complete escape from such an error. Otherwise, it is not possible to realise the true nature of the Self which is the ultimate object of all philosophical and religious discipline."⁴

Therefore, Śańkara indicates the true nature of the Self which should be discriminated from the non-cetana bodily attributes as free from all wants and raised above all social distinction as Brahmin and Kṣatriya and so on, and entirely transcended the empirical sāṁsārika existnece "to whom even Vedic injunctions will cease to be operative, because he is placed in a region from where he does not want to achieve anything more, because he is completely self-sufficient".⁵

Kundakunda's study of the nature of the real Self or Samayasāra, the sublimest spiritual work ever composed in Jainism, deals with all these points and practically adopts identically the same attitude. Śrī Kundakunda begins his work with the distinction between the two perspectives vyavahārika and niścaya, empirical and transcendental. He describes the empirical world where the individual identifies himself

^{3.} A.Chakravarti in *Samayasāra of Kundakunda* (Varanasi : Bhārtǐya Jñānapīṭha, 1971). p.104.

^{4.} *Ibid.*, p.103.

^{5.} Ibid., p.105.

with the characteristics of the external objects as a result of the absence of true knowledge. The course of conduct prescribed by practical ethics is said to have only a secondary value as a probation for higher class. Bodily characteristics, instincts, and emotions and the various psychic states of the individual Self are all dismissed to be the result of the operation of the erroneous identification of the Self or *Paramātmā*.⁶ The self is established in his own pure svabhāva (nature) i.e. become Svayambhū. The empirical self, which is contaminated by the impure psychic dispositions of attachment, aversion, passions etc. due to erroneous identification with the body, senses and the mind, is transcended. In this transcendence one perceives only one, so much so that Amrtacandra, the Sanskrit commentator of Kundakunda's work Samayasāra, in declaring that in such transcendental state all dualities disappear (bhāti na dvaitam eva), sounds like a monist Vedāntin. Professor A. Chakravarti observes: "Thus without changing the words, Sankara's introduction may be considered to be a fitting introduction to Śrī Kundakunda's Samayasāra". The similarities between Sankara and Kundakunda would indicate that Sankara was well-acquainted with Kundakunda's philosophy either in the original or in the Sanskrit commentary by Amrtacandra.

While both Śańkara and Kundakunda make use of the pāramārthika or niścaya and vyavahārika perspectives as the cornerstones of their philosophy, there is difference between the two. The pāramārthika view as advocated by Śańkara negates the vyavahārika existence of other material and non-material objects of the world, which, in the view of the Jaina, have their own independent existence. Since Jainism recognizes multiple realities, while Advaita proceeds from the premise that there is only one reality, there are marked differences between the two systems.

According to Jainism, the reality is dualistic (the Universe consisting of $J\bar{\imath}va$ and $Aj\bar{\imath}va$) and pluralistic (the $Aj\bar{\imath}va$ being further classified into Pudgala (matter), Dharma (principle of motion), Adharma (principle of rest), $\bar{A}k\bar{a}sa$ (space) and $K\bar{a}la$ (time); yet considered from the point of view of one existence, it entails unity also. According to Kundakunda, in spite of the unique characteristics possessed by dif-

^{6.} Ibid.

^{7.} Kundakunda, *Samayasāra*, edited by Pannalal Sahityacharya (Varanasi : Ganeshprasad Varni Granthmala), Amrtachandra's *Kalash* 9, p. 27.

^{8.} Chakravarti, n. 3, p.105.

ferent substances, existence has been regarded as an all-compromising characteristic of reality, which ends all distinctions.

The $K\bar{a}rttikey\bar{a}nuprekṣ\bar{a}$ recognises that all substances are one from the standpoint of substance, while they are distinct and separate from their characteristic differences. Samantabhadra also endorses this view by affirming that in view of the conception of one universal existence all are one, but from the point of view of substances distinctions arise.

Padmaprabha Maladhārideva pronounces that mahāsattā pervades all the things in their entirety, but it is always associated with Avāntarasattā which pervades only the particular objects. 11 In a similar vein, Amrtacandra speaks of two types of sattā, namely, svarūpasattā and sādrśyasattā. The latter is the same as sāmānyasattā. In the Saptabhangitaranginī Vimaladāsa discusses the problem of unity and plurality of existence in detail, and concludes that both the postulation of existential identity and the articulation of differences from the standpoint of different substances are logically necessary and justifiable.¹² Thus, Jainism gives credence to the recognitition of existential oneness, but not exclusively, since it is always bound up with plurality. This is quite consistent with the Anekāntātmaka view of reality propounded by the Jain philosophers. Thus mahāsattā will be ated with its opposite, namely avantarasatta. It may again be pointed out that this mahāsattā is not an independent something, as may be conceived, but is invariably accompanied by its opposite.13 Kundakunda holds the nature of existence as one, immanent in the totality of substances constituting the universe, comprehending and summarizing the universe, having infinite modifications, indicative of the triple characteristics of organisation, destruction, and persistence and associated with the characteristics opposite to those mentioned above.14 Hence unity, duality, and plurality - all are in-

^{9.} Svamī Kumār, *Kārttikeyānuprekṣā*, *Gāthā* 236, edited by Λ.N. Upadhye and Kailash Chandra Shastri, Paramshruta Prabhavak Mandal (Agas: Shrimad Rajachandra Ashram, 1990), pp. 167-168.

^{10.} Samantabhadra, Āptamīmāmsā, 34.

^{11.} Commentary on *Gāthā* 34 of *Niyamasāra* of Kundakunda, Kahan Digambara Jain Tirtha Suraksha Trust, Jaipur.

^{12.} Vimaladāsa, Saptabhangiņī (Agas : Shrimad Rajachandra Ashram, 1977), p. 78.

^{13.} Rajamalla, *Pancādhyāyī*, I, 15, Malika Granthpraksh Karyalaya, Indore.

^{14.} Kundakunda, *Pancāstikāyasamgraha*, Gatha 8, ed., Mannulal Jain (Delhi : Bharatiya Jnanapith, 2000), pp. 24-25.

separably and inevitably involved in the stucture of reality. This is *anekāntic* view of reality.

Advaita proceeds from the premise that there is only one reality, the ultimate reality of Brahman, which is existent, eternal, everlasting and unchanging. The other "realities", such as jīva (individual self) and jagat (the Universe) are only appearances. Jainism, on the other hand, proceeds from the multiplicity of realities, particularly jīva (living) or ajada (sentient or consciuos being) and ajīva (non-living, jada or insentient substances). What is significant is that for Jains, the reality is both permanent and ever-changing. Substance or reality, according to Jainism, is a multifaceted complexity. It is endowed with many qualities or attributes, which in turn undergoes modifications, i.e. origination and destruction, with the substatum remaining intact. The nature of reality is dynamic and therefore the substance must evolve into qualities (gunas) and modifications (paryāyas) and must constantly undergo the triplicate stage of origination, annihilation, and permanence or stability.¹⁵ Thus, the Jaina view of reality is quite comprehensive and accommodates not only the realities of both Brahman and Jagat but also the concepts of both Being and Becoming.

Although Sankara and Jainism adopt identically the same attitude as to the nature of the individual self and maintain that the individual soul is identical with the ultimate reality, the Supreme Self (Sankara calls it *Brahman* and Jains *Paramātman*), there are significant differences. Though many attributes are common between the Upaniṣadic *Brahman* and Jaina *Paramātman* and they are used as synonymous, because they represent the concept of an ultimate reality, their implications offen differ. Although the word "*Brahma*" and "*Svayambhū*" are mentioned in the Jain literature and the concept of transcendence discussed, they differ from Advaita system in important aspects.

In the Svayambhū Stotra, Ācārya Samantabhadra, a staunch

^{15.} This is discussed in Jagdish Prasad Jain "Sadhak", "The Concept of *Paryāya* and Jaina Way of Life," paper presented at the Seminar on "The Concept of Paryāya" organised in March 2001 by the Indian Council of Philosophical Research in collaboration with Adhyātma Sādhnā Kendra, New Delhi, published in Jain Journal, October 2001, pp. 57-65.

For a detailed discussion on Upaniṣadic Brahman and Jaina Paramātman, see Foreword by Jagdish Prasad Jain "Sadhak" in Devendra K. Goyal, ed., The Path to Enlightenment: Svayambhū Stotra by Samantabhadra (New Delhi, Radiant Publishers, 2000).

advocate of Jainism, uses the word Brahma in its generalised sense, viz. the highest principle, when he says: ahimsā bhūtānam jagati viditam brahma paramam" (śloka 119). In śloka 10 Lord Ajita Jina is described as "Brahma-nistha" (engrossed in Self) and is requested to bestow "Jinaśri" on the devotee. Thus, "Brahma" and "Jina" are considered the same and therefore "Jinaśri" is the same as "Brahmaśri". There is no fundamental or philosophical difference between the two. Had there been any difference, Brahma-nistha would have been asked to bestow Brahma-śrī, not Jinaśrī. Elsewhere too, in Lord Vṛṣabha Jina stavanam where Brahma-pada (śloka 4) is mentioned, it should not be construed as entirely different from Jina-pada and in fact in the very next hymn (śloka 5), the Lord is specifically mentioned as "Jina". However, there is slight difference when looking at them from different points of view --- Jina-pada has negative connotation of absence of karmas, while Brahma-pada is primarily used in positive sense of absorption in Self. The two are invariably and integrally linked to one another and one without the other has no existence. This point is clearly brought out in this stotra.

The identity of words in Indian philosophical texts does not necessarily imply the identity of sense-content. In the Upanişads the word "Svayambhū" signifies the self-created and self-existent Brahman. However, Jaina Paramātınan means self-become (Svayambhū), i.e. the individual self has become (svayam bhūtā) the Universal one, or the $\bar{A}tınan$ has become Paramātınan by his own efforts. Paramātınan is, thus, a super-spirit representing the ultimate point of spiritual evolution of $\bar{A}tınan$ by gradual destruction of karmas through penances, etc.

The Upaniṣadic Brahman is conceived as the Absolute, one without a second, and as a cosmic principle. It is one and one only and has a monistic and pantheistic grandeur. This is lacking in the Jaina conception of Paramātman. Jains speak of many Brahmans, i.e. Paramātmans. Each Ātman is Paramātman. Paramātman was Ātman only because of karmic limitations. It is by realizing the essential likeness of all the Ātmans that Jainism has been steadfast champion of Ahirisā, harmlessness, and universal composition in thought, word and deed. The Upaniṣads consider Brahman to be the very source and support of everything else and view the world as a fundamental unity,

^{17.} See Yogindudeva's *Paramātma Prākāśa* edited by A.N. Upadhye (Agas, 1988), Introduction, p. 40.

one with the *Brahman* who is all-in-all. The *Paramātman* of Jains has nothing to do with the world beyond what he knows and sees it, because it is his nature to see and to know.

Paramātman, according to Jainism, is the unpolluted and the purest state of $\bar{A}tman$. Each $\bar{A}tman$ should aspire to become a Paramātman and when it becomes a Paramātman it retains its individuality, which is not submerged into some universality. A.N. Upadhye observes:

The Jaina conception of divinity inclines towards realist pluralism. Every soul, when it is completely free from karmas, becomes itself (Svayambh \bar{u}), and it is the divinity. Divinity as a type, a level of spiritual evolution and a culmination of spiritual attainments, is one; but every soul, even when it attains divinity, retains its individuality. It is the free soul, the higher self, as distinguished from souls in mundane existence. The Jaina God as a type is an ideal to all the aspirants on the religious path. The conception of God holds a great vista of optimistic vision before the religious devotee. It is often said that the aim of religion is the realisation of the potentially divine in man; this means that the self not only knows itself but becomes itself (svavambhūta), now immune from all matter; by becoming itself it becomes the God which nature was already inherent in the spirit but, upto this time, crippled by karmas; and this then is the state of perfection.19

In self-realisation, the Self realises or regains what are his own inherent properties or powers and which are part of his nature. He never leaves or gives up his *svabhāva* (nature) and get changed into something else, i.e. never adopts the *bhava* (existence or nature) of another object or substance.²⁰ As Yogindudeva states, "*appa so paramappa*"²¹ (*Ātman is Paramātman*), which reminds us of "*soham*" (I am that Real Self, as Kundakunda says in *Niyamasāra* (gāthās 63-65), and I am *Brahman* as Upaniṣads say). *Ātman* is the preliminary

^{18.} Īśa 18, Katha 4.1, etc.

^{.19.} Sri Kundakunda's *Pravacanasāra*, Introduction by A.N. Upadhye (Agas, 1984), p. 88.

^{20.} Jagdish Prasad Jain "Sadhak", *Spiritual Enlightenment. Paramātma Prakāśa* by Ygindudeva (New Delhi: Radiant Publishers, 2000), Book I, Verse 18, p. 75.

^{21.} *Ibid.*, Book II, Verse 174, p.1110.

stage of Paramātman, while Paramātman is the last and the highest stage of development of $\bar{A}tman$.

The transcendence in both Advaita and Jaina systems is beyond logical disputations and arguments. However, in Jainism the modificational standpoint, i.e. the existence of empirical consciousness at the lower level of moral and spiritual development is not denied or negated as mere figment of imagination or illusion $(m\bar{a}y\bar{a})$, which, as $Sr\bar{\imath}$ Aurobindo says, creates more problems than it solves.²²

Transcendence in Jaina view signifies that the pure consciousness relinquishes the impure psychical dispositions associated with the empirical consciousness, thereby realising omniscience and such happiness as is transcendental born of the self, supersenuous, incomparable, infinite and indestructible.²³ This transcendental self may be designated as $Svayambh\bar{u}$. This transcendental self is the doer of its transcendental $bh\bar{a}vas$ and also their enjoyer. In this state, the self is free from the cycle of births and deaths and attains the highest and the fullest development of its personality.

Another important distinguishing feature of Jainism is that every individual self has the potentiality of attaining mokṣa (liberation) and when ātmā (self) becomes Paramātman there remains no distinction whatsoever or of any kind between the two. They are equal in all respects. Moreover, the individual self on attaining mokṣa (liberation or self-realisation) retains its individual identity. There is spiritual democracy through and through. In Advaita system the individual self merges in Brahman. In no other philosophical system of the world (Vedānta, Viśiṣṭādvaita, Vaiṣṇavism, Christianity or Islam) except Jainism, the self-realized or mukta being is accorded equal status or treated on a footing of complete equality with Brahman, Viṣṇu, Kṛṣṇa, God or Allah, with the result that the individual self is assigned a dependent and junior status, even after liberation.

There are also significant differences between the Advaita Vedānta and Jainism on grounds of logic and ethics. Advaitism cannot explain without some duality to help how the all-in-all gave rise to itself or to the other-than-itself. The second objection is that if we follow $Advaitav\bar{a}da$, the universally accepted duals like the doer $(k\bar{a}raka)$ and its action $(kriy\bar{a})$, the things inferred and the inference $(pram\bar{a}n\bar{a})$ cannot exist. As visible differences cannot be accounted for by adoption of only Brahman, a doctrine of $M\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ had to be intro-

^{22.} Life Divine, P. 466.

^{23.} Pravacanasāra, n. 19. I.13.

duced by the Advaitavādins to explain such differences. The Jaina view is that the acceptance of $M\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ at once does away with the abstact *Brahman* and as soon as *Brahman* begins to work, its essential characteristic vanishes. In other words, the Jaina doctrine urges that the attempt of *Advaitavādins* to connect the ideal with the real world has failed.²⁴

Another argument against Advaitavāda is that in an inference, we prove a thing through universal concomitance (vyāptī), which is a kind of relationship between the middle term (hetu) and the major term (sādhya). For example, we infer fire (which is the major term or sādhya) from smoke (which is the middle term or hetu) through the relationship of universal concomitance, viz. where there is fire, there is smoke. If one says that Advaitavāda is established by inference, one must accept a major term and middle term. This is against the view that there is nothing but one (Advaita), hetu (the middle term) and sādhya (the major term) being used in a reasoning to establish Advaitavāda, it must bring in duality (Dvaitavāda), the very opposite of Advaitavāda.²⁵

If one says that Advaitavāda is not established by reason but by itself, the reasoning will be absurd. Nothing can be its own proof. If from mere words, a thing is established, anybody can establish anything by merely uttering it in words. Further, if Advaitavāda can be proved by itself without the help of any reasoning, Dvaitavāda can also be said to be established in this manner, which will give a death-blow to the former. Moreover, the very word "Advaita" implies dvaita, because there cannot be refutation, if there is no object to be refuted. It is a universal law of the mind to have negative ideas based upon the knowledge of its positive ideas. 27

On ethical grounds, it may be said that if as is claimed by the Vedāntin, reality is an unchanging permanency there is no scope for life, no scope for saṁsāra, no necessity for mokṣa, or mokṣa-mārga either. The whole religious framework will thus appear to be superfluous and useless, as it is based upon unreality. Change must be accepted as real, if life is to be real and if saṁsāra is accepted to be as real. It is only then that we can appreciate the utility of piety or dharma, and religious doctrines contributing to the salvation of the soul.²⁸

^{24.} Samantabhadra, Āptamīmāmā, translation and commentary by J.L. Jaini, verse II. 24 (Bhāratīya Jñānapīṭha, 2002), pp. 71-72.

^{25.} Ibid., II.26, p. 73.

^{26.} Ibid.

^{27.} *Ibid.*, II.27, p. 74.

^{28.} See Jagdish Prasad Jain "Sadhak", "Jainism in the 21st Century," *Jain Mission News* (New Delhi), April-June 1999.

BASADIS: MODES OF WORSHIP

Dr. Saraswathi

Basadi, Devotion and Worship are complementary to one another. From time immemorial Basadis have been a source of inspiration of Jainism and culture. They came into existence in a spiritual minded background and have become the spiritual centres and unifying forces.

Bhakti or Devotion is to develop love in Divinity, oneness with God and aim at deriving benefits therefrom. Worship is the reverence one bears towards the holy Divinity systematically. This process is prevelant in all the religions. This is the symbol of the cultural, social and religious heritage of humanity. Its foundation is belief. Since this has a heritage, firm belief, has come down from generation to generation socially. As such it is also universal.

Worship/prayer is the replica of the mental state of early man. Even before men developed the idea of Shrines/temples, the idea of prayer had taken root in man's mind. In those days man worshipped Forces of Nature. He prayed and worshipped forces of Nature like the Sun, Moon, Fire to protect him and keep him safe from adversities. He found Divine Power in them. We learn that there existed ancient religion which is today termed as All - pervading. This Sect worshipped stone, tree and animals, classifying them both as cruel and kind Forces. Thus the idea of worship emanated from man's fear of harm and also desire for safety. Here to the early man freedom from fear and security of life was more important than atonement of spiritual values and powers. Even to this day among the rural people worship motivates and emanates from the desire for material pleasures and comforts. In some cases it assumes a cruel form also. However as man attained spiritual growth, his aims and objectives reached higher level. In course of time, it devoloped as a process of religious faiths and in the background of each religion modes of worship became systematised and regularised.

There are some differences among the religions which have devoloped their modes of worship in the background of their culture. Excepting Christianity and Islam, which are foreign to India, both Hiduism and Jainism have close similarity as they sprung up on the Indian soil. We find deep-rooted in both the religions the process of invoking God, giving oblations, offering fine articles, *ārati*, *visarjana* etc.

In Jain culture the word *Caityālaya* is used to represent *temple* shrine. We find used frequently in Jain culture the words *Caityagṛha* and *Basadi*.

The ālaya or abode which comprises Caitya is termed as Caityālaya/Caityagṛha. These terms have been expounded by Jain Ācāryas in the background of Niścayanayana and Vyavahāranayana. Caitya is derived from the word cit which means soul (ātmā), knowledge (jīnāna) and light (prakāśa). Kundakundācārya has described Caitya as Ātmā.

Cā Iyam Bandham Dukkham Sukkham cā appayam Thassa...... Bodhapāhuda 9.

 \bar{A} tmā who enjoys bandha, mokṣha, duḥkha or sukha is the Caitya.

Even though the relative meaning of caitya is associated with $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ which enjoys joys and sorrows, it is further expounded that it is the soul which has attained a high and noble status. It is established that caitya is the great ritualistic $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ and the sages who wear it are the Caityagrha.

The body of the disinterested Sādhus is different from their soul on account of their niścayanaya view and enlightenment. In the Jina path they are the image of jangama. These sādhus look upon their bodies as well as the bodies of all living beings as the image of jangama. (Bodhapāhuḍa 8). Those who lead an austere life, who are right minded thinkers and who are able to know their real image through right philosophy are the nirgranthas who are the caitya who have conquered all desires and are entitled for praise. (Bodhapāhuḍa).

From the point of view of *Vyavahāranaya* in the commentary on Bhagavatī Ārādhanā, Caitya is used in the sense of *reflection/image*. (*Caityam pratibimbam iti-Caitya-*means image). The image made of candana, kaṇakamaṇi, sphatikamaṇi, etc, is the image of the abode (commentary on *Bodhapāhuḍa*)

A sage who is the embodiment of pañca mahāvrata, who possesses the enlightened soul capable of knowing sva and para becomes the Caityagṛha(Bŏdhapāhuda-8). Caityagṛha is the one which aims at the welfare of satkāya along the Jina path. (Cē Iyam Jinamagge chakkaya Hiyakaram Bhaniyam Bodhapāhuḍa- 9).

From the point of view of *Vyavahāranaya* the place where a structure is put up and an idol/image is installed is the Caityagṛha. It felt that the image of merciful God which is installed here will lead to attainment of real *caityālaya*.

Basadi is the word most commonly used in Karnataka. Scholars have opined that the sages who were the incarnate of caitya during their travel, used to reside in these places and hence their vasati has come to be called basadi. In Kannada basadi is used as alternative for devālaya, dēgula; gudi.

The idol which is installed in the basadi is espacially referred to as the *image* or *bimba*. In this context *bimba* is used as an alternative for idol, image. Philosophers are of opinion that the greatness of God is reflected through the image. Therefore *bimba* is not only appropriate but it is also synonymus.

Who should worship? Why? are the questions that arise for consideration. If viewed from this background, with respect to highly developed $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ need not worship. In the $Param\bar{a}tmaprak\bar{a}sa$, in one instance, it says:

dēvuņa dēvulē ņa visilayē ņa vi lippayi ņa vi chitti akhavu ņa ranjaņu ņāņamānu śivu śānthivu samachitti.....(1-123)

"Divine $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ is not found in the temple and not at all in the stone image. That divine $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ is eternal, free from the web of karma, only omniscient and complete. Such a true $param\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ is enshrined in right-mindedness."

In the Samādhiśataka it is found as follows:- "I am that paramātmā. Likewise by virtue of having self realisation, I am entitled to be worshipped through myself, and not through others. (31)" These words suggest sva ārādhya - ārādhaka i.e. the worshipper and the worshipped.

In another instance: "mind became one with the divine atmārāma and even parameśvara was also realised in the mind. While there is similarity between the two whom shall I worship? (Paramātmaprakāśa-1:123)" is expressed. If one views in the light of Niścayanaya there is no need for basadi or worship, whereas from the view point of Vyavahāranaya both are very essential. When we consider why worship of God is essential, we came to know certain facts from our Āgama scriptures: Ācārya Kundakunda says: Arahanta prostration prevents temporal bandha and at the same time creates a stream

of karma (it helps in Nirjara) (Kaśāyapāhuḍa 1:9:2).

In the Svayambhūstrotra Ācārya Samantabhadra says:

na pūjayārthastvayi vītarāge na nindayā nātha nivanthavaire / tathāpi te puṇyaguṇasmṛtirṇaḥ punātu cittam duritañjanebhyah //

Since Jinendra Bhagavān is *vītarāga*, love will be ineffective on him through worship. Likewise since he is free from hatred, abusing him will not arise hatred in him. Even then by praising the virtues and sanctity of God who is vītarāga, the mind will be free from evil thoughts. As such the soul will be free from the shackles of sin. This is the gist of the above sloka.

In another context also the same opinion is expressed: While viewing the images of *Arhantas*, one praises their virtues. By the remembrance of *Arhantas* one refrains from the present sins and evils. Jina's image will lead to the realisation of ultimate Puruṣārtha. "Even though the eternal knowledge and eternal philosophy of Jineśvara are not present in the *Arhanta* and *Siddha* images, they are the means to reach the goal. By concentrated meditation one can achieve Samyag jñana - Darśana. This gives rise to *Samvara* of the present karmas and nirjara of past bound karmas. For the realisation of the values of the soul, one should always practise *caitya bhakti* --- devotion to the caitya. (Jinendrakōṣa No. 3). Thus as per *Vyavahāranaya*, *jinabhakti* and pūjā are very essential to mortals for purification.

In the background of pūjā / worship, devoted dedication is essential, without which pūjā will be futile. If you prostrate before Jinendra Bhagavān without devotion, such pūjā will become useless, because even by sprinkling nectar/amṛta on stone, lotus will not blossom. Great emphasis is laid on this aspect by scholars (Bŏdhapāhuḍa - commentary 162/302). In the Jaina scriptures great importance is attached to right worship based on right philosophy.

There are sufficient evidences in the legends and history for the growth of worship of image or idol in Jain culture from time memorial. (Sthānakas, a Jain sect, are not worshippers of images, but they are the worshippers of *āgamas*).

Details are available in Jain Purāṇas about natural (akṛtrima) and artificial (kṛtrima) caityālayas. There are references to caityālayas in Nandīśvara Island and Pañcamēru Mountain. Jain puraṇas speak about Emperor Bharata who constucted artificial caiatyālaya and in-

installed thering the image of Visabha swanty and about Walibali who installed an image of gold. Some of the excavations and research studies made by some archaeologists throw light on the images of Tirthankaras of Visabha and other forms in Mohenjo Daro and other ancient sites.

So far 13 stone images have been excavated in Harappa. There is a reference to *Vṛṣabha Tīrthaṅkara* in the Hathigumpha inscription of *hāravēla* (200 B.C.). This inscription was got inscribed by Emperor *Khāravēla*. This Jain inscription narrates how Nanda, the predessor of Puṣyamitra of Magadha, invaded Kalinga and as a mark of his victory, took with him the most precious image of *Vṛṣabha* with him, and that after a lapse of 300 years *Khāravēla* got it back from Puṣyamitra.

Pārśvanātha images discovered in Therāpura have been identified with the period of King Karakaṇḍu. It is recognised that Karakaṇḍu ruled during the period between the periods of PārśvanāthaTīrthaṅkara and Mahāvīra Tīrthaṅkara.

There are references to the modes of worship performed by Dieties in *Tiloyapaṇṇatti* "Those Dieties offer in worship sweet scented and beautiful flowers like Sevanti, Campakamala, Punnaga and Nagaprabhṛti. Devegaṇa offer prayer and perform pūjā of the image of Jinendra with varieties of sweets and catables as delicious as nectar.

From the above mentioned sources, it can be noticed that worship of image - idol worship - has been a part and parcel of Jain Culture from ancient times.

In the words of Ācārya Kundakunda, there are certain specific and compulsory acts to be performed by Śrāvakas and Sages.

dāṇam pūyā mukkam sāvayadhamme na sāvayā tēṇa viņā jāṇā jayaṇam mukkham jadi dhamme tam viṇā taha nōvi.

Under Śrāvaka Theology 'Dāna' and performances of pūjā are the chief duties, without which one cannot become a śrāvaka. Whereas in the Theology of Sages, meditation and acquisition of knowledge are the chief duties, without which munidharma is futile.

In these directions great emphasis is laid on giving dāna and performing pūjā to the Śrāvakas. But this does not mean that the Śrāvaka need not give attention to meditation and studies. This idea is well-expressed in the following sloka:

"dēvapūjā gurūpāsti svādhyāyāḥ samyamaḥ tapaḥ/ dānam dēti grhasthānām satkarmāni dinē dinē// In this there is exposition of the high level achievements and attaiments of Śrāvakas. Everyday the Śrāvakas have to perform six prime duties, viz. Dēvapūjā, Gurūsēva, Svādhyāyāḥ, Samyama, Tapa and Dāna. Likewise in the Jain Āgama scriptures there sre six duties assigned to sages/munis, in which there is strict direction regarding pūjā.

- 1. Sāmāyaka (practising equality of mind)- meditation.
- 2. Caturvimśati Stava: prayer to 24 Tīrthankaras.
- 3. Vandanā : respect shown towards Paramātmā/God and Ācārya/Guru.
- 4. Pratikramana: Prāyaścitta.
- 5. Kāyŏtsarga : still position-standing or sitting.
- 6. Pratyākhyāna : sacrifice /giving up food and bodily comforts for a stipulated period.

The śrāvakas may also practise the above six commandments which are expected to be practised by the Jain sages. Out of these 6 commandments, 4 are present in the background of pūjā/worship.

Ācāryas have been producing from time immemorial that pūjā is the compulsory duty of the śrāvaka. The life of a person who fails to see in his mind, to worship and to sing in praise of Jinēndra Bhagavān, is useless and not worth living.

Śrī Padmanandi Ācārya says:

Śrāvaka should rise early, offer prayer to Jinēndra with devotion, has to have darśanam of Nirgrantha and pay respects and then engage himself in *dharmaśravaṇa*. (Jinēndrakŏśa Bhaga-3)

Pūjā/worship is a form of showing reverence in the action manner. Jinasēnācārya says that "Yāga, Yagna, kratu, pūjā, saparya, ijyā, adhvara, makha and maha" are corresponding names indicating modes of pūjā.

"yāgo yagnaḥ, kratuḥ, pūjā saparyējyādhvarō makaḥ : maha ityapi paryāya vachanānyarchana vidhēḥ : "

(Mahāpurāṇa - 88.113)

The processes of worship are: praying by bringing together both the palms, prostrating in a bent posture, offering pancanga and aṣṭānga prayers, praising the greatness of God, offering costly and fine articles and performing abhiṣēka.

"caru-bali-puṣpa-phala-gandha-dhūpa-dīpadīhi laid down in Dhavalagrantha that by offering caru, bali puṣpa, phala, gandha, dhūpa and dīpa one expresses one's devotion to God and it is real pūjā.

If devotion is the attainment of mental stage, pūjā is the force that actuates that attainment.

In Jainism there are two modes of worship, viz, pūjā with articles and mental pūjā -i.e. 'dravya pūjā and bhāva pūjā'. Praying to God with 'trikaraṇa śuddhi' (i. e., to be clean in mind, body and act) by way of praising Him is Bhāva pūjā and this is assigned to Munis or sages who lead a very austere life. But that does not mean that śrāvakas are not expected to perform bhāvapūjā. As śrāvaka dharma leval goes on rising higher and higher, mind will be inclined towards bhāva pūjā instead of towards dravya pūjā. Dravya pūjā consists of offering sacred and clean articles i.e, by offering 'aṣṭa Dravya', viz, water, gandha, akṣata, flower caru, dīpa, dhūpa and fruits. The munis shun this dravya pūjā on the ground that dravya contains living beings in their minute form and by offering the same, it causes himsā and destruction of life.

Occasions of worship are of two kinds: Nitya pūjā and Naimittika pūjā. Worship performed daily is called 'nitya pūjā' and worship performed on special occasions paying owes and oaths is called 'naimittika pūjā.

Regarding modes of worship Jinasēnācārya says:

"prŏktā pūjārhatāmijyā sā caturthā sadārcanam : caturmukhaḥ kalpadrumaś cāṣṭāhnikēpi ca : :

The mode of worship of 'Arhanta is called 'ījyā' which consists of four means, viz, Nityamaha, Caturmukha maha, Kalpadruma maha and Astāhnika maha.

Every day the Śrāvakas offer worship in the Basadi to Jinēndra with eight fine articles like water, gandha, etc and it is called 'Nitya pūjā'. This is also termed as 'Sadārcana'. 'Nitya maha' is woship wherein the devotec builds basadi and installs the image of Arhanta by way of gifting village or land, giving Dāna with one's ability and capacity and also worshipping the great sages. The 'mahāyajña' performed by kings is 'Caturmukha/Sarvatŏbhadra Yajña'. Giving Dāna and satisfying the needs and desires of all through rulers and kings is called kalpadruma yajña . Worship performed by Dēvēndra and other Dēvas is called 'Indra Dhvaja Yajña'. These modes of worship are performed on particular days like 'aṣṭāhnika' in token thereof.

The modes of pūjā, i. e, the process of worship takes a specific and regular shape on the basis of the points: whom should one worship? With what should one worship? When should one perform pūjā?

In Jainism worship is offered first to the Arhantas/24

Tīrthankaras. Arhantas are those who have conquered all mundane desires and bodily joys and comforts and thus become the enlightened. They are gratified in preaching this divine path to other living beings. Therefore first pūjā has to be offered to them. They are 'Arhantas' because they are entitled for the first pūjā: 'Viśēṣa Pūjātiśayatvādarhantah'. Even among Pañca Paramēṣṭhis, i. c., Arhantas, Siddhas, Ācāryas, Upādhyāyas, Sādhus, they are the first to be worshipped. Arhantas are those who have conquered 'ghātikarma' while Siddhas are those who have conquered both 'ghāti and aghātis' karmas. The former, too, have conquered aghāti karma and become the Siddhas. Those who attain 'Tīrthankara nāma karma bandha' only become 'Arhantas'. In the absence of punya viśēṣa, with the destruction of karma the sages attain the state of Siddhas. At various stages and bases of Ratnatraya worship (three jewels) of the Sages, Ācāryas, Upādhyāyas and Sādhus who are the worshippers of 'ratnatraya' and who lead a very austere life, become Sādhakas when they conquer desires. Therefore all these deserve pūjā. Arhantas/Tīrthankaras deserve first pūjā in the worship of Nava Devatās (Nine Dieties). The Nava Devatā community consists of Jinadharma, Jaināgama, Jinacaitya' (image), and Caityālayas in addition to panca Paramēṣṭhī. In the Kēvalins special pūjā is offered separately to Bāhubali. Besides the Ganadharas and Śrutadēvas are also worshipped.

Apart from those mentioned above the Yakṣas and Yakṣiṇ̄s who play their role in protecting Dharma and its propagation, are also worshipped. Names of Jina Śāṣana Deva-Devīs are found corresponding to each Tīrthaṅkara. In all 24 Yakṣas and 24 Yakṣīs are famous with reference to Tīrthaṅkaras. Chief among them are: Yakṣa-Yakṣīs of Pārśvanātha Tīrthaṅkara are: Dharanendra-Padmāvnatī, Yakṣa-Yakṣīs of Nēminātha Tīrthaṅkara are: Sarvānha Yakṣa and Kuṣmāṇḍini Yakṣī, Yakṣī of Chandraprabha Tīrthaṅkara is Jvālāmālinī, Yakṣī of Śreyāṃsa Tīrthaṅkara is Gouri (Yakṣa is īśvara). All these are offered special pūjā. These Yakṣa and Yakṣīs are installed in the basadis, especially of Dharanendra and Padmāvatī. These Yakṣa and Yakṣī are worshipped for the reason that they are devotees of Jina, render service to Jina and are the protectors of Jainism.

Śāsana Deva-Devīs are not worshipped on a par with Arhanta. If done so, it will be detrimental to Samyaktva. They are worshipped only for the sake of Vātsalyānga. Even the *munis* bless them out of Vātsalyānga for them. It is said that the *śrāvakas* offer worship to

them. There will be one Sāsana Rakṣaka Deva and Devī (Yakṣa-Yakṣī) for each of the 24 Tīrthaṅkaras. On the pedestal of Vītarāga Bhagavān, the place of these Yakṣa-Yakṣī will be at his feet. At the time of Arhanta Bhagavān preaches or will be present in all the glory, the Yakṣa will appear on the right and the Yakṣī on the left side. As they are Samyagdṛṣṭis of the devotees of Jina they are worshipped.

Those who are empowered to offer pūjā in the Basadis are called Pūjaka or Purohita (Priest).

They should be well-versed in the Āgamas, have self-control and right mindedness. The hymns and ślokas have to be pronounced correctly and clearly. A class of persons who possess certain virtues and attainments and have been trained in that line are the Purohita Class.

Umāsvāti Ācārya, in his work, Śrāvakācāra, states: one who performs pūjā should wear antarīya (dhoti), and uttarīya (upper cloth), which should be clean white cloth, He should have a sacred thread (Yajñopavīta) and śikhā (tuff of hair in his head,) The śrāvaka and śrāvakī sit before the Jina image and participate in eightfold mode of worship (Aṣṭavidhārcana). It is not stated anywhere for the women to touch the Jina bimba and perform pūjā or abhiṣēka. But they are allowed to perform abhiṣēka on the occasion of pañcakalyāṇa mahotsava. It may be noticed that before explaining the mode of daily worship, some points have to be borne in mind about pañcanamaskāra mantra and vandanā:

om namo Arihantāṇam namo Siddhāṇam, namo ayāriyāṇam namo uvajjhāyāṇam namo loye savvasāhunam

This 'pañcamantra' is the primary mantra of the Jains. 'Om' is the bījākṣara mantra which is formed from the first syllable of the pañcaparamēṣṭhi group thus:

a - arihantā= Arihantas aa - śarīrā = Siddhas a - Iriyā = Ācārya vu - vajyayā= Upādhyāya m - mu-nino= Sādhus

Om *mantra* is formed by arranging in order the first syllables of the above five nouns.

The pañcanamaskāra mantra has been revered by all the Jains - by both Digambaras and Svetāmbaras. In all the modes of worship this mantra holds the first place. For the śrāvakas and sages (munis) this is the bījamantra (seed spell)

The 'Mūlārādhanā' scripture which prescribes code of conduct to the *munis*, regarding the *pañcanamaskāra* states :

"The namaskāra mantra is the main mantra of ārādhanā. Worship and prayer should accompany namŏkāra mantra."

It destroys the worldly desires. Therefore have a pure mind and concentrate on worship by the pañcanamaskāra mantra."

'Namaskāra' or 'Vandanā' is of three kinds as per the needs of the mind, words and action. The word 'Namaskāra' exemplifies praising the greatness of Arahanta and other paramēṣṭhis in the mind, singing in praise of their greatness and showing reverence to them by the action of the body.

'manasā guņapariņāmo vācā guņamasaņam capañcāhnam kayēņa sampaņamo ēva payatthŏ namŏkkāro

- Mūlārādhanā - 753)

Five kinds of kāya vandanā have been mentioned:

- * Ekānga vandanā only by bowing the head
- * Dvyanga vandanā by bringing together both the hands
- * Trayānga vandanā by bowing the head and bringing both the hands together.
- * Caturanga vandanā by resting both the knees on the floor and bringing both the hands together.
- * Pañcāṅga vandanā namaskara by using both the knees, both the hands and bowing the head (Anagāra Dharmāmṛta Jainendra Koṣa part 10)

Besides these five types of namaskāra, there is reference to astānga namaskāra and gŏśayana / gavāsana namaskāra.

"hastau pādau śirasoraḥ kapŏla yugalam tathā aṣṭāngāni namaskārē prŏktāni śrī Jināgāme"

both the hands, both the legs, head, chest and both the cheeks--when these eight are made to touch the earth, it is called 'aṣṭānga namaskāra'.

Gŏśayana namaskāra is prescribed especially for munis and women. Gŏśayana or gavāsana namaskāra means, like the cow while it lies down, left leg below and right leg above, by bending the legs in that manner.

Pañcānga and aṣṭānga namaskāra are prescribed for men only. Munis and women are prohibited from performing aṣṭāṅga and pañcāṅga namaskāras.

Generally the śrāvaka finishes his morning functions, takes bath, wears washed cloths, in the pure state of mind, goes to the basadi with water, gandha, flowers etc, in a plate. Standing outside the basadi, offers namaskāra to Bhagavān with devotion, goes round the basadi clockwise and then enters the basadi. Then chants darśanastotra.

"darśnam dēvadēvasya darśanam pāpanāśanam. darśanam svargasŏpānam darśanam mŏkṣasādhanam"

"O God of gods, by the mere *darśana* of you all my sins will be washed away and it paves the way for reaching heaven and attaining *mokṣa*."

Thereafter the śrāvaka prostrates and sits on a wooden seat before the image arranging before him on another wooden seat symbols of pañcaparamēṣṭhī navadēvatas / nandīśvara dvīpa etc. And lays akṣṭa punja. On the akṣṭa he draws a crescent and in the centre one constellation.. In the svastika the 4 parts stand for the four states. The three puñjas above it stand for Ratnatraya. The crescent with the puñja is indicative of mŏkṣa-salvation which is aimed at. With deep devotion he lays down on them fruits and flowers. This mode of meditation is a part of pūjāvidhi. Then counts beads 108 times performing japa of pañca paramēṣṭhī. There are five major forms of worship: Āhvāhana sthāpana, sannidhikarana, pūjana and visarjana. 'Ahvāhana' is invocation to the diety of worship - this is done by holding the palm upwards and bringing the big thumb below other thumbs and chanting 'atra ehi ehi' By downward hastamudrā of āhvāhana, by chanting 'atra svasthānē tistha, tistha......' mantra, the diety is installed.

Thereafter the $\dot{s}r\bar{a}vaka$ brings both the palms in the form of fist with the big thumbs pointing upwards, and chants, 'atra mama sannihito bhava' and does sannidhikarana. After the $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ visarjana process will be performed. $P\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ will be completed by chanting "svasthānam gacchatha". These rituals are called 'pañcopacāra'. This ritual is assigned to the worship of Jinēndra.

The ritual of pūjā commences with *abhiṣeka* and the daily *abhiṣeka* is performed by the purohita. The others will be its viewers. The pūjaka wears 'gandha' on his forehead and assumes himself as Indra. He visualises Indra's *abhiṣēka* in *Janmābhiṣēka kalyāṇa* and also the replica of Jina Bālaka in that Jina image, performs daily wor-

ship and abhiṣēka with water, gandha and milk and finally by performing japa.

Abhiṣēka includes pādya, ācamana and nīrājana. Letting water fall from the spout at the foot of the image is 'pādya'. onto the right hand is 'ācamana and offering bhasma etc, is 'nīrājana'.

After abhiṣēka the purohita dries the image with a clean piece of cloth and then commences the pūjā ritual. Invokes the Tīrthaṅkaras whom he worships and offers them aṣṭadravya. Even the devotees who have joined the congregation, worship the image with aṣṭadravya brought by them from their houses.

Aṣṭavidhārcanā (eightfold worship) commences :

- 1. to overcome birth and death with water
- 2. to get free from worldly desireswith gandha
- 3. to secure akṣaya pada (salvation) with akṣata
- 4. to destroy lust and physical desireswith flowers
- 5. to protect from diseaseswith caru
- 6. to destroy moha which darkens the mindwith dīpa
- 7. to burn aṣṭakarma with dhūpa and
- 8. for attainment of mokṣa (salvation) with fruits

Thus in the background of these ideas the 'aṣṭadravyas' are offered which are indicative and symbolic of the ideas.

In the end all the eight dravyas are collectively offered for attainment of the invaluable in the form of arghya. Finally for the sake of world peace ' śāntyādhāra and for eternal joy puṣpāñjali are offered.

Jinēndra Bhagavān and Gaṇadharas are worshipped first and then the Yakṣa and Yakṣī's are worshipped. In the basadis the installed Yakṣa and Yakṣis are also worshipped. They are offered 'ṣŏḍaśa' upacāra (sixteen-fold worship). But they are not offered the rituals of abhiṣēka.

Şodasopacāra pūjā consists of:

- 1. Āvāhana invoking
- 2. Sthāpanā installing the image
- 3. Sannidhīkaraņa prayer to attain nearness
- 4. Havirdāna offering ghee (clarified butter)
- 5. Arghya offering akṣata, incense, flowers & fruits
- 6. Pādya pouring water through spout on the foot of the divine image
- 7. Gandha offering candana paste

- 8. akṣata worshipping with rice
- 9. puṣpa worshipping with varieties of flowers
- 10. Dīpa illuminating with oil soaked wicks
- 11. Dhūpa offering sandal incense
- 12. Caru offering naivēdya (food)
- 13. Bali a form of worship, i. e., offering *naivēdya* / baked rice etc.
 - 14. Phala offering fresh fruits
- 15. Svastika to inscribe svastika symbol on a plate or wooden plank with sandal or *akṣata* and worship the same.
- 16. Yajña bhāga-sandal, *akṣata* and flowers are wrapped in termeric soaked cloth and offered.

The next procedure of daily worship is *jayamāla*. The 24 Tīrthankaras are praised by songs and after the name of each Tīrthankara, making *jayaghoṣa*-loud praise.

The concluding process is illuminating with ārati to Jinēśvara first, then to the holy Gaṇadharas and finally to the Yakṣa-Yakṣīs. The purōhita (priest) sprinkles worshipped Tīrtha on the heads of devotees assembled in the basadi and offered ārati and blesses the assembly. Usually this is the process and form of morning pūjā. The evening pūjā process must be over before the sunset. After the sunset pūjā in the above be over before the sunset. After the sunset pūjā in the above method is strictly forbidden. Only singing of devotional songs or chanting hymns and community bhajana are conducted.

On the whole the process of daily worship in systematic order is: kāya vandanā. Caitya vandanā by pradakṣiṇa, darśana stuti, akṣata punja, abhiṣēka, aṣṭavidhārcanā and mangalārati. In the course of abhiṣēka and mangalārati, there will be the chiming of the bell.

Apart from daily worship, on special and auspicious occasions pūjā is performed in a grand manner. The special pūjās have their own background:

Caitra suddha trayodaśi-Mahavira jayanti is celebrated all over India and abroad. In basadis people assemble and observe the holy day.

Jyēṣṭha suddha pañcamī is observed as śrutapañcami parva, on which day, it is stated that Bhūtabali Puṣpadanta Ācārya composed Ṣaṭkhaṇḍāgama, reduced it in writing and worshipped with caturvidha saṅgha.

During the period from Bhādrapada suddha pañcamī to caturthī, it is called 'Daśalakṣaṇaparva and special pūjā is offered. On that day discussions will be held on 'Dharma' aspects like Uttama, Kṣama, Mārdava, Ārjava, Sauca, Satya, Samyama, Tapa, Tyāga, Akiñcana and Brahmacarya. The ten chapters of Tattvārtasūtra are recited --one chapter each day for a period of ten days.

Āṣāḍha, Kārttika and Phālguna lunar months witness Aṣṭāhnika parva from śukla pañcamī upto Aṣṭamī. There are 52 caityālayas of different shapes and appearance in Nandīśvara Dvīpa. In these caityālayas special pūjā is offered to the installed images.

In every basadi on the occasion of annual ceremony and on the great occasion of Mahā Mastakābhiṣēka once in 12 years Mahāmastakābhiṣēka is performed to Gommaṭa of Śravaṇabelagola and Gommaṭa of Dharmasthala-special pūjā is performed in a grand manner along with abhiṣēka. In addition to the daily pūjā formalities, pañcāmṛtābhiṣēka will be connducted. In this regard the instructions of Bhaṭṭakalńka samhitā are:

"garbhādi pañcakalyānam arhantām yadvinē bhavēt/ tathā Nandīśvare ratnatraya parvani cārcatām// snapanam kriyatē nānā rasair ṣku ghṛtādi/ tatra gītādi māṅgalyam kālapūjā bhavēr iyam //

While worshipping Jineśvara with pañcakalyaṇa, in Nandīśvara vratārcana, abhiṣēka is conducted with pañcāmṛta, and it will be accompanied by devotional songs, hymns, musical instruments and maṅgalavādya. This idea is found in some śrāvakācāra scriptures also.

Bhaṭṭākalaṅka says that pañcāmṛta consists of water, tender coconut water, milk, curds and ghee. Pūjā offered with these is pañcāmṛtābhiṣēka. In some instances ghee, tender coconut water and cūrṇas are mentioned.

The process of *abhiṣēka* and the ingradients used not only arouse devotion in the devotees but it will also protect the image from hazards of Nature.

In Jain culture there are many occasions when special pūjā is conducted. Also special pūjā is performed on days of vrata-nompi.

In Jain faith worship of 'Yantra' and practising 'Mantra' (spells) became popular in course of time. But these practices were followed only to attain spiritual power and not to acquire destructive powers.

Special pūjā is conducted on special occasions like Siddhacakra Ārādhanā, Catuvinsati Tīrthankara Ārādhanā, Mṛtyunjaya Ārādhana and Kalikunḍala Ārādhanā. On the occasion of Ārādhanā of each 'Yantra-Image, the respective Yantra-Image is installed and worshipped in the same manner as daily pūjā is conducted and the Dieties who come within that range are offered special aṣṭavidhārcana pūjā.

e. g. - the following is the Siddhacakra Ārādhanā principle:

Siddhacakrayantra will have a symbolic cakra (ring) and in the centre of the *cākra karnike* and around it *aṣṭadala* are described. In the nine division, Pancaparamēṣṭhī, Samyag Darśana, jñana, cāritra and tapa-the four *ārādhanās*, will be symbolically identified by chanting hymns. This Yantra is carved on an alloy of copper and silver. It is also described on a plate with *gandha* and also with rice flour.

The purohita performs Siddhacakra Ārādhanā for the welfare and well-being of the devotee. Until the completion of the ārādhanā, the purohita observes 'brahmacarya' and takes only one meal a day.

The Siddhacakrayantra will be placed on a special platform.

The platform-Vēdika will usually be made of wood. Before commencing worship, all the procedures of daily worship will be performed. Abhiṣēka and Pañcāmṛtābhiṣēka of the Tīrtthaṅkaras will be performed with 5 or 9 'kalasas'.

Nandīśvara and pañcamēru will be worshipped. Thereafter takes place worship of Navadēvatā, Gaṇadhara, śruta Dieties. During the course of worship, along with offering *Aṣṭadravya*, 'aralu' (rice flower), almond, raisin, cloves, coconut, etc are offered.

The main chanting (mantra) of this form of worship is: "Om, hrām, hrīm, hrum, hraum, hrahaḥ: a siā 4 sā ya

Anāhata Vidyāya Siddha paramēşthinē hum phat svāhā"

Siddha Ārādhanā will be conducted for nine days. In the end the process of 'visarjana' will take place. This is the end of ārādhanā. Before ārādhanā the purohita and the devotees in whose names the ārādhanā is conducted will have to wear 'kaṅkana' on their wrists and the same will be removed and ārādhanā will be over.

Apart from ārādhanā occasions, special pūjā is performed even on the occasions of 'Nompi'. Nompi special pūjā has to be performed along with daily pūjā process.

After the functions of hastasuddhi, kankanabandhana, darbhāsana, nyāsa, punjakriyā, mangalārati, puṣpānjali and jaladhara,

(it is laid down) that separate pūjā of pañcaparameṣṭhī, worship of main image of the Lord, Navadevatā pūjā, Trikalā Tīrthaņkara community pūjā, pūjā of Nompi diety, Bāhubali svamī pūja, Śrutagaṇadhara pūjā, pūjā of Yakṣa and Yakṣis of Nompi Diety, pūjā of Śāsana Devatās, pūjā of Kṣetrapāla Brahmadeva and others has to be performed accompanied by 'mahārghya, mahāśānti mantra, visarjana with offerings. Ānanta Nompi, Friday nompi, Daśalakṣaṇa nompi, Ṣoḍhaśakaraṇabhāvanā vrata will enable the śrāvaka to maintain purity and austerity of mind and thoughts. These relighious functions are observed in the month of Bhādrapada.

Mode of worship on the occasion of installation: (Pratisthā-pañcakalyāņotsava)

'Pratiṣṭhā' means installing images of Arhanta, Siddha, Upādhyāya, Sarvasādhu, Śrutadevata, Śrutaskanda.lt is not mear image or idol that is installed. In that image or idol, the great powers and virtues of God will be incarnated. Here installation of the image is not in its external form. It is the enshrinement of internal and latent powers and greatness of God. As such the image represents God and hence it is worshipped as God.

On the occasion of installing the images of Jina made of metal or stone in the Basadi, pūjā festival is conducted with 'pañcakalyāṇa' principles. They are: Garbhāvataraṇa kalyāṇa, Janmābhiṣeka kalyāṇa, Dīkṣā kalyāṇa, Kēvala jñāna kalyāṇa and Mŏkṣa kalyāṇa offered symbolically to Tīrthaṅkara Svāmī. In a way on the occasion of pūjā a dramatic atmosphere prevails and pervades. Devotees play the roles of Indra-pratīndra, Aṣṭakannikas and the parents of Jina. They repeat the pūjā festival and its reverence of God at the time of pañcakalyāṇa.

Usually pañcakalyāṇa rituals are performed from 9 to 15 days, or it should be performed at least for 5 days, or if circumstances do not permit, should be performed for 3 days. Festival of 15days is called 'Nyāsa pratiṣṭhā (extended rituals), festival of 5 days is called Madhyama' pratiṣṭhā (rituals concised) and festival of 3 fays is called Saṃkṣipta pratiṣṭhā. (condensed)

In 'Dhvajārŏhaṇa' rituals, Dhvajadaṇḍa is installed through āvāhana, stapana and sannidhīkarana formalities invoking sarvahna Yakṣas and Sarvadhvaja Dieties, chanting hymns. Saṅkalpa is done considering that Dhvajadaṇḍa represents ratnatraya and the Dhvaja is symbolic of kēvalajñāna. All the Gods and Goddesses are invoked so that the pūjā and rituals be performed without any trouble or hindrance.

In the process of Jaladhivāsa pots are filled with water by performing Śānti (peace) rituals. These pots or *kumbhas* are carried on their heads by married women and placed on the platform. With this holy water *Garbhāvataraṇa kalyāṇa pūjā* is performed.

Thereafter the 16 dreams that the mother of Jina will be presented in the form of a ballet. In 'Garbhāvataraṇa' kalyāṇa pūjā, purification of place of worship, formation of 8 petalled lotus, installation of image of Jina Bhagavān, a feeling that Jina is growing in the womb of his mother and covering the image of Jina with cloth, are performed.

In 'Janmābhiṣēka kalyāṇa' pūjā, 'kalaṣa' (pot filled with holy water) is placed on the northern side of the pedestal. The cloth covering the image of Jina is unwrapped and this process is called 'Janmasthāpana'. Then proceed with the ritual of Indrāṇī handing over Jina, the boy to Indra. Then follow abhiṣēka, aṣṭavidhārcana and ārati. In 'Dīkṣā kalyāṇa' pūjā, the angels (Dēvatās) carry the Lord in a palanquin, who has renounced the world. Further ārati, aṣṭavidhārcana, pūjā and ārati are offered with four lighted lamps, representing that Jina is the Enlightened in four ways.

In 'Kēvala jñāna kalyāṇa' pūjā, Maṇḍala pūjā is performed in detail. The image is installed on the throne before the *maṇḍala*. Then perform āhvāna (invoking) inscribe 'mantrākṣaras', exemplifying the greatness of Bhagavān and smear the body of Jina with sandal paste. Thereafter perform rituals like arghya, puṣpāñjali, ṣāntidhārā, sahasranāma stuti.

In 'Nirvāṇa kalyāṇa' pūjā, Jina's image will be installed on the throne. It will be assumed that Bhagavān Jina is in the posture of preaching. After the festival abhiṣēka will be performed from 108 kumbhas (pots containing holy water.) After siddhāṣṭa guṇa lēpana and Siddha pūjā and abhiṣēka, sarvadeva pūjā and visarjana rituals are conducted. Thus this pañcakalyāṇa ritual performed in the most grand and jubilant manner creates a legendary and spiritual atmosphere among the devotees assembled.

While performing śāntihŏma, some people construcț 'agni hŏma kuṇḍa with rice flour.

There are two major forms of homa, viz Śāntikā Homa and Pauṣṭikā Homa. Śāntikā Homa is performed for fulfilment of happiness in life and protection against and relief from difficulties and troubles. Pauṣṭikā homa is performed for attainment of salvation (mokṣa) and eternal joy in after life. The procedure of śānti homa consists in

offering annāhuti, samidhāhuti, ājyāhuti, lavangāhuti, and pūrņāhuti while pauṣṭikā hŏma consists in ājyāhuti, samudāhuti, lavangāhuti, annāhuti and puṇyāhuti thought the number of offerings differs, the purpose of both the hŏma rituals is similar.

"Agni Pūjā" is the concept which has come down from the early man. Early man considered Agni as the form of śakti or power. This concept continued and according to each religious belief and process, agni might have become a diety of worship. In Indian mythology and classics one finds many occasions where man has considered agni as holy, divine and beneficent.

The concept of agni in Jain scriptures can be visualised and understood from some agni stuti (Pratiṣṭhātilaka composed by Śrī Nemicandra).

"I sing in praise of Agni who is the embodiment and symbol of *ratnatrayasankalpa* which helps to mŏkṣa and reach Heaven.

"I prostrate before Agni who emanated from the mind of Agnīndra who are praised and reverenced after the *nirvāṇa* of Tīrthaṅkaras and who steers the boat of life and helps me to free myself from mundane shackles."

"I bow with reverence to Dakṣiṇāgni, i, e, agni who burns the physical bodies of Kēvalis who have destroyed karına through dhyāna and adhyayana."

"I bow with reverence before Āhavanīya Agni who burnt to ashes the physical bodies of Gaṇadharas through various Yama-Niyama forms of Agni".

From the above the concept of Agni among Jain community is clear and explicit.

There is Sańkalpa pratiṣṭhāpana of ratnatraya in Agni. There is right vision, right knowledge and right conduct in the setting up of hōma kuṇḍas. Apart from this agnikuṇḍa is considered holy and sacred on the belief that it is the power/śakti which has burnt the physical bodies of arahantas, gaṇadharas and sāmānya kevalis. Ratnatrayas destroy the evils of karma and these agnikuṇḍas are believed to be symbolic of the same.

Agni is considered to be the force or śakti which destroys the evils of *karına* and also the physical body.

It appears that Homa ritual among the Jains was widely practised during the life time of *ācarya* Jinasēna. It was prevalent that the purohitas performed Yajña-Yāgas for the welfare and prosperity of

kings and they were honoured and respected by kings. As such even the Jain purohitas, to secure honour and respect had to seek the practice of performing yajña-yāga and śānti hŏmas. It appears that Jinasenācārya provided the background for these rituals. Ācārya seems to have formed a bridge between religious acts and deeds and trend of the times.

To sum up, "Pūjā" is a complex matter. Many facts are inherent in pūjā. First of all, the person who worships should be orthodox/āstika. He should have firm belief in spirituality. Right minded belief in Jainism is called "Samyag Darśana". Worship/pūjā is not merely a social process, but it is also having spiritual backgroud.

Pūjā process, in fact, embodies worship of image. It is symbolic. It is the basis to realise and visualise ephemeral factors by means of terrestrial factors. It helps to develop concentration of mind.

The modes of pūjā and process create a uniform discipline of mind and body. They also contain logical and systematised knowledge and reasoning.

Even though pūjā process and rituals are performed in the course of daily life seem to be 'pravṛttikriyā their ultimate aim is to attain salvation 'Nivrtti'.

BOOK REVIEWS

Nagin J. Shah. *Essays in Indian Philosophy*. Sanskrit-Sanskriti Granthamālā 6, Ahmedabad, 1998. Pages 152. Rs. 120.00

Nagin J. Shah. *Jainadarśana mein Śraddhā (Samyagdarśana)*, *Matijñāna aur Kevalajñāna ki Vibhāvana*. Saṃskṛta-Saṃskṛti Granthamālā 8, Ahmedabad, 2000. Pages [8] + 64 + index. Rs. 50.00.

The author of the two works under review needs no introduction. His contributions to the study of the various schools of Indian philosophy have been widely acclaimed by scholars both home and abroad. His translation of Jayantabhaṭṭa's Nyāyamañjarī (āhnika-s 1-9) into Gujarati is perhaps the only rendering of the work available in any modern Indian (or European) language. The scholarly world is also indebted to him for discovering and bringing out the editio princeps of Cakradhara's Nyāyamañjarī-granthibhaṅga, the only known commentary on the work, and his three-volume study on it in English. He is a prolific writer both in English and Gujarati. His recently published works are welcome to all who are interested in different aspects of Indian philosophy in general and Jainism in particular.

The first book, as the title says, is a collection of articles on various aspects of Indian philosophy, not merely Jainism. Shah as usual invites the reader to accompany him to such exciting areas as the nature of time and the Jain conception of space which will be of immense interest to the enquirers in the philosophy of science. He also deals with some much discussed matters but does so from an original point of view (e.g., the essays on the conception of Īśvara in the Pātanjala Yoga and the early Nyāya-Vaiśeṣika schools). Other studies are concerned with *nirvāṇa*, problems of *jñānadarśana* and Dharmakīrti's theory of knowledge. The last two essays are on logic - the question of *vyāpti* and the Jain approach to testimony as an instrument of knowledge.

Shah does not merely summarize the views of ancient philosophers, he scrutinizes them with an open mind and expresses his own opinions quite candidly. For instance, the study, 'Jains on Testimony' ends with the following remark:

All the differences pointed out by the Jain logicians between inference and testimony are trivial and do not make sufficient ground for their view that testimony is a source independent of inference. (pp. 148-49)

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He also cites Akalanka's view that if seperate *pramāṇa-s* are to be conceded on the basis of such trifling differences, there would be innumerable *pramāṇa-s*, and himself concludes by saying: 'This is a healthy attitude and the Jain logicians should have maintained it even in the case of testimony'. We look forward to reading more articles like these.

The Hindi title consists of three lectures originally delivered in Gujarati at Sheth Bholabhai Jesingbhai Adhyayana-Saṃśodhana Vidyāmandira (B.J. Institute of Learning and Research), Ahmedabad as Popatlal Hemchand Adhyātma Vyākhyānamālā (Spiritual Lectures Series). The lectures have already been published in Gujarati. Now they have come out in Hindi, competently translated by Mr. Sanat Kumar Rangatiya.

Within a short span of 64 pages, Shah has dealt with the basic concepts of Comprehensive Vision (*śraddhā* or *samyagdarśana*) and allied themes. He claims *śraddhā* to be synonymous with Buddhist *sammādiṭṭhi*, a suggestion worth pondering.

According to the Jain tradition, precepts learnt from the guru is considered essential for the attainment of Comprehensive Vision, although some exceptional people may attain it without such a nimittakāraņa, 'efficient cause' (p.9). He further points out the similarity between the kṣaṇikavāda (doctrine of momentariness) of the Buddhists and the pratikṣaṇa-pariṇāmavāda of the Jains: both denote universal flux and continuous changes of all beings (p.13). He wants to disabuse us of the notion that the Buddhists are anātmavādins (followers of the no-soul doctrine) while the Jains are ātmavādins. He considers such a notion to be both faulty and misleading. The Jains are as much anātmavādins as the Buddhists. Citta is but a namesake of ātman and jīva. He agrees with Heinrich Zimmer that the theory of karmic colour is not particular to the Jains, but seems to have been a part of the common pre-Aryan inheritance that was preserved in the Magadhan region (p.15).

In his study of mahājñāna (lit. great knowledge) Shah speaks of a peculiarity of the Sanskrit language. Anyone endowed with the capacity of suggesting the etymology of a word can bring out any meaning he desires, whether or not such a meaning is attested in the lexicons. In fact, there is a work called Śatārthī in Sanskrit which provides no fewer than a hundred interpretations of a single śloka (stanza), as the title signifies (p.35). Shah finds it odd that vyañjana (which

simply means 'word') has been taken to mean *indriyārthasannikarṣa* (the contact between the senses and objects). This explanation was suggested by the well-known Jain savant, Siddhasena Gaṇi (p.35). However, in the Jain tradition, wherever the two words, *vyañjana* and *artha*, are juxtaposed, they mean 'word' and 'meaning' respectively. He cites from Siddhasena's own work, his commentary on the *Tattvārthasūtra* (1.35), in support of his contention.

Shah then describes the marks of the instruments of valid knowledge (pramāṇalakṣaṇa) and explains all the indirect (parokṣa) means, such as sense-perception (indrivapratyakṣa), memory (smriti), recognition (pratyabhijñā), and inference (tarka). He also interprets how in Jain logical studies anumāna (inference) is divided into three kinds on the basis of the temporal factor --- atīta, vartamāna and anāgata-grāliī, i.e., relating to the past, present and future. This is in addition to, not a replacement of, the three (common) distinct varieties mentioned in the Nyāyasūtra (1.1.5), viz. pūrvavat, śesavat and sāmānyatodrsta, i. e., having the antecedent as the probans, having the consequent as the probans and inference based on general observation. The only difference is that the last one is called drstasādharmvavat in the Anuyoga-dvārasūtra. Shah notices that Siddhasena Divākara was the first Jain philosopher to deal with anumana and it was left to Akalanka to give it a more matured form (p. 41). This section ends with the marks of *hetu* and other related issues (pp. 43-44).

The third lecture is devoted to the problem of Pure Knowledge (kevalajñāna) and the problem of omniscience. Shah refers to the pre-Buddhist, Buddhist and Nyāya-Vaiśeṣika traditions in this regard. Unlike the Buddhists, the Jains do not impose omniscience on Mahāvīra (pp. 59-60) but consider Pure Knowledge to be one with disinterested knowledge, free from any desire, etc. He suggests that the term, kevalajñāna should be taken to mean specifically the knowledge of the self and dharma (p. 52).

The monograph is an important contribution to the understanding of Jainism which, to most of the students of Indian philosophy, unfortunately begins and ends with *syādvāda* and *anekāntavāda*. Shah takes the the reader to unexplored areas and presents his findings with perfect lucidity for which he deserves our thanks.

Ramkrishna Bhattacharya

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Leśyā-kośa (Vol-II) - compiled and edited by Mohan Lal Banthia and Śricand Corariya, Jain Darśana Samiti, 16C Dover Lane, Kolkata-700 029, 2001, pp 160+576, price Rs. 150.00.

The world of Jainism has become very much rich by the publication of the Cyclopaedia of Leśyā (= Leśyā-kośa)-Vol-II compiled and edited by Mohan Lal Banthia and Śricand Corariya. These two editors have not practically left out anything relating to the topic of Leśyā. The Leśyā-kośa is divided into several sections as far as 99 and sub-divided into several other decimal points. Each point is well-documented. The methodology of the book is praise-worthy. All the topics are systematically arranged. These two editors have made several other Cyclopaedias on Mahāvīra, on Yoga and on Kriyā and Pudgala. Each one is unique by itself and will render good service to the cause of comparative religion and Jainistic studies.

The paper and printing of the book are well-executed. This book is well-bound. I hope this Cyclopaedia of Leśyā will be well-received by the readers of Jainistic Studies.

Satya Ranjan Banerjee.

Śramaņa Bhagavān Mahāvīra - by Pt. Śrīkalyāņa Vijayajī Gaņi, Sāradāben Cimanbhāī Educational Research Centre, Shāhībāg, Ahmedabad-380 004, 2002, price Rs. 200.00

Though innumerable treatises are written on the lives and activities of Lord Vardhamāna Mahāvīra, the present one in Hindi by Pt. Kalyāṇa Vijayajī Gaṇi is a unique contribution to the field of Jaina Hagiology. In his long Introduction (pp. 17-46) the author has explained the purpose of writing such a book for the reading public. The normal accepted time of Lord Mahāvīra is between 599 B.C and 527 B.C. But the author has divided the 42 years' events of Lord Mahāvīra from 500 B.C. to 470 B.C. The book has two parts: Carita-khaṇḍa with three chapters and Pariśiṣṭa-khaṇḍa with six chapters. In the first part the life of Lord Mahāvīra is delineated, while in the next his teachings and sermons are described. The book is fairly documented and can be relied upon. The author has given the names of the places where Mahāvīra visited in connection with his wanderings. I recommend the treatise to the lovers of Jainistic Studies.

Satya Ranjan Bancrjee

Collected Papers on Jaina Studies - edited by Padmanābh S. Jaini with a Foreword by Paul Dundas, Motilal Banarsidass Publishers Private Limited, Delhi, 2000, pp. XVI+ 428, price Rs. 395.00.

The Collected Papers on Jaina Studies written by Padmanābh S. Jaini is a unique acquisition to the world of Jainistic studies. It is a good idea that some of the writings of a scholar like P.S. Jaini are put in one place for the benefit of scholars. It goes without saying that these collected papers will be beneficial to the scholars who have devoted their times to the study of Jainism. Scholars writing different articles at different places are scattered all over the places. It is often very difficult to get them at the time of research. So these twentyone papers of P.S. Jaini will be of immense value for the researchers.

Though all the twentyone articles of P.S. Jaini presented here in this volume might have been read before by many scholars interested in the subject, their conglomeration here in a book form would definitely induce the readers to read them afresh. The book is divided into six sections of which section IV *Some Aspects of Karma Theory* and section V on *Jaina Ethics and Praxis* are very important.

Professor Padmanabh S. Jaini never writes anything without any authenticated documents. The present volume is not an exception to this statement. His arguments are coherent and consistent, his style of writing is lucid and placid, and his methodology is unique and unimitative.

The publisher, Mr. N.P. Jain of Motilal Banarsidass Pvt. Ltd., Delhi, is to be thanked for his enthusiasm in publishing this volume and thereby promoting the study of Jainism. I hope the reading public will welcome this volume seriously.

Satya Ranjan Bancrjee

Nirgrantha (Vol-III. 1997-2002) - edited by M.A. Dhaky and Jitendra B.Shah, Sharadaben Chimanbhai Educational Research Centre, Darshan, Opp. Ranakpun Society, Shahibaug, Ahmedabad-380 004, price Rs. 300.00

The Nirgrantha is a trilingual - English, Hindi and Gujarati research Journal. The Volume III (1997-2002) is a commemorative number dedicated to the sacred memory of Professor Harivallabh Bhayani (1917-2000). All the articles are praiseworthy and reflect serious research works. There are thirtyfour papers, each one is excellent; and the proof-reading is faultless. The two editors are to be congratulated for their meticulous work exhibited in this Journal. I recommend the Journal to all the lovers of Jainistic studies.

Satya Ranjan Banerjee

Some Important Books on Jainism

An Encyclopaedia of Jainism - by P.C Nahar and K.C. Ghosh, Sri Satguru Publishers, Delhi,1988.

[It is a reprint of P.C. Nahar and K.C. Ghosh's book *An Epitome of Jainism*, Calcutta, 1917. It is a book on a critical study of its Metaphysics, Ethics, and History etc. in relation to modern thought. The publisher has changed the title of the book.]

Arādhanā-prakaraṇa of Soma Sūri - edited by Jinendra Jain and Satyanārāyaṇa Bhāradvāja, Jaina Adhyayana Evain Siddhanta-Sodha-Sainsthāna, Jabalpur, Madhya Pradesha, 2002, pp. VIII+59, price Rs. 75.00.

Samkhitta-Tarangavaī-kahā - text edited by H.C. Bhayani with Gujarati translation, L.D. Institute of Indology, Ahmedabad, 1979, price Rs. 60.00.

It is an abridged version of Pādalipta's *Tarangavaī* (1st century Λ.D.) by an

anonymous author (10th century A.D.)

First Steps of Jainism - by Sancheti Asoolal and Bhandari Manak Mal, Motilal Banarsidass Publication Pvt. Ltd., Delhi, 2002, pp. 153, price Rs. 400.00

Jain Temples in India and around the world - by L.M. Singhvi with photograph by Tarun Chopra, Motilal Banarsidass Publication Pvt. Ltd., Delhi, 2002, 184 photos, price Rs. 2500.00.

Mahāvīra: His life and Teachings - by Bimala Churn Law, Kolkata,

2002, p. 211, price Rs. 200.00

Jaina Rāmāyaṇa Paümacariu of Svayambhū - an English translation of Svayambhū's Paümacariu in Apabhraṃsa, B.R.Publishing Corporation, 110039[A Divisoon of BRCP India Ltd]. Delhi, 2002, pp.i-xxiii+380.

Vilāsavaī-kahā of Sadhāraṇa - text edited by R.M. Shah with a Foreword by Nagin J. Shah, L.D. Institute of Indology, Ahmedabad, 1977, price Rs. 75.00

[Sādhāraṇa has got the story of the *Vilāsavaī-kahā* from Haribhadra Sūri's (705-775 A.D.) *Samarāicca-kahā* (Bhava V) and the story was composed in 1066 A.D.]

Siri Paumappahasāmi-cariyam of Siri Devasūri - text edited by Rupendra Kumar Pagaria, L.D. Institute of Indology, Ahmedabad, 1995, price Rs. 250.00

[The text is the life-story of the Tīrthankara Padmaprabhasvāmī and is written in Prakrit interspersed with Sanskrit and Apabhramśa. The text reveals lots of socio-

religious and cultural life of that period.]

Jaina Theory of Multiple Facets of Reality and Truth (Anekāntavāda) - by Nagin J. Shah, Bhogilal Leherchand Institute of Indology, Delhi, 2000, price Rs. 200.00.

The book deals with the theory of anekäntaväda which means that reality is

manifold and it has manysided aspects.]

Jaina Philosophy and Religion - by Nagin J. Shah, Bhogilal Leherchand Institute of Indology, Delhi, 1998, price Rs. 450.00.

[It is an English translation from the original Gujarati work *Jaina Darśana* by Muni Shri Nyāyavijayaji (1890-1970). The work reveals the mastery of Jain philosophical and religious thought. It is a very reliable book on Jain religion and philosophy.]

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